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A NEW

SYSTEM

OF

GEOGRAPHY:

OR,

A General Deſcription of the World.

CONTAINING

A Particular and Circumſtantial ACCOUNT of all the COUNTRIES, KINGDOMS, and STATES of

EUROPE, ASIA, AFRICA, and AMERICA.

Their Situation, Climate, Mountains, Seas, Rivers, Lakes, &c.

The Religion, Manners, Cuſtoms, Manufactures, Trade, and Buildings of the Inhabitants.

WITH

The Birds, Beaſts, Reptiles, Inſects, the various Vegetables, and Minerals, found in different REGIONS.

EMBELLISHED WITH

A New and Accurate Set of MAPS, by the beſt GEOGRAPHERS;

And Great Variety of COPPER-PLATES, containing PERSPECTIVE VIEWS of the Principal Cities, Structures, Ruins, &c.

By D. FENNING,

(Author of the Royal Engliſh Dictionary, the Uſe of the Globes, the Young Algebraiſt's Companion, &c.)

J. COLLYER,

(Author of the Letters from Felicia to Charlotte; and Tranſlator of the Meſſiah, from the German of Mr. Klopſtock.)

AND OTHERS.

There is not a Son or a Daughter of Adam but has ſome Concern in GEOGRAPHY. Dr. WATTS.

VOL. II.

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MDCCLXV.

A

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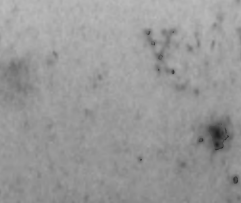

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A New & Accurate MAP of EUROPE, from the Sieur Robert's ATLAS, with Improvements

NORTHERN OCEAN
Arctic Circle
Iceland
Faro Is.
Shetland Is.
Orkney Is.
Western Isles
WESTERN OCEAN
IRELAND
Dublin
NORTH SEA or GERMAN OCEAN
Edinburgh
Bergen
Stockholm
Finland
SWEDEN
DENMARK
RUSSIA
White Sea
Petersburg
Moscow
Archangel
Kazan
Astrakan
Tobolsk
Tornea
Meron
Kandalax
Kola
Kemi
Uleo
Torneo
Lapland
Hernosand
Upsal
Calmar
Carlscrona
Gothland
Dantzic
PRUSSIA
POLAND
GERMANY
Berlin
Breslau
Leipsic
Dresden
Konigsberg
Memel
Warsaw
Vienna
Prague
Presburg
HUNGARY
SWITZERLAND
FRANCE
Paris
Rouen
Calais
Dieppe
Nantes
Rochelle
Bordeaux
Lyons
Geneva
Turin
Milan
Venice
Trieste
Corfica
Minorca
Majorca
Sardinia
Naples
Sicily
Malta
MEDITERRANEAN SEA
BAY OF BISCAY
OCEAN
SPAIN
PORTUGAL
Madrid
Lisbon
Tagus
Gibraltar
Barbary
Algiers
Tunis
Fez
Morocco
Tripoli
Egypt
Candia
Cyprus
Rhodes
Aleppo
Jerusalem
Damascus
Sidon
Tyre
Acre
Gaza
Alexandria
Grand Cairo
Nile R.
Red Sea
Mecca
Medina
Arabia
TURKEY IN EUROPE
TURKEY IN ASIA
BLACK SEA
Constantinople
Adrianople
Natolia
Smyrna
Ephesus
Natolia
Caramania
Armenia
Georgia
Circassia
Derbent
CASPIAN SEA
LITTLE TARTARY
Astrakan
Ural
Volga R.
Don R.
Kuban R.
Euphrates R.
Tigris R.
Persian Gulf
Ormus
Bassora
Babylon
Bagdat
Diarbeck
Mesopotamia
Curdistan
Ispahan
Persia
Kerman
Candahar
Mecran
Indian Sea
Ocean
Tartary
Siberia
Obi R.
Irtish R.
Tobolsk
Tara
Tomsko
Kolyvan
Kuznetsk
Jenisea R.
Jenisea
Yenisea
Lena R.
Yakutsk
Yakutsk
Kamtschatka
Kamtschatka R.
Anadir R.
Anadirsk
Anadir
Penjinsk
Penjinsk R.
Ochotsk
Ochotsk Sea
Japan Is.
Japan
Yedo
Meaco
Corea
Corea Is.
Pekin
China
Nankin
Canton
Macao
Formosa
Formosa Is.
Philippine Is.
Manilla
Borneo
Java
Sumatra
Malacca
Pegu
Ava
Siam
Bengal
Bay of Bengal
Ganges R.
Delhi
Agra
Lahore
Cambaya
Surat
Goa
Malabar
Coromandel
Cape Comorin
Ceylon
Madura
Pondicherry
Golconda
Visapour
Decan
Malabar Coast
Arabian Sea
Mocha
Aden
Abyssinia
Nubia
Sennaar
Nile R.
Dongola
Upper Egypt
Lower Egypt
Grand Cairo
Alexandria
Nile R.
Abyssinia
Mountains of the Moon
Nubia
Sennaar

A NEW SYSTEM OF GEOGRAPHY.

BOOK III.

Of EUROPE in general.

THIS part of the globe was called Europa by the Romans, as it is ſtill by the Spaniards and Italians, and Europe by the Engliſh and French; but the Turks give it the name of Alfrank, or Rumeli, the Georgians of Aſia call it Frankoba, and the reſt of the people of Aſia give it the name of Frankiſtan. It is bounded on the north by the Frozen ſea; on the eaſt by Aſia, from which it is parted by the Archipelago, the Euxine or Black ſea, and the Palus Mæotis, and thence by a line drawn from the river Tanais, or Don, almoſt to the river Oby; on the ſouth by the Mediterranean ſea, which divides it from Africa; and on the weſt by the Atlantic Ocean.

This grand diviſion of the earth is ſituated between the tenth degree weſt, and the ſixty-fifth degree eaſt longitude from London, and between the thirty-ſixth and ſeventy-ſecond degrees of north latitude, extending three thouſand miles in length, and two thouſand five hundred in breadth.

Though Europe is the leaſt of the four parts into which the earth is divided, it enjoys many advantages. No part of it is in the torrid zone; and though ſome countries to the north partake of the coldeſt climate, yet the greateſt part of this diviſion enjoys a mild air, and great fertility of ſoil. It has a multitude of navigable rivers, and abounds in corn, cattle, wine, and oil, at once poſſeſſing all the neceſſaries and moſt of the luxuries of human life.

Europe has for many ages been exceeding populous, and her inhabitants are diſtinguiſhed by their valour, wiſdom, and virtue; the excellence of their governments, the equity of their laws, the freedom of the ſubjects, and for the purity and ſanctity of their religion.

The Europeans have been the moſt celebrated for learning and arts. All the ſcholaſtic ſciences are here brought to much greater perfection than ever they were carried by the Aſiatics and Africans; and the invention and improvement of numberleſs uſeful and ingenious arts, particularly that of navigation, on which the intercourſe with foreign nations, and all the advantages of commerce depends, is entirely owing to the genius and induſtry of the inhabitants of this part of the earth.

The Chriſtian religion is eſtabliſhed throughout every part of Europe, except Turky; but, from the various capacities of the human mind, and the different lights in which ſpeculative opinions are apt to appear when viewed by perſons of different education and paſſions, that religion is divided into a number of different ſects. In Ruſſia, ſome parts of Poland, in Walachia, Moldavia, Podolia, Volhinia, and Greece, the doctrine of the eaſtern or Greek church is eſtabliſhed. In Italy, part of Swiſſerland, Spain, Portugal, France, Poland, part of Germany, and the Netherlands, the inhabitants ſtill follow the doctrines of the church of Rome; while Great Britain, Ireland, Denwark, Sweden, Norway, great part of Germany, the United Provinces, and part of Switzerland, have embraced the doctrines of the Reformation, and profeſs the Proteſtant religion.

The languages of Europe are derived from the ſix following: the Greek, Latin, Teutonic, or Old German, the Celtic, Sclavonic, and Gothic. From the different dialects and intermixtures of theſe, are formed the languages of the moſt conſiderable parts of Europe, except that of Turky and Tartary.

The principal ſovereignties, beginning at the eaſt, are the empires of Turky, Ruſſia, and Germany.

The kingdoms of Poland, Hungary, Bohemia, Pruſſia, Sweden, Denmark, Naples and Sicily, Sardinia, France, Spain, Portugal, Great Britain and Ireland.

The popedom of Rome.

The republics of Venice, Genoa, Lucca, the Griſons, St. Marino, Swiſſerland, Geneva, Raguſa, and the United Provinces.

Beſides theſe there are the electorates of Germany, and near three hundred other ſovereignties in Germany, Italy, &c. whoſe profeſſors are either ſpiritual, as archbiſhops and biſhops, or temporal, as princes, landgraves, dukes, marquiſſes, counts, &c.

Beſides theſe there are the Cham of European Tartary, the hoſpodars of Walachia, Moldavia, &c.

The principal iſlands, beginning at the eaſt, are Candia, and thoſe of the Archipelago.

Thoſe in the Adriatic and Ionian ſea, viz. Leucadia, which belongs to the Turks and Lieſiena, Corfu, Cephalonia, and Zant, which are ſubject to Venice.

In the Mediterranean ſea are Sicily, ſubject to the king of Naples; Sardinia, ſubject to the king of Sardinia; Corſica, ſubject to Genoa; Minorca, to Great Britain; Majorca and Ivica, to Spain.

The iſlands in the Baltic ſea are Uſedom and Wollin, ſubject to Pruſſia; Oſel and Dagho, ſubject to Ruſſia; Gothland, Aland, and Rugen, which belong to Sweden; and Zealand, Funen, Alſen, Longland, Laland, Falſter, Mona, and Bornholm, ſubject to Denmark.

In the North ſea is Iceland, ſubject to Denmark.

And farther to the ſouth are Great Britain and Ireland, with the adjacent iſlands, ſubject to his Britannic majeſty.

CHAP.

CHAP. I.

Of TURKY in EUROPE.

SECT. I.

Its Boundaries, Climate, Diviſions, Seas, Straights, and Rivers.

TURKY in Europe, a part of the antient Chriſtian empire of the Eaſt, is at preſent bounded on the north by Croatia, Sclavonia, and Tranſylvania; on the eaſt by Poland, Ruſſia, and Aſia; on the ſouth by the Mediterranean ſea; and on the weſt by the Adriatic and Dalmatia. The extent is not to be aſcertained with any preciſion.

The air of Turky in Europe is in itſelf healthy, but the peſtilence is often brought there from Egypt and the neighbouring countries, and has ſeveral times ſwept away above one-fifth of the inhabitants of Conſtantinople; yet from the prevalence of cuſtom, and of the Turkiſh doctrine of fatality, they give themſelves no great concern about it. The provinces are univerſally fruitful, though with ſome difference; whence agriculture and grazing turn to great profit there, prodigious quantities of all kinds of excellent grain and fruit being annually exported. But of this we ſhall give a particular account in the ſeparate deſcription of each province, only it may be neceſſary to add here, that all the neceſſaries of life are equally good and cheap in Turky.

It contains the following provinces: to the ſouth are the Morea, or Peloponneſus, Achaia, Theſſaly, Epirus, Albania, and Macedonia; and towards the north, Romania, Bulgaria, Beſſarabia, part of Podolia, Servia, part of Hungary, part of Croatia, Boſnia, and part of Dalmatia.

Its ſeas are the Euxine or Black ſea, the Palus Mæotis, the ſea of Marmora, the Archipelago, the Ionian ſea, and the Levant.

Its ſtraights are thoſe of the Helleſpont and the Boſphorus.

The chief rivers of Turky in Europe are the Save, the Danube, the Nieſter, the Nieper, the Don, and the Theis.

SECT. II.

Of the Inhabitants of Turky in Europe, with a more particular Account of the European Turks and Greeks.

WE have already given a very particular account of the perſons, dreſs, manners, and cuſtoms of the Turks, in treating of Turky in Aſia, ſee vol. I. from page 265 to 273; and as the Turks are every where the ſame, we ſhall here be very concife, and ſhall only add ſome particulars which were there ſlightly touched upon, and a ſhort ſummary of ſome of the moſt conſiderable circumſtances relating to that people.

The number of its inhabitants has not the leaſt proportion to the extent and fertility of the country, which may be chiefly attributed to peſtilence, polygamy, war, and the avarice of the governors.

The inhabitants conſiſt of various nations, as Turks, Greeks, Armenians, Servians, Boſnians, Bulgarians, Walachians, and Tartars; with a conſiderable number of Jews, eſpecially in Conſtantinople and Sclavonia.

The Turks are ſtigmatized by the Chriſtians as a ſlothful and inhuman people; but they are far from being ſo wicked and dreadful a ſet of creatures as popiſh writers have endeavoured to repreſent them. Turky is not without men of parts, probity, and honour; and has many benevolent, liberal, temperate, converſible, and ingenious people. In ſhort, there is here, as in all other countries, a mixture of good and bad. Driceſch maintains, that in compaſſion and love towards their neighbours, the Turks excel all the reſt of mankind; and this aſſertion is confirmed by ſeveral other travellers.

One remarkable inſtance of their charity may be ſeen in their hans, called by the Aſiatics caravanſeras, which are to be found in almoſt every little village. In theſe a traveller, of whatever religion or country, may continue three days gratis, and in many of them he is alſo found in victuals. The Turks are very fond of erecting theſe buildings, which they juſtly eſteem a work of charity acceptable to the Moſt High. They behave very commendably to their ſlaves and ſervants, and frequently better than the Chriſtians do to theirs. Indeed, in the firſt years of their ſervitude, theſe people ſuffer moſt, eſpecially if young, the Turks endeavouring, partly by blandiſhments, and partly by ſeverity, to bring them over to their religion; but theſe trials being happily over, captivity is no where more tolerable; ſo that if a ſervant underſtands any art or trade, the only thing he can want is his freedom, he being well ſupplied with every thing elſe.

The Turks are generally robuſt and well-ſhaped, of a good mien, and patient under hardſhips, which renders them fit for war, to which they early inure themſelves. Perſons of rank ſeldom train up their children to any other employment, from the opinion that no glory is comparable to that acquired in war.

They are very particular in their dreſs, manner of living, and cuſtoms. They ſhave their heads, but wear long beards, of which they are extremely careful; except thoſe in the ſeraglio, and military men, who wear only whiſkers. The turban, or Turkiſh band, worn by the men is white, and conſiſts of long pieces of thin linen made up together in ſeveral folds; and none but a Turk muſt preſume to wear a white turban. Their clothes are long and full.

Agreeably to the cuſtom of the orientals, they ſit, eat, and ſleep on the floor on cuſhions, or ſophas, mattreſſes, and carpets. Rice is their general food, and coffee their uſual drink, wine being forbidden.

They ſpend great ſums of money on fountains, and no country affords finer; theſe are not only in the towns, but in the country, and other ſolitary places, for the refreſhment of travellers and labourers.

Their uſual ſalutation is bowing the head a little, laying the right hand on their breaſt; but to perſons of rank they ſtoop ſo low as to touch and kiſs the border of their veſt. In war-time the left hand is the place of honour among military men, but this diſtinction ceaſes in time of peace among the officers of ſtate and relations. The nobility among the Turks are the chief military officers, judges, and eccleſiaſtics. The Turkiſh commonalty enjoy the greateſt liberty, and thoſe only are expoſed to the tickliſh orders of the Porte, which muſt be anſwered with the head, who hold conſiderable poſts.

The Greeks, who are the antient inhabitants of the country, are intermixed with the Turks, and in ſeveral places, particularly the iſlands, out-number them. Even in Conſtantinople alone there are computed to be no leſs than four hundred thouſand. Theſe people are accuſtomed to ſervitude, and prefer living under the exactions of the Turks to the ſpiritual tyranny of the pope; but they are obliged to be very cautious of not giving even the leaſt colour for ſuſpicion of their holding a correſpondence with the enemies of the Ottoman Porte, or of meditating a ſedition. Hence, in caſe of a war with any of the Chriſtian powers, the Turks uſually diſarm them.

All the Greeks, from the age of fourteen, pay annually at the beginning of the Turkiſh feaſt of Bairam a poll-tax of about a ducat; but the eccleſiaſtics are aſſeſſed higher, a deacon paying two ducats; an archimandrite, four;

four; and the biſhops, archbiſhops, and patriarchs, pay large ſums, and as much as the arbitrary avarice of the grand vizier and baſhas think proper to require; for the Turks every where lay hold of all opportunities of extorting money from the Greeks; but eſpecially from their clergy. In return for this tribute, they enjoy the protection of the Ottoman Porte, and are maintained in the quiet poſſeſſion of their properties; ſo that no Turk is to inſult them, take their property, or intrude themſelves into their houſes againſt their will; and, in any of theſe caſes, they are certain of juſtice being ſpeedily executed on the offenders.

The Greek women are exempt from all taxes, as are likewiſe great numbers of other Greeks who ſerve in the navy, or elſewhere. Indeed it ſometimes happens that a Greek girl of diſtinguiſhed beauty is ſeized and carried to the ſeraglio; but it is a miſtake that Chriſtian children are in general forced away from their parents to be brought up in Mahometiſm; and when any thing of this kind is done, it is only in the diſtant provinces.

Foreign Chriſtians, who are under the protection of an envoy, are included under the general title of Franks, and pay no poll-tax. We ſhall give an account of the other nations in the deſcription of the particular provinces.

The principal language in Turky in Europe is the Turkiſh; but the Greeks alſo ſpeak the modern Greek; the Servians, Boſnians, and Bulgarians ſpeak the Sclavonian; the Walachians and Moldavians, the Walachian; and the Tartars, the Tartarian language, which nearly reſembles the Turkiſh. The literati commonly uſe the Arabic.

SECT. III.

Of the Religions in Turky in Europe; their Schools and Learning.

THE Turks appropriate to themſelves the name of Moſlemim, which has been corrupted into Muſſelman, ſignifying perſons profeſſing the doctrine of Mahomet. They alſo term themſelves Sonnites, or obſervers of the oral traditions of Mahomet and his three ſucceſſors; and likewiſe call themſelves True Believers, in oppoſition to the Perſians and others, the adherents of Ali, whom they call a wicked and abominable ſect. Their rule of faith and practice is the Koran. Some externals of their religion are the preſcribed ablutions, which are always to be performed before their devotions; prayers, which are to be ſaid five times every twenty-four hours, with the face turned towards Mecca; alms, which are both enjoined and voluntary ones; the former conſiſts of paying two and a half per cent. to charitable uſes out of their whole income. Their feaſts are either indiſpenſable or voluntary ones; of the former is that of the whole month of Ramadan, which is followed by the Bairam, a time of feſtivity; and every Mahometan muſt, at leaſt once in his life-time, go in pilgrimage, either perſonally or by proxy, to the Caba, or houſe of God, at Mecca.

Among the binding traditions not mentioned in the Koran is circumciſion, which is performed betwixt the ſixth and ſeventeenth year, but generally on the thirteenth. Indeed drinking wine is evidently prohibited in the Koran, yet the Turks make uſe of it occaſionally without any ſcruple; but generally uſe inſtead of it ſherbet, a liquor made of honey, ſpices, and the juice of fruits. Other things interdicted are games of chance, propheſying with arrows, and certain foods, as blood, pork; or the fleſh of any beaſt that has died of ſickneſs, or been killed by a wild beaſt, or by a fall or a ſtroke. Likewiſe the worſhipping of idols, uſury, and ſome ſuperſtitious and pagan practices. Polygamy is indeed permitted; but the Koran allows no man to have more than four wives and concubines, and to exceed that number is the particular privilege of the prophet and his ſucceſſors: indeed few of the people have more wives than one. Divorces are alſo allowed; but no man may take back again the wife he has once repudiated, till ſhe has been married to another, and afterwards divorced by him.

The chief eccleſiaſtic is the muſti, which name ſignifies an expounder of the law, and his office is of ſuch dignity, that when he comes to court, the emperor himſelf riſes from his ſeat, and advances ſeven ſteps to meet him. He alone has the honour of kiſſing the ſultan's left ſhoulder; while the grand vizier, with a more profound inclination of the body, kiſſes only the edge of the emperor's veſt, who advances no more than three ſteps to meet him. The law requires, that the muſti ſhould be conſulted on all emergencies, particularly in thoſe relating to peace and war; but the peculiar regard now ſhown to him is little more than mere form; for were he either to give a diſagreeable interpretation of the law, or, while in council, to preſume to traverſe the emperor's deſigns, he would be inſtantly depoſed, and his place ſupplied by one of a more compliable diſpoſition. On conviction of treaſon, or any other capital crime, he is put into a mortar, kept for that purpoſe in one of the ſeven towers at Conſtantinople, and pounded to death.

The Rev. Dr. Buſching obſerves, that as the muſti of the Turks may be compared to the pope, ſo a cadaliſker, who is a ſecular perſon, is not unlike a patriarch; a mola is an archbiſhop; a cady, who is alſo a layman, may be accounted a biſhop; and an iman, a prieſt, whoſe chief employment is praying.

The Turks have alſo their convents and monks, under the general name of derviſes, the chief of which are the Bektaſhi, Mebelevi, Cadri, and Segati; whoſe forms of worſhip chiefly conſiſts in certain religious dances.

The Turks at preſent avoid all appearance of propagating their religion by fire and ſword; and the Chriſtians of various ſects, who reſide amongſt them, enjoy full liberty of conſcience, and live in much greater tranquility than among ſome who ſtile themſelves Chriſtians.

The Greek church in this part of the world has at its head the patriarch of Conſtantinople, who is choſen by the neighbouring archbiſhops and metropolitans, and confirmed by the emperor or the grand vizier. This is a perſon of great dignity, he being the principal of all the Greek patriarchs, and the head and director of the Eaſtern church. His revenue amounts to no leſs than a hundred and twenty thouſand guilders, one half of which he pays by way of annual tribute to the Ottoman Porte, adding ſix thouſand guilders beſides, by way of preſent at the feaſt of Bairam.

Subordinate to him are ſeventy archbiſhops and metropolitans, and a much greater number of biſhops.

An archimandrite is the director of one or more convents, which are called mandren, and ranks above an abbot, of which each convent has one. The monks are obliged to follow ſome handicraft buſineſs, and lead a very auſtere life; but this is not the caſe with reſpect to the prieſts and ſtudents. The moſt celebrated monaſteries are thoſe on Mount Athos; but the Greeks have at preſent few nunneries.

The ſecular clergy are obliged to ſubmit to no rules, though the regulars are, who perform divine worſhip. The firſt is the lecturer, the ſecond the chanter, the third the under deacon, the fourth the deacon, the fifth the prieſt, and the ſixth the archprieſt. They are allowed to marry; but this muſt be done before ordination, and then only once, and that with a virgin. Theſe ſecular eccleſiaſtics never riſe higher than an archprieſt; the biſhops, metropolitans, archbiſhops, and patriarchs being choſen from among the monks.

The Armenians have many churches in this country; the Jews and Roman catholics have alſo the free exerciſe of their religion, and the Swedes have been permitted to build a Lutheran church at Conſtantinople.

The Turks are not without all kinds of learning, having ſome ſchools, colleges, and academies, by them called medaris; but theſe are generally inferior to thoſe among the Chriſtians, and their management of them alſo very different. Lately a Turkiſh printing-office has been ſet up at Conſtantinople by Abrahim Effendi, who, after great oppoſition, obtained leave to print all kinds of books, except on matters of religion. He alſo publiſhed ſome maps, and books of hiſtory and geography, and is ſaid to have had a conſiderable knowledge of the Latin tongue.

Literature, however, is not ſo rare among the Greeks, who have not only ſchools for inſtructing children in the principles of religion, as reading, writing, and learning by heart the Pſalms and paſſages of Scripture; but have alſo univerſities, in which are taught grammar, Latin, and the mathematics, with the Ariſtotelian philoſophy, both natural and moral. Theſe are ſaid to be at Demotica, in the iſland of Patmos, Jannina, and other places. Divinity is taught at the patriarch's palace at Conſtantinople, by a chaplain of the patriarch's and ſome aſſiſtants; but particularly on Mount Athos, which ſeems to be the pillar of the Greek church, and in other parts by the biſhops, who are men of capacity, and take this trouble voluntarily upon them.

The ſtate of learning, indeed, among the Greeks is at preſent at a very low ebb, in compariſon of what it is among us; but it ought to be remembered, that they are deſtitute of the ſame means and opportunities of mental improvement. As to phyſic, the Greeks either learn from the Arabic, Jewiſh, or Chriſtian phyſicians reſiding among them; or elſe ſtudy in the univerſities in Germany, Holland, or England.

SECT. IV.

The Name, Origin, and Hiſtory of the Turks, with a particular Account of their Government; the Power and Splendor of the Sultan, or Grand Seignior; his Titles, Officers of State, Janizaries, and other Troops. A Deſcription of the Turkiſh Camp, and of the Proceſſion made by the Tradeſmen when they go to make their Preſents, on the Sultan's commanding the Army in Perſon.

THE Turks are of Tartarian or Scythian extraction; and this appellation was firſt given them in the middle ages as a proper name; it being a general title of honour to all the nations comprehended under the two principal branches of Tartar and Mongul, who therefore never uſe it as a proper name of any Scythian or Tartarian nation. The word tur, as an adjective, ſignifies ſublime and pre-eminent; and, as a ſubſtantive, a governor. The Scythian or Tartarian nation, to which the name of Turks has been peculiarly given, dwelt betwixt the Black and Caſpian ſeas, and became firſt known in the ſeventh century, when Heraclius, emperor of the Eaſt, took them into his ſervice; upon which they ſo diſtinguiſhed themſelves by their fidelity and bravery in the conqueſt of Perſia, that the Arabian and Saracen caliphs had not only particular bodies of them for guards, but their armies were filled with them. Thus gradually getting the power into their hands, they ſet up and dethroned caliphs at pleaſure. By this ſtrict union of the Turks with the Saracens or Arabs, the former were brought to embrace the Mahometan religion, ſo that they are now become intermixed, and have jointly enlarged their conqueſts: but as the Turks became ſuperior to the Saracens, they ſubdued them.

Prince Cantemir gives the following account of the origin of the Ottoman empire.

Genghiſkan, at the head of his horde, iſſued out of Great Tartary, and made himſelf maſter of a vaſt tract of land near the Caſpian ſea, and even of all Perſia and Aſia Minor. Incited by his example and ſucceſs, Schah Solyman, prince of the town of Nera, on the Caſpian ſea, in the year 1214, paſſed Mount Caucaſus with fifty thouſand men, and penetrated as far as the borders of Syria; and though his career was ſtopped there by the Genghiſkan Tartars, yet in the year 1219 he penetrated a ſecond time into Aſia Minor as far as the Euphrates. Othman, his grandſon, made himſelf maſter of ſeveral countries and places in Leſſer Aſia belonging to the Grecian empire; and having, in the year 1300, at the city of Carachiſer, aſſumed the title of emperor of the Othmans, called his people after his own name. This prince, among many other towns, took, in the year 1326, Pruſa, in Bithynia, now called Burſa; which Orchan, his ſon and ſucceſſor, made the ſeat of his empire. Orchan ſent Solyman and Amurath, his two ſons, on an expedition into Europe; the former of whom reduced the city of Callipolis, and the latter took Tyrilos. Amurath ſucceeding his father in the government in 1360, took Ancyra, Adrianople, and Philippopolis; and in 1632 inſtituted the janizaries, over-run Servia, and invaded Macedonia and Albania. Bajazet, his ſon and ſucceſſor, was very ſucceſsful both in Europe and Aſia, defeating the Chriſtians near Nicopolis; but, in 1401, he was routed and taken priſoner by Tamerlane. His ſons diſagreed; but Mahomet I. enjoyed the ſovereignty, and his ſon Amurath II. diſtinguiſhed himſelf by ſeveral important enterprizes, and particularly in the year 1444 gained a ſignal victory over the Hungarians near Varna. Mahomet II. the greateſt of all the emperors, in 1453, made himſelf maſter of Conſtantinople, and reduced the whole Grecian empire under his dominion, ſubduing twelve kingdoms and two hundred towns. After this Bajazet II. and Selim I. enlarged the Turkiſh empire in Europe, Aſia, and Africa; and Solyman I. became leſs famous for his victory over the Hungarians than his body of laws.

In ſhort, the ſucceeding emperors were leſs ſucceſsful; for though Mahomet IV. ſubdued Candia, and laid ſiege to Vienna, he met with ill ſucceſs in Hungary; and in the reigns of Solyman II. Achmet II. and Muſtapha, the Hungarians and Venetians were ſo ſucceſsful againſt the Turks, that Muſtapha II. in 1699, was glad to conclude the peace of Carlowitz. Mahomet III. in 1718, agreed to the peace of Paſſarowitz; but Achmet V. by the peace of Belgrade, in 1739, re-annexed Servia, a part of Walachia, and Chozim to the empire.

The firſt ſultans, or emperors, owing their ſucceſs purely to their own valour, and being filled with maxims of war, would have a blind obedience paid them; they puniſhed with ſeverity, and laboured to keep their ſubjects under an inability to revolt; and, in ſhort, would be ſerved only by perſons who ſtood indebted to them for their fortunes, whom they could advance without jealouſy, and cruſh without being charged with injuſtice. Theſe maxims which have continued amongſt them above five centuries, render the ſultan abſolute maſter of the empire.

When there is a new emperor, or ſultan, it is the cuſtom to conduct him with great pomp and triumph to a place in the ſuburbs of Conſtantinople, called Job, where is an antient monument of one of their holy men of that name. At this place ſolemn prayers are made that God may proſper the ſultan, and infuſe wiſdom into him who is to manage ſo great a charge. The mufti then embracing him beſtows his bleſſing, and the emperor ſolemnly ſwears to maintain the laws of the prophet Mahomet. Then the viziers of the bench, and other baſhas, with profound humility, kiſs the ground and the hem of his veſt, acknowledging him their lawful emperor. After this form of inauguration, he returns with the like ſolemnity to the ſeraglio. Thus he obliges himſelf to govern within the compaſs of the law; but the Turkiſh doctors reſtrain the imperial oath only to the obſervation of the religious part of the Mahometan law, and ſay, that in civil matters it is ſo arbitrary, as to need no other judge than his will.

The ſultan's cloaths differ little in faſhion from thoſe of other men, only they exceed them in length and richneſs. His turban reſembles thoſe of the baſhas; but he wears plumes with gold claſps, which they do not. He ſleeps upon mattreſſes of velvet and cloth of gold, covered in ſummer with ſheets embroidered with ſilk, and in winter with ſables.

When he goes by water, he is carried in his barge, covered with a canopy of crimſon velvet richly embroidered, under which he ſits, while his agas ſtand about him. The veſſel is rowed by the Aglaim Oglans, and ſteered by the Boſtangee Baſha. When he goes by land, he always rides on horſeback, and commonly proceeds out of the great gate of the palace. On his going to the moſque on Fridays, he is accompanied through the city by all the baſhas and grandees of the Porte. The lady Wortley Montague ſays, that when ſhe ſaw the Grand Seignior in his paſſage to the moſque, he was preceded by a numerous guard of janizaries, with vaſt white feathers on their heads; as alſo by the ſpahis and boſtangees, who are foot and horſe guards, and the royal gardeners, which are a very conſiderable body of men, dreſſed in different habits

habits of fine lively colours, ſo that at a diſtance they appeared, ſays ſhe, like a parterre of tulips. After them the aga of the janizaries, in a robe of purple velvet, lined with ſilver tiſſue, his horſe led by two ſlaves richly dreſſed. Next him the kiſler-aga, who is the chief guardian of the ladies of the ſeraglio, in a deep yellow cloth, (which ſuited well with his black face) lined with ſables. Laſt came the ſultan himſelf, arrayed in green, lined with the furs of black Muſcovite foxes, ſuppoſed worth about a thouſand pounds ſterling, and mounted on a fine horſe, with furniture embroidered with jewels. Six more horſes richly capariſoned were led after him; and two of his principal courtiers bore, one his gold, and the other his ſilver coffee-pot, on a ſtaff; another carried a ſilver ſtool on his head, for him to ſit on. It would be too tedious, ſays that lady, to deſcribe the various dreſſes and turbans by which they are diſtinguiſhed; but they were all extremely rich and gay, to the number of ſome thouſands; ſo that, perhaps, there cannot be ſeen a more beautiful proceſſion.

The titles of the emperor, according to the cuſtom of the Eaſt, are very prolix and magnificent, as will appear from the following ſpecimen. We, the ſervant and lord of the moſt honoured and bleſſed cities, the venerable houſes, and ſacred places, before which all nations bow; of Mecca, which God delights to honour; of the reſplendid Medina, and the holy city of Jeruſalem; of the imperial and deſirable cities of Conſtantinople, Adrianople, and Burſa, emperor; alſo of Babylon, Damaſcus, of the fragrant Paradiſe, and the incomparable Egypt; of all Arabia, Aleppo, Antioch, and many other highly celebrated and memorable places, cities, and faithful vaſſals, emperor; emperor of emperors, the moſt gracious and all-powerful ſultan, &c.

The Turkiſh arms are a creſcent.

In the ſucceſſion to the empire no regard is paid to age or birth-right, the Turks eſteeming it ſufficient, if, in their elections, they keep to the Ottoman family: but women are excluded from the throne. Though the government is purely monarchical and deſpotic, yet if the emperor takes no care to indulge the humours of the people, and eſpecially of the mutinous janizaries, he is not only in danger of being depoſed, but alſo of being murdered.

The emperor's divan, or council of ſtate, meets twice a week in the emperor's palace, that is on Sundays and Thurſdays. The grand vizier, who ſits as preſident, has on his right hand the cadinlaſkier of Romelia, and on his left that of Natolia. The mufti alſo aſſiſts when expreſsly ſummoned. All the other viziers have likewiſe a ſeat here, and next to them ſtand on one ſide the teſterdar, or high-treaſurer, the reis-effendi, or ſecretary of ſtate, and other commiſſioners of the exchequer; but the military officers, as the aga of the janizaries, the aga of the ſpahis, the aga of the ſiluds, &c. ſit within the divan. Theſe ſeveral members wear a particular habit. The ſultan does not enter the room; but hears what paſſes from an adjoining chamber, which looks into the divan.

When he convenes a general council, to which all the great perſons of the empire are ſummoned, as the clergy, the military and other officers, and even the old and moſt experienced ſoldiers, ſuch a divan is called ajak divani, the whole aſſembly ſtanding.

The higheſt office, next to the ſultan, is the vizier azem, or grand vizier, who has the care of the whole empire, and is not only entruſted with the management of the revenue, with foreign affairs, and the adminiſtration of juſtice in civil and criminal concerns; but alſo with the conduct of wars, and the command of armies. When the ſultan nominates this great officer, he puts into his hand the ſeal of the empire, upon which is engraven his name. This is the badge of his office, and he always carries it in his boſom. With this ſeal he diſpatches all his orders, without conſulting any one. His power is unlimited, except with reſpect to the troops, which he cannot puniſh without the conſent of the commanders. All affairs are decided by his judgment; and he diſpoſes of all the poſts in the empire, except thoſe of judicature.

The grand vizier lives in the utmoſt ſplendor; he has above two thouſand officers and domeſtics in his palace, and when he appears in public has his turban adorned with two plumes of feathers, charged with diamonds and precious ſtones; the harneſs of his horſe is uſually ſet with rubies and turquoiſes, and his houſing richly embroidered with gold and pearls. His guard is compoſed of about four hundred Boſnians, or Albanians, ſome of whom attend him on foot when he goes to the divan; but when he marches into the field, they are all well mounted, and carry a lance, a ſword, a hatchet, and a brace of piſtols. He is preceded by three horſe tails, on the top of which is a gold ball. This is the military enſign of the Ottomans; for one of their generals being at a loſs how to rally his troops, who had loſt all their ſtandards, cut off a horſe's tail, and erecting it on the point of a lance, the ſoldiers flocked to this new enſign, renewed their attack, and came off with victory.

When the ſultan honours the grand vizier with the command of an army, he takes out one of the plumes of his own turban, and delivers it to him to place in his own. Upon his receiving this mark of diſtinction, the ſoldiers acknowledge him for their general. The grand vizier's income, without his being guilty of any injuſtice, amounts to about ſix hundred thouſand dollars a year, excluſive of preſents and other perquiſites. But, notwithſtanding the greatneſs of his revenue, and the ſplendour in which he lives, he is in continual danger, it being the uſual policy of the emperors to ſcreen themſelves from the clamours of the people, by throwing the whole blame of any inſtance of male-adminiſtration on this officer, and giving him up to the public reſentment.

While the emperor reſides at Conſtantinople, or Adrianople, he is without any power; but if he be only eight hours diſtant from the city, his authority is little leſs than that of the grand vizier.

When the emperor takes the field in perſon, he nominates a kaimakan out of ſuch viziers as are permitted to carry three horſe tails. This officer, in caſe the grand vizier be at the diſtance of eight hours from the emperor, has the full power and management of all affairs; but is not to act contrary to the grand vizier's inſtructions. This kaimakan ought not to be confounded with the governor of Conſtantinople, or Adrianople, who bears the ſame title.

Next to the grand vizier are ſix others, ſtiled viziers of the bench, or council, and baſhas of the three horſe tails; becauſe, when they march, three horſe tails are carried before them, while only one is carried before the ordinary baſhas. Theſe viziers ought to be men diſtinguiſhed by their wiſdom, and their knowledge of the laws. They aſſiſt at the divan, but never deliver their opinion upon the affairs which are treated there, unleſs required by the grand vizier. Theſe have each two thouſand crowns a year, and the grand vizier often refers matters of ſmall conſequence to them, as well as to the ordinary judges. Cady is a word uſed for all judges of a province or particular place.

A beglerbeg is a viceroy, with ſeveral provinces under his command, the name itſelf ſignifying a prince of princes. The three principal are the beglerbeg of Rumili, who reſides at Sophia; the beglerbeg of Natolia, the ſeat of whoſe government is at Cutahia, and the beglerbeg of Damaſcus, who keeps his court in that city. Under theſe are the baſhas or governors, whoſe poſts are very conſiderable, but precarious; and ſubordinate to theſe are the ſangiacs, who may be termed deputy-governors. Theſe are all military officers.

The reis-effendi, alſo called the reis-kital, is lord chancellor and ſecretary of ſtate. His name ſignifies chief of the writers. He attends on the vizier, to paſs orders, decrees, patents and commiſſions, into all parts of the empire, which are daily diſpatched in incredible numbers, and therefore he employs a multitude of clerks in his office.

With reſpect to the national revenues, they are returnable to two treaſuries; the public treaſury, and the treaſury of the muſſelmans. The public treaſury is under the management of the teſterdar, or high treaſurer, who has under him twelve offices, to which all the revenues of the empire, ariſing from tributes, cuſtoms, &c. are returnable, and out of theſe the army is paid. The treaſurer is allowed five per cent. of all the money brought

brought into the treaſury, which muſt bring him in at leaſt two hundred thouſand dollars annually. One fourth of the money he receives he pays to the kietchudabeg, or kahya, who is the grand vizier's commiſſary, and above the teſterdar. The money of this treaſury, called the public money of the muſſelmans, is not to be touched by the emperor but in the greateſt exigency, much leſs for private occaſions. The ſultan's private treaſury, which he diſpoſes of according to his own pleaſure, is under the care of the haſnadar baſchi, who is the next perſon in rank to the kiſlar in the ſeraglio. Prince Cantemir ſays, that in his time, twenty-ſeven thouſand purſes, amounting to thirteen millions and a half of rix-dollars, were annually returned to both treaſuries. The confiſcations of the eſtates and effects of the baſhas, and other officers, together with the money ariſing from the eſcheats of Turks dying without male iſſue, make alſo a very conſiderable article.

The janizaries are the flower of the Turkiſh forces, they are all infantry, and were firſt formed of captive Chriſtians by the emperor Amurath I. Their number generally amounts to forty thouſand, divided into a hundred and ſixty-two companies, or chambers, called odas, in which they live together at Conſtantinople, as in a convent. The janizaries are of a ſuperior rank to all other ſoldiers; but are alſo more arrogant and factious, and it is by them the public tranquility is moſtly diſturbed. "The government, ſays the lady Wortley Montague, "is entirely in the hands of the army. The grand "ſignior with all his abſolute power, is as much a ſlave "as any of his ſubjects, and trembles at a janizary's "frown. Here is, indeed, a much greater appearance "of ſubjection than amongſt us: a miniſter of ſtate is "not ſpoke to but upon the knee; ſhould a reflection "on his conduct be dropped in a coffee-houſe (for they "have their ſpies every where) the houſe would be ra-"zed to the ground, and perhaps the whole company "put to the torture. No huzzaing mobs, ſenſeleſs "pamphlets, and tavern diſputes about politics. When "a miniſter here diſpleaſes the people, in three hours "time he is dragged even from his maſter's arms. They "cut off his hands, head and feet, and throw them be-"fore the palace gate, with all the reſpect in the world; "while the ſultan, to whom they all profeſs an unli-"mited adoration, ſits trembling in his apartment, and "dare neither defend, nor revenge his favourite."

The janizaries have, however, ſome good qualities; they are employed to eſcort travellers, and eſpecially ambaſſadors, and perſons of high rank, on the road, in which caſe they behave with the utmoſt zeal and fidelity. The ingenious and learned lady, whom we have juſt mentioned, happening to beſpeak ſome pigeons for ſupper at a village near Philippopolis, one of the janizaries went immediately to the cady, the chief civil officer of the town, and ordered him to ſend in ſome dozens. The poor man anſwered, that he had already ſent about, but could get none; upon which the janizary, in the height of his zeal for that lady's ſervice, immediately locked him up priſoner in his room, telling him he deſerved death for his impudence, in offering to excuſe his not obeying her commands; but out of reſpect to the lady, he would not puniſh him but by her order. Accordingly he came very gravely to her, to aſk what ſhould be done to him; adding by way of compliment, that, if ſhe pleaſed, he would bring her his head. "This, ſays "the lady Montague, may give ſome idea of the unli-"mited power of theſe fellows, who are all ſworn bro-"thers, and bound to revenge the injuries done to one "another, whether at Cairo, Aleppo, or any other part "of the world. This inviolable league makes them ſo "powerful, that the greateſt man at court never ſpeaks "to them, but in a flattering tone."

The capis are alſo infantry; the ſpahis light horſe; but the timar ſpahi, or, the old and preferred ſpahis, inſtead of pay, have villages in ſeveral of the provinces, and are obliged, according to their income, to bring at leaſt three ſlaves with them into the field.

The tributary princes, as the cham of the Crim Tartars, and the princes of Moldavia and Walachia, are obliged to ſend auxiliaries. In ſhort, the whole Turkiſh army is compoſed of above three hundred thouſand men.

When the Turks are encamped, the tents make a very magnificent appearance. Thoſe of the great men are rather like palaces than tents, taking up a great compaſs of ground, and being divided into a great number of apartments. They are all green, and the baſhas of three tails have thoſe enſigns of their power placed in a very conſpicuous manner before their tents, which are adorned on the top with gilded balls, more or leſs, according to their different ranks.

When the ſultan is reſolved to lead his army in perſon, all the companies of tradeſmen are obliged to make him a preſent according to their ability; and, on this occaſion, they make a very ſplendid proceſſion through the principal ſtreets, while the ſultan views them from one of the windows of his ſeraglio. When our author ſaw this cavalcade, it was preceded by an effendi, mounted on a camel, reading aloud the Koran, finely bound, and placed upon a cuſhion. He was ſurrounded by a parcel of boys in white, ſinging ſome verſes of it, followed by a man dreſſed in green boughs, repreſenting a huſbandman ſowing ſeed. After him ſeveral reapers, crowned like Ceres, with ears of corn; they had alſo ſcythes in their hands, and ſeemed to mow. Then a little machine drawn by oxen, in which was a windmill, and boys employed in grinding corn, followed by another machine drawn by buffaloes carrying an oven, and two more boys, one employed in kneading bread, and the other in drawing it out of the oven. Theſe boys alſo threw little cakes on both ſides amongſt the crowd, and were followed by the whole company of bakers, marching on foot two by two, in their beſt cloaths, with cakes, loaves, paſties and pies of all ſorts on their heads, and after them two buffoons, with their faces and cloaths ſmeared with meal, who diverted the mob with their antic geſtures. In the ſame manner followed all the other trading companies; the jewellers, mercers, &c. finely mounted, and many of the pageants repreſenting their trades, truly magnificent; amongſt which that of the furriers made one of the beſt figures, it being a very large machine ſet round with the ſkins of ermines, foxes, &c. ſo well ſtuffed, that the animals ſeemed alive, and were followed by muſic and dancers. The rear was cloſed by the volunteers, who came to beg the honour of dying in the ſultan's ſervice; they were all naked to the middle. Some had their arms pierced through with arrows left ſticking in them. Others had them ſticking in their heads, the blood trickling down their faces. Some ſlaſhed their arms with ſharp knives, making the blood ſpring out upon the by-ſtanders; which is looked upon as an expreſſion of their zeal for glory. 'Tis ſaid that ſome make uſe of theſe arrows and knives to advance their love, and when they are near the window where their miſtreſs ſtands, (for all the women are veiled to ſee this ſpectacle) they ſtick another arrow for her ſake, who gives ſome ſign of approbation and encouragement to this gallantry.

SECT. V.

The Officers of the Seraglio, and the Regulations obſerved there with reſpect to the Women; the Splendor of their Dreſs, and the Magnificence in which they live.

THE principal officers of the ſeraglio are the eunuchs, who are in the higheſt confidence; for being entirely diſengaged from love intrigues, they reſign themſelves wholly to ambition and the care of obliging their ſovereign. The white eunuchs are employed in the ſervice of the ſultan, and the black wait upon and guard the women. Theſe are forced to uſe a ſilver pipe in making water; they being deprived of the natural conveniency in their infancy; for the ſultans were jealous of them, while they were made eunuchs in the ordinary manner, and on this account they are cut ſmooth cloſe to the belly; a dangerous operation, that coſts many of them their lives.

The capi-aga, or chief of the white eunuchs, is treated in the ſame manner in his youth, and is the great maſter of the ſeraglio. He has the inſpection of all the pages of the palace, and all petitions which are to be preſented

Lady Mary Wortley Montague visits the Sultana Hafiten.

preſented to the prince are delivered to him. He is in the ſecret of the cabinet, and has the command of all the eunuchs of his own complexion. The principal of theſe eunuchs are, the great chamberlain, who has forty pages under him, that wait on the ſultan: the deputy-ſupervifor of the pages apartment, and other buildings of the palace, who particularly takes care of their linen and wearing appafel: the ſultan's privy-treaſurer, who keeps the jewels of the crown, and one of the keys of the ſacred treaſure: the kilargi baſhi, or grand expenditor of the ſeraglio, who is alſo great maſter of the wardrobe; it is his office alſo to look after the ſultan's ſweet-meats and drinks, the ſyrups, ſherbet, and counter-poiſons; he alſo takes care of the ſultan's china-ware: the other white eunuchs are, the preceptors to the pages, the overſeer of the infirmary, the great falconer, the overſeer of the baths, and other officers who wait on the ſultan's perſon.

The kyſler-aga is the chief of the black eunuchs, and has the abſolute command of the women's apartments, and all the other black eunuchs placed there pay him an implicit obedience. He has the ſuperintendence of all the royal moſques of the empire, and diſpoſes of all the offices that belong to them. The principal of the other black eunuchs are, the eunuch of the queen mother, the governor of the princes of the blood, the comptroller of the queen mother's treaſury, the ſteward of her perfumes, ſweet-meats, and liquors, the two chiefs of the great and little chamber of the women, with ſome others.

In the ſeraglio there are alſo muſicians, buffoons, tumblers, dwarfs, and mutes.

All who live in the ſeraglio are the ſultan's ſlaves, as indeed are all the ſubjects of his empire; for they acknowledge, that whatever they enjoy proceeds from his bounty, and that their eſtates and lives are abſolutely at his diſpoſal.

The women in the ſultan's court, including the old and the young, amount to about twelve hundred. His concubines are beautiful and accompliſhed virgins, who have been ſtolen or purchaſed when children from Georgia, Circaſſia, or the neighbouring countries, and received an education that renders them well qualified in the arts of pleaſing, ſuch as ſinging, playing upon muſical inſtruments, dancing, dreſſing to the beſt advantage, an engaging behaviour, and great ſkill in curious needle-work, particularly embroidery.

It is generally ſaid, that the firſt of theſe ladies who conceives by the ſultan, and brings forth a child, is ſtiled ſultana queen; and, if it be a ſon, is confirmed and eſtabliſhed by great feſtivals: thenceforward ſhe has magnificent apartments, a great number of ſervants, with a large revenue, and all perſons in the ſeraglio muſt pay her the reſpect due to a queen. The other women who bear him children are called ſultanas, but not queens, yet live in ſeparate apartments, which are extremely ſplendid; they are well ſerved and attended, and are in no want of money, jewels, or the richeſt apparel: but if it happens that the heir of the empire dies, and another of the ſultanas has a ſon to ſucceed the deceaſed heir, it is ſaid that the ſultana queen loſes her title and rank, and another becomes queen in her ſtead; ſo that the title runs from one ſultana to another, in virtue of the ſon's right to the ſucceſſion.

The ſultan was formerly married to the queen, but ſhe now poſſeſſes that title without the celebration of any nuptial rites, and yet enjoys all the prerogatives of royalty, with a guard of thirty or forty black eunuchs, under the command of the kyſler-aga.

The ſons of the ſultan, by the ſultana queen, are all brought up by themſelves, and have nurſes provided for them. His ſons by the other ſultanas are alſo brought up by themſelves; but they may play with each other till they are ſix or ſeven years of age. They live nine or ten years with the women, and at about fourteen are circumciſed with great pomp. When the ſultan's eldeſt ſon is circumciſed, he is ſometimes ſent with a ſuitable equipage, under the care of a truſty eunuch, to be governor of Magneſia, in Natolia; but the eunuch is bound to ſend continual advice to the ſultan of his ſon's behaviour; ſo that if he exceeds the limits of his commiſſion, he ſoon falls into diſgrace.

The daughters, ſiſters, and aunts of the emperor lodge in the ſame ſeraglio; and, being richly dreſſed and royally attended, live by themſelves in continual pleaſures, till the ſultan gives them in marriage to the great officers of his court, or the governors of provinces. They are ſaid to carry out with them a cheſt, preſented by the ſultan, filled with rich cloaths, jewels, and money, to the value of about thirty thouſand pounds ſterling, beſides what they have ſaved, which ſometimes amounts to a great ſum: and if the Grand Seignior has a particular reſpect for them, he even continues their allowance of a thouſand or fifteen hundred aſpers a day. As for the huſband, he is to make her a bill of dowry of at leaſt a hundred thouſand chequins in money, beſides cloaths, jewels, and other ornaments. They, however, converſe with no other men beſides their huſbands; and, with the ſultan's leave, are allowed to viſit their old acquaintance in the ſeraglio. Theſe are the only women in Turky who claim the privilege of having a man to themſelves. They aſſume the ſtate of queens, and have their huſbands in the ſame ſubjection as other Turkiſh huſbands have their wives; and they are ſaid to oblige them to put away the reſt of their women, how long ſoever they have lived with them.

Authors have given very incredible deſcriptions of the manner in which theſe ladies live in the ſeraglio, and of the treatment they receive from the ſultan; but as it is evident, even from their own account, that they never ſo much as ſaw one of theſe ladies, and that they had no poſſible means of coming at the knowledge of what they deſcribe, we ſhall paſs them over as the fictions of travellers; and conclude this ſection with part of a letter wrote by an Engliſh ambaſſadreſs on this ſubject, who writes from her own knowledge, and, from her rank and ſex, had an opportunity of ſeeing what is carefully concealed from every man. Though the lady ſhe deſcribes had left the ſeraglio, yet ſhe ſtill ſeems to have kept up the way of life ſhe led there; and, indeed, all that is ſaid of her will give the reader a better idea of the ſplendor in which thoſe ladies live, than any thing that has been written on the ſubject.

"I went, ſays this learned and polite writer, to ſee "the ſultana Hafiten, favourite of the late emperor Muſ-"tapha, who was depoſed by his brother, the reigning "ſultan, and died a few weeks after, being poiſoned, as "it was generally believed. This lady was, immediate-"ly after his death, ſaluted with an abſolute order to "leave the ſeraglio, and chooſe herſelf a huſband among "the great men of the Porte. I ſuppoſe you may ima-"gine her overjoyed at this propoſal.—Quite the con-"trary.—Theſe women, who are called, and eſteem "themſelves queens, look upon this liberty as the great-"eſt diſgrace and affront that can happen to them. She "threw herſelf at the ſultan's feet, and begged him to "poniard her, rather than uſe his brother's widow with "that contempt. She repreſented to him, in agonies of "ſorrow, that ſhe was privileged from this misfortune "by having brought five princes into the Ottoman fa-"mily; but all the boys being dead, and only one girl "ſurviving, this excuſe was not received, and ſhe was "compelled to make her choice. She choſe Bekir Ef-"fendi, then ſecretary of ſtate, and above fourſcore "years old, to convince the world that ſhe firmly in-"tended to keep the vow ſhe had made, of never ſuffer-"ing a ſecond huſband to approach her bed; and ſince "ſhe muſt honour ſome ſubject ſo far as to be called "his wife, ſhe would chooſe him as a mark of her gra-"titude, ſince it was he that had preſented her at the "age of ten years to her laſt lord. But ſhe never per-"mitted him to pay her one viſit; though ſhe has been "fifteen years in his houſe, where ſhe paſſes her time "in uninterrupted mourning, with a conſtancy very "little known in Chriſtendom, eſpecially in a widow "of one and twenty; for ſhe is now but thirty-ſix. She "has no black eunuchs for her guard, her huſband being "obliged to reſpect her as a queen, and not to enquire "at all into what is done in her apartment.

"I was led into a large room, with a ſopha the whole "length of it, adorned with white marble pillars, cover-"ed with pale blue figured velvet, on a ſilver ground,

" with cuſhions of the ſame, where I was deſired to re-
" poſe till the ſultana appeared, who had contrived this
" manner of reception to avoid riſing up at my entrance,
" though ſhe made me an inclination of the head when
" I roſe up to her. I was very glad to obſerve a lady that
" had been diſtinguiſhed by the favour of an emperor, to
" whom beauties were every day preſented from all parts
" of the world. She had the remains of a fine face, more
" decayed by ſorrow than time. But her dreſs was ſome-
" thing ſo ſurpriſingly rich, that I cannot forbear de-
" ſcribing it to you. She wore a veſt called a dualma,
" which differs from a caftan by its having longer
" ſleeves, and folding over at the bottom. It was of
" purple cloth ſtraight to her ſhape, and thick-ſet on
" each ſide down to her feet and round her ſleeves, with
" pearls of the beſt water, of the ſame ſize as their but-
" tons are; that is, about the bigneſs of a pea, and to
" theſe buttons large loops ſet with diamonds. This
" habit was tied at the waiſt, with two large taſſels of
" ſmaller pearls, and round the arms embroidered with
" large diamonds. Her ſhift was faſtened at the bottom
" with a great diamond, ſhaped like a lozenge; her girdle
" as broad as the broadeſt Engliſh ribbon, entirely co-
" vered with diamonds. Round her neck ſhe wore three
" chains, which reached to her knees; one of large pearls,
" at the bottom of which hung a fine coloured emerald
" as big as a turkey egg; another conſiſting of two
" hundred emeralds cloſe joined together, of the moſt
" lively green, perfectly matched, every one as large as
" a half-crown piece, and as thick as three crown pieces;
" and another of ſmall emeralds perfectly round. But
" her ear-rings eclipſed all the reſt. They were two
" diamonds ſhaped exactly like pears, as big as a large
" hazle-nut. Round her talpoche ſhe had four ſtrings
" of pearl, the whiteſt and moſt perfect in the world,
" faſtened with two roſes, each conſiſting of a large ruby
" for the middle ſtone, encircled with diamonds. Be-
" ſides this, her head-dreſs was covered with bodkins of
" emeralds and diamonds. She wore large diamond
" bracelets, and had five rings on her fingers, with the
" largeſt diamonds (except Mr. Pitt's) I ever ſaw in my
" life. 'Tis for jewellers to compute the value of theſe
" things; but, according to the common eſtimation of
" jewels in our part of the world, her whole dreſs muſt
" be worth a hundred thouſand pounds ſterling. This
" I am ſure of, that no European queen has half the
" quantity; and the empreſs's jewels, tho' very fine,
" would look very mean near hers.

" She gave me a dinner of fifty diſhes of meat, which,
" after their faſhion, were placed on the table but one
" at a time, and was extremely tedious. But the mag-
" nificence of her table anſwered very well to that of
" her dreſs: the hafts of the knives being of gold ſet
" with diamonds. But the piece of luxury which griev-
" ed my eyes was, the table-cloth and napkins, which
" were all tiffany embroidered with ſilk and gold, in the
" fineſt manner in natural flowers. It was with the ut-
" moſt regret that I made uſe of theſe coſtly napkins,
" which were as finely wrought as the fineſt handker-
" chiefs that ever came out of that country. You may
" be ſure they were entirely ſpoiled before dinner was
" over. The ſherbet was ſerved in china bowls, but the
" covers and ſalvers maſſy gold. After dinner water
" was brought in gold baſons, and towels of the ſame
" kind with the napkins, which I very unwillingly wip-
" ed my hands upon, and coffee was ſerved in china,
" with gold ſaucers.

" The ſultana ſeemed in a very good humour, and
" talked to me with the utmoſt civility. I did not omit
" this opportunity of learning all that I poſſibly could of
" the ſeraglio, which is ſo entirely unknown among us.
" She aſſured me that the ſtory of the ſultan's throwing
" a handkerchief, is altogether fabulous; and the man-
" ner upon that occaſion no other than this: he ſends
" the kyſler aga to ſignify to the lady the honour he
" intends her. She is immediately complimented upon
" it by the others, and led into the bath, where ſhe is
" perfumed and dreſſed in the moſt magnificent and be-
" coming manner. The emperor precedes his viſit by
" a royal preſent, and then comes into her apartment.
" Neither is there any ſuch thing as her creeping in at
" the bed's foot. She ſaid, that the firſt he made choice
" of, was always after the firſt in rank, and not the mo-
" ther of the eldeſt ſon, as other writers would make
" us believe. Sometimes the ſultan diverts himſelf in
" the company of all his ladies, who ſtand in a circle
" round him. And ſhe confeſſed they were ready to die
" with envy and jealouſy of the happy ſhe, that he di-
" ſtinguiſhed with any appearance of preferment. But
" this ſeemed to me neither better nor worſe than the
" circles in moſt courts, where the glance of the mo-
" narch is watched, and every ſmile waited for with im-
" patience, and envied by thoſe who cannot obtain it.

" She aſked me to walk in her garden, and one of
" her ſlaves immediately brought her a pellice of rich
" brocade lined with ſables. I waited on her into the
" garden, which had nothing in it remarkable but the
" fountains, and from thence, ſhe ſhewed me all her
" apartments. In her bed-chamber her toilet was diſ-
" played, conſiſting of two looking-glaſſes; the frames
" covered with pearls, and her night talpoche ſet with
" bodkins of jewels, and near it three veſts of fine ſables,
" every one of which is at leaſt worth two hundred
" pounds Engliſh money. I don't doubt but theſe rich
" habits were purpoſely placed in ſight, though they
" ſeemed negligently thrown on the ſopha. When I
" took my leave of her, I was complimented with per-
" fumes, and preſented with a very fine embroidered
" handkerchief. Her ſlaves were to the number of thirty,
" beſides ten little ones, the eldeſt not above ſeven years
" old. Theſe were the moſt beautiful girls I ever ſaw,
" all richly dreſſed, and I obſerved that the ſultana took
" a great deal of pleaſure in theſe lovely children, which
" are a vaſt expence; for there is not a handſome girl of
" that age, to be bought under a hundred pounds ſter-
" ling. They wore little garlands of flowers, and their
" own hair braided, which was all their head-dreſs; but
" their habits are all of gold ſtuffs. Theſe ſerved her
" coffee kneeling; brought water when ſhe waſhed, &c.
" 'Tis a great part of the buſineſs of the older ſlaves to
" take care of theſe young girls, to teach them to em-
" broider, and to ſerve them as carefully as if they were
" children of the family."

SECT. VI.

Of the Manufactures, Trade, and Coin of Turky in Europe.

THE Turks have very curious and beautiful manufactures. The inland trade too, which the provinces, towns, and inhabitants carry on with each other, and with foreign nations, is very conſiderable; though it is chiefly through the channel of the Jews and Armenians. The Turks, indeed, convey both by land and water the products of the country and other goods from one province to another; but not to foreign Chriſtian countries: great numbers of Engliſh, Dutch, French, Italian, and Spaniſh ſhips, as well as thoſe of other trading nations, repairing in great numbers to the harbours in Turky, where they import their goods, and purchaſe thoſe of the country. They have alſo their envoys and reſidents at Conſtantinople, and their conſuls in other ports.

The exports from Turky are ſilks, beautiful carpets, goats hair and wool, camels hair, cotton yarn, burdets, dimity, waxed linen, ſhagreen ſkins, blue, red, and yellow leather, coffee, rhubarb, turpentine, ſtorax, gums, ſaffron, opium, galls, maſtich, emery, Lemnian bole, pomegranate ſhells, ſponges, dates, almonds, wine, oil, figs, raiſins, mother of pearl, box-wood, wax, &c. The traffic of the human ſpecies, however ſhocking it may appear at firſt ſight, is infinitely leſs cruel than that carried on by the Chriſtians on the coaſt of Guinea: this is a conſiderable part of their commerce; for they not only ſell ſlaves of both ſexes, but alſo beautiful young girls, who are bought up, particularly by the Jews in Circaſſia, Georgia, Greece, and other countries; their parents and relations readily parting with them, in hopes of raiſing their fortune.

The Engliſh Turky merchants export thither broad cloth, long ells, tin, iron, ſugar, watches, ſome bullion, and many other articles.

The

The gold and large ſilver coin of all countries are current in Turky, more eſpecially the croſs dollars of Burgundy, and the Dutch lion dollars, which they term aſlem.

The proper coins of the country are, firſt thoſe of gold; namely, the altines, or ducats, which are worth about ſeven ſhillings; and the zechinos, worth about nine ſhillings. Large ſums are reckoned by purſes; a purſe being one hundred and eight pounds ſix ſhillings and eight pence.

The ſilver coin conſiſts of the ſolato, worth about two ſhillings and two pence farthing; the krip, of the value of about eleven pence; the groſh, about three pence; the para, worth three aſpers; an aſper is of the value of about three half pence.

SECT. VII.

Of the MOREA, *anciently called the* PELOPONNESUS.

Its Situation, Extent, Name, Rivers, Lakes, Soil, and Produce. With a Deſcription of all the principal Cities and Towns in that Peninſula.

THE Morea is a large peninſula on the ſouthern part of Greece, to which it is joined by the iſthmus of Corinth, which extends between the gulphs of Lepanto and Engia, and in its narroweſt part is not above four or five miles over. It lies between the thirty ſixth degree twenty-three minutes, and the thirty-eighth degree ſeventeen minutes latitude; and between the twenty-firſt degree twenty minutes, and the twenty-fourth degree eight minutes eaſt longitude from London. Its greateſt breadth from ſouth to north, or from Cape Matapan to the ſtreights of Lepanto, is about one hundred and fifteen miles, and its greateſt length eaſt and weſt one hundred and twenty: but in many places it is much narrower and ſhorter, on account of the many gulphs, bays, and inlets all round the coaſt.

Its preſent name of Morea is ſaid to be derived from Morus, a mulberry-tree, either from its reſembling in its form the mulberry leaf, or from the great number of mulberry-trees it produces.

Its chief rivers are the Carbon, anciently the Alpheus; the Pirnaza, anciently the Paniſus; and the Eurotas, now called the Baſilipotama. Of the lakes, the moſt celebrated among the ancients was the Stymphalus, famous for the many ravenous birds which reſorted to it; and the Phineus, for being the ſource of the river Styx, whoſe water is ſaid to be ſo cold as to freeze thoſe to death who drink it, and to corrode iron and copper, for which extraordinary qualities the poets have made it one of the rivers of hell.

This peninſula, notwithſtanding its ſmall extent, contained the kingdoms of Sicyon, Argos, and Mycene, Corinth, Proper Achaia, Arcadia, and Sparta, and was diſtinguiſhed by the ſplendor of its cities, the courage and virtue of its ancient inhabitants, and the power of the ſeveral ſtates; as well as by the fertility of its ſoil, which produces plenty of corn, wine, oil, moſt delicious fruits, and every thing that can contribute to the delight, as well as the neceſſaries of life. Indeed the middle part, which contained the ancient Arcadia, being more mountainous, is not ſo fruitful, and therefore moſt of the inhabitants were formerly ſhepherds, the ſoil being more proper for paſture than agriculture. However, even in that part there are ſeveral fertile valleys, that would produce plentiful crops, were they well cultivated.

The country is divided into four parts, Belvedera, Chiarenza, Brazzo di Maina, and Saccaria.

Belvedera, the moſt ſouthern part, contains the ancient Elis and Meſſenia; and has the following places of note.

Coron, one of the moſt conſiderable towns in the Morea, is ſituated on the ſouth ſide of a gulph to which it gives its name, about ſeventeen miles from Cape Gallo. It is ſtrong both by nature and art. The city is of a triangular form, and oppoſite one of its angles is a large tower built on a rock. The town, where it is not waſhed by the ſea, is defended by a fortreſs, encompaſſed by old thick walls, flanked with large towers. At a ſmall diſtance from the town is a ſuburb, conſiſting of about five hundred houſes. The adjacent country affords plenty of fruit, corn, oil, and ſilk, which the inhabitants export with great advantage.

Modon, the ancient Methone, is ſeated on the ſouthern ſhore, oppoſite the iſle of Sapienza, and ſtands on a hill which projects into the ſea, at the foot of which is a good harbour. It is a ſtrong, rich, and trading city, the reſidence of the governor of the Morea, and a biſhop's ſee.

Navarino, the ancient Pylus, ſtands on a riſing ground, at the foot of which is the harbour, which is eſteemed the beſt and moſt capacious of all the Morea, it being able to contain two thouſand veſſels. It is defended by two caſtles, one of which ſtands on a high mountain, and commands the entrance into the harbour on the north ſide, the other defends the entrance on the ſouth, and at ſame time defends the city.

Arcadia, formerly Cypariſſa, is now a mean place, from which a bay takes its name.

Langanico, the ancient Olympia, is ſeated on the river Carbon, and was once famous for the games celebrated on the neighbouring plains, every fifth year, from which the computation of time by olympiads took its riſe. In this city was alſo a fine temple of Jupiter Olympius, in which the image of that god, which was of an amazing ſize and beauty, and eſteemed one of ſeven wonders of the world. This city is now but a ſmall and inconſiderable town.

Belvedere, by the Greeks called Calloſcopium, is ſituated on the ſpot where the ancient capital of Elis ſtood. The town received its name from the delightful places round it.

The next diviſion called Chiarenza or Clarenza, contains Achaia, properly ſo called, together with the following places, viz.

Chiarenza, or Clarenza, a pretty good town, ſeated at the bottom of a gulph on the weſtern ſhore of the Morea; but it ſuffered much in the laſt Venetian war.

Patras, Patraſſo, by the Turks called Badra, or Balubathra, is ſituated upon a hill at the foot of a high mountain, not a mile from the ſea. This city is governed by a cady, who determines all controverſies: here is alſo a waywode, who executes the determinations of the cady, and gathers the taxes and duties upon merchandize and proviſions. The Turks, who are about a third part of the inhabitants, have ſix moſques here, one of which was formerly a cathedral church. The Jews, who make alſo another third part, have four ſynagogues, and a kind of policy among themſelves; for they chooſe ancient men or elders to decide all the differences that ariſe amongſt them. The whole number of Chriſtians, Jews, and Turks, is computed to amount to about four or five thouſand perſons. It is the reſidence of a Greek archbiſhop, and gives name to the gulph which runs between the coaſt of the Morea, and the iſland of Cephalonia.

The currants of Patras are eſteemed the beſt in thoſe parts; but there are no great quantities of them. The trade of the inhabitants chiefly conſiſts of raw ſilk, made in great quantities in the Morea. Leather is alſo cheap, as are alſo honey, wax, wood, and cheeſe.

Braccio di Mania, or Takonia, comprehends the antient Arcadia and Laconia, and contains the following places, viz.

Miſitra, the antient Sparta, is ſituated on the river Eurotas, now called Baſilopotamus. It conſiſts of a caſtle, the city properly ſo called, and below it two large ſuburbs. The town and caſtle have each their diſtinct walls. The former is advantageouſly ſituated on the top of a mountain, and its walls are ſtrong and kept in good repair. It is defended by eight or ten pieces of ordnance, and the whole garriſon conſiſts of eighteen or twenty janizaries, commanded by a governor, who ſeldom reſides in the caſtle. The Turks imagine, that it can only be taken by famine, and have therefore provided it with magazines conſtantly filled with corn. Within the place are alſo ciſterns kept full of water.

The town ſtands at the foot of the caſtle, which covers it to the north, and conſiſts of two ſpacious ſtreets, and ſeveral narrow lanes croſſing them. The old market-

place

place has a curious fountain, which throws up water from three brazen pipes, and near it is a church built out of the ruins of Minerva's temple. There are alſo the remains of four magnificent marble buildings, the Perſian gallery, or portico, erected in memory of the victory gained by the Greeks at the battle of Platæa, the temple of Helena, the temple of Hercules, and that of Venus. In the town ſtands alſo the cathedral, which is a very noble building. The roof is ſupported by marble pillars; it has ſeven domes, and the pavement is a curious piece of Moſaic work. This is the ſee of a Greek archbiſhop, who is ſtiled metropolitan, and has a handſome and commodious palace, in which are lodgings for ten or twelve coloyers, or monks, who are dignitaries of the cathedral.

Towards the ſouth-eaſt part of the town is a convent of nuns, whoſe church, though not ſo large, is more beautiful than the cathedral. In one of the ſuburbs is another church, far more magnificent than the two already mentioned. The inſide is adorned with very fine paintings; the marble of its columns is very beautiful, and adorned with the moſt curious workmanſhip, and both the portico and the domes are admirable. In each of theſe churches is a particular incloſure, within which the Greek women are placed ſeparate from the men. In the ſame ſuburb ſtands the fineſt moſque the Turks have at Miſitra; it was built out of the ruins of antient Sparta. The domes are extremely noble, and its minorets moſt curiouſly wrought. Adjoining to it is the beſt endowed hoſpital of any in Turky; proviſions are there daily diſtributed to the poor, and extraordinary care is taken of the ſick; and both Jews, Moors, Turks, and Chriſtians are equally welcome. There are alſo at Miſitra two hans, or caravanſeras, for travellers; both of which are fine buildings, particularly the new one, where there are chambers for the merchants, with ſtables underneath for their horſes and other beaſts of burthen.

They reckon near two thouſand houſes at Miſitra, and near as many in the above ſuburb; but the latter are by far the fineſt, and therefore the moſt conſiderable of the Turks live there; where they have pleaſant gardens. The other village contains about a thouſand houſes, moſt of them inhabited by Jews, who have a ſynagogue there, as they have alſo at Miſitra and in the other village; the Sadducees have alſo particular ſynagogues and burying-places, and never intermarry with the other Jews.

The city of Malveſia, by the modern Greeks called Monembaſia, and by the Turks Menewtſche, is ſeated on a little iſland, on the eaſtern coaſt of the Morea, near the mouth of the gulph of Neapoli, thirty-nine miles to the ſouth-eaſt of Miſitra. The iſland on which it ſtands is not above a piſtol-ſhot from the continent, and is joined to it by a handſome ſtone bridge. The town is built at the foot of a ſteep rock, on the top of which is a good fortreſs. The walls of the city are towards the ſea-ſhore, and in very good repair; thoſe of the fortreſs are very indifferent; but its ſituation renders it in a manner impregnable, there being no aſcent to it but by a very dangerous path. It has a pretty good harbour, and is the ſee of a Greek biſhop.

The iſland on which the city is built is planted with fine gardens and vineyards, which produce that excellent wine called malmſey: but, as the iſland is ſmall, it cannot produce a ſufficient quantity of it to anſwer the demands of the public; they have therefore planted on the oppoſite ſhore a ſpace of ground about eight leagues in extent, with vines from this iſland; the wine they produce is generally ſold for malmſey, and is little inferior to it.

Maina is a town with a diſtrict belonging to it on the ſouth part of the iſland. Its inhabitants, and thoſe in the neighbourhood called Mainotti, are the deſcendants of the antient Lacedemonians, and are ſtill diſtinguiſhed as the braveſt of all the Greeks. Though their whole military force is ſaid not to exceed ten thouſand men, they have never been conquered, nor even rendered tributary to the Turks. Their country is on all ſides ſurrounded with mountains. Their modern name is derived from μανία, or madneſs, from their cuſtom of ruſhing upon the enemy, as if actuated by a phrenzy.

The fourth diſtrict is Sacconia, or Romania Minor, which contains the antient cities of Corinth, Sicyon, and Argos.

Corinth, firſt called Ephyra, and now by the Turks Gerame, was built at the foot of a very high rock, on which ſtands a caſtle, that has a moſt beautiful proſpect on every ſide. It was antiently one of the fineſt cities of all Greece, and abounded in magnificent buildings, ſuch as temples, palaces, amphitheatres, monuments, baths, and other works, adorned with ſtatues by the greateſt maſters, and beautiful porticos of columns, whoſe ſingular decorations and elegant capitals gave riſe to the appellation of the Corinthian order. But theſe ſuperb edifices are demoliſhed, and all this magnificence buried in the duſt; and the ſpot on which Corinth ſtood being filled up with fields and gardens, it rather reſembles a village than a city. The buildings are not contiguous, but in cluſters of half a dozen, ten, or ſometimes twenty together, but ſeldom more, with gardens of orange, lemon, and cypreſs trees about them. This town has two moſques, and is ſtill the ſee of a Greek archbiſhop, who lives in the cathedral, which is the only church here.

Nemea, a village famed for the antient Nemæan games, celebrated in honour of Hercules.

Sicyon, now called Baſilica, was once a very conſiderable city, the capital of the antient kingdom of Sicyona, which ſtood upon a hill by the river Aſopus, about eight miles to the weſt of Corinth; but is now only a heap of ruins.

Argos, a mean place on the river Najo, or Inachus, formerly a ſplendid capital, is the ſee of a biſhop, and is defended by a citadel.

Mycene, a village, once the capital of a kingdom.

Napoli di Romania, in Latin Neapolis, was antiently called Nauplia. It ſtands on the top of a ſmall promontory, thirty-ſix miles to the ſouth of Corinth. The port, which is one of the beſt in the Morea, is ſecured againſt pirates by a little caſtle built on a rock, that defends the entrance into the harbour; which is ſo narrow, that only one galley can paſs at a time, though the harbour is ſo ſpacious as to be able to contain a large fleet. There is but one avenue, and only one gate to get into the town on the land ſide; every where elſe the ſea waſhes the walls, which are pretty ſtrong, and flanked with old towers. Beſides the above-mentioned caſtle, there is another on the north ſide. As the harbour is more ſecure, and has better anchorage than any other on the weſt coaſt, the inhabitants carry on a conſiderable trade in corn, wine, oil, ſilks, cotton, and tobacco. The city is inhabited by Chriſtians, Turks, and Jews, and is the ſee of an archbiſhop.

SECT. VIII.

Of LIVADIA, *or* GREECE PROPER.

Its Situation, Extent, Mountains, Rivers, with an Account of the moſt remarkable Places now in that Country.

UNDER the name of Livadia is at preſent comprized antient Greece, properly ſo called, to which belonged the little kingdoms of Acarnania, Ætolia, Ozolœa, Locris, Phocis, Doris, Epicnemedia, Bœtica, Megara, and Attica. This province reaches from the Ionian ſea to the Archipelago, and is bounded on the north by Epirus, now the ſtreight of Negropont, and by Theſſaly, now called Janna; on the eaſt by the Archipelago; on the ſouth by the gulph of Engia, or Egina, the iſthmus of Corinth, and the gulph of Lepanto; and on the weſt by the Ionian ſea, and part of Albania.

It is a pleaſant and fruitful country, extending about a hundred and thirty miles from the ſouth-eaſt to the north-weſt, and is for the moſt part mountainous, containing Mount Oeta, in Bœotia, famous for the paſs of Thermopyle, which was not above twenty-five feet broad, and derived its name from the warm baths in its neighbourhood; and for Mount Parnaſſus, ſacred to Apollo; with Mount Helicon and Cytheron, conſecrated to the Muſes; all of them celebrated by the poets.

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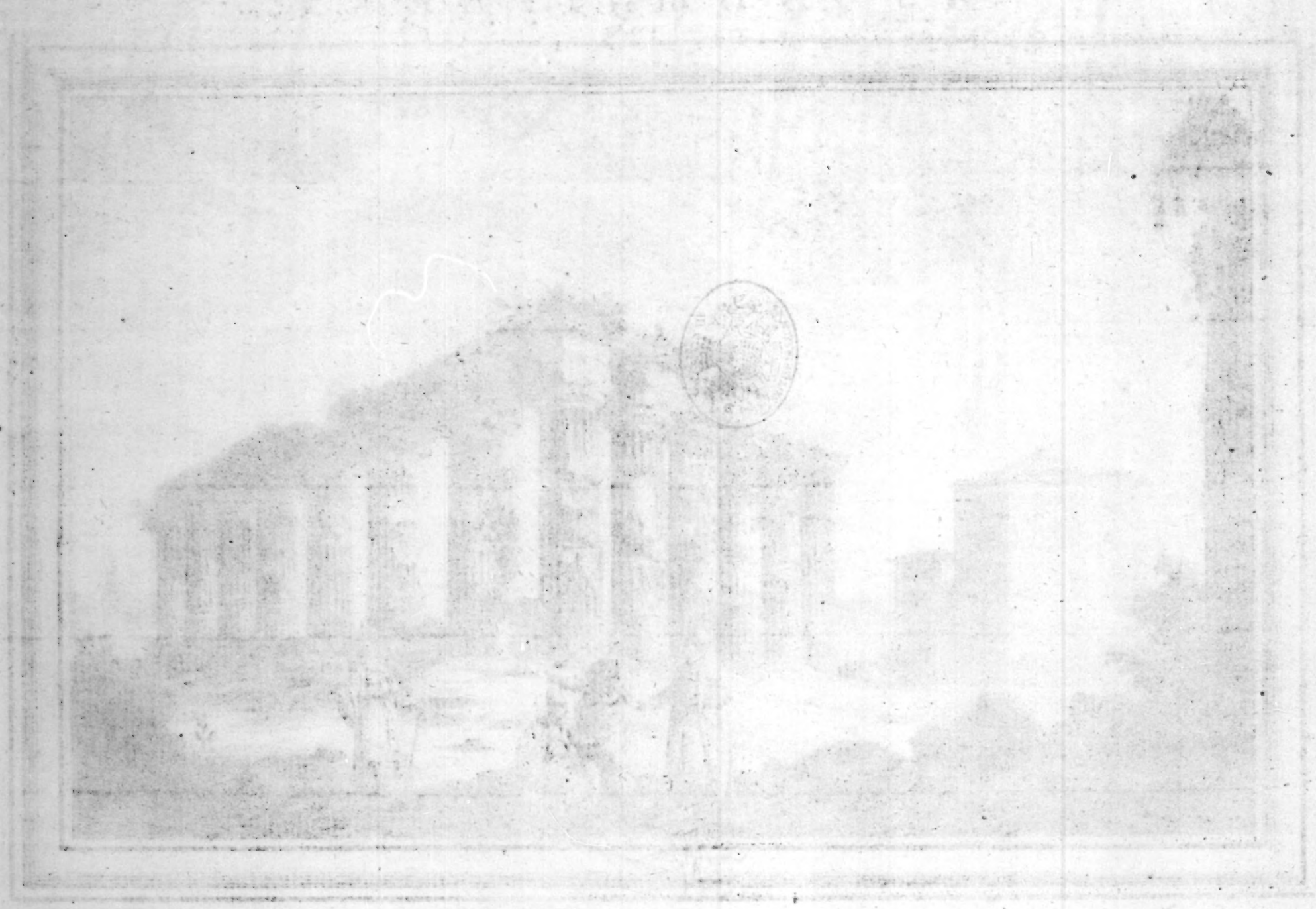
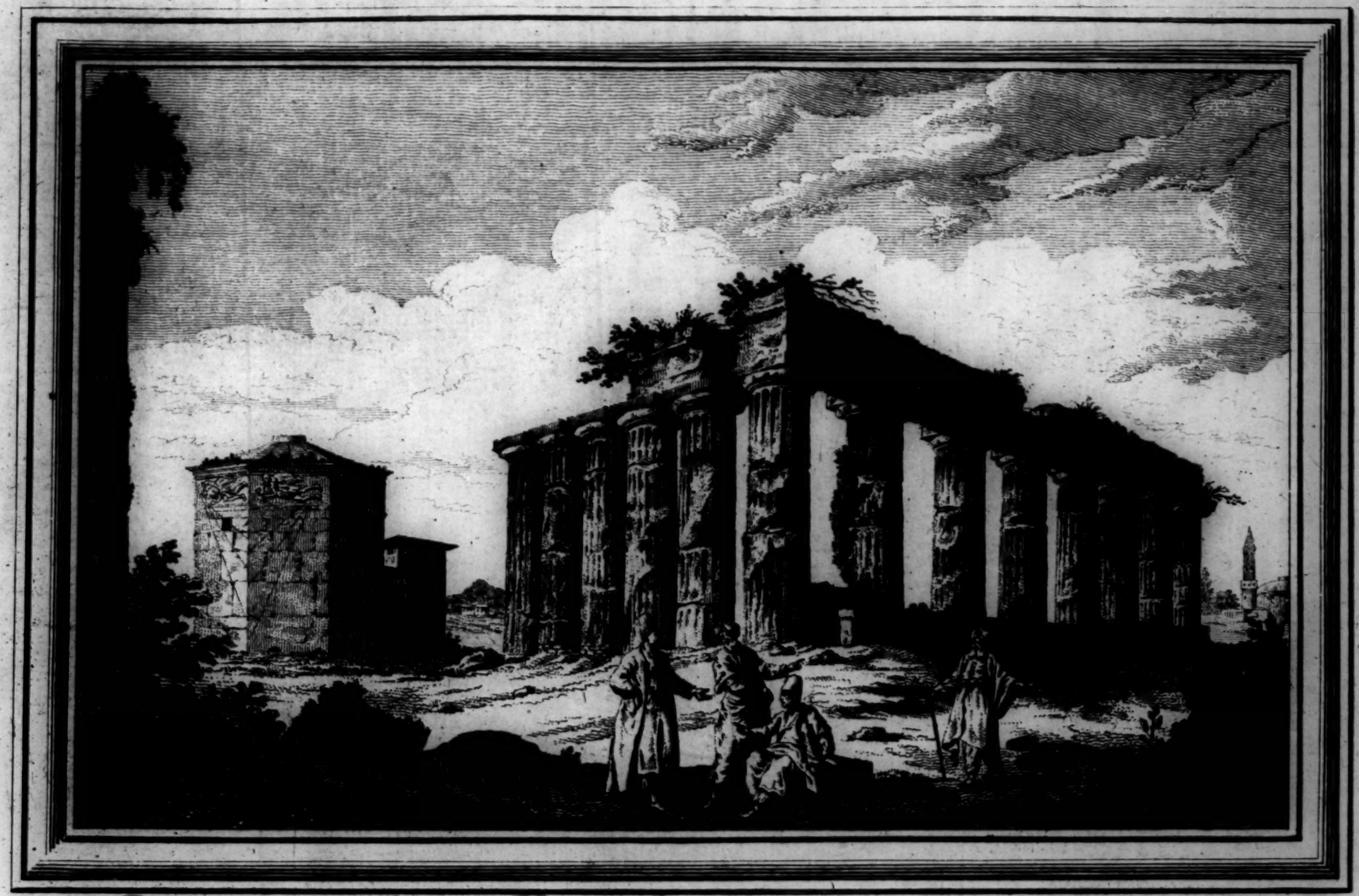
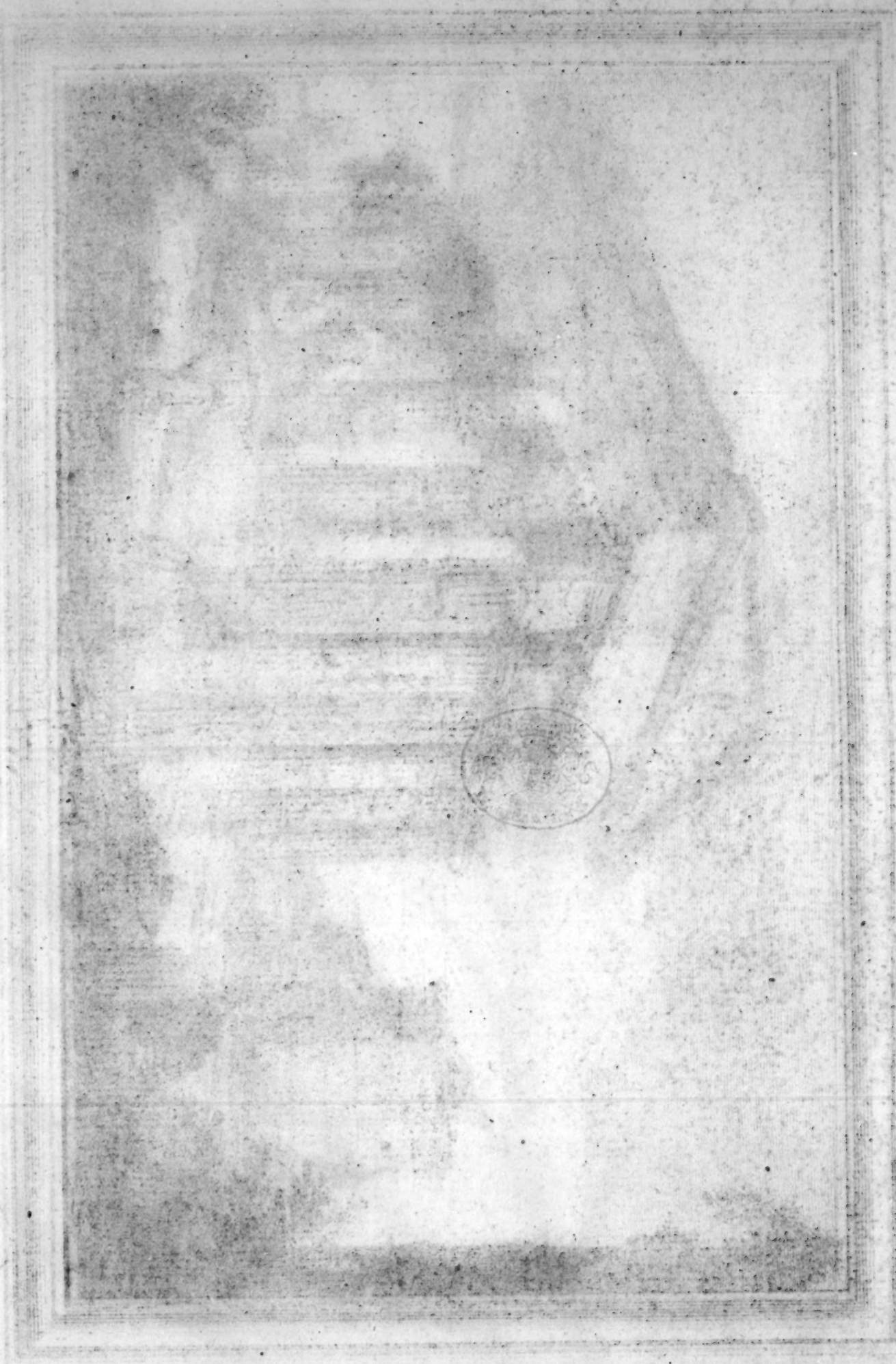


RUINS of ATHENS.



Tower of the Winds. Temple of Corinth.

Rooker Sculp.



RUINS of ATHENS.

Bridge over the River Ilissus. Stadium.

Temple of Pola in Istria.

Rocker Sculp.

RUINS of ATHENS.

Hadrian's Aqueduct. | Temple of Minerva.

Revkor Sculp.

The principal rivers of this country are the Sionapro, the antient Achelous, which ſeparated the Arcananians from the Ætolians; the Cephiſſus, that falls into the lake of Copai, which it properly forms; and the Iſmenus, which probably ran into the Aſopus, a river that diſcharges itſelf into the Archipelago.

The following places are at preſent the moſt remarkable:

Lepanto, the antient Naupactus, a town on a mountain that runs along the ſhore of the gulph of Lepanto, formerly termed the gulph of Corinth. On the ſummit of the mountain ſtands a ſmall caſtle. The town is ſurrounded by a fertile country, covered with olive trees and vineyards, corn-fields, and plantations of oranges, lemons, and citrons.

The Dardanels, are two caſtles that defend the entrance of the gulph of Lepanto. Here the Venetians, in the year 1571, gained a moſt ſignal victory over the Turkiſh fleet.

Caſtri, the antient Delphi, or Delphos, is ſituated two Turkiſh miles to the north of the gulph of Lepanto, and ſtands on a bare mountain. It was antiently very famous for its temple and oracle of Apollo; but is now only a poor place, conſiſting of about two hundred houſes.

Livadia, the capital of the province to which it gives name, is ſituated twenty-two miles to the north of the iſthmus of Corinth, and built round a mountain which, terminates in a peak, on the top of which is an old caſtle. The river Hercyna riſes out of the mountain by the caſtle with ſuch a plentiful ſtream, that it turns a conſiderable number of mills in its paſſage through the town. This place is large and populous; it is inhabited by many rich Turks, who are here more numerous than the Chriſtians, and have fine moſques. The Chriſtians have four or five old ruinous churches; but there are but few Jews. The city is governed by a vaivode and a cady, and carries on a pretty good trade in woollen ſtuffs and rice. This town was antiently celebrated for the oracle of Tryphonius, which was in a cave in the hill above the town.

The lake of Livadia is five or ſix miles to the eaſt of the city, on the north ſide of a large plain, entirely encompaſſed with high hills.

Megara, antiently the ſeat of a monarch, and afterwards the capital of a republic, ſo formidable as to be able to carry on a war againſt the Athenians and others, and to plant a colony in Sicily, is now but a poor village, and conſiſts of about three or four hundred pitiful cottages, inhabited only by Chriſtians, who get their living chiefly by tilling the earth, for which they have half the crop, the reſt being paid to their Turkiſh landlords. They alſo make pitch, and ſaw boards and planks, out of the pines and firs that grow in great abundance on the neighbouring mountains.

Salona is ſeated upon a rock in the inmoſt receſs of a fruitful valley, under an high mountain which riſes to the northward, about twelve miles to the north-weſt of Livadia. It is defended by a caſtle on the top of the rock, and is a biſhopric ſubject to the metropolitan of Athens. The number of Chriſtians and Turks are about equal, the former having ſix churches, and the latter ſeven moſques; but no Jews are permitted here. The trade conſiſts in ſome cotton, but chiefly in tobacco.

Athens, now Setines, the ancient capital of Attica, was at firſt called Cecropia, from Cecrops its founder; but afterwards was known by the name of Athens, which is derived from the goddeſs Minerva. Excluſive of its power, amazing grandeur, and opulence, it was highly celebrated for being the nurſery of the moſt eminent philoſophers, ſtateſmen, orators, and great commanders. It was at firſt governed by kings, then by archons, but afterwards fell ſucceſſively under the power of the Perſians, Macedonians, and Romans. In later times it came under the dominion of the Turks, from whom it was taken by the Venetians. In the year 1455 the Turks retook it. In 1687 the Venetians again recovered it; but in the laſt wars between thoſe two powers, it again fell into the hands of the Turks.

This city, once juſtly celebrated for the magnificence of its buildings, has no walls; but the avenues to it being ſhut by gates, are a ſufficient ſecurity againſt the corſairs, which ſometimes frequent the coaſt. The houſes are built cloſe together, and the ſtreets are very narrow. The town, which is defended by a citadel, is divided into eight quarters. The inhabitants are computed to amount to about eight or ten thouſand, three parts of whom are Chriſtians, and the reſt Turks; for no Jews are permitted to live amongſt them. It is the ſee of an archbiſhop, whoſe revenue amounts to four hundred thouſand dollars a year. There are ſaid to be two hundred churches and little chapels in and about Athens, fifty-two of which have their peculiar prieſts; the reſt are ſeldom uſed, except on the days of their founders, and are indeed only little oratories. The catholican, or cathedral, is the beſt kept in repair, and the beſt adorned of any of them; but in reality is but a mean building, and, in point of magnificence, exceeds very few of the ordinary pariſh churches in England. Here are alſo ſeveral convents of monks and nuns. The Turks have five moſques; one in the caſtle was the Parthenion, or the ſtately temple of Minerva, and is now accounted the fineſt piece of antiquity in the whole world; but in the laſt Venetian war this building ſuffered much by the cannon.

The Acropolis, which is the citadel above-mentioned, is ſituated upon the ſummit of a rock, in a very conſiderable elevation above the circumjacent plains. The top of this rock is flat, and about three quarters of a mile in circumference, to which there is an almoſt perpendicular aſcent on all ſides, except to the north-weſt. Its figure is an oblong ſquare, and it is flanked all round with a tolerable good wall. This fortreſs might be rendered almoſt impregnable. Beſides the temple of Minerva, now a moſque, there is on the ſouth ſide of the caſtle the theatre of Bacchus; the magnificent pillars, gate, and aqueduct of the emperor Adrian; the ſtadium, where the public games, called panathenæa, were exerciſed; the ruins of the areopagus; the odeum, or muſic-theatre; the temples of Theſeus, Auguſtus, and Jupiter Olympius; the temple of the winds; the Pharari, or lanthern of Demoſthenes: all theſe are ſtill to be ſeen, either entire or in part.

The two rivers, Iliſſus and Eridanus, that water the plain in which Athens now ſtands, are very ſmall; the former being diverted into ſeveral canals for watering the olive yards, and the latter loſt amidſt the many branches into which it is conveyed over the country. Athens had antiently three harbours, of which thoſe named Phalareus and Munichia lay to the eaſtward, and Pyræus to the weſt of a ſmall cape. The latter being an incloſed ſpacious harbour, with a narrow entrance, is ſtill much reſorted to, and by the Greeks called Porto Drago, but by the Italians Porto Leone, from a pillar there in memory of a lion which was carried from thence to Venice.

Lepſina, the antient Eleuſis, now lies in ruins, and is in a manner deſtitute of inhabitants; but the remains of the magnificent temple of Ceres ſtill invite travellers to viſit this place, there being viſible marks of a moſt ſuperb ſtructure, all of very fine white marble, adorned with excellent carvings and ſtatues.

Stibes, or Stives, the antient Thebes, diſtinguiſhed for its ſumptuous temples, palaces, and other noble ſtructures, has at preſent no remains of its antient grandeur, except its being the ſee of a biſhop. Its preſent walls ſeem very antient, and it has a caſtle of an oval figure. It is ſaid to contain three or four thouſand ſouls. The Turks, who appear to be the leaſt part of the inhabitants, have two moſques, and the Chriſtians ſeveral churches.

SECT. VIII.

Of JANNA, *the antient* THESSALY.

Its Situation, Extent, Mountains, Rivers, Fertility, and principal Towns.

THIS country derived its antient name from king Theſſalus, and is bounded on the north by Macedonia, on the weſt by Epirus, on the ſouth by Livadia, and on the eaſt by the Ægean ſea and the gulph of Salonica, extending about a hundred miles where longeſt, from eaſt to weſt, and its greateſt breadth from north to ſouth, ninety. It was ſometimes annexed to Macedonia,

ſometimes divided from it, and then united to it again.

Among its once celebrated twenty-four mountains the moſt remarkable is Olympus, now called Lacha, which, from its uncommon height, was celebrated by the antients as the reſidence of the gods; for they ſuppoſed it to reach up to heaven, though it is not much above an Engliſh mile in perpendicular height. Mount Oſſa, together with Nephele, was, according to the fabulous accounts of antiquity, inhabited by the Centaurs, whom Hercules ſlew or drove out. Here alſo are ſituated the plains of Pharſalia, and between the mountains Olympus, Pelion, and Oſſa, is the delightful valley of Tempe, which was ſo adorned with the gifts of nature, and ſo delightfully watered by the gently winding ſtreams of the tranſparent Peneus, now the Salampria, that it was eſteemed the garden of the muſes.

The principal rivers in Theſſaly are the Salambria, or Selampria, the Peneus of the antients. It ſprings from the mountains that divide Epirus from Theſſaly, runs acroſs the latter from eaſt to weſt, and, having watered the cities of Janna and Lariſſa, diſcharges itſelf into the gulph of Salonichi. Beſides this, there is no other river worthy of notice but the Agriomela, called by the antients the Sperchius, which ſprings from Mount Pindus, now Mezzovo, runs eaſtward through Theſſaly, and falls into the gulph of Zeyton.

This country, in its amazing fertility, ſeems to exceed all other parts of Greece. It produces citrons, oranges, lemons, pomegranates, grapes of an uncommon ſweetneſs, excellent figs and melons, almonds, olives, cheſnuts, cotton, and all ſorts of grain. It was antiently famous for its breed of cattle and horſes, from which, and the extraordinary ſkill of the Theſſalians in horſemanſhip, the fable of the Centaurs is ſuppoſed to take its riſe.

The moſt remarkable towns in this country are,

Lariſſa, or Larſo, by the Turks called Jengiſhair, the capital, ſtands on the river Pineus, in a hilly and delightful part of the country. It is ſeated on a riſing ground, with a large plain on the ſouth, and Mount Olympus on the north. Over the river is a handſome ſtone bridge of nine arches; but the town has loſt much of its antient grandeur, though it is ſtill one of the moſt powerful cities in Greece. It is the ſee of a Greek archbiſhop, and yet the Chriſtians are ſaid to have but one church here. There are above two hundred Jewiſh families, moſt of them very rich, and a conſiderable trade is carried on, particularly in leather.

Tornovo is a ſpacious and pleaſant city, in which are eighteen Greek churches, and three Turkiſh moſques. The preſent biſhop is under the archbiſhop of Lariſſa.

Janna, or Jannina, from which the country receives its name, is ſeated in a little iſland formed by the river Peneus. It is inhabited by rich Greek merchants.

Zeyton ſtands on the bey of the ſame name, fifty miles to the ſouth of Lariſſa, and was formerly defended by two large caſtles. Before the city is a beautiful and fertile plain, which abounds with corn-fields, kitchen-gardens, and orchards; and is ſurrounded by ſeveral villages, which, together with the many windings of the river Agriomela, afford a moſt delightful proſpect. The city is inhabited both by Chriſtians and Turks.

Armira, a town on the gulph of the ſame name, thought to be the Eretria of the antients.

SECT. IX.

Of Macedonia.

Its Situation, Climate, Soil, Gulphs, Rivers, and Mountains; with a particular Deſcription of Mount Athos and its Inhabitants, and of the principal Towns in Macedonia; particularly Salonichi, the antient Theſſalonica, and Philippi.

MACEDONIA is of a very irregular figure; it is bounded on the north by Servia and Bulgaria, on the eaſt by the Archipelago and Romania, on the ſouth by Theſſaly and Epirus, and on the weſt by Albania.

Its ſituation is advantageous, and the air clear, ſharp, and wholeſome. The ſoil is for the moſt part fertile, particularly on the maritime coaſts, which abound in corn, wine, oil, and whatever can be deſired for uſe and pleaſure; but in the inland parts are ſeveral uninhabited waſtes. It had formerly mines of almoſt all kinds of metals, particularly gold. Here is great plenty of wood, and all kinds of timber; and its many fine bays are of great advantage to trade. The moſt remarkable of theſe are the Conteſſa, or the Sinus Strymonicus, Monte Santo, or the Sinus Singiticus, and the Salonichi, or the Sinus Thermæus.

The principal rivers are the Platamone, the antient Aliacmon, which runs into the bay of Salonichi; the Viſtriza, the antient Erigon, which runs into the Vardar, the antient Axius, the greateſt river in all Macedonia; and the Strymon, which riſes in Romania, or Thrace, and diſcharges itſelf into the gulph of Conteſſa.

Among the many large mountains in this country is the chain of the Scardi, which traverſes the northern part of it. Pangæus, formerly famed for its rich gold and ſilver mines. The mountain of Hæmus joins the Scardi, ſeparating this country from Romania. Mount Athos is one of the moſt celebrated mountains in the whole world, and therefore deſerves a particular deſcription, which we ſhall give from that accurate geographer Dr. Buſching.

Mount Athos, commonly called Monto Santo, lies on a peninſula which extends into the Ægean ſea, and is indeed a chain of mountains, reaching the whole length of the peninſula, ſeven Turkiſh miles in length, and three in breadth; but it is only a ſingle mountain that is properly called Athos. Its uncommon height appears from the accounts of Pliny and Plutarch, who affirm, that when the ſun is at the ſummer ſolſtice, probably a little before its ſetting, the mountain caſts its ſhadow as far as the market-place of Myrrhina, in the iſle of Lemnos, which, in the beſt maps, is fifty-five Italian miles diſtant; whence the height of Mount Athos may be inferred to be about eleven ſtadia.

It is evident from Ælian, that antiently the mountain in general, and particularly the ſummit, was accounted very healthy, and conducive to long life; whence the inhabitants were called Macrobii, or long lived. We are farther informed by Philoſtratus, in the life of Apollonius, that numbers of philoſophers uſed to retire to this mountain for the better contemplation of the heavens, and of nature; and after their example the monks doubtleſs built their cells.

On it are twenty-two convents, beſides a great number of cells and grottos, with the habitations of no leſs than ſix thouſand monks and hermits; though the proper hermits, who live in grottos, are not above twenty: the other monks are anchorites, or ſuch as live in cells.

Theſe Greek monks, who call themſelves the inhabitants of the holy mountain, are ſo far from being a ſet of ſlothful people, that, beſides their daily offices of religion, they perform all manner of work, cultivate the olive and vineyards, are carpenters, maſons, ſtone-cutters, cloth-workers, taylors, &c. They alſo live a very auſtere life; their uſual food, inſtead of fleſh, being vegetables, dried olives, figs, and other fruit, onions, cheeſe, and on certain days, Lent excepted, fiſh. Their faſts are many and ſevere, which, with the healthfulneſs of the air, renders longevity ſo common there, that many of them live above a hundred years.

In every convent are two or three ſtudying monks, who are exempted from labour; but uſe exemplary diligence among the many writings to be found in their libraries; theſe are highly eſteemed for the orthodoxy of their doctrines, and the ſanctity of their lives; and here it is that the Greeks properly and chiefly learn their divinity. Theſe convents and churches have bells, which are no where elſe allowed the Greeks; and are alſo ſurrounded with high and ſtrong walls, planted with cannon, as a ſecurity from any ſurprize from Corſairs.

Beſides churches and monaſteries, the mountain has alſo a town called Kareis, inhabited by monks, and the reſidence of a Turkiſh aga, who commands here in the name of the boſtangi baſha, to defend the place againſt the corſairs, it being under the protection of that baſha, to whom it annually pays twelve thouſand dollars, and

near as much more is paid at Salonichi for the uſe of the ſultan. This heavy tribute is diſcharged by alms, and the liberal contributions of Ruſſia, and the princes of Walachia and Moldavia. In this town a market is held every Saturday among the monks and anchorites, which laſt bring hither knives and little pictures of ſaints, and with the money they thus earn, they purchaſe bread; but the monks carry them about every where, and receive alms for them. No fowls or cattle are kept by the inhabitants of this mountain; but graziers on paying a conſideration are allowed to fatten their cattle there. On this chain of hills formerly ſtood five cities.

The principal towns of Macedonia are Salonichi, the ancient Theſſalonica, a celebrated trading city in the bay of the ſame name, and at preſent the moſt conſiderable city in Macedonia. It was once called Halia, and Therma; but Caſſander rebuilt it, and in honour of his wife Theſſalonica, the ſiſter of Alexander the Great, gave it her name. To its admirable ſituation for trade is probably owing the regard which the ſeveral conquerors of Macedonia have ſhewn it. The advantages derived from it are ſuch as are ſcarcely to be met with elſewhere; and as it attracted the encomiums of the ancients, ſo it has the admiration of the moderns.

This city, which is ſituated in twelve degrees twenty-three minutes eaſt longitude from London, and in forty degrees forty minutes latitude, is one hundred and ſixty miles to the north-weſt of the iſthmus of Corinth, and ſtands partly on a hill, and partly on its declivity. In its neighbourhood runs the river Vardar, which abounds with fiſh, and its banks are adorned with beautiful trees. The city is ſaid to be ten miles in compaſs; its walls are flanked with ſeveral towers, and it is defended by three caſtles: the firſt, which is the ſmalleſt, ſtands where people land from the ſea, at ſome diſtance from the walls, and is furniſhed with twenty pieces of ordnance. The two others are within ſight of the ſea, on the higheſt parts of the wall, and are provided with forty heavy cannon. On the land-ſide is a fortreſs which commands the city, it being ſeated on a hill, at the foot of which is a large ſuburb encompaſſed by its own walls; but yet contiguous to the town. It is extremely populous; but moſt of thoſe houſes in the plain are too low, and hardly ſufficient for the great number of Jews who inhabit them; nor are they leſs inconvenient on account of the offenſive ſmell cauſed by the narrowneſs of the ſtreets. In this city a great quantity of ſilk, wool, leather of all ſorts, wax, powder, grain, cotton, and iron are continually worked. The trade is chiefly managed by the Jews, who have the monopoly of the manufactures of all the ſtuffs made for the uſe of the janizaries. The Jews have thirty-ſix large ſynagogues here, beſides ſeveral ſmall ones; and two colleges, to which youth flock from all parts to ſtudy. The Greeks have thirty churches, and the Turks forty-eight moſques, among which is one that was formerly a chriſtian church, dedicated to St. Demetrius. This is diſtinguiſhed by its beauty and magnificence, it conſiſting of one church built over another, and having in it above a thouſand columns of marble, jaſper and porphyry. Among other ſtately remains of the ancient grandeur of this city are triumphal arches, one of which is almoſt entire, erected in honour of the emperor Antoninus, and without the city are a great number of antique fragments with inſcriptions. Numbers of coins too are alſo found here.

This city is the reſidence of a Turkiſh baſha, and likewiſe of a Greek archbiſhop, who has eight ſuffragans under him. The Chriſtians were formerly ſo conſiderable, that St. Paul addreſſed two of his epiſtles to them. In the year 1313, the city was ſold to the Venetians; but they were diſpoſſeſſed of it about eight years after by Amurath II.

Philippi now an inconſiderable village, ſeventy miles to the north-eaſt of Salonichi, ſtood on a hill betwixt the rivers Neſſus and Strymon, on the borders of Thrace, to which in its moſt ancient times it belonged. It was at firſt called Crenides, or Spring-town, from the many ſprings iſſuing from the hill on which it ſtood; afterwards Daſos or Thaſus, from the Thaſii who built it, and laſtly Philippi, from Philip of Macedon, who, after reducing it, rebuilt it with conſiderable improvements, and from thenceforward it belonged to Macedonia. Near this place Brutus and Caſſius were defeated by Octavius and Mark Antony. Under Julius Cæſar and Auguſtus it was a Roman colony. Here the apoſtle Paul preached, and wrote one of his epiſtles to the Chriſtians of this city.

On approaching the place you firſt ſee the caſtle ſeated on the hill; it is very large, and its walls almoſt entire. On the ſeveral hills that ſurround the caſtle ſtand ſeveral other fortreſſes, which have a communication with it, encompaſſed by large walls that extend into the plain. Within the place are heaps of free-ſtone, and pieces of marble, but no footſteps of any buildings. Farther up you ſee a great number of edifices half demoliſhed. It is eaſily perceived that there were here magnificent temples built of white marble, and noble palaces, the broken remains of which give the beholder the higheſt idea of the beauty of the ancient architecture. There are, however, only a few houſes near the ruins of this celebrated city; and its inhabitants conſiſt of a ſmall number of poor Greeks, notwithſtanding which it is the reſidence of a Grecian biſhop, who ſtiles himſelf metropolitan of Philippi and Drama.

Conteſſa is a ſmall town twenty miles diſtant from the ruins of Philippi, and gives name to the gulph into which the river Strymon runs.

Cavalla is ſituated alſo on the ſame gulph between Conteſſa and Philippi. Its caſtle is ſtill entire; but what appears more remarkable is, there being ſtill in the neighbouring mountains long and thick walls, and ſeveral fortifications, which were probably built for the defence of the city. The walls extend to the top of the higheſt mountains, and ſeem to have been deſigned for ſhutting up the paſſes. There are at Cavalla the remains of an aqueduct, with a double row of arches, one over the other, which ſerved to convey water into the city and caſtle. This place has ſome trade, and alſo gives its name to the gulph, which is ſometimes called the gulph of Cavalla.

Emboli, the ancient Amphipolis, is ſeated upon the river Strymon, about ſix miles above its mouth, and was once famous as an Athenian colony; but is now a very inconſiderable place.

Pirlipe, a town ſituated among high mountains, which glitter like ſilver, and beſides talc, abound alſo in metals and minerals.

SECT. X.

Of ROMANIA, *by the Turks called* RUMILI.

Its Name, Situation, Mountains, Rivers, and Climate, with an Account of the principal Towns, and a particular Deſcription of Adrianople.

THIS country, which received the name of Romania, either from the Romans, or from New Rome, or Conſtantinople, the ſeat of the eaſtern part of the Roman empire, is the ancient Thrace ſo often mentioned by the Greek and Roman hiſtorians. It is a ſpacious country, bounded on the north by mount Hæmus; on the eaſt by the Red-Sea, the Helleſpont, and Propontis, or Sea of Marmora; on the ſouth by the Archipelago; and on the weſt by Macedonia, and the river Strymon.

It is ſituated between the thirty-ninth and forty-third degrees of latitude, and its utmoſt extent from the ſouth-eaſt to the north-weſt, that is from the city of Conſtantinople to the extremity of Macedonia, is about two hundred and eighty miles, and its breadth from north to ſouth one hundred and eighty.

The country is moſtly level, though interſperſed with ſome large and remarkable mountains, the moſt conſiderable of which is mount Hæmus, which on the north ſeparates Rumili from Bulgaria. The next in bigneſs is Rhodope, celebrated by the ancient poets for the cataſtrophe of Orpheus. Mount Pangæus ſeparates this country from Macedonia, and Orbelus lies at no great diſtance from the river Neſtus. Hæmus and Rho-

dope

dope are two long ridges of mountains, that extend from the frontiers of Macedonia to the Black-Sea.

The rivers worthy of notice are;

The Maritz, called by the ancients the Hebrus, which riſes in mount Hæmus, and traverſing Romania, falls into the Ægean ſea. The Caraſu, Meſtro, or Neſſus, riſes in mount Rhodope, from whence it diſcharges itſelf into the Ægean ſea; and the Strymon which riſes in mount Pangæus, and alſo falls into the Ægean Sea.

The territories ſituated among the mountains are cold and barren; but thoſe nearer the ſea are pleaſant and fertile, producing all kinds of grain, and other neceſſaries, particularly rice, which grows there in great plenty, and is remarkably good.

The country was anciently divided into many independent kingdoms; but the preſent inhabitants are Greeks, deſcended from the ancient Thracians, with a mixture of Turks. The flouriſhing ſtate of the ſciences and polite arts was chiefly owing to the Thracians; but at preſent there is ſcarce a perſon of any remarkable eminence in literature in all Romania.

The country is divided into three ſangiackſhips, and is therefore governed by three ſangiacks.

The ſangiackſhip of Kirkeli lies to the north, near Mount Hæmus, and contains, among others, the following places:

Baſartſhick, a conſiderable town ſeated on the river Maritz, into which falls at this place another ſtream, which runs round the town. It is delightfully ſituated, and univerſally well built; the ſtreets are broad and clean, and its inhabitants carry on a great trade.

Philippopoli, a very antient city, firſt founded by Philip, the father of Alexander the Great, from whom it received its name, is ſtill a pretty large town. It is built on three little hills, which in a manner join. Upon one of theſe hills ſtands a quadrangular tower, which was once a fortification, but at preſent is only uſed for a watch tower. The Maritz, which begins here to be navigable, ſeparates the town from the lower ſuburb, which is joined to the town by a good wooden bridge. There are here about a hundred and twenty Jewiſh families; but moſt of the citizens are Greeks, who have ſix churches, and it is the reſidence of a Greek archbiſhop.

Muſtapha Baſha Kiuperi, a town which takes its name from a very beautiful bridge erected there over the Maritz, by Muſtapha Baſha. This bridge conſiſts of twenty arches, all of free-ſtone, and is ſaid to have coſt four hundred purſes, or two hundred thouſand rix-dollars.

The ſangiackſhip of Byzia extends from the foot of Mount Hæmus to the ſea of Marmora, and contains the following places:

Adrianople, called by the Turks Edrene, takes its name from Adrian, who founded or reſtored it. In the year 1360 ſultan Amurath I. took it from the Chriſtians, from which time it became the ſeat of the Turkiſh emperors, till they took Conſtantinople. It is of a circular form, ſurrounded with a wall and towers, and is ſaid to be eight miles in compaſs. It has good houſes, but narrow and unequal ſtreets. The ſeraglio ſtands in a moſt delightful ſituation, the country all round being very beautiful; but the air is bad, and the river Maritz, on which it is ſituated, being dried up every ſummer, greatly contributes to render it unwholeſome: but during the reſt of the year it is a very pleaſant ſtream, over which are two noble bridges. The bazar, or exchange, founded by Ali Baſha, extends half a mile in length; the roof is arched, and kept extremely neat. It holds three hundred and ſixty-five ſhops, furniſhed with all ſorts of rich goods, which are expoſed to ſale in the ſame manner as in Exeter Exchange, in London. The pavement is kept remarkably neat, and the ſhops as clean as if juſt painted. Idle people of all ſorts walk here for their diverſion, or amuſe themſelves with drinking coffee or ſherbet, which are cried about as oranges and apples are in our play-houſes. Moſt of the rich tradeſmen here are Jews. Near it is the Sherſki, a narrow ſtreet a mile in length, covered on the top with boards to keep out the rain, that merchants may meet conveniently in all weathers. The Beſiſten near it is another exchange, built upon pillars, where all ſorts of horſe furniture is ſold, and is ſeen every where glittering with gold, rich embroidery, and jewels, eſpecially when the court is there.

The moſque of Sultan Selim I. is a building well worth the curioſity of a traveller. It is advantageouſly ſituated in the midſt of the city, and in the higheſt part of it, whence it is ſeen on every ſide to great advantage. The firſt court has four gates, and the innermoſt three. They are both of them ſurrounded with cloiſters, with marble columns of the Ionic order, finely poliſhed, and of very lively colours. The whole pavement is of white marble, and the roof of the cloiſters divided into ſeveral cupolas, or domes, headed with gilt balls on the top. In the midſt of each court are fountains of white marble; and before the great gate of the moſque is a portico, with columns of green marble, and five gates. The moſque is covered by one prodigious dome of a vaſt height.

The lady Wortley Montague, who has given the only intelligible and conſiſtent diſcription of this moſque, and was perhaps the only Chriſtian that ever entered it, ſays, ſhe thought it the nobleſt building ſhe ever ſaw. On the inſide it has two rows of galleries, ſupported by columns of red and white marble, with marble baluſtrades; the pavement is alſo marble, covered with Perſian carpets. The walls are encruſted with Japan china, in flowers of the moſt lively colours. In the middle of this ſtructure hangs a vaſt lamp of ſilver gilt, and about two thouſand of a ſmaller ſize, which muſt have a glorious effect when all are lighted. Under the large lamp is a great pulpit of carved wood gilt, and juſt by it a fountain to waſh. In one corner is a little gallery encloſed with gilded lattices for the ſultan; and at the upper end is a large niche, very like an altar, raiſed two ſteps, and covered with gold brocade. Before it ſtands two ſilver gilt candleſticks the height of a man, and in them were wax candles as thick as a man's waiſt.

The outſide of the moſque is adorned with towers of a prodigious height, gilt on the top, from whence the imaums call the people to prayers. To each of theſe towers there is but one door, which leads to three different ſtair-caſes, riſing to the three different ſtories of the tower, in ſuch a manner that three prieſts may aſcend, rounding, and deſcend, without meeting each other; a contrivance very much admired.

Behind the moſque is another exchange full of ſhops, where poor artificers are lodged gratis.

There are ſome other moſques built much after the ſame manner, but not comparable in point of magnificence, to that juſt deſcribed.

Selivrea, the antient Selimbria, is a celebrated port on the ſea of Marmora. It has an old ruinous caſtle, which ſtands on an eminence, and was formerly very ſtrong. The town is neatly built, and has a bridge of thirty-two arches. In the ſuburbs is an imperial granary, into which the grain of the province is brought. Here is a famous antient Greek church; but it is an ill built edifice, ſet out with the ſame ſort of ornaments as the Romiſh churches, but theſe are leſs rich. They here pretend to ſhew a ſaint's body, and a picture of the Virgin Mary, drawn by the hand of St. Luke, very little to the credit of his painting; but no picture among the papiſts is more famous for its miracles. The Greeks have indeed a monſtrous taſte in their paintings, which, for more finery, are always done upon a gold ground; and they have no notion of either ſhade or proportion. This town is the ſee of a biſhop.

Heraclea, antiently Perinthus, was formerly a large city; though now it is but a mean palace. It has a good harbour, and is the reſidence of an archbiſhop. Here are abundance of fragments of ſtatues, entablatures, columns, and there are ſtill to be ſeen the remains of an amphitheatre built in the time of the emperor Severus.

Rodoſto is a large and populous trading town, lying on the ſea of Marmora. It is ſituated upon the brow of a hill, at the bottom of a bay, and makes a handſome appearance towards the ſea.

Belgrade, a village near Conſtantinople, ſituated in the midſt of a wood, conſiſting chiefly of fruit trees, watered by a great number of fountains, famous for the excellence

of

of their water, and divided into many ſhady walks, within view of the Black ſea, from whence a cool breeze perpetually ariſes that make the inhabitants inſenſible of the heat of ſummer. This village is only inhabited by the richeſt among the Chriſtians.

We might here give a deſcription of Conſtantinople, which is ſituated in this ſangiackſhip; but, as that will take up a conſiderable length, we chooſe to defer it till the next ſection.

The third ſangiackſhip is that of Gallipoli, which extends from Mount Rhodope to the Archipelago. To it belongs,

Trajanopolis, antiently called Zernis, but being repaired and beautified by the emperor Trajan, about the end of the firſt century, was called by his name. It is ſtill the ſee of a biſhop, though the town is but ſmall, and very thinly peopled.

Dematica, a town on the Maritz, the reſidence of a Greek biſhop. Here Charles XII. king of Sweden, ſpent ſome time in the year 1713.

The Thracian Cherſoneſus, which is in this diviſion, is a peninſula waſhed on the eaſtward by the ſea of Marmora and the Helleſpont, on the ſouth by the Archipelago, on the weſtward by a gulph into which falls the ſmall river of Melas, and on the north it is joined to the continent by a tract of land, the breadth of which was reckoned by the antients to be about thirty-ſeven ſtadia. It formerly contained eleven towns, but at preſent the following are the principal of note:

Gallipoli, the antient Callipolis, was built by Callias, prince of the Athenians, from whom it received its name, and is ſtill a large town, ſituated on the celebrated ſtreight by the antients called the Helleſpont, which divides Europe from Aſia, and is ſaid to contain ten thouſand Turks, three thouſand five hundred Greeks, and not quite ſo many Jews. The inhabitants are famed for making excellent arrows. The Bazar is a handſome building, with ſeveral domes covered with lead. The town has no walls, and is only defended by a caſtle and an old tower.

At the entrance of this ſtreight, next the Archipelago, are the celebrated Dardanells, two caſtles which command the whole ſtreight, and are the key of Conſtantinople. One of them ſtands in Europe, on the moſt ſouthern point of the Thracian Cherſoneſus, where the ſtreights begin, and the other oppoſite to it in Aſia. That in Europe only conſiſts of one round tower, with ſome outworks; cloſe to which ſtands a village. Both theſe caſtles were built by Mahomet II. in 1452; but, in the year 1656, the Venetian fleet forced their way through, and drove the Turkiſh fleet aſhore. On a rock in the middle of this ſtraight ſtands a tower, on which the Turks have ſome ſmall cannon; this ſerves the mariners as a mark to ſteer by, and is only uſed by the Turks as a watch-tower. "Since I have ſeen this ſtreight, ſays the ingenious lady Wortley Montague, I ſee nothing improbable in the adventure of Leonidas, or very wonderful in the bridge of boats of Xerxes. 'Tis ſo narrow, 'tis not ſurpriſing a young lover ſhould attempt to ſwim, or an ambitious king try to paſs his army over it. But then 'tis ſo ſubject to ſtorms, 'tis no wonder the lover periſhed, and the bridge was broken."

SECT. XI.

Of the Names and Situation of Conſtantinople; with a conciſe Hiſtory of that City: its agreeable Climate, and a Deſcription of its principal Buildings.

THE city of Conſtantinople, the antient Byzantium, by the Turks called Iſtambol, the capital of the Turkiſh empire, is ſituated on the moſt eaſtern part of Romania, on a neck of land which projects towards Natolia, from which it is ſeparated by a ſtreight about a mile broad. It ſtands in the forty-firſt degree of latitude, and the twenty-eighth degree forty minutes eaſt longitude from London; and is alſo called the ſublime Porte, the ſublime ſultanian Porte, the Port of juſtice, majeſty, and felicity. The appellation of Porte is ſaid to be derived from the large and magnificent port or gate built by Mahomet II. at the principal entrance of the ſeraglio, or imperial palace.

The antient Byzantium was built by Pauſanias, king of Sparta, but afterwards becoming ſubject to the Romans, it was demoliſhed by the emperor Severus, in order to puniſh the rebellion of the inhabitants. It was, however, afterwards rebuilt by Conſtantine the Great, who called it New Rome, and removed the ſeat of the empire thither; but afterwards called it Conſtantinople, from his own name.

This city, after being the capital of the Eaſtern empire almoſt three hundred years, was firſt beſieged in the reign of the emperor Phocias by Chozroes, king of Perſia, who blocked it up for eight years together, till it was delivered by Heraclius in the year 611, who on this account obtained the empire.

In 672 it was beſieged in the reign of the emperor Conſtantine Pogonates by Yeſid, the ſon of Moavia, the firſt caliph of the family of the Ommiades; when the Greek emperor was ſo preſſed, as to be almoſt reduced to deſpair; for while the Saracen army lay before it on the land ſide, they blocked it up with a prodigious fleet at ſea. But Callinicus, a famous engineer, invented a kind of wild-fire, that would burn under water, and by this means is ſaid to have deſtroyed the whole fleet.

In 717 this city was again beſieged by Moſlemah, the brother of Solyman; but was relieved by Leo the Iſaurian, who cauſed the emperor to be ſhaven and confined in a cloiſter, and then ſeated himſelf on the throne.

In 780 Haroun Alraſchid, ſon of the caliph Matradi, inveſted Conſtantinople with a prodigious army, when the Greek empire being governed by Irene, as regent to her ſon Conſtantine VI. ſurnamed Porphyrogenetes, ſhe was ſo hard preſſed, as to be glad to deliver herſelf by a treaty, in which ſhe promiſed to pay an annual tribute of ſeventy thouſand pieces of gold to the caliph. Thus this part of the Roman empire became tributary to the Saracens.

The Greek empire now began to deline, and that of the Mahometans had greatly increaſed, when cruſades, produced by bigotry, began to be formed, under the pretence of recovering the Holy Land. Theſe cruſaders commited the greateſt barbarities in the Eaſtern empire; and in one of theſe expeditions Baldwin, earl of Flanders, in the year 1204, ſurpriſed Conſtantinople, notwithſtanding its being a Chriſtian city, and cauſed himſelf to be proclaimed emperor of the Eaſt; but dying in leſs than a year, he was ſucceeded by his brother Henry, earl of Flanders, who held the government ten years; and, at his death, Peter Courteney, of that noble family, which ſtill ſubſiſts in England, having married his daughter, ſucceeded to the throne; but was killed in the ſixth year of his reign. His ſon Philip reſigned the empire to his brother Robert, who was murdered, after a reign of ſeven years, when Robert's ſon, Baldwin II. though a child, ſucceeded, under the tutelage of John de Brenne, who ſtiled himſelf king of Jeruſalem.

At length, in the year 1232, Batu, grandſon to Gengiſkan, the founder of the Tartar empire, after overrunning Moſcovy, Poland, Sileſia, Bohemia, and Hungary, advanced through Bulgaria to beſiege Conſtantinople, when the Eaſtern and Weſtern Chriſtians uniting, gave him battle, defeated him, and obliged him to abandon his deſign.

In the year 1259, or, according to others, in 1262, Michael Paleologus recovered Conſtantinople from Baldwin Courteney; from which time it continued in the poſſeſſion of the Greek emperors, till the year 1453, when Mahomet, emperor of the Turks, laid ſiege to that city on the ninth of April, and took it by ſtorm on Tueſday the twenty-ninth of May, the Greek emperor being, as ſome ſay, killed in the breach, or, according to others, trampled to death by his own ſoldiers in their flight. From this time it has been the ſeat and capital of the Turkiſh empire.

The climate of Conſtantinople is extremely delightful; it would indeed be very hot in ſummer, were it not cooled by a breeze which blows every afternoon from the mouth of the port; and in winter the air is ſo moderate, that lady Wortley Montague, in one of her letters, mentions her being writing of it on the fourth of January

with the windows open, enjoying the warm ſun-ſhine; while her friends in England were freezing at a ſea-coal fire, and her chamber ſet out with carnations, roſes, and jonquils, freſh from her garden.

The city is of a triangular figure, and has the moſt agreeable and moſt advantageous ſituation in the world. It ſeems as if the canal of the Dardanells, and that of the Black ſea, were made to bring thither the riches of all the four quarters of the earth. Thoſe of the Mogul, the Indies, China, and the remoteſt parts of the north, come by the way of the Black ſea; and by the White ſea, or ſea of Marmora, come the merchandizes of Arabia, Egypt, the coaſt of Africa, the Weſt Indies, and whatever is produced in Europe.

To the north of the city lies its harbour, which is both convenient and of ſo large extent, that it is ſaid to be able to contain a thouſand ſhips, it being formed by an arm of the ſtreight which runs north-weſt up into the country, and is joined by a river. It is encompaſſed with walls, which have twenty-two gates, ſix towards the land, as many along the port, and ten on the ſtreight of the ſea of Marmora, antiently called the Propontis: theſe have all landing-places and ſtairs. The fortifications, however, are too antique and ruinous to make any tolerable reſiſtance againſt an enemy.

The city ſtands, like antient Rome, on ſeven hills, and makes a grand appearance from without, riſing gradually from the ſhore in the form of an amphitheatre. The unequal heights of the buildings make it ſeem as large again as it is, ſhowing an agreeable mixture of gardens, pine, and cypreſs-trees, palaces, moſques, and other public buildings, beautifully riſing one above another; but it is not equal within to the ideas formed of it when viewed from the Black ſea; for the ſtreets are narrow and ſlippery, running along a declivity, and moſt of the houſes are low, built only of wood and mortar; but are crowded with inhabitants. The beſt houſes ſtand in the places leaſt ſubject to any great concourſe of people, and where the city is moſt thinly inhabited; for the fineſt buildings are without the city near the harbour.

The caſtle of the Seven Towers joins the walls on the continent ſide to thoſe that lie upon the ſea of Marmora, but is only uſed as an honourable priſon. On the outſide it has two large figures in white marble, done in baſſo relievo, one of which ſeems to be Endymion, and the other Diana coming to viſit him. There are alſo the nine muſes, and the horſe Pegaſus, all done by a good hand. A ſquare tower ſtands in the ſea, at about two paces from the city walls, where it is ſaid Juſtinian impriſoned his brave general Beliſarius.

By this tower is a ſpring, for which the Greeks have a great veneration; and, upon the day of Chriſt's transfiguration, carry their ſick to it, give them ſome of the water, and cover their bodies for ſome time with the ſand; by which means they pretend that ſurpriſing cures have been performed.

Near this ſpring ſtands the kioſk, or pleaſure-houſe, of the overſeer of the gardens. This is a pavilion juſt without the walls of the ſeraglio, affording a view of the ſea of Marmora and the Thracian Boſphorus. Beyond this kioſk are many cannon planted level with the water, to ſecure the entrance into the port, and the ſeraglio, ſhould any attempt it by force; and in the center of the place where theſe cannon are fixed is one of the four poſterns of the ſeraglio, called the Gate of the Gardens; it has two large turrets, and is guarded by two companies of gardeners, who keep all from entering at this gate, except the officers of the ſeraglio.

On paſſing the cannon and doubling the cape, you come to two kioſks, built by Sultan Solyman, to take a view of the men of war as they ſail out and come in, and to divert himſelf with his women. Both of them are adorned with gilt cupolas and alcoves, with rich ſophas, and every thing fit for ſo great a prince. At theſe pleaſure-houſes ſome ſmall gallies and ſaics attend to receive the Grand Seignior and his train whenever he pleaſes to divert himſelf on the water.

The word ſeraglio ſignifies no more than a palace. This edifice is of a triangular figure; but is rather a collection of palaces and apartments joined together by the emperors, as their ſeveral fancies led them, than one ſingle building It is a mile and a half in compaſs, and is incloſed by a ſtrong wall that has ſeveral watch-towers, on which guard is kept day and night; and though it has many gates, both on the ſea and land ſide, only that towards the ſea is daily uſed, and the reſt never opened but upon ſome particular occaſions. The principal gate is of marble, and by the Turks called Capi, or the Porte; and from hence you enter the firſt court, in which are the mint, the infirmary, and other buildings. The ſecond court is called the Divan-Court, the great council-chamber being there, with the kitchen, the treaſury, and ſtables. To the north adjoining to the divan is the ſeraglio, properly ſo called, through which is a narrow paſſage that leads to the audience-chamber, which is of amazing magnificence, particularly the throne. Thus far ambaſſadors are permitted to come, and no farther dare any foreigners approach, though not a few travellers have had the boldneſs to ſay, that they have penetrated the apartments of the women, and have even deſcribed the bedchambers of the ſultan.

The gardens take in a large compaſs of ground full of high cypreſs trees. The buildings are all of white ſtone, and have gilded turrets and ſpires, which have a very magnificent appearance, and it is ſaid that the palace of no Chriſtian king is half ſo large. It has ſix large courts all built round, and ſet with trees for the uſe of the Sultan, and his officers; and on the ladies ſide, there are ſaid to be as many more.

As no credible author can give a juſt deſcription of the inner part of the imperial ſeraglio, we ſhall here give one of a grand vizier, who was killed at Peterwaradin, and which he built to receive his royal bride, the daughter of a late ſultan. This deſcription we ſhall take from the letters of the ingenious and learned lady, with extracts which we have already embelliſhed this work. "It is ſituated, ſays ſhe, on one of the moſt delightful "parts of the canal, with a fine wood on the ſide of a "hill behind it. The extent of it is prodigious, the "guardian aſſured me, there are eight hundred rooms in "it; I will not, however, anſwer for that number, ſince I "did not count them; but it is certain the number is "very large, and the whole adorned with a profuſion "of marble, gilding, and the moſt exquiſite painting "of fruit and flowers. The windows are all ſaſhed "with the fineſt glaſs brought from England, and here "is all the expenſive magnificence that you can ſuppoſe "in a palace founded by a vain luxurious young man, "with the wealth of a vaſt empire at his command. But "no part of it pleaſed me better than the apartments "deſtined for the bagnios. There are two built exactly "in the ſame manner, anſwering to one another; the "baths, fountains, and pavements all of white marble, "the roofs gilt, and the walls covered with Japan china. "Adjoining to them are two rooms, the uppermoſt of "which is divided into a ſofa; and in the four corners "are falls of water from the very roof, from ſhell to "ſhell of white marble, to the lower end of the room, "where it falls into a large baſon, ſurrounded with "pipes that throw up the water as high as the room. "The walls are in the nature of lattices, and on the out-"ſide of them, there are vines and woodbines planted, "that form a ſort of green tapeſtry, and give an agree-"able obſcurity to thoſe delightful chambers. I ſhall "only add, that the chamber deſtined for the ſultan "when he viſits his daughter is wainſcotted with mo-"ther of pearl, faſtened with emeralds like nails. There "are others of mother of pearl, and olive wood inlaid, "and ſeveral of Japan china. The galleries, which are "numerous and very large, are adorned with jars of "flowers, and porcelain diſhes of fruit of all ſorts, ſo "well done in plaiſter, and coloured in ſo lively a manner, "that it has an enchanting effect. The garden is ſuit-"able to the houſe, where arbours, fountains, and walks, "are thrown together in an agreeable confuſion. There "is no ornament wanting except that of ſtatues."

The next remarkable ſtructure is that of St. Sophia, which was formerly a Chriſtian church, built in the ſixth century by the emperor Juſtinian. This is a very noble edifice. The dome is ſaid to be one hundred and thirteen feet in diameter, built upon arches, ſupported by vaſt pillars of marble: the pavement and ſtair-caſe are

alſo of marble. There are two rows of galleries ſupported with pillars of a party colour marble, and the whole roof is covered with moſaic work, which decays very faſt, and part of it has fallen down. In this ſtructure they ſhow the tomb of the emperor Conſtantine, for which they have a high veneration. It was with great difficulty the lady Wortley Montague obtained permiſſion to ſee this ſtructure, and even the mufti was conſulted upon the occaſion.

Though the moſque juſt deſcribed is generally repreſented as the nobleſt building in Conſtantinople, there are others which ſeem ſtill more beautiful. That of Sultan Solyman is an exact ſquare, with four fine towers in the angles. In the midſt is a noble cupola ſupported by fine marble pillars, and two ſmaller at the end ſupported in the ſame manner. The pavement and gallery round the moſque is of marble. Under the great cupola is a fountain, adorned with pillars of ſuch beautiful colours, that they ſeem to exceed nature. On one ſide is the pulpit of white marble, and on the other a little gallery for the ſultan, which is aſcended by a fine ſtaircaſe, with gilt lattices. At the upper end is a kind of altar, where the name of God is written, and before it ſtand two candleſticks, as high as a man, with wax candles as thick as three flambeaux. The pavement is ſpread with fine carpets, and the moſque illuminated with a vaſt number of lamps. The court leading to it is very ſpacious, and encompaſſed with galleries ſupported by columns of green marble, and on two ſides covered with twenty-eight cupolas, with a fine fountain in the middle. In all the moſques are little chapels, where are the tombs of the founders and their families, with wax candles burning before them.

This deſcription may ſerve for all the moſques in Conſtantinople; for the model of all is exactly the ſame, and they differ only in ſize and the richneſs of the materials. That of the Sultana Valida is the largeſt, and built entirely of marble. It was founded by the mother of Mahomet IV. The lady we have juſt mentioned obſerves, that the ſize is prodigious; that it is the moſt beautiful ſtructure ſhe ever ſaw; and that St. Paul's church at London would make but a pitiful figure near it. She obſerves too, that this would be the caſe with any of our ſquares were they compared with the alterdan or place of horſes. This was the Hippodrome in the reign of the Greek emperors. In the middle of it is a brazen column of three ſerpents twiſted together, with their mouths gaping; for their heads are not broken off, as ſome travellers have pretended. It is impoſſible to learn the reaſon for which this pillar was erected: the Greeks can tell only fabulous legends in relation to it, and there is no ſign of its ever having had any inſcription. At the upper end of this ſquare is an obeliſk of porphyry, brought from Egypt; it is adorned with hieroglyphics, which are all entire, and is placed on four little brazen pillars upon a pedeſtal of ſquare free-ſtone filled with figures in baſs relief, on two of its ſides, one ſquare repreſenting a battle, the other an aſſembly. On the other ſides there are Greek and Latin inſcriptions.

The hiſtorical pillar mentioned by ſeveral authors is no more; it fell down about fifty years ago. Among the other antiquities are the aqueducts, which are prodigiouſly large, and as ancient as the Greek empire, tho' the Turks have cut upon them ſome Turkiſh inſcriptions, to give them the honour of having performed ſo great a work.

The Greeks have thirty churches, and the Armenians a great many. The Roman catholics have alſo more than one, and the Swedes have been permitted to build a Lutheran church here. The Greek patriarch has a palace, which ſtands on a hill about two hundred paces from the harbour near the patriarchal church, which is dedicated to St. George.

The exchanges are all noble buildings, conſiſting of fine alleys, the greateſt part with their roofs ſupported by pillars, and kept wonderfully neat. Every trade has its diſtinct alley, where the merchandize is diſpoſed in the ſame order as in Exeter-Exchange in London. The jewellers quarter is extremely rich, and ſhews ſuch a vaſt quantity of diamonds and precious ſtones of all kinds, that they dazzle the ſight. The embroideries are alſo very rich. The markets are moſt of them handſome ſquares, admirably well provided, and affording every thing in the greateſt plenty. The other public buildings are the hans and monaſteries of derviſes; the firſt are very large and numerous, the ſecond few in number, and not at all magnificent.

The number of people in Conſtantinople have been computed at eight hundred thouſand. The plague, which viſits the city every year, frequently makes dreadful havock: the city has alſo often ſuffered by fires, ſome of which have deſtroyed from fifty to ſeventy thouſand houſes at once. In the year 1754, it ſuffered much by an earthquake, a fire breaking out at the ſame time. In 1755 and 1756, two other dreadful conflagrations happened here.

On the weſt ſide of the city are the ſuburbs of Ejap, or St. Job. The country along the ſtreight into the Black-Sea is covered with towns and villages, noble ſeats, gardens, meadows, vineyards, and woods. The chief officers of the court generally reſide there in ſpring, ſummer, and the beginning of autumn, both for the benefit of the freſh air, and in order to be near the emperor, who ſpends the ſummer at Beſictaſh, where he has a ſeraglio.

Galata is a ſuburb ſurrounded with walls, towers, and moats. This and the following ſuburbs are ſituated on the oppoſite ſide of the harbour. The inhabitants of Galata are chiefly Greeks, Armenians, Franks, and Jews, who chooſe it for their reſidence, for the ſake of living more at liberty than in the city. The catholics have a few churches here, and the Greeks have ſix. Here alſo are the warehouſes of the merchants, and near them cloſe to the harbour is the dock.

At no great diſtance is Pera, which is alſo a handſome ſuburb ſtanding on an eminence, and is the quarter where the Chriſtian envoys reſide, though it is principally inhabited by wealthy Greeks. The air is healthy, and the proſpect extremely pleaſant.

Tophana, which is ſo called from its cannon foundery, may be conſidered as another of the ſuburbs of Conſtantinople, and lies directly fronting the imperial ſeraglio.

SECT. XII.

Of BULGARIA.

Its Situation, Extent, Name, Rivers, Mountains, hot Springs, and principal Towns.

THIS country, which was formerly called the Lower Myſia, is bounded on the north by the Danube; on the eaſtward by the Euxine or Black ſea; on the ſouth by Mount Hæmus, which ſeparates it from Romania, laſt deſcribed; and on the weſtward by Servia. Its greateſt length, from eaſt to weſt, is about two hundred and eighty miles; and its breadth, from north to ſouth, about a hundred and eighty.

It was antiently ſubject to Thrace; but being conquered by the Romans, it at length, on the diviſion of that empire, fell to the ſhare of the Eaſtern emperors. Upon the declenſion of the empire, it was ſubdued by a people from Aſiatic Sarmatia, ſuppoſed to have come from the banks of the Volga; from whence ſome derive the name Bulgaria, from a corruption of Volgaria. Others maintain, that the people who gave their name to this province were called Bulgar, or Bolgar, and the people originally called Bulgares. However, they rendered this country a part of the kingdom of Hungary, and poſſeſſed it till it was taken by Amurath II. emperor of the Turks, about the middle of the fifteenth century, ſince which it has continued under the government of that empire.

The Danube, which runs through this country for the ſpace of eighty miles, receives the Iſter of Axiopolis. There is here another river, called the Iſhar, which riſes in Mount Hæmus, and falls into the Danube near Nicopolis.

The country is in general very mountainous, but the valleys and plains are extremely rich and fruitful, producing

ducing wine and corn in the greateſt plenty. The mountains too are alſo far from being barren, and in particular afford excellent paſturage. Thus that of Stara Plamina, though bare and deſolate towards its ſummit, is extremely fertile in the middle and lower part.

At the foot of the mountain which divides Bulgaria from Servia is a warm bath, where the water guſhes out in a ſtream that is ſaid to be of the bigneſs of a man's body, and yet but ſixty paces from it is another ſpring in the ſame valley as cold as ice; but, from the ſmell, it evidently appears, that they both contain nitrous and ſulphureous particles. Upon this mountain is a Greek convent for monks of the order of St. Baſil. On the frontiers of Servia, between the mountain of Suha and the river Niſſava, are ſeveral warm baths, whoſe waters are of a ſulphureous quality, and iſſue from the mountain deeply tinged with red ſand and ſtones. At the foot of Mount Witoſcha, towards the borders of Romania, are likewiſe four warm baths of great repute, and the mountain has not only iron mines, but is covered with villages, corn-fields, vineyards, and paſtures.

Among the natural curioſities of this country are alſo the vaſt number of large eagles in the neighbourhood of the town of Babadagi, where the archers all over Turky and Tartary ſupply themſelves with feathers for their arrows, though each eagle has no more than twelve fit for their uſe, and thoſe only in the tail. Theſe feathers are commonly ſold for a lion dollar.

The inhabitants, who were antiently renowned for their martial atchievements, now apply themſelves to graziery, agriculture, and handicraft employments. Their language is Sclavonic, but differs a little from the Servian in pronunciation. Some of the inhabitants are Greeks, and others Mahometans. The Greek church has here a patriarch, though he is not acknowledged as ſuch by the other patriarchs, and alſo three archbiſhops.

The country, being governed by four ſangiacs, is conſequently divided into four ſangiacſhips. The ſangiacſhip of Sardic contains the following towns:

Sophia, called by the inhabitants Triaditza, is a very large and populous trading town, well built, but open. It is ſituated on a large beautiful plain, and ſurrounded with diſtant mountains. 'Tis hardly poſſible to ſee a more agreeable landſcape: but the ſtreets are narrow, uneven, and dirty, being paved only in the foot-ways. However, every houſe has a garden well planted with fruit-trees and ſhrubs. The Iſcha in ſome places runs along the ſkirts of the town, and in others paſſes through it. The principal part of the traders here are Greeks or Armenians. It is the reſidence of a beglerbeg, and was built by the emperor Juſtinian out of the ruins of the antient city Sardica. It is one of the greateſt thoroughfares in Turky, ſince all who travel from Conſtantinople to Raguſa, Venice, or into Hungary, muſt paſs through this town; but the air is ſo unwholeſome, from its being ſurrounded with marſhes, that it would be in a much leſs flouriſhing condition were it not for the reſidence of the beglerbeg. The mountains to the ſouth make the winter continue longer than the ſummer, and are the cauſe of frequent rain. This town is famous for its hot baths, and for their medicinal virtues.

Among the hills, where the ſteep rocks and dreadful precipices ſcarce admit of any acceſs, is Trajan's gate, which that emperor erected in commemoration of his marching with his army through this country, where he made a road through places before impaſſable. This gate conſiſts of two ſtone pillars, which ſupport an arch repreſenting a large open gate; but this building is now very ruinous: it conſiſts of hewn-ſtone and bricks; the curious in antiquity have been, however, too buſy in taking off the ſtones, which has greatly effaced this ſtately monument. In the mountains leading to this gate are ſeveral iron works, and a boiling ſpring.

Ternowa, the antient Ternobum, was formerly the capital of Bulgaria, a royal ſeat, and fortified, though at preſent it is but a mean place. It is ſituated about a hundred and twenty miles to the eaſt of Sophia, is the reſidence of a patriarch, and has ſtill an archbiſhop, who is ſtiled archbiſhop of Ternowa and all Bulgaria.

The ſangiacſhip of Bibin, or Widin, among other places, contains,

Widin, by the antients called Viminacium, a ſtrong fortification on the Danube, and a biſhop's ſee. In 1739 the Hungarians made a fruitleſs attempt upon this place.

Colombotz, or Golombotz, a well fortified caſtle ſeated on a mountain, at the foot of which is the ſtrong paſs of Urania.

This ſangiacſhip alſo contains ſeveral other fortreſſes, and ſome pretty good towns.

The ſangiacſhip of Nicopoli contains,

Nicopoli, or Nigepoli, a large town on the Danube, defended by a caſtle, and rendered famous in hiſtory by the firſt unfortunate battle fought there between the Chriſtians and Turks in the year 1396, when the emperor Sigiſmund was defeated by Sultan Bajazet, and loſt twenty thouſand men; though Bajazet is ſaid to have bought the victory ſo dear as to have ſixty thouſand ſlain.

Preſlaw, antiently called Marcianapolis, was built in honour of Marciana, ſiſter to the emperor Trajan; its preſent name ſignifies an eminent city.

The fourth and laſt ſangiacſhip is that of Siliſtria, which contains the following places:

Siliſtria, a large and fortified town, ſituated on the Danube. It is a biſhop's ſee, and ſtands at a ſmall diſtance from the remains of the wall erected by the Grecian emperors againſt the inroads of the barbarous nations, ſixty-ſix miles to the eaſtward of Nicopoli. Its great antiquity appears from the nature of its walls, which are evidently of Roman, and not Turkiſh architecture. Very few of the inhabitants are Turks.

There are ſeveral other towns, but as they are in general ſmall and inconſiderable places, and have nothing worthy of obſervation, we ſhall not trouble our readers with a repetition of their names.

The diſtrict of Drobrudſch, which extends to the mouth of the Danube, is an entire plain, interſperſed neither by woods nor rivers; though at the end of it is a wood called by the Turks Dali-Orman, or Fools-Wood. The inhabitants, who derive their origin from Tartarian emigrants, are famed for their ſingular hoſpitality, which is ſo great, that when a traveller of any religion or country paſſes through any of their villages, all the houſe-keepers of both ſexes come out to ſalute him, intreating him in the civileſt manner to take up his lodging with them, and kindly accept of what God has been pleaſed to beſtow. The perſon whoſe invitation the traveller accepts entertains him and his horſes, if they do not exceed three, for the ſpace of three days, with a cordiality and chearfulneſs that can ſcarce be paralleled. He ſets honey and eggs before him, in both of which this country abounds, and very fine bread baked in the embers. They alſo build a little houſe for the reception of ſtrangers in particular, with couches round the hearth for travellers to uſe as they think proper.

Having deſcribed the Turkiſh empire in Europe to the weſt of the Archipelago, the ſea of Marmora, and the Black ſea, we ſhall, before we proceed to deſcribe the more weſtern regions, give a deſcription of the European iſlands of the Archipelago, the Mediterranean, and the Ionian ſeas.

SECT. XIII.

Of the principal Iſlands of Greece, in the Archipelago; containing a conciſe Deſcription of whatever is moſt remarkable in each, with reſpect to their Antiquities and preſent State.

THE moſt natural method of claſſing the many iſland on the coaſts of the countries we have juſt deſcribed, ſeems to be dividing them according to the ſeas in which they lie; that is, into thoſe of the Archipelago, the parts about Candia, and in what was formerly called the Ionian ſea.

The iſlands of the Archipelago, antiently termed the Ægæan ſea, lie to the eaſt of Turky in Europe, and are comprized by antient geographers under two general names; thoſe called the Cyclades, or the Circle Iſlands, from their forming a kind of circle round Delos; and

thoſe

thoſe which lying ſcattered at a greater diſtance from Delos were called the Sporades, or Scattered Iſlands.

Samondrachi, the Electria and Dardania of the antients, lies near the coaſt of Romania, and was famous for the worſhip paid to certain deities called Cabiri, who were held in ſuch high veneration, that it was thought profane even to mention their name. The town of Samondrachi is ſituated on a mountain that commands a proſpect of its ſpacious harbour.

Embro, or Lembro, the antient Imbros, is a mountainous iſland over-grown with woods, harbouring wild beaſts and game. It has four villages, one of which bears the ſame name as the iſland, and is defended by a caſtle. It had formerly a town of the ſame name conſecrated to the Cabiri and to Mercury.

Thaſſus, the antient Aeria, or Aethria, lies in the gulph of Conteſſo, and was once famous, even to a proverb, for its gold mines, its fertility, excellent wine, and marble.

Stalimene, the antient Lemnos, is a fruitful and well cultivated iſland, ſeated oppoſite the ſtreight of the Dardanells. It is of a quadrangular form, about twenty-five miles over: but the eaſtern part of the iſland is dry and barren. It has two mountains, which were once volcanoes, and was formerly ſacred to Vulcan, whom the inhabitants worſhipped as their patron. This iſland has always been famous for a kind of earth, or bole, called from the place terria lemnia, and from the ſeals or marks ſtamped upon it terra ſigillata. It is thought an excellent remedy againſt poiſon, the bite of a ſerpent, wounds, and the dyſentery. It is dug up with many ceremonies, that were probably firſt introduced by the Venetians. The principal Turkiſh and Chriſtian inhabitants of the iſland meet on the ſixth of Auguſt, and on that day only, at a chapel called Sotira, half way between the village of Cochino and the mountain where the earth is found, and from thence proceed in proceſſion to the top of the mountain, where the Greek prieſts read the Liturgy; after which ſeveral perſons appointed for that purpoſe begin to dig, and as ſoon as they diſcover a vein of the deſired earth, give notice of it to the prieſts, who fill ſmall hair bags with it, which they deliver to the Turkiſh governor and other officers preſent. After they have taken up as much as they think proper, they fill up the place again, and return back in proceſſion as before. Some of the bags are ſent to the ſultan, and the reſt marked with his ſeal, or with theſe words, Tin imachton, or, The ſealed earth, and ſold by the ſangiac, or his deputies, to the inhabitants and foreign merchants. The ſangiac muſt ſend an account to the ſultan's treaſury of the money annually produced from it; and the inhabitants are puniſhed with death if they keep this earth in their houſes, export, or trade in it without his permiſſion. In this iſland was formerly a famous labyrinth, which conſiſted of a ſtately building, ſupported by forty pillars of an uncommon height and thickneſs. This iſland is the reſidence of a Greek biſhop; the principal places here are Cochino, the antient Hepheſtias, and Lemno, or Stalimene, formerly Myrina.

Sciro, antiently Sciros, is of a triangular or rather pyramidical form, with a ridge of mountains that croſs it two ways. It has a little town of the ſame name, which is the ſee of a Greek biſhop: beſides this town, which has a ſafe harbour, it has ſeveral villages. The country is ſtony and barren, and has ſome quarries of marble. The Greek families in the iſland are computed at about three hundred.

Negropont, antiently Eubœa, and afterwards from its capital called Egripos, is ſituated on the coaſt of Livadia, and extends in length from the ſouth-eaſt to the north-weſt above a hundred miles, but its greateſt breadth does not exceed twenty-five. It is, next to Candia, by far the largeſt iſland in theſe ſeas, and is ſuppoſed to have been antiently joined to the continent by an iſthmus, that was broke either by the violence of the waves, or by an earthquake. It is divided from the continent by a ſtreight called the Euripus. This iſland is very fertile, producing corn, wine, fruit, and cattle in ſuch abundance, that all ſorts of proviſions are extremely cheap. The mountain of Cariſto is famous for its excellent marble, and the ſtone amianthos, or aſbeſtos, of which incombuſtible cloth was made, was alſo found here. About the year 1470 this iſland was attacked by Sultan Mahomet II. with a fleet of two hundred ſail, and a hundred and twenty thouſand men; he took it, and the Turks have poſſeſſed it ever ſince. The chief towns in the iſland are,

Negropont, called by the Greeks Egripos, ſeated on the ſouth-weſt coaſt of the iſland on the narroweſt part of the ſtreight, over which is a ſmall ſtone bridge of four or five arches, that leads from the coaſt of Livadia, to a little tower in the middle of the channel, from whence to the town of Negropont is a draw-bridge, no larger than juſt to let a galley paſs through. The walls of the town do not exceed two miles in compaſs; but there are more buildings and people in the ſuburbs of the Chriſtians, without the walls than in the city, which is inhabited only by Turks and Jews. The number of inhabitants in both is computed to amount to fourteen or fifteen thouſand. The Turks have four moſques, one of which was the cathedral of St. Mark, and the Chriſtians have a biſhop, and ſeveral churches in the ſuburbs. This is the chief reſidence of the captain baſha, or admiral of the Turkiſh fleet, who is alſo governor of the iſland, and the adjacent parts of Greece, and the harbour is ſeldom without a fleet of gallies.

Caſtel Roſſo, the ancient Caryſtus, is a good city, with a commodious harbour on the ſouth-eaſt coaſt of the iſland, fifty-five miles to the ſouth-eaſt of Negropont. It is a biſhop's ſee, and very populous. In its neighbourhood were formerly ſome quarries of marble. Four or five miles to the north-eaſt of this city is Cape Doro, the ancient Caphareum, which is ſo ſurrounded with rocks, that it is dangerous to come near it.

The Euripus or ſtreight that divides this iſland from the continent, has been long celebrated for the ſtated irregularities of the tide. The jeſuit Babin obſerves, that in the firſt eight days of the month, and from the fourteenth to the twentieth incluſive, and alſo in the three laſt days, it is regular both in its ebb and flood; but on the other days of the lunar month very irregular; the ebb and flood returning ſometimes eleven, twelve, thirteen, and fourteen times within twenty-four or twenty-five hours. This irregularity has baffled the reſearches both of the ancients and moderns.

Andra, the ancient Andros, is eighty miles in circuit, and is one of the moſt pleaſant and fruitful iſlands in the Archipelago; it is watered by innumerable ſprings, and has prodigious plenty of wine, oil, barley, and all kinds of delicious fruits; but its greateſt riches conſiſt in its ſilk, in which the inhabitants carry on a great trade. The port is a pretty good one, and the town of Arna adjoining to it, has about two hundred houſes. It is the reſidence of a cady and aga, as alſo of a Romiſh and Greek biſhop. At ſome diſtance from the town may be ſeen the remains of a large and ſtrong wall, with ſeveral columns, entablatures, and pedeſtals, on which ſtood ſtatues, and various inſcriptions, ſome of which mention the ſenate and people of Andros, and the prieſts of Bacchus; whence it is ſuppoſed that here ſtood the city of Andros. In the iſland are alſo between thirty and forty villages, and four or five thouſand inhabitants, moſt of them Greeks, with a colony of Albanians. There are many Greek churches in the iſland, the Romans alſo have ſix churches, with a cathedral dedicated to St. Andrew, and the jeſuits have a church dedicated to St. Veneranda.

Engia, or rather Ægina, as it is ſtill called by the Greeks, is ſituated in the gulph of the ſame name, and is about thirty miles in circumference. There is only one town in the iſland, which is ſaid to conſiſt of above eight hundred houſes, and is defended by a caſtle, which ſtands above it, and is remarkable for the fine proſpect it affords of many of the iſlands, and the coaſt of the continent. In this caſtle are about eighty houſes, and two churches adjoining to each other, the one for the Greeks, and the other for the Latins. This iſland produces great plenty of corn, almonds, honey, wax, and cotton.

Colouri, the ancient Salamis, lies towards the bottom of the gulph of Engia, near a promontory, between which and this iſland runs a ſtreight, which in its narroweſt part is not above a mile over. This iſland is about fifty miles in compaſs, and has a ſpacious harbour

on the weſt ſide, of an oval figure, on which ſtands a town, which has the ſame name as the iſland; but is ſaid to have only about one hundred and fifty poor cottages, and about four hundred perſons. There are two villages, one of them named Metropis, ſeated on a hill, and the other called Ambelachi, ſituated near the ſtreight, where the ancient city of Salamis ſtood. This iſland is famous for the important victory gained there by the Greeks over the Perſians, in which the fleet of Xerxes was defeated by Themiſtocles.

Porus, the ancient Calabria, lies next to the ſhore of the Morea; it is about eight miles in compaſs, and is remarkable for being the place to which Demoſthenes was baniſhed.

Zia, or Cea, the ancient Ceos, was formerly famous for its fertility, paſtures and figs, and is fifty miles in compaſs. It now produces corn and wine, and the harbour is full of fiſh. The town of Zia, which gives name to the iſland, is ſituated upon an eminence, in the neighbourhood of the ancient city of Carthea, of the ruins of which, as well as of the ancient city of Zulis, ſome remains are ſtill viſible. Thoſe of the laſt take up a whole mountain. Near this place are to be ſeen the ruins of a magnificent temple. The houſes of Zia are built of ſtone and earth, with flat roofs, as are all the houſes in the Levant, and are ranged on the ſide of a hill, like the benches of an amphitheatre. On this iſland reſides a Greek biſhop.

Tine, the ancient Tenos, is very mountainous; but in many parts abounds with excellent fruit, and ſtill more in ſilk. The wine of this place was much admired by the ancients. Beſides the town, which is defended by a caſtle, this iſland contains between thirty and forty populous villages. Here are alſo a Greek and Latin biſhop, the former of whom is very rich, there being many churches and chapels, and five monaſteries of the Greeks in the iſland.

Mycone is thirty-ſix miles in compaſs, and produces wine, figs, and ſome olives, with barley enough to ſupply the inhabitants; but has little water and wood. The inhabitants are moſtly Greek Chriſtians, and have magiſtrates of their own religion; but a Turkiſh officer comes every year to collect the tribute paid to the Porte. A cady alſo ſometimes viſits them, and holds courts of juſtice there. In this iſland are upwards of fifty Greek churches, and ſeveral convents of monks and nuns, tho' they are not very well filled: among theſe the convent of nuns of Paleo Caſtro, which is ſituated in the midſt of the iſland, is the principal. The city of Micone is ſeated on a large harbour; but the number of its inhabitants is variouſly repreſented. This iſland is ſaid to produce the beſt ſailors in the Archipelago, and has at leaſt five hundred ſea-faring men, and above one hundred barks, beſides forty or fifty ſaics for the trade to Turky and the Morea; that of Turkey chiefly conſiſts in goat-ſkins, and the Morea trade is chiefly in wine.

Delos, once a celebrated iſland, but at preſent a deſart rock, is not above ſeven or eight miles in circuit; it is three times as long as it is broad, and is a ſecure retreat for the corſairs. This being the imaginary birth-place of Apollo and Diana, it was held in the higheſt veneration, and its oracle of Apollo was the moſt celebrated in the world. Here are ſtill to be ſeen the remains of the celebrated pillar of Apollo, and ſeveral noble fragments of the famous temple conſecrated to him.

Rhenæa, anciently called the great Deli, lies near the laſt mentioned iſland, and has fine paſtures; but from the dread of the corſairs it is now uninhabited, though it was anciently extremely populous, as appears from the many ſtately ruins to be found there.

Syra, the ancient Syros, is mountainous, but produces good wheat, and plenty of barley, wine, figs, olives, and cotton. The air is moiſt, and cooler than in the neighbouring iſlands. The inhabitants, except a few Greek families, are of the Romiſh religion. The town of Syra is built round a little ſteep hill, and between it and the harbour may be ſeen the remains of ſuperb buildings, which made a part of the ancient city of Syros.

Thermia receives its preſent name from the Thermæ, or hot ſprings found there: it is thirty-ſix miles in circumference, and is not ſo mountainous as the other iſlands. The ſoil, when well cultivated, produces large quantities of barley, wine, and figs; with plenty of honey, wax, ſilk, and as much cotton as the inhabitants require for their own uſe: it has alſo a vaſt number of partridges. The Greek Chriſtians in this iſland are computed at ſixteen thouſand. In the city of Thermia is a biſhop, with about fifteen or ſixteen churches, and ſeveral convents. The people are eſteemed very honeſt, and the women virtuous, handſome, and neatly dreſſed. The inhabitants are governed by a cady, and four procurators, choſen from among themſelves. On the iſland are ſtill viſible the ruins of two cities, one of which on the ſouth coaſt, muſt have been of extraordinary ſplendor.

Siphanto, the ancient Siphnus, is thirty-ſix miles in compaſs, and enjoys a wholeſome air, good water, and a fertile ſoil that produces great plenty of fine fruit, with grain ſufficient for the ſupport of its inhabitants: here is alſo no want of tame and wild fowl, and other game. It is ſaid to have once had rich gold and lead mines; but the inhabitants knew nothing of the former, and the latter are not worked. The number of people is computed at five thouſand, who inhabit five or ſix villages, and are chiefly Greeks, yet they are ſaid to have above five hundred chapels, four convents of monks, and two of nuns. The iſland has five ſecure harbours, and a caſtle in a rock near the ſea.

Milo, anciently called Melos, conſiſts almoſt entirely of one hollow porous rock, which is macerated, as it were, by the ſea water, and the heat of a continual ſubterraneous fire is felt by only putting the hand into the holes of the rock: a place in the iſland is always burning, and the earth around it ſmoaks like a chimney. Great quantities of allum and ſulphur are found; for here allum grows in ſome natural caverns in the form of flat ſtones, between nine and ten inches thick. The iſland alſo produces plume allum, which grows on the rock. Sulphur is found in one particular place perfectly pure, and as it were ſublimated; this is in a cavern, the bottom of which is full of ſulphur continually burning. The water in the lower grounds is unfit for common uſe, and at the foot of a mountain, between the town and the harbour, are baths and ſome ſprings, ſo hot as to ſcald one's finger. The iſland abounds in iron mines; but though its ſurface is in general mountainous and rocky, it has many delightful plains, where the ſoil is extremely fertile, and produces great plenty of corn, exquiſite fruits, eſpecially grapes, melons, and figs; with honey, fleſh, fowl, game, and fiſh. The inhabitants are Greeks, and are ſaid to be given up to voluptuouſneſs, and entirely inſenſible of the danger of their ſituation; and there is both a Greek and a Latin biſhop. The town of Milo has an excellent harbour, at about the diſtance of half a mile; it contains about five thouſand perſons, and was it not for its extraordinary filthineſs, it would make a tolerable appearance.

Paros, the antient Platea, is ſeventeen miles to the eaſt of Siphanto, and about thirty-ſix miles in compaſs. It is well cultivated, and the inhabitants feed abundance of flocks. Their trade conſiſts in corn, wine, pulſe, ſeſamums, and calicoes; and, before the Candian war, they had a great deal of oil; but the Venetian army burnt all the olive trees, during the nine or ten years in which they continued there. This iſland has always been famous for its fine white marble, known by the name of Parian marble, and had alſo moſt excellent artiſts for working it. It was once opulent and powerful; but now contains only fifteen hundred families. The celebrated antiques, called the chronicle of Paros, are marbles that have Greek inſcriptions performed on this iſland, and purchaſed in the year 1627, by Thomas Howard, earl of Arundel; who, in 1667, preſented them to the univerſity of Oxford, and they are now called the Arundelian marbles. Theſe inſcriptions form the moſt authentic piece of antient chronology, they being carved two hundred and ſixty-four years before the Chriſtian era;

era; and contain a ſpace of above three hundred years. The town of Parichia ſeems to ſtand on the ruins of the antient Paros, the walls and houſes being decorated with ſeveral fine remains of that city; and there are ancient monuments to be ſeen in the adjacent country. The Penagia, or Madonia, without the city, is the largeſt and moſt ſplendid church in the Archipelago. There are a great number of churches and chapels in this iſland, and alſo ſeveral conſiderable villages. A large fleet may lie conveniently and ſecurely in the harbour of St. Maria; but the uſual anchoring-place for the Turkiſh navy is Drio, on the weſt ſide of the iſland.

Antiparos, the antient Oliaros, ſtands about two miles to the weſt of Paros, and is only a rock about ſixteen miles in circuit; yet in ſome part of it is well cultivated, and produces as much barley as ſerves a ſmall village. The port is navigable only for ſmall barks. This iſland is remarkable for a grotto, which is one of the greateſt curioſities perhaps in nature, and ſeems to prove one of the moſt important truths in natural philoſophy, the vegetation of ſtones. This grotto appears to be about forty fathoms high, and fifty broad: the roof forms a pretty good arch, which every where entertains the eye with an infinite variety of figures of a white tranſparent cryſtaline marble, repreſenting vegetables, marble pillars, and a ſuperb marble pyramid; all which appear to be natural.

Nixia, the antient Naxos, is a hundred and twenty miles in compaſs. This is the moſt fertile iſland in all the Archipelago, and its wine ſtill maintains its former excellence. Its plains are covered with citron, orange, olive, pomegranate, apple, mulberry, cedar, and fig trees. It was alſo famed for a kind of marble called by the Greeks ophites, it being green ſpeckled with white like a ſnake, and ſome mountains on the weſtern coaſt afford emery, whence the Italians called the adjoining cape Cape Smerigli, or Cape Emery. It was taken from the Turks by the Venetians, and there are ſtill ſeveral noble families in it deſcended from the latter. All the people of the iſland do not exceed eight thouſand, and there is but little harmony between the Greeks and the Latins, who have each an archbiſhop here; the former of whom is rich, and has a handſome cathedral. The inhabitants have ſuch violent feuds among themſelves, that ſometimes they will not ſpeak to one another as long as they live; in this the women are ſaid to be more obſtinate than the men. The inhabitants, like thoſe of moſt of theſe iſlands, have the choice of their own magiſtrates; but ſometimes a cady takes a circuit among them, and to him appeals lie. The iſland contains between forty and fifty villages, and only one town, which is ſeated on the ſouth ſide of the iſland, and is defended by a caſtle. About a muſket ſhot from it ſtands, on a rock near the ſea, a beautiful marble portal, amidſt a heap of fragments of marble and granite, ſuppoſed to have been a temple of Bacchus. The inhabitants carry on a conſiderable trade in barley, figs, wine, cheeſe, ſalt, oxen, ſheep, mules, oil, cotton, ſilk, flax, and emery.

Patino, Palmoſa, or Palmora, the antient Patmos, is by ſome geographers placed in Aſia, and by others in Europe; it is about eighteen miles in compaſs, and has only one well built town, in the middle of which is the caſtle called the Monaſtery of St. John, inhabited by two hundred Greek monks. St. John the Evangeliſt being baniſhed into this iſland, is ſaid to have written here his Revelations. In their church they carefully keep a body ſhut up in a caſe, which they pretend to be that of St. John, and ſhew a cave where they ſay he wrote his Apocalypſe. There are about three thouſand perſons in the iſland, all of whom are Chriſtians, who pay tribute to the Grand Seignior; but the ſoil being dry and rocky, they find it difficult to live: though no Turks reſide in the iſland, the corſairs put in there to careen and take in freſh water.

Amorgo, antiently Amorgos, extends from north to ſouth, and does not exceed thirty-ſix miles in compaſs: it is exceeding ſteep towards the ſouth-eaſt, but enjoys a good ſoil, and produces excellent wine. The town is built in the form of an amphitheatre round a rock, with a caſtle upon it. At about three miles diſtance ſtands a large Greek convent. The iſland is well cultivated, and yields oil enough for the inhabitants, and great plenty of corn and wine.

Policandro is eight miles in compaſs: it is a pleaſant iſland; but has no port, and only a creek on the ſouth-eaſt ſide. It has but one village, in which there are three well built churches, two monaſteries of men, and a convent of women. There are no other houſes in the iſland beſides thoſe of this village. The iſland is rocky, and affords a ſcanty ſubſiſtence to its inhabitants, who are an honeſt, civil, and courteous people; and carry on ſome trade in cotton.

SECT. XIV.

Of Candia, and the Iſlands lying about it; with a very particular Account of the riſing of ſome new Iſlands by Means of Earthquakes.

CANDIA, the antient Crete, one of the largeſt and moſt celebrated iſlands in the Mediterranean, is ſituated between the thirty-fourth degree forty minutes and the thirty-fifth degree forty minutes of north latitude, and between the twenty-third degree fifty minutes and the twenty-ſeventh degree ſix minutes eaſt longitude from London; and being a long and narrow iſland, extending from eaſt to weſt, its greateſt length, from Cape Garabuſa to Cape Solomon, is about a hundred and ſixty miles; and its greateſt breadth, which is towards the middle, does not exceed forty-four miles; every where elſe it is much narrower. It lies ſouth-eaſt of the Morea, before the mouth of the Archipelago.

The people breathe a pure air; but the ſouth wind is dangerous, and ſometimes ſuffocates thoſe who are expoſed to it.

Above half the iſland is covered with rocky barren mountains, the moſt famous of which is Pſiloriti, the antient Ida, the higheſt in the iſland. This is now one continued barren rock, and, for the greateſt part of the year, its ſummit is covered with ſnow. The only thing it produces is the tragacantha, famous for its gum. This mountain commands a view of both ſeas.

This iſland has many ſprings and rivulets of excellent water, but no rivers proper for carrying boats.

It has many valleys and plains remarkably fertile; and though not half of theſe are cultivated, yet the country not only abounds in wine, but alſo ſupplies ſtrangers with oil, wool, cheeſe, ſilk, honey, wax, and opium. Their wine and wheat are excellent; their ſilk would be exceeding good, did they but know how to manage it; their honey is admirable, and ſmells of the thyme with which the whole country abounds. The quince-tree was firſt brought into Italy from the town of Cydonia, in this iſland, and was therefore called by the Romans the Cydonian apple.

In the iſland are abundance of cows, ſheep and ſwine, hares and rabbets. There is no want of poultry, and great plenty of pigeons, turtle-doves, woodcocks, red partridges, and wheat-ears.

The antient poets make frequent mention of the hundred cities of this iſland, on which account it was called Hecatompolis; but it had many more, a hundred and twenty occurring in antient writings; and under the emperor Valentinian I. above a hundred towns were overthrown and deſtroyed by an earthquake.

The iſland had originally its own kings; but the republican form was afterwards introduced. It was firſt ſubdued by the Romans, and continued ſubject to the Eaſtern emperors, till the year 823, when it was conquered by the Saracens; from whom it was recovered again in the year 962. It was afterwards taken by the Genoeſe, who ceded it to Boniface, marquis of Montferrat; and he, in 1204, ſold it to the Venetians. In 1644 the Turks made a deſcent, and, after a ſiege of twenty years, reduced the whole country, which, except a few forts, the Venetians were obliged to cede to them at the peace in 1669; and in 1715 the Turks made themſelves maſters alſo of the Venetian forts; ſince which time the iſland has been entirely in their poſſeſſion.

The inhabitants are Greeks, who have an archbiſhop; and Armenians, Turks, and Jews.

In

In moſt of the villages the houſes are built of rugged unhewn pieces of white marble, joined with mud inſtead of mortar: they have but one floor, which is divided into two or three apartments. The roof is formed of faggots placed upon joiſts, and covered with a kind of terraſs.

The city of Candia, the capital of the iſland, is ſeated about the middle of the northern coaſt. It ſtands on the ruins of Heraclea, which, with great probability, is ſuppoſed to have been the ſame with Matium. The city at preſent is, however, little better than a deſart, except the market-place and a few of the adjoining ſtreets, where the principal inhabitants reſide; in the reſt there is hardly any thing but rubbiſh, occaſioned by the laſt ſiege, which was one of the moſt conſiderable that was undertaken in the laſt century. The harbour is alſo choaked up, ſo that no other veſſels but boats can enter it. There are computed to be in this city about eight hundred Greeks, who pay the capitation or poll-tax, and their archbiſhop is the metropolitan of the whole iſland. The Armenians have but one church here, and are about two hundred in number; and the Jews amount to about a thouſand. The reſt of the inhabitants are Turks, among whom is a conſiderable body of janizaries. The country about Candia conſiſts of ſpacious and fruitful plains, enriched with all ſorts of grain; but the exportation of wheat is prohibited, without firſt obtaining leave from the beglerbeg.

The ſecond city in point of rank is Canea, the antient Cydonia, which ſtands on the northern coaſt, and is ſaid to contain above fifteen hundred Turks, two thouſand Greeks, fifty Jews, and about a dozen French merchants, who have a conſul. It is the ſee of a Greek biſhop, ſuffragan to the archbiſhop of Candia. This town is pretty ſtrong, it having a good wall faced with ſtone, and defended by a deep ditch. The entrance of the port is defended on the left by a ſmall fortreſs, where there is a light-houſe. The caſtle is on the left, beyond the firſt baſtion. The houſes are very indifferent, and the beſt of them never exceed two ſtories high; the firſt of which, or the ground-floor, has a parlour, warehouſe, cellar, and ſtable. The walls are of brick, with free-ſtone angles. The aſcent from the firſt floor to the ſecond is by a wooden ladder, ſet almoſt perpendicular. The ſecond floor is alſo divided into ſeveral apartments, and covered with deal boards, ſupported by joiſts of oak laid two or three feet aſunder. On the outſide it is covered with earth tempered like mortar, well beaten, and then paved with ſmall flint ſtones and pebbles. The terraſs is made a little ſloping for the rain to run off. In fine weather they walk on theſe terraſſes, and when it is very hot lie upon them. Every houſe has commonly beſides theſe flat roofs a ſmall terraſs on the ſame floor with the ſecond ſtory; but this is properly only an open room, adorned with pots of flowers. The country about Canea is extremely delightful, and the foreſts are diverſified with lofty olive-trees, pleaſant fields, vineyards, flower-gardens, and ſtreams ſhaded with myrtle and laurel.

The third city in point of rank is that of Retimo, which ſtands on the northern coaſt of the iſland, twenty-ſix miles to the weſt of Candia. The city is encompaſſed by a mean wall, and is defended by a citadel, which ſtands on a ſteep rock that ſtretches out into the ſea. The country about Retimo is all rock on the weſt ſide; but towards Candia it is very delightful, nothing being to be ſeen along the ſhore but gardens. Cherries are earlier here than in any other part of the iſland, and all the fruit is better taſted. Their ſilk, wool, honey, wax, and oil are preferred to all others. The water that ſupplies the town guſhes out of a narrow valley about a mile to the ſouthward, and they have cut a channel to bring it to Retimo; but they loſe one-half of it by the way. On the road leading to the valley is a handſome moſque, and in the court before it a han, or caravanſera, where travellers, who arrive after the gates of the town are ſhut, or deſign to ſet out before they are opened, may lodge and eat gratis.

The village of Gartina ſtands amidſt the ruins of a noble city, named Gortyna, about ſix miles diſtant from Mount Ida, at the foot of low hills, juſt at the entrance of the plain of Meſſaria, which is properly the granary of the iſland. Theſe ruins are an evident proof of the magnificence of that city, but it is impoſſible for a ſtranger accuſtomed to contemplation to behold them without concern. The people plough, ſow, and feed ſheep amidſt a prodigious quantity of marble, jaſper, and granite, wrought with the moſt admirable art; and, in room of the great men who once cauſed theſe ſtately edifices to be erected, are only to be ſeen ſhepherds and huſbandmen.

One of the greateſt curioſities of this iſland is a cave, called the labyrinth, which runs under a ſmall mountain at the foot of Mount Ida, in a thouſand intricate meanders, without any appearance of regularity, and is generally thought to be a work of nature. The entrance is a natural aperture, ſeven or eight paces broad; but in ſome places ſo low, that there is no going in without ſtooping. The ground is rugged and uneven; but the top level, conſiſting of a horizontal layer of ſtones. The principal paſſage, in which there is leſs danger of bewildering one's ſelf than in the others, is about twelve hundred paces in length, and reaches to the end of the maze, where are two ſpacious chambers. The moſt dangerous part of the main walk is about thirty paces diſtant from its mouth; for if a perſon happens to take any other courſe, he is immediately loſt, amidſt the innumerable windings of this maze, and then it is no eaſy matter for him to find his way out; on which account travellers always provide themſelves with guides and torches. There is little appearance of this place having ever been a ſtone-quarry, and whether it was ever the famous labyrinth of Crete, is far from being ſatisfactorily proved.

To the northward of Candia is the iſland of Santorini, that is Sant Erini, thus named from St. Irene being its patroneſs. This iſland, which was antiently called Caliſta, and afterwards Thera, is about thirty-ſix miles round; and the coaſt is ſo craggy and rugged as to be almoſt inacceſſible, and great part of the iſland is covered with pumice-ſtones; yet the inhabitants have, by their labour, rendered the iſland fruitful, particularly in barley and wine, which is of the colour of rheniſh, and cotton, which grows in great plenty. It alſo produces ſome wheat. The inhabitants, who are computed to amount to ten thouſand, are all Greeks, but one-third of them are of the Latin church, and ſubject to a popiſh biſhop. There are five populous villages in the iſland, and ſeveral caſtles erected on the coaſt.

Cerigo, the antient Cythera, is an iſland which was in a particular manner conſecrated to Venus, and is ſituated between Candia and the Morea; but being mountainous and rocky produces little corn, wine, or oil, it has therefore no great number of inhabitants, but does not want for ſheep and fowls, both tame and wild. The principal town, which is on the ſouth ſide of the iſland, has a caſtle on a very ſteep rock; but the harbour below it lies open to the ſouth winds.

Acroteri is an iſland famous in natural hiſtory; it ſeems to be compoſed of pumice-ſtones, incruſted with a ſurface of fertile earth, and the ancients repreſent it as riſing in a violent earthquake out of the ſea. Four other iſlands near Santorini had the ſame origin, and yet the ſea is here of ſuch a depth, as to be unfathomable by any ſounding line. The firſt, which is in the harbour of Apanormia, a port of Santorini, was anciently called Hiera; but is now named Megali Cammeni, that is, the Great Burnt iſland, roſe out of the ſea after a violent earthquake in the nine hundred and ſixth year before the birth of Chriſt; and in the beginning of the eighth century, a new iſland ſuddenly appeared with a terrible exploſion, and adhered to the iſland of Hiera, which by this means became conſiderably enlarged. The ſecond iſland, which lies a little without the harbour, was anciently called Therafia; but now from its whiteneſs, is named Aſproniſi, and ſprung from the ſea in the firſt century. In 1573, a ſudden fire burſting out of the ſea, ſoon produced a new iſland, to which was given the name of Micri Cammeni, or the Small Burnt iſland. Another iſland aroſe in the years 1707 and 1708, between this iſland and great Cammeni. The reader will not be diſpleaſed at ſeeing here a particular account of this

this extraordinary phenomenon; for no circumſtance can be more worthy of being preſerved in a ſyſtem of geography, than the birth of an iſland.

On the twenty-third of May 1707, after an earthquake that happened the night before, the laſt mentioned iſland was diſcovered early in the morning by ſome ſeamen, who taking it for a wreck, rowed immediately towards it; but finding rocks and earth inſtead of the remains of a ſhip, haſted back, and ſpread the news of what they had ſeen in Santorini. How great ſoever the apprehenſions of the inhabitants were at the firſt ſight, their ſurprize ſoon abated, and in a few days, ſeeing no appearance of fire or ſmoke, ſome of them ventured to land on the new iſland. Their curioſity led them from rock to rock, where they found a kind of white ſtone that cut like bread, which it nearly reſembled in its form, colour, and conſiſtence. They alſo found many oyſters ſticking to the rocks; but while they were employed in gathering them, the iſland moved and ſhook under their feet, upon which they ran with precipitation to their boats. With theſe motions and tremblings the iſland increaſed, not only in height, but in length and breadth; yet ſometimes while it was raiſed and extended on one ſide, it ſunk and diminiſhed on the other. Our author obſerved a rock riſe out of the ſea, forty or fifty paces from the iſland, which having continued four days, ſunk and appeared no more; but ſeveral others appeared and diſappeared alternately, till at laſt they remained fixed and unmoved. In the mean time the colour of the ſurrounding ſea was changed: at firſt it was of a light green, then reddiſh, and afterwards of a pale yellow, accompanied with a noiſome ſtench, which ſpread itſelf over part of Santorini.

On the ſixteenth of July the ſmoke firſt appeared, not indeed from the iſland, but from a ridge of black ſtones which ſuddenly roſe about ſixty paces from it, where the depth of the ſea was unfathomable. Thus there were two ſeparate iſlands, one called the White, and the other the Black iſland, from their different colour. This thick ſmoke was of a whitiſh colour, like that of a lime kiln, and was carried by the wind to Santorini, where it penetrated the houſes of the inhabitants.

In the night between the nineteenth and twentieth of July, flames began to iſſue with the ſmoke, to the great terror of the inhabitants of Santorini, eſpecially thoſe of the caſtle of Scaro, who were not above a mile and a half diſtant from the burning iſland, which now increaſed very faſt, large rocks daily ſpringing up, which ſometimes added to its length, and ſometimes to its breadth. The ſmoke alſo increaſed, and there being no wind, it aſcended ſo high as to be ſeen at Candia, and other diſtant iſlands. During the night, it reſembled a column of fire fifteen or twenty feet high, and the ſea was then covered with a ſcurf or froth, in ſome places reddiſh, and in others yellowiſh, from whence proceeded ſuch a ſtench, that the inhabitants throughout the whole iſland of Santorini burnt perfumes in their houſes, and made fires in the ſtreets, to prevent infection. This indeed did not laſt above a day or two, for a ſtrong gale of wind diſperſed the froth; but drove the ſmoke upon the vineyards of Santorini, by which the grapes in one night were parched up and deſtroyed. This ſmoke alſo cauſed violent head-achs, attended with reachings.

On the thirty-firſt of July, the ſea ſmoked and bubbled in two different places near the iſland, where the water formed a perfect circle, and looked like oil when ready to boil. This continued above a month, during which many fiſh were found dead on the ſhore of Santorini. The following night was heard a dull hollow noiſe, like the diſtant report of ſeveral cannon, which was inſtantly followed by flames of fire, ſhooting up to a great height in the air, where they ſuddenly diſappeared. The next day the ſame hollow ſound was ſeveral times heard, and ſucceeded by a blackiſh ſmoke, which, notwithſtanding there being a pretty freſh gale, roſe up in the form of a column to a prodigious height, and would probably in the night have appeared as if on fire.

On the ſeventh of Auguſt the noiſe was different, it reſembling that of large ſtones thrown all together into a deep well. This noiſe, having laſted ſome days, was ſucceeded by another much louder, ſo nearly reſembling thunder, as hardly to be diſtinguiſhed from three or four real claps, that happened at the ſame time.

On the twenty-firſt, the fire and ſmoke were conſiderably diminiſhed; but the next morning they broke out with greater fury than before. The ſmoke was red and very thick; and the heat was ſo intenſe, that all round the iſland, the ſea ſmoked and bubbled in a ſurpriſing manner. At night, our author viewing with a teleſcope a large furnace upon the higheſt part of the iſland, diſcovered ſixty ſmaller openings or funnels, all emitting a very bright flame, and he imagined there might be as many more on the other ſide of the great volcano. On the twenty-third of Auguſt in the morning, the iſland was much higher than the day before, and its breadth was encreaſed by a chain of rocks ſprung up in the night almoſt fifty feet above the water. The ſea was alſo again covered with reddiſh froth, which always appeared when the iſland received any conſiderable additions, and occaſioned an intolerable ſtench, till it was diſperſed by the wind, and the motion of the waves.

On the fifth of September, the fire opened another vent at the extremity of the Black Iſland, from whence it iſſued for ſeveral days, during which but little roſe from the large furnace: and from this new paſſage the aſtoniſhed ſpectators beheld the fire dart up three ſeveral times to a vaſt height, reſembling ſo many prodigious ſky-rockets of a glowing lively red. The following night the ſubterraneous fire made a terrible noiſe, and immediately after a thouſand ſheaves of fire flew up into the air, where, breaking and diſperſing, they fell like a ſhower of ſtars upon the iſland, which appeared all in a blaze, preſenting to the amazed ſpectators at once a moſt dreadful and beautiful illumination. To theſe natural fire-works ſucceeded a kind of meteor, which, for ſome time, hung over the caſtle of Scaro, which is ſeated on a high rock in the iſland of Santorini, a meteor not unlike a fiery ſword, and which ſerved to increaſe the conſternation of the inhabitants.

On the ninth of September the White and Black Iſlands united, after which the weſtern end of the iſland daily increaſed. There were now only four openings that emitted flames, which iſſued forth with great impetuoſity, ſometimes attended with a noiſe like that of a large organ pipe, and ſometimes like the howling of wild beaſts. On the twelfth the ſubterraneous noiſe became much augmented, having never been ſo frequent nor ſo dreadful as on that and the following day. The burſts of this ſubterranean thunder, like a general diſcharge of the artillery of an army, were repeated ten or twelve times within twenty-four hours, and immediately after each clap, the large furnace threw up huge red hot ſtones, which fell into the ſea at a great diſtance. Theſe claps were always followed by a thick ſmoke, which ſpread clouds of aſhes over the ſea and the neighbouring iſlands.

On the eighteenth of September an earthquake was felt at Santorini, but did no great damage, though it conſiderably enlarged the burning iſland, and in ſeveral new places gave vent to the fire and ſmoke. The claps were alſo more terrible than ever, and in the midſt of a thick ſmoke that appeared like a mountain, were ſeen and heard large pieces of rock thrown up with as much noiſe and force as balls from the mouth of a cannon, which afterwards fell upon the iſland, or into the ſea. One of the ſmall neighbouring iſlands was ſeveral times covered with theſe fiery ſtones, which being thinly cruſted over with ſulphur gave a bright light, and continued burning till that was conſumed.

On the twenty-firſt, after a dreadful clap of ſubterraneous thunder, very great lightnings enſued; and, at the ſame inſtant, the new iſland was ſo violently ſhaken, that part of the great furnace came tumbling down, and huge burning rocks were thrown to the diſtance of two miles and upwards. This ſeemed to be the laſt effort of the volcano, and to have exhauſted the combuſtible matter, as all was quiet for ſeveral days after. But on the twenty-fifth the fire broke out again with ſtill greater fury, and

among the claps was one ſo terrible, that the churches of Santorini were ſoon filled with crouds of people, expecting every moment would be their laſt; and the caſtle and town of Scaro ſuffered ſuch a ſhock, that the doors and windows of the houſes flew open. The volcano continued to rage during the remaining part of the year; and in the month of January, 1708, the large furnace, without one day's intermiſſion, throwed out ſtones and flames, at leaſt once or twice, but oftener five or ſix times a day.

On the tenth of February, in the morning, a pretty ſtrong earthquake was felt at Santorini, which the inhabitants conſidered as a prelude to greater commotions in the burning iſland: nor were they deceived; for ſoon after the fire and ſmoke iſſued in prodigious quantities, the claps like thunder were redoubled, and nothing appeared but horror and confuſion; rocks of an amazing ſize were raiſed up to a great height above the water, and the ſea raged and boiled to ſuch a degree, that it occaſioned a general conſternation. The ſubterraneous bellowings were heard without intermiſſion, and ſometimes in leſs than a quarter of an hour there were ſix or ſeven irruptions from the large furnace. The noiſe of the repeated claps, the quantity of huge ſtones that flew about on every ſide, the houſes tottering to their very foundations, and the fire, which now appeared in open day, ſurpaſſed all that had hitherto happened, and formed a ſcene aſtoniſhing beyond deſcription.

The fifteenth of April was rendered remarkable by the number and violence of the bellowings and irruptions, by one of which near a hundred large ſtones were thrown up all together into the air, and fell again into the ſea at about two miles diſtance. From this time to the twenty-third of May, which might be called the anniverſary of the birth of the new iſland, things continued much in the ſame ſtate; but afterwards the fire and ſmoke by degrees ſubſided, and the ſubterraneous thunders became leſs terrible.

On the fifteenth of July our author, accompanied by the Romiſh biſhop of Santorini, and ſome other eccleſiaſtics, hired a boat to take a near view of the iſland. They made directly towards it on that ſide where the ſea did not bubble, but where it ſmoaked very much. Being got into this vapour, they felt a cloſe ſuffocating heat, and found the water very hot; upon which they directed their courſe towards a part of the iſland at the fartheſt diſtance from the large furnace. The fires, which ſtill continued to burn, and the boiling of the ſea, obliged them to take a great compaſs; and yet they felt the air about them very hot and ſultry. Having encompaſſed the iſland, and ſurveyed it carefully from an adjacent one, they judged it to be two hundred feet above the ſea, about a mile broad, and five miles in circumference: but not being thoroughly ſatisfied, they reſolved to attempt to land, and accordingly rowed towards that part of the iſland where they perceived neither fire nor ſmoak; but when they had got within a hundred yards of it, the great furnace diſcharged itſelf with its uſual fury, and the wind blew upon them a thick ſmoke and a ſhower of aſhes, which obliged them to quit their deſign. Having retired a little, they let down a plummet, with a line ninety-five fathoms long; but it was too ſhort to reach the bottom. On their return to Santorini, they obſerved that the heat of the water had melted moſt of the pitch from their boat, which was therefore grown very leaky.

From this time, till the fifteenth of Auguſt, when our author left Santorini, the fire, ſmoke, and noiſe continued pretty moderate; and, by the accounts he received from thence for ſeveral years after, it appears that the iſland ſtill increaſed, but that the fire and ſubterraneous noiſe were much abated; and as the travellers who have ſince viſited the Levant give no account of its burning, it has doubtleſs long ceaſed.

Strange as this account may appear, it is allowed to be unqueſtionably true; and indeed theſe are not the only inſtances in which iſlands have been known to riſe from the bottom of the ſea, of which we have a recent inſtance in the Philoſophical Tranſactions, of an iſland near the Azores thus raiſed by ſubterraneous fires, in the year 1720.

SECT. XV.

Of the Iſlands in the Sea antiently called the Ionian.

ALL theſe iſlands lie on the weſtern coaſt of Turky in Europe, and therefore properly deſerve a place here. Theſe are,

Le Sapienze, antiently the Sphagi iſlands, which are three ſmall iſlands lying near the coaſt of the Morea. The largeſt was formerly called Sphacteria, and was famous in antient hiſtory for the victory obtained there by the Athenians over the Lacedemonians. The adjacent ſea is called the Sea of Sapienza, or of Wiſdom, becauſe the pilots are obliged to make uſe of a great deal of wiſdom and caution in getting through the rapid and dangerous currents near this iſland. The ſecond iſland is only ſeparated from the firſt by a channel, which does not exceed two or three miles over: this is called Fuſchella, or Catretra, by mariners; and the third, which lies to the eaſt of the former, is named San Venatica.

Strivali, the antient Plotæ, or the Floating Iſlands, are two ſmall iſlands, the largeſt of which is not above two leagues and a half in compaſs; but they have good ſprings of water, and the ſoil is very fruitful. The inhabitants, however, never marry, for they are ſaid to have no women amongſt them, and only conſiſt of three or fourſcore Greek monks, whoſe convent is built in the form of a fortreſs, and is well provided with cannon, in order to keep off the corſairs.

The following iſlands belong to the Venetians:

Zante, the antient Zacynthus, is ſituated near the ſtreight of the gulph which runs between the Morea and Livadia, already deſcribed, in thirty-ſeven degrees fifty-ſeven minutes latitude, and is ſuppoſed to be about twenty-four miles in length, twelve in breadth, and fifty in compaſs. The country is pleaſant, and fertile in corn, wine, oil, and all kinds of excellent fruits; eſpecially the fineſt muſcadine grapes, and currants of the ſort brought to England. The melons of this iſland are in particular requeſt, as are alſo their peaches, which are of a prodigious ſize, ſome weighing between eight and ten ounces, and are of an exquiſite taſte and flavour. On the ſouth and weſt ſide of the iſland is a large chain of mountains, with a mountain alſo towards the eaſt, and another at the north; ſo that it is in a manner ſurrounded by them. In the center is a delightful plain, and near Chieri, a ſea-port, is a reſinous ſpring. The iſland contains many towns and villages, and the Greeks, who conſtitute the majority of its inhabitants, have a biſhop, and above forty churches, beſides convents. Another part of the inhabitants are Roman catholics, who have a biſhop and three convents. The remainder of the inhabitants are Jews. The city of Zante is large and populous: it ſtands on the eaſt ſide of the iſland, and has a commodious and ſafe port to thoſe who are acquainted with its entrance; but has no walls, and is only defended by a ſtrong fortreſs, which is erected upon an eminence, and is well defended with cannon. The houſes of the city are built with large ſquare ſtones, but are very low, on account of the frequent earthquakes which generally happen in the ſpring, when it is ſaid that they ſeldom fail of feeling one or two, if not more, in a week. In the rock on which the city is built are abundance of fine ſprings of ſweet water. The city is governed by a proveditor and two counſellors, who reſide there; and both the Engliſh and Dutch have a factory and conſul, with a number of merchants and factors for the ſtaple commodities of this place, which are chiefly raiſins and currants; but the Engliſh are eſteemed the greateſt promoters of this trade, as they conſume more of the latter than perhaps half Europe beſides.

Cephalonia, antiently called Cephalenia and Samos, is ſituated in the thirty-eighth degree of latitude, and is a conſiderable iſland, extremely fertile, and producing currants, oil, red wine, muſcadine grapes, citrons, oranges, pomegranates, and grain. Moſt of the trees bear twice a year, that is in April and November; but the fruit of the laſt month is ſmaller than the other. It had formerly

four conſiderable towns; but has now only ſome large villages, with a city of its own name, defended by a fortreſs, ſeated upon a hill, about ſix miles diſtant from Argoſtoli, the principal port of the iſland. This port is large, and well ſheltered on all ſides; but the bottom is not ſecure, the anchors not ſticking faſt. At the entrance is a large village, where moſt of the merchants reſide. The iſland is chiefly inhabited by Greeks, who pay a tribute to the Venetians, who have here a proveditor and two counſellors.

The next iſland is Val di Compare, the name given to the iſland of Ithaca, famous for being the country of Ulyſſes.

Santa Maura, antiently called Neritis, and ſince Leucas, was in former ages a peninſula connected with the continent of Acarnania; but the Carthaginians, or, according to others, the Corinthians, ſevered it; ſo that there is at preſent a channel about fifty paces broad between the iſland and the continent. In this iſland were formerly three conſiderable towns, with a moſt magnificent temple of Venus. The beſt harbours are Santa Maura, Demata, and Englimeno. This iſland enjoys an uncommon plenty of corn, wine, oil, almonds, pomegranates, citrons, and other fruits, with fine paſtures. The inhabitants are Greeks, ſubject to a biſhop. The town of Santa Maura, which gives name to the iſland, contains about five or ſix thouſand inhabitants; and being ſituated in the water, and defended by walls and towers, is ſo fortified, that there is no convenient approach to it, either by land or water. Beyond its works, in a moraſs, are two well inhabited iſlands, or ſuburbs. The cluſter of little iſlands between this and the continent have a communication with each other by bridges. In 1473 the Turks diſpoſſeſſed the Grecian emperor of the town and iſland. In 1502 the Venetians made themſelves maſters of it; but afterwards ſurrendered it again to the Turks; and in 1684 recovered it from them. In 1715 the town and iſland fell a ſecond time into the hands of the Turks; but the following year the Venetians drove them out, and have ever ſince kept a proveditor there.

Corfu, antiently Phæacia, and afterwards Corcyra, takes its preſent name from the antient caſtle of Corypho, which ſtands on a mountain, and is ſo called from the Greek word κορυφὴ, a hill. It is ſeventy Italian miles in length, and, from Cape Barbaro to Cape Balacrum, thirty broad; but in moſt other places ſcarce twelve. It was famous in former ages for the beautiful gardens of king Alcinous. Its ſouthern parts are barren, mountainous, and deſtitute of water; but the northern coaſt is very fertile in all kinds of delicious fruits, excellent wine, grain, olives, &c. It has but two cities, Corfu, the capital, and Caſſopo, the Caſſiope of the antients. But, beſides theſe cities, it is ſaid to have about a hundred villages. The city of Corfu is very ſtrong, and conſtantly keeps between fifteen and twenty gallies, beſides other veſſels, for its defence. It has, beſides, two fortreſſes, the oldeſt of which is ſituated on a ſteep craggy rock, and ſurrounded below with good ſtrong baſtions; the other, though not ſo advantageouſly ſituated, has been fortified at an immenſe expence, and the city is now one of the ſtrongeſt places on all theſe coaſts: it is governed by a balio, proveditor, capitano, and caſtellano, who are all noble Venetians; as is alſo its archbiſhop, who is primate and metropolitan of all theſe iſlands. The cathedral is a fine building, as is alſo that which belongs to the Greeks, both of which are adorned with paintings and other expenſive ornaments. There are abundance of other handſome churches and ſtructures, both here and in other parts of the iſland: here is alſo an academy of the liberal arts and ſciences. The iſland is divided into four parts, called balias, or governments, under a balio. To the eaſtward is the government of Alefchimo, which contains twenty-eight villages, and twenty thouſand people. In the middle part is the government of Mezzo, which contains no leſs that twenty-five thouſand people. In this part is ſituated Corfu, the capital, and thirty towns. Agiru, the weſtern part, comprehends twenty villages, and about eight thouſand inhabitants; but the only remarkable place in it is the caſtle of St. Angelo. Oros, the north part, contains twenty-five towns, and about eighteen thouſand people.

SECT. XVI.

Of ALBANIA, *or* ARNAUT, *and* TURKISH DALMATIA.

Their Situation, Extent, Produce, and Rivers: the Perſons and Manners of the Natives; with an Account of the principal Towns.

THIS country, which comprehends the old Grecian Illyricum and Epirus, lies between Macedonia on the eaſt and the gulph of Venice and the Ionian ſea on the weſt, having on the north-eaſt and north a chain of mountains, called Monte Negro, or the Black Mountains, which divide it partly from Macedonia, and partly from Servia and Dalmatia, and on the ſouth is bounded by Livadia. Its greateſt length from north to ſouth is about two hundred and ninety miles, and its breadth from eaſt to weſt ninety-ſix, extending from latitude thirty-nine degrees to forty-three degrees thirty minutes.

The ſoil is fruitful, but more ſo towards the north than towards the ſouth, and produces flax, cotton, and excellent wine; as alſo wax, and ſalt dug out of the mountains.

The chief rivers of Albania are the Bojana, the Drino Nigro; the Argenta; the Siomini, antiently called Paniaſus; the Chrevaſta, the antient Apſus; the Pollonia, the antient Laous; and the Delichi, the antient Acheron, frequently mentioned by the poets.

The Albanians are generally tall, ſtrong, and highly eſteemed by the Turks on account of their valour. They are ſubject to the Grand Seignior, and have often diſtinguiſhed themſelves in the wars in Hungary. They are more courageous on horſeback than on foot, and their horſes are extremely ſwift. This was the country of the famous prince George Caſtriot, generally known by the name of Scanderbeg, who, with a ſmall army, oppoſed for many years all the power of Turky, and gained twenty-two battles. At his death he left his country to the Venetians; but they were unable to maintain the inland part of it, which was ſoon reduced by Mahomet II. and his ſucceſſors have held the whole country ever ſince.

The inhabitants make tapeſtry, which they export; but they have ſcarce any notion of learning, yet are very ſkilful in laying aqueducts, and without any mathematical inſtruments meaſure heights and diſtances with all the exactneſs of a geometrician. Thoſe of part of the country are Roman catholics, and moſt of the reſt follow the doctrines of the Greek church.

The principal towns of Albania are,

Scutari, called by the Turks Iſcodar, a large and fortified town near a lake of the ſame name, is well fortified, and defended by a ſtrong caſtle, ſeated on a hill: it enjoys a great trade, is the reſidence of a beglerbeg, and an archbiſhop. It was formerly the ſeat of the kings of Illyricum. In the years 1474 and 1478, it was in vain beſieged by the Turks; but the Venetians ſurrendered it to them in 1479.

Dulcigno, or Dolcigno, the ancient Ulcinium, is ſeated on the gulph of Venice, twenty miles to the ſouth-weſt of Scutari: it has a good harbour, and a ſtrong caſtle; it contains ſeven or eight thouſand people, and carries on a conſiderable trade.

Aleſſio, the ancient Lyſſus, is ſituated near the river Drin, two miles above its mouth, and ſixteen to the ſouth of Scutari. It ſtands on a ſteep coaſt, and is defended by a ſtrong caſtle. It is by ſome eſteemed the capital of Albania, and is particularly famous for being the place where Scanderbeg died, and was buried in the year 1467. It is ſaid the Turks have ſuch veneration for him, on account of his valour, that they carry away pieces of his tomb for relicks, and eſteem them as a charm to animate their courage in battle.

Durazzo, the ancient Epidamnus, and the Dyrrachium of the Romans, is a ſmall ſea-port on a peninſula in the gulph of Venice, thirty-five miles to the ſouth of Scutari. It has a pretty good harbour and caſtle.

La

La Valona, the ancient Aulon, ſtands on a bay at the mouth of the gulph of Venice, and was anciently fortified. It has a ſpacious, but not very ſecure harbour.

Chimera is ſeated near the coaſt of the Ionian ſea, on the banks of a little river, and has a good harbour. It is famous for its warm baths; but is at preſent only a mean place. It is, however, the capital of a ſmall country of the ſame name, the inhabitants of which are ſtiled Chimarioti, and are deſcended from the ancient Macedonians. Beſides their capital, they have a few inconſiderable towns on the ſea-coaſt; but the mountains of Chimera are ſo high, and of ſuch difficult acceſs, that they ſerve them inſtead of fortreſſes; and the people truſt ſo much to this advantage, that, according to Mr. Wheeler, they refuſe paying tribute to the Turks.

Larta, a large and well peopled town on a bay of the ſame name, containing ſeven or eight thouſand inhabitants, above half of which are Greeks, and the reſt Turks. It is the ſee of an archbiſhop, and has a very large cathedral, ſupported by above two hundred marble pillars, and ſaid to have as many doors and windows as there are days in the year.

Turkiſh Dalmatia extends from Albania through the country of Herzegowina, to Boſnia. A ſmall part of this country is, at its moſt ſouthern extremity, bounded on the weſt by the gulph of Venice; but firſt extending eaſt through Venetian Dalmatia, then turns to the north-eaſt, on the back of the territories of Raguſa and Venice. Thus it is bounded on the ſouth by a part of Venetian Dalmatia, and Albania, on the north-eaſt by Boſnia, and on the weſt by Venetian Dalmatia, Raguſa, and the Adriatic ſea, or gulph of Venice, extending about one hundred and forty miles from north to ſouth; but no more than forty-five miles from eaſt to weſt. The ſoil is in ſome parts mountainous; but is otherwiſe very fruitful in corn, wine, oil, honey, and wax.

Its principal towns are,

Great and Little Melanto, two ſea ports; but of ſmall importance.

Scardona, in the Sclavonian language Skardin, is ſituated on the river Kirka, ſurrounded with walls, and defended by two ſmall forts. It was anciently a conſiderable town. In the year 1120, the biſhopric was removed hither from Jaden. In 1352, it fell into the hands of the Venetians; but the Turks wreſted it from them, after which they were ſeveral times driven out; but as often recovered it.

Clinowo, or Kliuno, is a well built town, on a riſing ground, which the Turks in time of war have generally made their place of rendezvous, and the depoſitory of their magazines of proviſions and military ſtores.

Maſter, an open town on the Viſera, over which is ſtill to be ſeen an old Roman bridge of ſtone.

Herzegowina, or Arcegovina, a ſpacious and well fortified town, in which the Turkiſh beglerbeg reſides.

Popocco, a ſmall diſtrict, difficult of acceſs, on account of its ſituation between two long mountains; but remarkably fruitful in corn, wine, and excellent fruits, though the lands are generally over-flowed in autumn: but the inhabitants of this diſtrict in the year 1694, put themſelves under the protection of Venice.

SECT. XVII.

Of TURKISH ILLYRICUM, *including* BOSNIA *and* SERVIA.

Their Situation, Extent, and Produce. Of the Inhabitants, their Language, Religion, and Learning. With an Account of the principal Places in theſe Provinces; and a particular Deſcription of Belgrade.

THIS country extends from Sclavonia to Romania and Bulgaria, between Croatia, Dalmatia, and the Danube. It has ſeveral mountains, among which the Argentorato is particularly remarkable. Its navigable rivers are the Danube, which conſtitutes the northern boundary of Servia, the Morau, the Ibar, the Drino, the Boſna, the Verbas, and the Save.

The country is proper both for grazing and agriculture, producing grain, wine, and provender for every kind of cattle; and the mountains, particularly thoſe of Boſnia, contain ſilver.

The inhabitants are of Sclavonic extraction, and from the middle ages have been divided into Servians, Boſnians, and Ratzians; though without any remarkable difference in their ſpeech and manners. They ſpeak the Sclavonian language, which nearly reſembles that of the Ruſſian. As to their religion, they are of the Greek church; but Mahometaniſm has gained conſiderable ground among them, which is doubtleſs owing to their being almoſt abſolute ſtrangers to learning. Their letters for writing are the Ciruli, which are alſo uſed by the Ruſſians.

Both Boſnia and Servia were antiently united to Hungary, by what was then called a perpetual compact. The former was governed by a ban, and the latter by a deſpota, or prince; but now both form a province of the Turkiſh empire, which appoints beglerbegs and ſangiacs over them.

Boſnia, alſo called Rama, derives both theſe names from the rivers Boſna and Rama, or perhaps the former from the nation of the Boſſeni. This country is bounded on the north by the river Save, which ſeparates it from Sclavonia; to the eaſtward by the Drino, which divides it from Servia; on the ſouth by a chain of mountains which ſeparates it from Dalmatia; and to the weſtward by the river Verbas, which divides it from Croatia. It is forty Turkiſh miles in length, fifteen in breadth, and conſiſts of three ſangiacſhips, in which are ſeveral towns, of which little more is known than their names.

Servia is ſo called from the Serbii, and is ſixty Turkiſh miles in breadth, and thirty in length. At the treaty of Paſſarowitz, concluded in the year 1718, the greateſt part of it was ceded to the Roman empire; but at the peace of Belgrade, in 1739, the Imperialiſts were obliged to reſtore it to the Ottoman Porte. It was antiently divided into Proper Servia and Raſcia; and to the former, which is in the upper part towards the Danube, belongs the bannat of Maſovia; it at preſent conſiſts of four ſangiacſhips.

The ſangiacſhip of Belgrade lies between the rivers Drino, Save, and the Danube, and contains no other place worthy of notice but its capital of the ſame name.

The city of Belgrade, the antient Alba Græcorum, is a celebrated and important fortreſs, ſituated at the conflux of the Save and the Danube, two hundred and fifty miles from Vienna, and four hundred and fifty-five from Conſtantinople, in longitude twenty-one degrees eaſt of London, and in forty-five degrees ten minutes latitude. It was formerly accounted the barrier and key of Hungary, to which it was firſt annexed by the emperor Sigiſmund. In the years 1440, 1456, and 1494, it was in vain beſieged by the Turks; but in 1521 they took and kept it in their poſſeſſion till the year 1688, when the Hungarians recovered it. In 1690, it fell again under the Turkiſh yoke, from whence it was unſucceſsfully attempted to be wreſted in 1693; but in 1717 accompliſhed. The Hungarians were, however, again obliged to evacuate it in 1739, though not till they had demoliſhed all its outworks, leaving nothing ſtanding but the old walls, and ſome fortifications inſeparable from them.

This city is, however, ſtill large, ſtrong, and populous, and enjoys a conſiderable trade. It is built on a hill after the antient manner, and encompaſſed by a double wall, flanked with a prodigious number of towers. The only place not defended by either of the above rivers is fortified with a caſtle, built with ſquare ſtones, ſituated on a riſing ground. The ſuburbs are very extenſive, and extremely reſorted to by Turkiſh, Jewiſh, Greek, Hungarian, and Sclavonian merchants. The city is extremely well ſeated for commerce; for, beſides the Danube and the Sava, which waſh its walls, it is but a ſmall diſtance from the place where the Tibiſcas falls into the Danube; nor is it far from the Morawa to the eaſt, and the Drowa towards the weſt; and as the Danube falls into the Black ſea, this city may eaſily carry on a conſiderable trade with the moſt diſtant countries; accordingly it is the chief ſtaple town in theſe parts, it being

being traded to by the Raguſans, by the merchants of Vienna, who have factories here, by the Armenians, and the Jews, who are very numerous in this city. The former have a church, and the latter at leaſt one ſynagogue. The ſhops are ſmall, and the ſellers ſit upon tables, from whence they ſell their goods out of a window or door, the cuſtomers ſeldom going in. Here are two bazars for their richeſt commodities, and two exchanges, built with ſtone, crouded with merchandize. They have alſo a handſome caravanſera, built by a grand vizier, and a college for young ſtudents. This city is the ſee of a biſhop, formerly ſuffragan to the biſhop of Buda.

The ſecond ſangiacſhip is that of Cemender, among the remarkable places of which is,

Tachtali, a dangerous part of the Danube, where the water, after falling from a rocky precipice, forms a whirlpool. This is occaſioned by the nature of the two ſhores, a high rock on the Servian ſide projecting a great way into the ſtream, which ruſhing againſt it with great impetuoſity, recoils as it were againſt the oppoſite rocks on the ſhore of Walachia; ſo that a veſſel miſſing the right channel is in great danger of being overſet. Beyond this place the Danube, ſlackening its courſe, expands itſelf into a wide curve. At a ſmall diſtance farther lies Demikarpi, or Iron Gate, commonly called Cataractæ Danubii, which is likewiſe the name of the neighbouring country, where the Danube enters a ſtreight between mountains, and purſues its courſe over a rocky bottom. The waves and agitations cauſed by the frequent obſtructions of the ſtream, which is here very rapid, toſs a ſhip with ſuch violence, that unleſs the ſteerſman be very expert, and well acquainted with the place, the veſſel is in great danger, eſpecially in going upwards, which can only be done by the help of ſails. In 1737, the Imperialiſts were obliged to ſink their ſhips here for want of wind to waft them againſt the ſtream. In this narrow paſs the houſes ſtand within a paliſadoe, and are ſaid to have been formerly barricadoed with an iron chain, which firſt gave riſe to the appellation of the Iron Gate.

The next town we ſhall mention is Fetiſlan, called in the Raſcian tongue Kladowo, a conſiderable town on the Danube, within a little of which terminates the chain of mountains, and the Danube runs between two plains.

The ſangiacſhip of Kratowo contains the following places:

Niſſa, once the capital of Servia, is ſituated in a fine plain, on the river Niſſava, in a very good air, and ſo fruitful a ſoil, that the great plenty is hardly credible. There are ſeveral fine moſques, two public baths, and ſeveral fountains. The town is fortified with a wall and rampart; but in 1737, it was taken by the Hungarians, who loſt it the year following. The lady Wortley Montague, in a letter to queen Caroline, when ſhe was princeſs of Wales, gives a dreadful account of all that part of Servia through which ſhe paſſed; and obſerves, that the deſarts of Servia are almoſt overgrown with wood, though a country naturally fertile. The inhabitants are induſtrious; but the oppreſſion felt by the peaſants is ſo great, that they are forced to abandon their houſes, and neglect their tillage; all they have falling a prey to the janizaries, whenever they pleaſe to ſeize upon it. Mr. Wortley had a guard of five hundred of them, and ſhe was almoſt every day in tears at beholding their inſolence in the poor villages through which ſhe paſt. On ſpeaking of the fertility of the ſoil at Niſſa, ſhe ſays, "I was certainly aſſured, that the quantity of wine laſt "vintage was ſo prodigious, that they were forced to "dig holes in the earth to put it in, not having veſſels "enough in the town to hold it. The happineſs of this "plenty is ſcarce perceived by the oppreſſed people. I "ſaw here a new occaſion for my compaſſion: the "wretches that had provided twenty waggons for our "baggage from Belgrade hither, for a certain hire, be-"ing all ſent back without payment, ſome of their horſes "lamed, and others killed, without any ſatisfaction made "for them. The poor fellows came round the houſe "weeping and tearing their hair and beards, in a moſt "pitiful manner, without getting any thing but drubs "from the inſolent ſoldiers. I cannot expreſs how much "I was moved at this ſcene. I would have paid them "the money out of my own pocket with all my heart; "but it would only have been giving ſo much to the "aga, who would have taken it from them without "any remorſe."

Procupia, or Procopia, a pretty town thus named from the biſhop Procopius, is called by the Turks Urchup.

The fourth ſangiacſhip is that of Scupi, in which is Uſcup, Scupi, or Scopia, an open, but large, well-built town, on the confines of Albania and Boſnia, and is the reſidence of an archbiſhop. It is ſeated in a pleaſant and plentiful country, partly hills and partly plains, on the river Vardar, or Axius, fifteen miles to the weſt of Niſſa; it has a great trade, and is adorned with fine houſes, many moſques, and delightful walks near it. Among the moſques is one built upon a hill, and adorned with a ſpacious portico, ſupported by four marble pillars. There is here a fine bridge of twelve arches over the Vardar, and near the city is a noble aqueduct of ſtone conveyed over a valley between two hills, and ſupported by two hundred arches. This is ſuppoſed to be very antient, and performed by the Romans. The city carries on a conſiderable trade between Bulgaria, Macedonia, Belgrade, &c. particularly in tanned leather, which here employs above ſeven hundred tanners.

We ſhall now proceed to thoſe countries in Europe that are tributary to the ſultan, and under his ſubjection.

SECT. XVIII.

Of WALACHIA.

Its Situation, Extent, Climate, Soil, and Rivers. The Origin, Language, and Religion of the Inhabitants. Their Hiſtory, and a conciſe Account of the moſt conſiderable Places in the Country.

WALACHIA is a pretty large province, ſeparated from Moldavia by a chain of mountains and the river Sereth. It is about two hundred and ten miles from eaſt to weſt, and about a hundred and five from north to ſouth; but this country being of a triangular form, theſe dimenſions can only relate to a very ſmall part of it.

The air is temperate, the ſoil very fruitful, particularly in grain, wine, and melons: it is alſo fit for grazing, and the country is famed for excellent horſes.

Walachia is watered by a conſiderable number of large and ſmall rivers, moſt of which run from north to ſouth, diſcharging themſelves either immediately into the Danube, or doing it in conjunction with other rivers. The principal of theſe are the Aluta, which riſes in the mountains of Tranſylvania, dividing Walachia into two unequal parts, namely, the eaſt and weſt; the Jalonitz, which has alſo its ſource in the borders of Tranſylvania; and the Sereth, or Streeh, the boundary on the ſide of Moldavia.

The Walachians who inhabit this country are deſcended from an old Roman colony ſettled here by the emperor Trajan. This appears not only from their language, which is a barbarous Latin, but from their cuſtoms and manner of diet: as for inſtance, their thick pottages and onions, of which they are extremely fond, their dreſs, and their great regard for the Italians, their language, and whatever belongs to that country. They are, however, intermixed with the Sclavi and Pazinacitæ. But, to ſhew that they are deſcended from the Romans, they call themſelves Romunii.

Hiſtorians are far from being agreed about the derivation of the word Walachian; and we ſhall not here enter into their various opinions, but ſhall only obſerve, that the word Wlach in Sclavonic ſignifies an Italian, as does alſo the word Welcher.

The Walachians profeſs the Greek religion, and as in writing they uſe the ſame letters with the Ruſſians, ſo they agree with them in all their religious ceremonies. The common people are wretchedly ignorant; and even the higheſt attainments to which the eccleſiaſtics themſelves aſpire, are ſeldom more than preaching and ſinging well. They have a kind of univerſity at Buckereſt,

to which they go in order to learn a polite behaviour, the elegancies of the Walachian tongue, and the ceremonies of the church. People of rank are ſo fond of Italian, that they apply themſelves more to it than to their native language, and generally ſend their ſons to ſtudy at the univerſity of Padua. A great number of Mahometans live intermixed with the Walachians.

With reſpect to the hiſtory of theſe people, the Romans, after obtaining a deciſive victory over Decebalus, king of Dacia, made themſelves maſters of his kingdom. Afterwards Trajan ſent thither ſeveral Roman colonies, who not only cultivated their lands, but built towns, which they embelliſhed with noble edifices. His ſucceſſor, however, tranſplanted the greateſt part of them into the neighbouring countries, where mingling with the Bulgarians, Thracians, Servians, and Ligurians, they learned to ſpeak a new language, or jargon. Theſe kingdoms, which lie on the Danube, afterwards conſtituted part of the dominions of the emperors of the Eaſt. At length the Walachians moved farther to the north towards the borders of Podolia and Ruſſia, where they applied themſelves to agriculture and the breeding of cattle. The converſion of the Bulgarians and their neighbours to Chriſtianity was followed in the ninth century by that of the Walachians, who embraced the doctrines of the Greek church. Towards the beginning of the twelfth century a numerous colony of Walachians, under the conduct of one Nigers, or Negrovot, for the ſake of paſturage, religion, and other motives, quitting Tranſylvania, paſſed over the mountains, and ſettled in Modern Walachia, founding the towns of Tergoviſto, Buckereſt, Longenau, and Piteſto St. Georgi, where they choſe their own princes, whom they ſtiled waywodes, or deſpots. At length the kings of Hungary becoming powerful, made ſeveral attempts againſt the Walachians, and obliged them, in the fourteenth century, to become tributary to him. But in the year 1391, and 1394, they were greatly harraſſed by the Turks, who, in 1415, laid the whole country waſte with fire and ſword, and compelled the waywode to pay them an annual tribute, which was continued till the year 1608, when the Walachians put themſelves under the protection of the emperor of Germany, who at length, by the treaty of Carlowitz, reſigned them up again to the Turks. In the beginning of the preſent century, they ſuffered various calamities by the plague, war, and many revolutions among their princes. At the treaty of Paſſarowitz, in 1718, the weſtern part of Walachia, as far as the river Aluta, was ceded to the emperor, but in 1739 was loſt again.

This country is governed by a waywode, or prince, alſo ſtiled the hoſpodar, who is a vaſſal of the Ottoman Porte, and whoſe annual tribute generally amounts to fifty-eight or ſixty thouſand ducats.

The arms of Walachia are a black eagle ſtanding on a mount, and in its beak a croſs erect, with the ſun on one ſide, and on the other the moon, in a field, argent.

It has been already obſerved, that the river Aluta divides Walachia into two parts. In the weſtern part, called the bannat of Severin, are the following places:

Severin, a little town on the Danube, but formerly fortified, and the capital of a bannat, received its name from the emperor Severus, its founder.

Upon the Danube are ſeen the remains of the ſtone pillars of a bridge, which was probably that which the emperor Trajan built over the Danube, in order to attack Decebalus, king of the Dacians, with greater advantage. According to count Marſigli, the river here is not above a thouſand yards over, and the two firſt piers of the bridge ſtanding ſeventeen fathoms and a half aſunder, he concludes there muſt have been twenty-three in all; and that the whole length of the bridge was 443 fathoms. He alſo aſſerts, that the maſonry of the piers was of common quarry ſtone, lined with bricks; and that probably the twenty-two arches, with all the upper part of the bridge, were of oak. The emperor Adrian cauſed not only the upper part of the bridge to be removed, but demoliſhed all the maſonry above the water.

Walachia, on the other ſide of the river Aluta, contains the eaſtern part of the country, in which are,

Langenau, in Latin Campus Longus, a genteel populous town, which ſuffered greatly in the war with the Turks in 1737 and 1738.

Tergoviſto, or Tervis, the capital of Walachia, is ſituated on the river Jalonitz. It has ſome fortifications, with a fine palace belonging to the waywode, and is a town of good trade. It is, however, ſurrounded by marſhy grounds, which, while they render it of difficult acceſs, make the air unhealthful.

Buckereſt, a fortified city on the river Dembrovitz, is ſituated thirty miles to the ſouth-eaſt of Tergoviſto; it is the uſual reſidence of the waywode, and an archiepiſcopal ſee. Here is alſo an academy for the ſons of perſons of quality.

SECT. XIX.

Of Moldavia.

Its Name, Situation, Extent, Climate, Soil, Produce, and Rivers. Of the Inhabitants, their Hiſtory, Government, Arms, and principal Towns.

THIS country takes the name of Moldavia from the river Moldaw, which runs from the upper parts, and falls into the Sereth. It is bounded on the north by Poland, on the eaſt by Oczakow Tartary and Beſſarabia, on the ſouth by Walachia, and on the eaſt by Tranſylvania. It extends about a hundred and ſeventy miles from the river Sereth to the Nieſter; but its length, from ſouth to north, is only about two hundred and ninety.

The air of this province is wholeſome; but a conſiderable part of the eaſtern diviſion lies uncultivated, and chiefly conſiſts of deſarts, and the weſtern is very mountainous; but the middle part is fruitful in corn, pulſe, honey, wax, &c. but is chiefly remarkable for the great number of horſes bred there.

Its principal rivers are the Sereth; the Pruth, which has its ſource in the borders of Tranſylvania and Poland, running through Moldavia from north to ſouth; and the Nieſter, which forms the boundary towards the north and eaſt. Theſe three rivers receive ſeveral ſmall ſtreams in their courſe, and the two firſt fall into the Danube or Iſter, which is the boundary to the ſouthward; but the laſt diſcharges itſelf into the Black ſea.

The inhabitants are of Walachian extraction, and profeſs the religion of the Greek church; but many of them are Ruſſians, Poles, Raſcians, Armenians, and Mahometans.

Towards the cloſe of the twelfth century a Walachian colony from Tranſylvania ſettled in this country, under Bogden, their leader, who eſtabliſhed their civil and eccleſiaſtical government; and, for the ſupport of the latter, obtained an archbiſhop and other eccleſiaſtics from the patriarch of Conſtantinople. He was the firſt prince of Moldavia, and laid the foundation of the principal towns; for which reaſon the country was originally called from him Bogdania. The increaſe of the king of Hungary's power was a misfortune to this country, the inhabitants, after ſeveral reſolute ſtruggles, being made tributary to that monarch in the fourteenth century. But before that period they had been rendered tributary to the Turks, and ſoon became ſo again. In 1686 the Poles over-ran the country, and took the chief cities, which obliged the inhabitants to put themſelves under the protection of the German empire; and, at the treaty of Carlowitz, it was agreed, that the Poles ſhould retire, and this country again become tributary to the Ottoman Porte.

This country has a waywode, or prince, of its own, who is ſtiled hoſpodar, and is a vaſſal of the Grand Seignior, to whom he is obliged to pay an annual tribute.

The Moldavian arms are an ox's head, ſable, in a field, or.

Moldavia is divided into Upper and Lower.

Upper Moldavia is bounded towards the eaſt by the river Nieſter; on the north partly by that ſtream, and partly by Poland; and on the weſtward by Tranſylvania. In the northern part of this diviſion reſide the Lip Tartars.

In this diviſion are the following places:

Chotzin,

Chotzin, or Coczim, a town ſituated on the Nieſter, well fortified both by nature and art, and belonging to the Turks. In the years 1621 and 1674 the Turks were defeated here by the Poles. In 1739 the Ruſſians made themſelves maſters of it, having firſt beaten the Turks out of the intrenchments, which they had thrown up near the fort; but the Turks ſoon recovered it again.

Soczowa, or Sotſhowa, a ſmall town on the river Sereth, formerly the capital of the country, and the uſual reſidence of the hoſpodar.

Lower Moldavia borders to the weſt on the mountains of Tranſylvania, which run along the road called Tetras, and belong to Moldavia and Walachia. It is bounded on the ſouth by the Danube, on the ſouth-eaſt by Beſſarabia, and on the eaſt by the Nieſter.

This diviſion contains,

Jaſſy, the capital, which is a conſiderable city, and the reſidence of the hoſpodar, is ſeated on the river Pruth, and is a ſpacious well fortified place, defended by a caſtle; and is built in a country abounding with wine. In the years 1711, and 1739, it was taken by the Ruſſians; and, in 1753, the whole city, with the palace of the hoſpodar, ſome popiſh convents, and a Lutheran church, which had been newly built, were all deſtroyed by fire.

Faltſhii, a town ſituated alſo on the Pruth, is remarkable for having in its neighbourhood ruined walls and foundations of houſes, which run in ſtraight lines amidſt very thick woods. Theſe are ſuppoſed to be the ruins of the antient and large city of Taiphali mentioned by Herodotus, out of the ruins of which Faltſhii was built.

SECT. XX.

Of the ſeveral Colonies of Tartars tributary to the Turks, and their different Diſtricts; including an Account of the Tartars of Beſſarabia, the Oczakow, the Nojay, and the Crim Tartars; with an Account of their ſeveral Towns, and of the Peninſula of Crimea, or Crim Tartary.

FROM the northern branch, through which the Danube enters the Black ſea to the river Don, is a winding tract of land, which extends along the Black ſea and the ſea of Aſoph, and is inhabited by ſeveral tribes of Tartars, which are generally comprehended by geographers under the title of European Tartars; but there being many other Tartars in Europe, this term is by no means proper. The Tartars made themſelves maſters of this country in the beginning of the thirteenth century, and ſome of them ſtill wander about in hords or clans, while others are ſettled in towns and villages. Some are alſo immediately dependent on the Ottoman Porte, and others ſubject to the Crim, who is himſelf a vaſſal to the Grand Seignior. Geographers vary greatly in their diviſion and the extent they give to theſe Tartarian diſtricts; for the accounts we have of them are very imperfect. In deſcribing this country along the Black ſea, and the ſea of Aſoph, we ſhall begin at the weſt, at the mouth of the Danube, and proceed according to the principal rivers which interſect the country, mentioning what is moſt remarkable in the ſeveral diſtricts formed by thoſe large ſtreams, the Nieſter, the Nieper, and the Don. Thus tracing the country from the weſt, we meet with

Beſſarabia, which lies on the Black ſea, between the north branch of the Danube and the Nieſter, and is by the Turks called Bujack, or Budjiack. The inhabitants ſtill rove from place to place along the Nieſter. Their uſual food is the fleſh of their oxen and horſes, cheeſe, and milk, particularly that of mares.

The chief towns are,

Bender, a Turkiſh fortification on the Nieſter, formerly called Tizene; but being made over to thoſe Turks by one of the princes of Moldavia, they gave it the name of Bender, that is, a paſs; it is a ſmall town, but has always a baſha for its governor. Warnitz, near this town, is remarkable for being the place where Charles XII. of Sweden, broke up his camp in 1709, and continued till the year 1713, when the Turks were obliged to make uſe of force to get rid of him.

There are ſeveral other towns in this diſtrict; but being inconſiderable places, do not deſerve being particularly mentioned.

The country between the Nieſter and Nieper, by ſome called Oczakow Tartary, is inhabited only along thoſe two rivers, and near the ſea; the other parts being quite waſte, and are therefore called the Deſart Plains. This plain, however, affords good paſturage, but has not a ſingle tree. The moſt remarkable place in this diſtrict is,

Oczakow, a very ſtrong town, ſituated at the influx of the Nieper into the Black ſea. It lies on the declivity of a mountain, and has a caſtle above it. When it was inveſted by count Munich, in 1737, its fortifications were in excellent order, and its garriſon conſiſted of a large body of choſen Turkiſh troops; but the count, being compelled by want of fodder for the horſes and other cattle, riſked an aſſault, and carried it the third day after his opening the trenches. The Ruſſians held the place till the following year, when they evacuated it, after having demoliſhed the works.

The country between the Nieper and the efflux of the Don, contains,

The Leſſer Nogay Tartars, who inhabit the main land along the Black ſea and the ſea of Aſoph, and the reſt of them belong to Aſia. They wander from place to place, each hord or tribe keeping at thirty hours diſtance, and frequently not ſo far from each other. Theſe people ſeldom apply themſelves to agriculture. Among them, as well as the Crims, horſe-fleſh is a favourite food. But however ſavage this may make them appear, they are ſo hoſpitable, that the pleaſure they receive from entertaining a traveller and his horſe, is with them a ſufficient reward; and if they are preſented with a little tobacco, or any thing elſe, they receive it with abundance of thanks, and never fail to make a return. They profeſs the Mahometan religion, and are governed by murſes, or beys, of their own nation, or by ſuch as the kan of Crim Tartary, their ſovereign, appoints from among them. With reſpect to the limits of this diſtrict, which it has been ſaid extends from the Nieper to the Don, it was agreed at the treaty of Belgrade, in the year 1739, that a line ſhould be drawn from the river of Zalimy to the river Berda, which falls into the ſea of Aſoph. The diſtrict within this line continues under the kan of Tartary, who enjoys a much larger diſtrict northwards, but is dependent on Ruſſia.

In the firſt diſtrict on the Black ſea is Kinburn, a Turkiſh fortification, which lies oppoſite Oczakow, and eaſt of the Nieper, where it diſcharges itſelf into the Black ſea. The Ruſſians took this place, and blew up the fortifications in the year 1736; but the Turks thought it worth rebuilding. There are alſo ſeveral ſmall places between the Nieper and the Black ſea.

The Crim peninſula, the antient Cherſoneſus Taurica, is called in the Turkiſh maps Kiram Athaſi, or the Crim iſland, which is nearly of the ſame figure with the Morea, and was ſuppoſed by the antients to have almoſt the ſame extent. It is ſurrounded by the Black ſea and the ſea of Aſoph, except at the narrow neck of land by which it is joined to the continent. The ſoil in many parts produces all kinds of grain, wine, &c. but the Tartars ſeem to deſpiſe agriculture, and leave it to their ſlaves and to ſtrangers. The favourite food of theſe Tartars is horſe-fleſh, milk, and cheeſe; bread being little uſed among them. Of all the Mahometan Tartars, theſe have the neareſt reſemblance to the Calmucs.

The inland country of this peninſula was antiently poſſeſſed by the Scythians, who extended themſelves northwards beyond Perekop, weſtward to the Nieper, and eaſtward as far as the Don. The weſtern and ſouthern coaſts were antiently inhabited by ſome Greek colonies, of which the town of Cherſoneſus was the moſt powerful. The eaſt ſide of the Crim, as far as the Don, and the oppoſite country, or the tract from the Don along the ſea of Aſoph, antiently called the Palus Mæotis, to the Black ſea, and Mount Caucaſus, was under the kings of the Boſphori-Greeks, who were thus called from the ſtreight of Boſphorus. The Scythians proving troubleſome neighbours to the Greeks, they ſolicited the aſſiſtance

of

of Mithridates, king of Pontus, who at laſt drove the Scythians out of the peninſula, forming the kingdom of Boſphorus, which comprehended the whole peninſula and the country facing it eaſtward to Mount Caucaſus. In the reign of the emperor Dioclefian the Sarmatæ were ſolely poſſeſſed of this kingdom, except the Goths having ſeated themſelves on the weſt ſide of the peninſula, and along the tract of land which lies to the northward along the Don. This peninſula afterwards came under the dominion of the emperors of the Eaſt, though it was partly ſhared by the Huns, who were ſucceeded by the Cozars, as theſe were by the Polowzers. About the end of the twelfth century, the Genoeſe, after making themſelves maſters of the Black ſea, and all its harbours, alſo ſettled in this peninſula. In the thirteenth century, the Tartars diſpoſſeſſed the Polowzers of their country, and particularly of Crimea; but the Genoeſe forts and caſtles baffled their undiſciplined fury, and eſpecially the town of Coſta, which held out till the year 1471, when it was taken by the Turks, who alſo reduced the whole peninſula, and appointed a kan over it. In 1698 the Ruſſians made an attempt to conquer this peninſula, but gained only Perekop; and in 1736 they penetrated a ſecond time into Crimea, under the conduct of count Munich, marched over the line which the Perekop Tartars had thrown up acroſs the iſthmus, took Perekop, and opened a way into the peninſula. In the years 1737, 1738, and 1739, the Ruſſians renewed their enterprizes againſt Crimea with ſuch ſucceſs, that half of the peninſula was ravaged by them and the Tartars; while many of the inhabitants abandoned the country, and others periſhed by famine.

Crimea has its own kan, or prince, who ſtiles himſelf ſovereign kan of Leſſer Tartary, though he is really a vaſſal of the Ottoman Porte; and, on a proper ſummons, muſt take the field with a conſiderable body of auxiliaries. The eldeſt ſon, who is the kan's preſumptive heir, has the title of Sultan Galga; the ſecond ſon is called Or Beg, that is, lord of Or, or Perekop; the third is ſtiled Noradin Beg, &c.

The peninſula of Crim has many great and ſmall villages, and likewiſe contains ſeveral large but ill built towns; among theſe are,

Perekop, a fortified town on the iſthmus which joins the peninſula to the continent, and has always been eſteemed the key to the whole empire. Its name, which is Sclavonian, ſignifies a cut made through a place, and is derived from a ditch antiently dug acroſs the iſthmus for the ſecurity of the peninſula, which has been repaired from time to time, and of late fortified. It is defended by a caſtle, but the houſes are very mean. In the year 1638 and 1736, it was taken by the Ruſſians; at the laſt of which times the whole Turkiſh garriſon, conſiſting of two thouſand five hundred and fifty-four men, were made priſoners of war. Though the Ruſſians demoliſhed the place, the Tartars took the pains to rebuild it. In the year 1738, it was again taken by the Ruſſians, but they ſoon loſt it.

Koſlow, a town ſituated on a point of land which projects into the ſea of Aſoph on the weſtern ſide of the peninſula, and has a fine harbour; it is defended by a ſtone-wall, ſtrengthened by towers, and carries on a very conſiderable trade. The inhabitants conſiſt of Tartars, Turks, Greeks, Armenians, and Jews. The Turks import rice, coffee, dried figs, raiſins, dates, cloth, and ſilk ſtuffs; and, in return, receive corn and ſlaves. Both the garriſon and Turkiſh inhabitants abandoned the town in the year 1736, when the Ruſſians took it without oppoſition.

Bakſhiſarai is an open town, notwithſtanding its being the reſidence of the kan. It is ſituated on the weſt ſide of the peninſula near the ſea, between two hills, which ſerve the town inſtead of walls. Its inhabitants are Tartars, Armenians, Greeks, and Jews; and the houſes the beſt built of any in the whole country. The kan's palace is a large and irregular ſtructure. The Ruſſians made themſelves maſters of this town in the year 1736.

Karaſbazar is a large town that carries on a conſiderable trade; yet its houſes are low wooden buildings; but it has four moſques built with ſtone. The inhabitants are Tartars, Turks, Armenians, Greeks, and Jews. The horſe-fair held in this place is the moſt conſiderable in all Crimea. This town was laid in aſhes by the Ruſſians in the year 1737.

Kerſh, or Gerſh, the antient Panticapæum, ſince called the Boſphorus, is a conſiderable town, ſituated on a ſteep mountain near the ſtreight formerly called the Boſphorus, but now termed by ſailors the ſtreights of Caffa. It commands the entrance into the Black ſea; and is not only ſurrounded with a high wall, but defended on the ſouth-eaſt by a caſtle with ſeven towers; and at the harbour is a mole built with ſtone. The far greateſt part of the houſes are likewiſe built of ſtone, and have flat roofs. In this town are twenty-two Turkiſh moſques, and as many Greek churches.

The Turks have a caſtle on the ſtreight near Kerſh, with a harbour, but it is not fit for ſhips of burthen. They have alſo the town of Caffa, or Keffeh, the antient Theodoſia, a large trading ſea-port, ſituated on the eaſt of the peninſula, ſuppoſed to have been built by the Greeks in the fifth century. In 1226, the Genoeſe having got this place into their poſſeſſion, they enlarged and fortified it; but in 1297 the Venetians drove them from thence: they ſoon, however, recovered it again; but, in the year 1474, the Turks took it from them. While this town was in the poſſeſſion of the Genoeſe, its commerce roſe to ſuch a height, that it exceeded that of Conſtantinople itſelf; but, on its falling under the Turkiſh yoke, its trade greatly declined, and now only conſiſts in ſlaves brought hither for ſale by the Crim and Cuban Tartars, the Georgians, and Mingrelians. The inhabitants conſiſt of Turks, Jews, Greek, Catholic, and Armenian Chriſtians, &c. The Chriſtians conſtitute the majority of the inhabitants, and enjoy a moſt perfect freedom with reſpect to religion. Here are ſtill the deſcendants of ſeveral noble families of Genoa. The town, which is the largeſt in all Crimea, contains about five or ſix thouſand houſes, and is conſtantly well garriſoned. To the north-weſt are ſome high mountains, at the foot of which the town ſtands in a very delightful and convenient ſituation; but the harbour, beſides having a difficult bar, affords but little ſhelter in a ſouth-eaſt wind.

CHAP.

CHAP. II.

Of RUSSIA.

SECT. I.

Of the RUSSIAN EMPIRE *in general.*

Its amazing Extent: ſome general Obſervations on its Climate in different Parts; and the Progreſs of the Seaſons throughout the Year.

THE Ruſſian empire is of an amazing extent: towards the north and eaſt it is bounded by the main ocean, and towards the weſt and ſouth its limits are ſettled by treaties concluded with ſeveral far diſtant powers; with Sweden, the Poles, the Turks, with the Perſians, and with the Chineſe, by whoſe dominions this immenſe empire is bounded. Voltaire juſtly obſerves, that "it is of greater extent than all the reſt of Europe, "or than the Roman empire in the zenith of its power, "or the empire of Darius ſubdued by Alexander; for it "contains more than eleven hundred thouſand ſquare "leagues. Neither the Roman empire, nor that of the "Macedonian conqueror, comprized more than five "hundred and fifty thouſand each; and there is not a "kingdom in Europe the twelfth part ſo extenſive as "the Roman empire. In length, from the iſle of Dago "as far as its moſt eaſtern limits, it contains very near "a hundred and ſeventy degrees; ſo that when it is "noon-day in the weſt, it is very near mid-night in the "eaſtern part of this empire. In breadth it ſtretches "from ſouth to north three thouſand werſts, which "makes eight hundred leagues."

As this empire conſiſts of a great number of provinces, many of which are very extenſive, both the ſoil and temperature of the air muſt be extremely various in different parts. In thoſe which lie beyond the ſixtieth degree of latitude, there are few places where corn will grow to maturity; and in the northern parts of the empire, which reach beyond the ſeventieth degree, no garden-fruits are produced, except in the country about Archangel, where many buſhes and ſhrubs grow ſpontaneouſly, and yield ſeveral ſorts of berries: horned cattle are alſo bred, and there are plenty of wild beaſts and fowls, and ſeveral ſorts of fiſh in the neighbourhood of that city.

In the provinces ſituated in the middle of the empire, the ſoil produces moſt kinds of trees and garden-fruits, corn, honey, &c. They are likewiſe well-ſtocked with horned cattle; the woods abound with game; the rivers are navigable, and full of the beſt ſorts of fiſh.

In the ſouthern provinces the climate is hot; and though in ſome parts there are many barren waſtes, yet in others the land is covered with verdure and flowers. Tobacco, wine, and ſilk, might be there produced, as the two firſt are at Aſtracan and the Ukraine; and they are well watered with rivers, which afford plenty of fiſh; nor are they deſtitute of game in proportion to the extent and number of the woods.

In the middle, and more particularly in the northern parts of the empire, the cold is very ſevere, and the days extremely ſhort in winter; but the ſummers are warm and delightful, and even in the ſhorteſt nights the twilight is very luminous. At the winter ſolſtice, when the day is at the ſhorteſt, the ſun riſes at Archangel at twenty-four minutes after ten in the morning, and ſets at thirty-ſix minutes after one. At Peterſburgh the ſun riſes at fifteen minutes after nine, and ſets at forty-five minutes after two; but at Aſtracan the ſun riſes at forty-eight minutes after ſeven, and ſets at twelve minutes after four.

At the ſummer ſolſtice, when the day is at the greateſt length, this order is reverſed, and the ſun riſes at Aſtracan at twelve minutes after four, and ſets at about forty minutes after ſeven; and at Archangel riſes at thirty-ſix minutes after one, and ſets at twenty-four minutes after ten.

It is a common obſervation, that the eaſtern countries are much colder in winter, and hotter in ſummer, than the weſtern that lie in the ſame latitude: this is particularly true with reſpect to Ruſſia, for the river Neva, at Peterſburgh, is in ſome years covered with ice ſo early as the twenty-fourth of October; and in other years, when lateſt, about the twenty-ſecond of November; but it generally thaws by the twenty-ſixth of April, old ſtyle, which it is never known to exceed.

The reader cannot fail of being pleaſed with ſeeing here the progreſs of the ſeaſons at Peterſburg, which is ſituated in the fifty-ninth degree of latitude, from an author of ſuch acknowledged veracity as Jonas Hanway, Eſq. February generally brings with it a bright ſun and a clear ſky, every object ſeems to glitter with gems, and the nerves become braced by the cold. There is then no ſmall amuſement in riding in ſledges upon the ſnow, to thoſe who, from the length of the winter, have forgot the much ſuperior pleaſure which nature preſents when cloathed in all her verdure.

March is frequently attended with ſhowers, which with the heat of the ſun, penetrates the ice: this is generally three quarters of a yard thick on the Neva, and in ſome great rivers to the north-eaſt much thicker. This renders it like an honey-comb, and about the end of that month it uſually breaks up.

The month of April is frequently very warm; ſummer ſeems to precede the ſpring; for it is ſometimes the firſt of June before any conſiderable verdure appears, and then the intenſe heat brings it on ſo faſt, that the eye can diſcover its progreſs from day to day. Till the middle of July it ſeems to be one continued day, the ſun not intirely diſappearing above two hours in the twenty-four; but the delight which this ſeaſon naturally affords, is conſiderably abated by the extreme heat of the weather; however, a week ſeldom paſſes without the air being refreſhed by ſoutherly and weſterly winds, which often bring gentle ſhowers. Our author, who reſided about five years in this city, once experienced a delightful autumn to the end of September; but this rarely happens: Auguſt cloſes the ſcene, ſo that there are hardly above three months of ſummer.

September generally brings rain and froſt; the ſeverity of both is increaſed in October, and in November the Neva is always frozen. Then comes on the ſeaſon for the eaſy and ſpeedy conveyance on the ſnow, which brings freſh proviſions to market a thouſand Engliſh miles by land, and the beef of Archangel is often eaten at Peterſburg. In December and January the cold is ſo very intenſe, that the poor who are overtaken by liquor, or expoſed to the air in open places, are frequently frozen to death. But the abundance of birch and alders with which the Ruſſians are ſupplied, and the commodiouſneſs of their ſtoves, enable them to introduce any degree of heat into their houſes.

However, not one-tenth of the Ruſſian empire is ſufficiently peopled, and not a tenth part of it properly cultivated: for, notwithſtanding its prodigious extent, the number of inhabitants who pay the poll-tax, is computed only at five millions one hundred thouſand, and the reſt, including the females, amounts to about ten millions, excluſive of the inhabitants of the conquered provinces.

As the greateſt part of this empire is ſituated in Aſia, and has already been deſcribed in treating of Siberia and Ruſſia, the weſtern part of that empire, therefore, now only remains to be treated of.

SECT. II.

Of the Situation and Extent of Ruſſia, its Rivers and Lakes.

THE boundaries of this part of the Ruſſian empire towards the eaſt, are indeed the ſame with the limits between Europe and Aſia. It extends on the eaſt to the Wercoturian mountains, and to part of the Wolga, which ſeparate it from Siberia; on the ſouth it is bounded by the river Don, and a line drawn from the Nieper to the mouth of the Don, at its entrance into the ſea of Aſoph; on the weſt by the Nieper, which ſeparates it from Poland, the gulph of Riga, the gulph of Finland, Sweden, and Swediſh Lapland; and on the north by the Frozen Ocean.

The principal rivers of Ruſſia are as follow:

The Wolga, in Latin Volga, which has its ſource in the foreſt of Wolconſki, and is one of the largeſt rivers in the world; for it runs a courſe of above two thouſand miles before it falls into the Caſpian ſea. Its banks are generally fertile, and though not ſufficiently cultivated, on account of the frequent incurſions of the Tartars; yet the ſoil naturally produces all kinds of eſculent herbs, and in particular aſparagus of a very extraordinary ſize and goodneſs. It is obſervable, that moſt of the oaks in Ruſſia grow in the countries watered by this river. At Iwer, a town little more than one hundred and twenty miles from its ſource, the Wolga is navigable for large ſhips; and towards the end of the ſpring this river is ſo ſwelled by the melting of the ice and ſnow, as to cauſe great inundations; particularly in the months of May and June. The maſters of the veſſels which ſail down the Wolga to Aſtracan, carefully obſerve this ſeaſon, as at that time they have not only the opportunity of a ſafe paſſage over the ſhallows; but alſo over ſeveral flat iſlands which then lie at a conſiderable depth under water. Trees are often torn away by the roots from the banks of this river by the violence of the current, and the anchors of the veſſels are frequently ſo entangled amongſt them, that there is a neceſſity of cutting the cables, ſo that many anchors are ſuppoſed to lie at the bottom. The Wolga abounds with a fine fiſh called beluga, which is about eight or ten feet in length. It receives ſeveral conſiderable rivers, among which are the Occa and Cama, and diſcharges itſelf through ſeveral mouths into the Caſpian Sea, by which means it forms many iſlands.

The Don, the Tanais of the ancients, is called Tuna or Duna by the Tartars, and has its ſource not far from Tula in the Iwano Oſſero, or St. John's lake. It firſt runs from north to ſouth, and after its conflux with the Soſna, directs its courſe from weſt to eaſt, and in ſeveral large windings, again runs from north to ſouth; but at length dividing into three channels, falls into the ſea of Aſoph. The waters of the Don are thick and chalky, conſequently not very wholeſome to drink. This river is very ſhallow in ſummer, when it is alſo full of ſand-banks; it, however, affords plenty of large and ſmall fiſh. The Don in its courſe approaches ſo near the Wolga, that in one place the diſtance between them is but one hundred and forty werſts, or about eighty Engliſh miles.

The Dwina is a very large river, the name ſignifies Double, it being formed by the conflux of the Sukona and the Yug. This river divides itſelf into two branches or channels near Archangel, from whence it runs into the White Sea.

The Nieper, the ancient Boryſthenes, ariſes from a moraſs in the foreſt of Wolconſki, about one hundred and twenty miles above Smolenſki, and forms ſeveral windings through Lithuania, Little Ruſſia, the country of the Zaporo Coſſacs, and a tract inhabited by the Nagaian Tartars; and after forming a marſhy lake of ſixty werſts in length, and in many places two, four, or even ten werſts in breadth, diſcharges itſelf into the Black Sea. The banks on this river are on both ſides generally high, and the ſoil excellent; but in ſummer the water is not very wholeſome. The Nieper has no leſs than thirteen water-falls within the ſpace of ſixty werſts; yet in ſpring, during the land-floods, empty veſſels may be hauled over them. It abounds with ſturgeon, ſterled, carp, pike, karauſh, &c. There is but one bridge over this river, and that is a floating one at Kiew, one thouſand ſix hundred thirty-eight paces in length. This bridge is taken away about the end of September, to give the flakes of ice a free paſſage down the river, and is again put together in ſpring. There are to be ſeen on this river a great number of mills erected in boats.

We ſhall now mention the principal lakes in this part of the Ruſſian empire, which are,

The lake of Ladoga, ſituated between the gulph of Finland and the lake of Onega, is one hundred and fifty miles in length, and ninety in breadth. It is eſteemed the largeſt lake in Europe; and is ſuppoſed to exceed any other for its plenty of fiſh, among which are alſo ſeals. This lake is full of quick-ſands, which being moved from place to place by the frequent ſtorms to which it is ſubject, cauſe ſeveral ſhelves along its courſe, which often prove fatal to the flat-bottomed veſſels of the Ruſſians. This induced Peter the Great to cauſe a canal near ſeventy Engliſh miles in length, ſeventy feet in breadth, and ten or eleven deep, to be cut at a vaſt expence from the ſouth-weſt extremity of this lake to the ſea. This great work was begun in the year 1718, and though vigorouſly proſecuted, was not compleated till the year 1732, in the reign of the empreſs Anne. This canal has twenty-five ſluices upon it, and ſeveral rivers run into it. At the diſtance of every werſt along its banks, is a pillar marked with the number of werſts; and it is the conſtant employment of a regiment of ſoldiers to keep the canal in repair; for this purpoſe they are quartered in ſeveral places on its banks. In ſummer-time it is covered with floats and veſſels, which pay toll in proportion to the value of their cargo.

The lake of Onega is ſituated between the lake of Ladoga and the White Sea, and has a communication with the former by means of the river Swir. It is one hundred and eighty werſts in length, and about eighty in breadth; and though it has freſh water, ſeals are often ſeen in it.

The lake of Peipus in Livonia, is near ſeventy miles in length, and about forty miles in breadth. It abounds with fiſh, and runs into the gulph of Finland by the river Narva.

Medicinal and ſaline ſprings are not uncommon in Ruſſia. Fine ſilver, which alſo yields ſome gold, is dug out of the mines of this country, and alſo exceeding fine copper, iron, and many other minerals, as iſinglaſs and precious ſtones.

The moſt fertile part of Ruſſia is near the frontiers of Poland, where the inhabitants are able to ſupply their neighbours with corn. The northern parts are not only extremely cold, but marſhy, and over-run with foreſts, chiefly inhabited by wild beaſts. Beſides domeſtic animals, there are in Ruſſia wild beeves, rein-deer, martens, white and black foxes, ermines and ſables, whoſe ſkins make the beſt furs in the world; as alſo hyenas or gluttons, bears and wolves.

SECT. III.

Of the Perſons, Dreſs, and Manners of the Ruſſians; the Houſes of the common People, and their Furniture; their Food, and Fondneſs for ſtrong Liquors. Their Roads, Manner of travelling, and Language.

BEFORE the time of Peter the Great, the Ruſſians were little better than ſavages; but that wiſe prince, by incredible application, and a proper mixture of ſeverity and mildneſs, wrought ſo happy a change in their manners, as in a great meaſure ſets them on a level with the other civilized nations of Europe.

The Ruſſians are for the moſt part of the middle ſtature, though many of them are tall and comely. The common people are fond of their ancient cuſtoms; and though the majority of them have been gradually brought to

to ſubmit to modern improvements, many chooſe to ſuffer great inconveniencies, and to pay additional taxes, rather than cut off their beards, and conform to ſome regulations with reſpect to religion.

The Ruſſian women are extremely fond of paint, and conſider a ruddy complexion as the very eſſence of beauty; ſo that in the Ruſſian language, red and beautiful are ſynonimous terms. Even the poorer ſort among the women, in order to mend their complexion, will beg money to buy paint. By this means they daub themſelves ſo much, as to conceal the graces which nature may be preſumed to have beſtowed on them; for they generally profeſs, that if they had ſufficient plumpneſs, they can procure themſelves beauty. Perſons of diſtinction are very fond of ſtate and ſplendor. The dreſs of the common people in Ruſſia is mean; they are cloathed with long coats made of dreſſed ſheep-ſkins, with the wool towards their bodies; their legs and feet are ſwaddled with a coarſe cloth, ſecured by a cord of reeds, and their ſandals are of the ſame materials. Their caps are lined with fur, and cover the ears and neck, as well as the head: they wear ſaſhes round their waiſts, and double gloves, one of woollen, and the other of leather, which take in the hand without any diſtinction, except the thumb, and theſe are an eſſential part of their cloathing. However, people of any rank generally dreſs as we do in England, except wearing a full great coat lined with fur, with a deep quilted or fur-lined cap, when they go abroad. The women of the lower claſs, beſides their petticoats, wear ſheep-ſkins like the men; but thoſe who move in a higher ſphere, wear flowered ſilk cloaks, lined with furs, of which the moſt common ſort is white hares. Ladies of great diſtinction have them lined with rich furs, and almoſt conſtantly wear them. Perſons of both ſexes hang on their breaſt a croſs, which is put on when they are baptized, and this they never lay aſide as long as they live. The croſſes of the peaſants are of lead; but thoſe worn by perſons of wealth are of gold or ſilver. The Ruſſians ſeldom fail of bathing twice a week; for which purpoſe almoſt every houſekeeper is provided with a bath; and he that has none of his own, goes to thoſe that are public. It is remarkable, that they often ſally out naked from the warm bath, run about in the cold, roll themſelves in the ſnow, and then plunge again into the warm water; and this viciſſitude of heat and cold they conſider as beneficial to the conſtitution, by rendering them hardy and robuſt.

People even of the common rank ſalute each other with great civility; but before a Ruſſian welcomes his gueſt, his viſitor is obliged to make the ſign of the croſs, and at the ſame time to bow to a picture of ſome ſaint, which is ſo placed, as to be ſeen immediately at coming in. In viſits of ceremony, the men and women uſually welcome each other with a kiſs; but thoſe of the lower claſs ſhow their profound reſpect for perſons of high rank, by proſtrating themſelves on the ground before them.

The moſt uſual method of building, both in the towns and country villages, is to lay one beam of wood upon another, and faſtening them at the four corners, fill up the crevices between the beams with moſs. The houſe is afterwards covered with ſhingles, and holes are made in the timber for doors and windows. A brick ſtove or large oven is commonly made in the houſes of the peaſants, and takes up a fourth part of the area: this is flat at the top, and boarded; upon it, and on a kind of ſhelves round the room, the whole family ſleep without beds.

Their furniture conſiſts of three benches, an oblong table, and the picture of a ſaint or two. Inſtead of candles or lamps, the Ruſſian peaſants uſually burn long ſplinters of deal. The apartments are as black as ſo many chimnies; for the fire hearth being within the ſtove above-mentioned, which has no other vent for the ſmoke but into the room, the walls are covered with ſoot. It is no ſooner dark, than the houſes ſwarm with a ſpecies of inſects called tarakans, which are a kind of goat-chaffers. The beſt method of keeping them out is burning a light in the room till break of day. The houſes in the villages are contiguous, and built as cloſe together as in the towns.

The inſatiable eagerneſs of the common people after ſpirituous liquors and other ſtrong drink, eſpecially in the carnival time, is in a great meaſure owing to the ſeverity of the winter, the rigorous faſts they obſerve, and the ſlender diet they live upon throughout the year. Their food chiefly conſiſts of turnips, cabbage, peaſe, large cucumbers, onions, and coarſe ill-taſted fiſh. Their drink is quas, a kind of ſmall mead; and even among the gentry, brandy always makes a part of every repaſt. Among the lower claſs, it is generally the men who give themſelves up to theſe exceſſes, though it is not uncommon to ſee at Peterſburg a drunken woman ſtaggering along the ſtreets. Some authors indeed ſay, that drunkenneſs is ſo far from being conſidered as a crime, that they make it part of their religion, and that they do not think they have kept a holiday as they ought, if they are not drunk before night; and Mr. Perry affirms, that if you paſs through Moſcow on a holiday, you will ſee both prieſts and people lie drunk upon the ground; and if you go to help one of them up, he will tell you, by way of excuſe, "It is a holiday." He adds, that their ladies of quality are ſo little aſhamed of drinking to exceſs, that they will frankly acknowledge their having been very drunk, and return thanks for the favour to their friends who made them ſo.

Not only the common people, but the whole nation, are much more uſed to fiſh than fleſh; for their faſts take up near two-thirds of the year, during which they are abſolutely prohibited by their religion to taſte of fleſh: this is obſerved with the utmoſt ſtrictneſs; they will not even taſte of eggs, milk, or any thing that has even the leaſt relation to fleſh; but caviere is a great diſh among them. At the other times of the year, people of rank have at their tables a variety of fleſh-meat and fowl; but before they ſit down, the miſtreſs of the family preſents every one of the gueſts with a cup of brandy on a plate, or ſalver, with her own hands; and, among particular friends, all the company ſalute the lady. The firſt diſh uſually conſiſts of hams, tongues, and other ſavoury diſhes, with ſeveral made-diſhes dreſſed with oil, olives, onions, and garlic; which having remaind a conſiderable time on the table, the ſecond courſe, conſiſting of ſoups and roaſt and boiled meat, is brought in; after which follows the deſſert, and plenty of mead, beer, wine, and brandy.

A perſon may travel cheap and with great expedition in Ruſſia, both in ſummer and winter; the poſt-roads leading to the chief towns are very exactly meaſured, with the werſts marked, and the poſt-ſtages fixed at proper diſtances; for throughout the whole empire, and even in Siberia, a pillar, inſcribed with the number of werſts, is erected at the end of each. The expence of travelling in this manner is ſo eaſy, that between Riga and Peterſburgh the hire of a poſt-horſe for every werſt is no more than two copeiks and a half, which is one penny three farthings ſterling; between Novogrod and Peterſburgh only one copeik; and between Novogrod and Moſcow but half a copeik. Nothing can be more accommodated to eaſe and diſpatch than travelling in ſledges during the winter, when the earth is covered deep with ſnow, and impaſſable for wheel-carriages; for in the journey Mr. Hanway made in that ſeaſon from Moſcow to Peterſburgh, he ſlept in his ſledge, without waking, while he advanced a hundred werſts, or ſixty-ſix Engliſh miles. The whole road between thoſe two cities was marked out in the ſnow by young fir-trees planted on both ſides, at the diſtance of twenty yards, which, at a moderate computation, amount to 128,480 trees. At certain diſtances were alſo great piles of wood, to be ſet on fire, in order to give light to the empreſs and her court, if they paſſed by in the night. On theſe occaſions her imperial majeſty is drawn in a kind of houſe that contains her bed, a table, and other conveniencies, where four perſons may take a repaſt. This wooden ſtructure, which has a ſloping roof, and ſmall windows to keep out the cold, is fixed on a ſledge, and drawn by twenty-four poſt-horſes; and if any of them fail on the road, others are ready to ſupply their places. Our author obſerves, that the late empreſs was generally no more than three days and nights on the way, notwithſtanding

withſtanding her having ſeveral ſmall palaces at which ſhe ſometimes ſtopped to refreſh herſelf, though the diſtance is four hundred and eighty-eight Engliſh miles. Peter the Great once made the journey in forty-ſix hours, but did not travel in the ſame carriage. Mr. Buſching obſerves, that it is not uncommon to go it with poſt-horſes in ſeventy-two hours; and that a commodious ſledge, drawn by a pair of poſt-horſes for that journey, may be hired for fourteen or fifteen rubles.

The Ruſſian language derives its origin from the Sclavonian, but at preſent it is very different from it; and, with regard to religious ſubjects, is enriched with a great number of Greek words. The alphabet conſiſts of forty-two letters, moſt of them Greek characters, as they were written in the ninth century: but as the latter did not expreſs every particular ſound in the Sclavonian language, recourſe was had to ſeveral Hebrew letters, and to the invention of ſome arbitrary ſigns. In the different parts of the Ruſſian empire various dialects are uſed, as the Moſcovite, the Novogrodian, the Ukrainian, and that of Archangel. The dialect uſed in Siberia nearly reſembles the laſt.

SECT. IV.

Of the Religion of the Ruſſians.

THE Ruſſians profeſs the religion of the Greek church, which was firſt embraced by the great dutcheſs Ogla, ſovereign of Ruſſia, in the 955th year after the birth of Chriſt. The external part of their religion conſiſts in the number and ſeverity of their faſts, in which they far exceed the Romiſh church. Their uſual weekly faſts are on Wedneſdays and Fridays. In Lent, as hath been already obſerved, they neither eat fleſh, milk, eggs, nor butter; but confine themſelves to vegetables, bread, and fiſh fried in oil.

The great faſt of Lent is regulated by the moveable feaſt of Eaſter, and laſts till that feſtival begins.

St. Peter's faſt always begins on the firſt Monday after Whitſuntide; and ſometimes laſts ſix weeks; and at others only eight days, according as Eaſter happens to fall out early or late. The faſt of the Bleſſed Virgin annually begins on the firſt of Auguſt, and continues till the fifteenth of the ſame month. St. Philip's faſt begins on the fifteenth of November, and continues till the twenty-fifth of December.

The eighth week before Eaſter is called the butter week, and may be conſidered as the Ruſſian carnival, it being ſpent in all kinds of entertainments, and every ſpecies of licentiouſneſs. Among the diverſions exhibited at this time, one of the moſt ſingular is riding in ſledges down a ſteep declivity, twenty ells in height, made with boards, and covered with ice, by throwing water to freeze upon it. At this time of public diverſions they atone for their bad living in Lent, by feaſting and the free uſe of brandy. On Eaſter-day moſt of them eat to ſuch exceſs, as to throw themſelves into a fit of ſickneſs by overcharging their ſtomachs. On that joyful feſtival the Ruſſians kiſs one another in the moſt friendly manner, preſenting an egg coloured over, and ſometimes tolerably painted, with the following ſalutation: "Chriſt is "riſen;" to which the other anſwers, "He is indeed "riſen."

The Ruſſians are great enemies to the worſhip of graven images, and yet are ſo abſurdly inconſiſtent, that in their private devotions they kneel before a picture of our Saviour, the Virgin Mary, St. Nicholas, or ſome other ſaint, which is an indiſpenſible piece of furniture in their cloſet. To this they bow ſeveral times; making the ſign of the croſs with their thumb, fore-finger, and third finger, on the breaſt, forehead, and ſhoulders; at the ſame time repeating, in a low voice, the Lord's Prayer, and ſome ſhort ejaculations; particularly, "Lord be "merciful to me." Indeed they ſeldom paſs by a church without uttering of theſe words, at the ſame time bowing and croſſing themſelves, without paying the leaſt regard to any perſon who happens to be preſent. They likewiſe practiſe the ſame bowings and croſſings on ſeeing a church at a diſtance.

Many of the common people, and even ſome perſons of rank, either by way of penance, or from other motives of humiliation, proſtrate themſelves on their faces at the entrance of the churches; and thoſe who are conſcious of having contracted any impurity, forbear entering the church, but ſtand at the door. The church bells are often rung; and as ringing is counted a branch of devotion, the towns are provided with a great number of bells, which make as it were a continual chiming.

The divine ſervice is entirely performed in the Sclavonian tongue, which the people do not underſtand, as it is very different from the modern Ruſſian; and this ſervice conſiſts of abundance of trifling ceremonies, long maſſes, ſinging, and prayers; all which are performed by the prieſts, the congregation only repeating, "Lord "be merciful to me." They ſometimes add a lecture from one of the fathers; but there are few churches in which ſermons are ever delivered, and even in thoſe they preach but ſeldom.

In the Ruſſian churches there are neither ſeats or forms, but the whole congregation perform their devotions ſtanding. On feſtival days the clergy are adorned with very rich veſtments, ſomewhat reſembling thoſe of the Levitical prieſts deſcribed in the Old Teſtament. The people know very little of the Bible, which has never yet been tranſlated into their language. They have, however, one in the Sclavonian tongue, with annotations; nor are there any proper meaſures taken for the inſtruction of young people among the vulgar, in the principles of religion. The people never ſing pſalms or hymns, nor have any hymn books in their houſes; for none but the choiriſters are allowed to ſing pſalms in the churches, that office being conſidered as their peculiar province, on which account they are held in ſome eſteem.

Beſides the great feſtivals ordained by the Ruſſian church, there are every year others appointed by the civil power, when all public buſineſs and trades are ſuſpended with greater ſtrictneſs than even during the former; ſuch as the anniverſary of the birth, inauguration, and coronation of the perſon on the throne, and of the ſaint's day whoſe name he or ſhe bears; and likewiſe the feſtival of the birth and name-day of other perſons of the royal family; that of St. Alexander Neuſki, which is kept on the thirtieth of Auguſt; and the anniverſary of the battle of Pultowa, which is commemorated on the twenty-ſeventh of June.

There are a great number of convents for the religious of both ſexes in the Ruſſian empire; but Peter I. prudently ordered, that no perſon ſhould be allowed to enter on a monaſtic life before fifty years of age: but this regulation has been repealed ſince his death, it being thought proper to ſhew a greater condeſcenſion to the monaſteries; however, no man is permitted to turn monk till he is thirty, nor no woman to turn nun till ſhe is fifty; and even then not without the expreſs approbation and licence of the holy ſynod. The abbot, or head of an abbey, is here called archimandrite, and the prior of a convent, igumen; while an abbeſs is ſtiled igumenia.

Every large village has a church and a prieſt to officiate in it, and in the towns there is a church almoſt in every ſtreet. It is remarkable, that all the old churches have a creſcent under the croſs erected on the tops of the towers.

With reſpect to baptiſm, they acknowledge themſelves conceived and born in ſin, and therefore baptize their children immediately after they are born: if they are weak, this is done at home; but if well, in the church; the child being received at the church-door by the prieſt, who ſigning his forehead with the ſign of the croſs, ſays, "The Lord preſerve thy coming in and going out." He then faſtens nine wax-candles given him by the godfathers, ready lighted, round the font. Having incenſed the godfathers, and conſecrated the water, each of them takes a wax-candle, and they all walk three times round the font, which always ſtands in the middle of the church, the clerk carrying the picture of St. John before them, and the prieſt reading out of a book. The prieſt then aſks the godfathers the name of the child, which having given him in writing, he puts it upon a ſmall picture, which he holds upon the child's breaſt, while he mutters certain prayers; and then aſks, whether the child believes

in God the Father, the Son, and the Holy Ghoſt; and the godfathers having anſwered in the affirmative, they inſtantly turn their backs to the font, to ſhew their averſion to the three next queſtions, Whether the child forſakes the devil, his angels, and his works? To each queſtion the godfathers anſwer Yes, and as often ſpit on the ground. Then turning again to the font, the prieſt aſks, whether they promiſe that the child ſhall be brought up in the true Greek religion? and laying his hands upon him ſays, "Get out of this child thou unclean ſpirit, and make room for the Holy Ghoſt." He then blows upon the child three times to drive away the devil, by whom they ſuppoſe children are poſſeſſed before baptiſm. After this he cuts off a little of the child's hair, which he puts into a book; and having aſked the godfathers whether they deſire the child ſhould be baptized, he takes him naked into his arms, and, dipping him three times into the water, makes uſe of the uſual words: "I baptize thee in the name of the Father, and of the Son, and of the Holy Ghoſt." He then puts a corn of ſalt into the child's mouth, and making the ſign of the croſs on his forehead, hands, breaſt, and back, with conſecrated oil, puts him on a clean ſhirt, ſaying, "Thou art as clean from thy original ſin as this ſhirt." He hangs a ſmall croſs of gold, ſilver, or lead, according to every one's ability, about his neck, with a ſtrict charge to wear it all his life-time: in which they are ſo exact, that if no ſuch croſs be found about a deceaſed perſon, they will not allow him Chriſtian burial. He alſo aſſigns a peculiar ſaint, whom the child is hereafter to reverence as his patron; and having kiſſed the child and his godfathers, he exhorts them to mutual love. If more children are to be baptized at the ſame time, the font is emptied, becauſe they imagine the water to be defiled by the original ſin of the preceding child.

As they imagine that children are regenerated by baptiſm, they think they have a right to the Lord's ſupper, which is adminiſtered in the following manner: the prieſt going to the altar, attended by the clerk, ſays the office according to St. Baſil's liturgy; and then mixing warm water with the wine, ſteeps bits of bread in the chalice, and then conſecrates them together. The prieſt takes the bread out with a ſpoon, and gives it to the communicants, little babes having only half the quantity of grown people, till they are ſeven years of age.

Their proſelytes who are of age are baptized in a river, and three times plunged over head like the children, on mentioning the Father, Son, and Holy Ghoſt.

Perſons who are inclined to change their religion for that of the Moſcovites, are inſtructed for ſix weeks in ſome convent; and at their baptiſm are to abjure their former religion, to deſert it as heretical, and as often as it is named to ſhew their adhorrence, by ſpitting on the ground.

The metropolitans, who are only two, one at Kiow and the other at Tobolſki, differ from the biſhops only in their title: above theſe are the archbiſhops; and the deacons, popes, or prieſts, and protopes are exceeding numerous. In antient times the primate, or ſupreme biſhop of the Ruſſian church, was a ſuffragan to the patriarch of Conſtantinople; but the czar Feodor Iwanowitz appointed a Ruſſian patriarch to preſide over the church; yet as theſe patriarchs gradually aſſumed an exorbitant power, dangerous even to the ſtate, Peter I. on the death of the laſt patriarch, in 1701, ſuppreſſed that dignity, and declared himſelf head of the church of Ruſſia. In the year 1719, the ſame prince inſtituted a council that has the direction of eccleſiaſtical affairs, and is ſtiled, The moſt holy ſynod. Subordinate to this council are two others; the firſt called the œconomie, which has the management of all the eccleſiaſtical lands and revenues; the ſecond has power to execute the regulations made in relation to the ſeparatiſts, called Roſkolniki, and levies the tax impoſed on them for being permitted to wear their beards. This, however, is allowed to all eccleſiaſtics of the Ruſſian church, who likewiſe wear their own hair, and on their heads a high ſtiff black cap, from which a piece of the ſame ſtuff hangs down on their backs, or elſe a large flapped hat. They have over their ſhoulders a ſort of long cloak; but the ſecular prieſts, when out of the church, generally wear a blue or a brown long coat. The clergy are permitted to marry, but it muſt be to a virgin; and, on her death, he is neither allowed to marry again, nor to hold his benefice; but muſt either retire to a convent, or be degraded; and if he chooſes the latter, he is at full liberty to marry a ſecond time: hence no wives are better treated than thoſe of the eccleſiaſtics.

The Ruſſian ſeparatiſts are, by way of contempt, termed Roſkolniki; or ſchiſmatics; but they call themſelves Starowierzi, or antient believers. Their chief peculiarities conſiſt in having their own books, from the authority of which they make the uſual ſign of the croſs, only with the fore and middle finger, like the orthodox Ruſſian clergy, when they give the benediction, and conſequently differ from the laity of the national church, who make it with the thumb and the fore and middle finger. But this is not their only crime; they let their beards grow to the full length, though this privilege can only be procured, as hath been already intimated, by paying an exorbitant tax. They alſo entirely abſtain from ſpirituous liquors, never enter the national church, and will neither eat nor drink out of any veſſel that has been uſed by thoſe who ſtile themſelves orthodox Ruſſians. This ſect is not very numerous in Ruſſia, though it has ſpread over all Siberia.

The natives of thoſe provinces that have been conquered from Sweden profeſs Lutheraniſm; and both the proteſtants, of whom there are many among the Ruſſians, and thoſe of the Romiſh church, enjoy full liberty of conſcience, and the public exerciſe of their religion; ſo that they have churches and prieſts, or miniſters, at Moſcow, Peterſburgh, Cronſtadt, Archangel, and Aſtracan; but thoſe of the church of Rome have no longer the privilege of hanging bells in their churches. The Armenians have public places of worſhip only at Aſtracan. The Jeſuits and Jews have been baniſhed from the country; but it is thought that many who ſecretly adhere to Judaiſm ſtill remain there.

A conſiderable number of the Ruſſian ſubjects are Mahometans, and ſtill greater numbers are Pagans. In order to promote their converſion, the ſynod has inſtituted a peculiar ſociety for propagating Chriſtian knowledge, and it is ſaid many thouſands of them have been converted to Chriſtianity; but, on the other hand, it appears, from the writings of thoſe who have lately travelled thro' Siberia, that great violence and conſtraint have been uſed to bring them over; and, that as moſt of the people have been baptized againſt their will, they have very imperfect and contemptible ideas of the religion they are ſaid to profeſs.

In the thirteenth century ſeveral popes laboured hard to put the great duke of Ruſſia out of conceit with the Greek religion, but without ſucceſs. The doctors of the Sorbonne, at Paris, have ſince made the ſame attempt; for when Peter the Great ſuppreſſed the patriarchate, they endeavoured to perſuade him to bring about an union of the Ruſſian church with that of Rome; but this point they were unable to carry.

SECT. V.

Of their Marriages and Funeral Ceremonies.

THE marriage ceremonies of the Ruſſians, as deſcribed by the author of the Travels of the Holſtein ambaſſadors through Ruſſia to Perſia, were very particular; and, as it does not appear that any other alterations on thoſe occaſions have been made, than ſuch as neceſſarily aroſe from Peter the Firſt introducing a greater degree of familiarity between the ſexes, and permitting them to ſee and converſe with each other, we ſhall here give them to our readers.

When every thing is agreed upon between the parents, if they are of quality, a woman, called the ſuacha, is appointed by the friends of the bridegroom, and another by thoſe of the bride, to take joint care of the nuptials, who provides every thing fit for the chamber where the new-married couple are to lie. The bed is made of forty ſheaves of rye laid in good order, and encompaſſed with ſeveral barrels of wheat, barley, and oats. When all is ready the bridegroom goes late in the evening, accompa-

nied by his kindred; the prieſt who was to marry him leading the van on horſeback. They are received at the bride's door by her relations, invited to come in, and to ſit down at table; where only three diſhes of meat are ſerved up, and even theſe are not to be touched by any one preſent. At the upper end of the table a place is left for the bridegroom, which is taken up by a young lad appointed for that purpoſe, while the bridegroom is talking with the bride's friends: but at length he having prevailed on the youth by ſome preſents to reſign his place to him, takes his ſeat, and the bride, richly dreſſed, uſed to be brought in with a veil over her face, and placed next the bridegroom; two lads at the ſame time holding a piece of taffety between them, to prevent their ſeeing each other. The ſuacha then comes in, and paints her, ties up her hair in two knots, puts a coronet on her head, and all the ornaments of a married woman. The coronet is of gold or ſilver gilt, and lined with ſilk; having on both ſides, near the ears, five or ſix rows of pearls, hanging down in ſtrings on her breaſt. The upper garment, which has ſleeves an ell and a half wide, is embroidered at the edges with gold and ſilver, eſpecially about the neck, where it is ſtiff with embroidery for the breadth of three inches. They ſometimes beſtow a thouſand crowns upon this robe. The bridegroom is then painted by his ſuacha, whilſt the women who are preſent ſtand ſinging upon the benches.

At length they all go to church, where the young couple ſtand upon a piece of taffety, and have a canopy of the ſame ſilk over their heads. Here having made offerings of fried meats, fiſh, and paſtry, the prieſt gives them his benediction, and taking the man by his right hand, and the woman by her left, he aſks them three times, whether they are both willing to be married, and to love one another as they ought to do. To which having anſwered Yes, the whole company join hands, and the prieſt ſings the CXXVIIIth Pſalm; which being ended, he puts a garland of rue upon the heads of the young couple, and if one of them be a widow or widower, about their ſhoulders, ſaying, "Increaſe and "multiply. Whom God hath joined together, let no "men put aſunder." While the prieſt pronounces theſe words, each of the people invited to the wedding lights a wax-candle, and one of them gives a glaſs of wine to the prieſt, which he drinks; and the married-couple having pledged the ſame three times each, the bridegroom throws down the glaſs, and he and the bride treading it under their feet, ſaying, "May they thus fall under "our feet, and be trodden to pieces who ſhall endeavour "to ſow diviſion or diſcontent between us." The women then throw ſome flax or hemp-ſeed on the young couple, wiſhing them much proſperity; and ſome pull the bride by the robe, as if they would take her from the bridegroom, to whom ſhe ſticks cloſe, while they ſeem unable to remove her.

The nuptial ceremony being ended, the bride returns in a ſledge, or coach, by the light of ſix flambeaux, and the bridegroom on horſeback. The men immediately ſit down at the table, which is covered with proviſions; while the women conduct the bride into her chamber, undreſs her, and having put her to bed, come to the bridegroom, who riſing from the table, is conducted to the bride's chamber, by ſix or eight young men, each with a wax-candle in his hand, which they ſtick in the barrels of wheat, barley, and oats that ſtand round the bed: the bride no ſooner ſees the bridegroom than ſhe ſlips on a morning-gown, lined with fur, and riſing meets and ſalutes him with a low inclination of the head; and this uſed to be the firſt time of the bridegroom's ſeeing her face. They then ſit down to a table, where, among other proviſions, they have a roaſted fowl, which the bridegroom pulls aſunder, and throwing over his ſhoulder the part he lights on firſt, they eat the reſt, and then go to bed; while the gueſts employ themſelves in ſeveral charms to promote the happineſs of the new-married couple. Some time after an old ſervant of the houſe, who attends at the door, comes and aſks whether the buſineſs be done; and the bridegroom anſwering Yes, the word is given for the trumpets and timbrels to ſtrike up, and theſe ſound till the new-married couple are conducted to the ſtoves, where they bathe themſelves apart. After they have been well waſhed in the bath with water, mead, and wine, the bride ſends the bridegroom a ſhirt richly embroidered, eſpecially at the neck, and a rich habit. The two next days they ſpend in mirth and feſtivity.

Perſons of inferior rank are ſatisfied with fewer ceremonies, for the night before the wedding the bridegroom ſends ſome cloaths, a comb, and a looking-glaſs; and the next day the prieſt is brought in by two lads, carrying lighted wax-candles. As ſoon as he enters the houſe, he gives his benediction firſt to the lads, and then to the gueſts. The young couple being ſet down at the table, the lads holding a piece of taffety between them, the ſuacha dreſſes the bride's head, which being done, a looking-glaſs is brought, and the young couple joining their cheeks, look and ſmile one upon the other, while the two ſuachas caſt hops upon them; after which they go to church, where they are married with the ceremonies already mentioned.

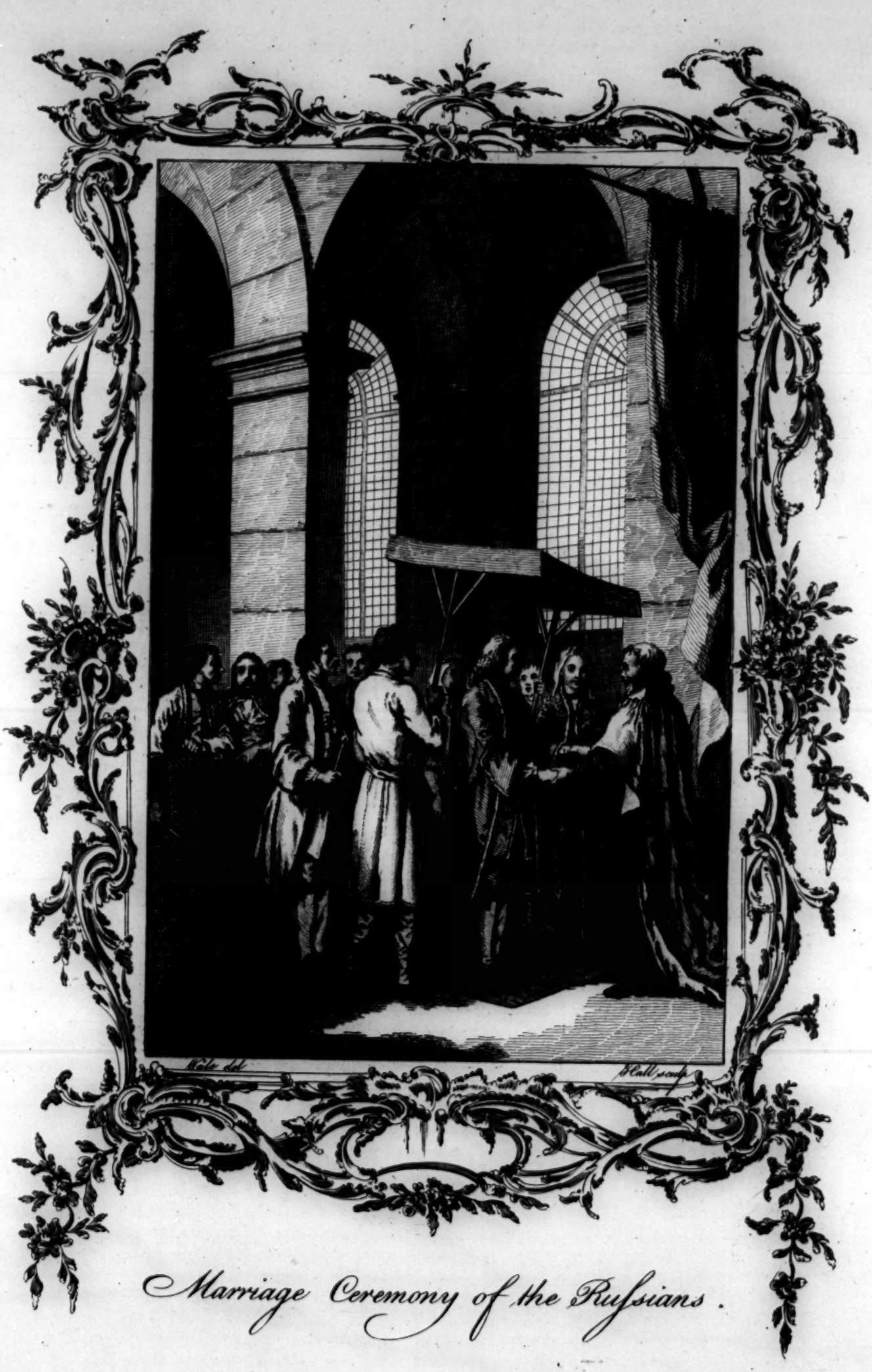
As the Ruſſians eſteem marriage a very ſacred thing, polygamy is forbidden under pain of death; the emperor himſelf being allowed only one wife at a time; though if ſhe proves barren, he may ſend her into a monaſtery, and marry another. Second marriages they conſider as allowable, but not very commendable: a third marriage is not to be undertaken but upon very weighty conſiderations; and a fourth is puniſhed with death.

Their funerals, like their other public actions, are performed with great ceremony; for the ſoul of the ſick perſon is no ſooner departed, than the widow ſends for their kindred and friends, who ſtanding round the corpſe break out into lamentations. They then waſh the body, and having put a clean ſhirt or ſhroud about him, with a new pair of thin Ruſſia leather ſhoes on his feet, lay him with his arms acroſs his breaſt, in a coffin made of the trunk of a tree, and in the mean while ſend a preſent to the prieſt to pray for his ſoul. The coffin is covered with a piece of cloth, or the coat of the deceaſed. The richer ſort, if the ſeaſon will permit, keep the body eight or ten days, during which the prieſt comes every day to purify it with incenſe, and by ſprinkling it with holy water.

At length the prieſt proceeds with the picture of the patron ſaint of the deceaſed, followed by four virgins, who are neareſt related to the latter, and make very mournful lamentations, but begin and leave off exactly at a time. Then comes the dead body carried by ſix men upon their ſhoulders; but if the deceaſed be a monk, or a nun, this office is performed by thoſe of his own profeſſion. The corpſe is ſurrounded by ſeveral prieſts, who incenſe it, to keep off the evil ſpirits, all the while ſinging Pſalms; then follow the kindred and friends with wax-candles, but without any order. On their coming to the grave the coffin is uncovered, and the prieſt holding over it the picture of the patron ſaint, ſays ſeveral prayers, in which he often repeats, "Lord look upon this ſoul in righte-"ouſneſs." Mean while the widow continues her lamentations, and the relations and friends, after kiſſing either the deceaſed or his coffin, take their leave. The prieſt then takes a piece of paper, ſigned by the biſhop of the place and the confeſſor, and is a kind of ticket for his entrance into paradiſe. This he puts into the coffin, which is then ſhut and put into the grave, with the face turned towards the eaſt; while thoſe who return to the houſe of mourning, drown their ſorrow in good liquor.

Their whole time of mourning laſts forty days, during which three feaſts are made for the relations of the deceaſed, on the third, ninth, and twentieth day after the burial; during which the prieſt ſays certain prayers morning and evening over the grave, which for that purpoſe is covered with a ſmall hut of mats: for though the Ruſſians do not believe in purgatory, but maintain that there are two places to which the ſouls of men retire after their ſeparation from the body, there to wait till the day of judgment, ſome in a pleaſant and delightful abode, where they enjoy the converſation of angels; others in a gloomy and diſmal valley, where they ſee nothing but devils; and that while the ſoul is yet on its way, it may be diverted from the evil road by the prayers of the prieſts and monks.

SECT.



Marriage Ceremony of the Ruſsians.

SECT. VI.

Of the Learning of the Ruſſians, and their Skill in Arts and Manufactures. The Method of making Caviar. The Exports and Imports. The Trade carried on by Land; and the Manner in which it is conducted at Peterſburgh. The Weights, Meaſures, and Coins of Ruſſia.

LEARNING was but little known in Ruſſian before the reign of Peter the Great; but that illuſtrious monarch ſpared neither expence nor trouble to diſpel the clouds of ignorance which overſpread his empire, and to inſpire his ſubjects with a taſte for the arts and ſciences: he founded an academy of ſciences, an univerſity, and a ſeminary at Peterſburgh; beſides other ſchools in the different parts of his empire: invited perſons of learning from England, Germany, France, and Holland, to ſettle at Peterſburgh: collected a great number of books; and encouraged his ſubjects to travel into thoſe countries where the arts and ſciences flouriſhed. Theſe wiſe and laudable meaſures were continued after his death, and the empreſs Elizabeth erected an univerſity and two ſeminaries at Moſcow. Hence many men of genius among the Ruſſians have cultivated their minds, and made a conſiderable figure in the republic of letters. Indeed the number of learned Ruſſians is but ſmall; and as there are only three univerſities in that vaſt empire, thoſe of Peterſburgh, Moſcow, and Kiow, learning may juſtly be ſaid to be yet only in its infancy in that empire. The Ruſſians are, however, far from wanting talents and a diſpoſition for learning. The ſtudies to which they chiefly apply themſelves are hiſtory, geography, and the mathematics.

We find that the members of the academy of ſciences at Peterſburgh not only publiſh collections of their own memoirs, but compoſe a variety of books for the inſtruction of youth in the ſciences, and make tranſlations of the moſt uſeful books publiſhed in foreign countries. Peter the Great eſtabliſhed the myſtery of printing, that everlaſting guardian and friend of the arts, in Ruſſia. His types and other implements for that purpoſe were brought from Holland. Indeed a preſs, with letters, had been ſent from Poland to Moſcow, and a printing-houſe erected, by the approbation of one of the former czars; but the building was ſet on fire in the night, and burnt to the ground, by the procurement, as was generally ſuppoſed, of the ignorant and ſuperſtitious prieſts, who thought all books, and eſpecially ſuch as treated of their own hiſtory, and the miracles of their ſaints, to be no leſs dangerous than witchcraft.

All the mechanic arts and trades are continually improving in Ruſſia, and theſe improvements are far from being entirely owing to the foreigners who reſide among them; for the natives being ſpurred on by emulation, frequently equal, and ſometimes exceed their maſters. They were formerly almoſt ſolely employed in agriculture, feeding of cattle, hunting, and fiſhing. They excelled indeed in making Ruſſia leather, which had been long practiſed by them; but they were entirely unacquainted with the more ingenious methanic arts. Great numbers of excellent artificers, invited by Peter the Great, ſettling in his dominions, the Ruſſians ſhewed that, with proper inſtructions, they did not want the capacity of being taught; and they have now flouriſhing manufactures of velvet, ſilk, linen, and woollen ſtuffs; alſo copper, braſs, iron, ſteel, and tin, are wrought; and great guns, fire-arms, gunpowder, wire, cordage, ſail-cloth, paper, parchment, and glaſs, are made in Ruſſia. All theſe manufactures are, however, not brought to ſuch perfection as to be carried on without the aſſiſtance of foreigners, and additional ſupplies of thoſe commodities from abroad. Beſides, thoſe made by Ruſſian workmen are ſold for one-half or a third part leſs than thoſe made by foreigners at Peterſburgh and Moſcow; and indeed they will not do more than half or a third part of the ſervice: but ſhip-building is carried to great perfection in Ruſſia. As for the Ruſſian peaſants, they are their own artiſts, and make all the utenſils they want.

As caviar forms a conſiderable branch of their commerce, it will not be improper to give here the manner in which it is prepared. It is made of the roes of the fiſh called beluga and the ſturgeon. The beſt is made of the beluga roes, and is of two ſorts; the granulated and preſſed. The former, which is moſt eſteemed, is prepared in autumn and winter, but the latter is made in ſummer, and both ſorts are exported to the ſouthern parts of Europe. The granulated ſort is firſt ſalted, after taking away the ſtringy part, with ſalt well cleaned and made into brine; and, being drained from the oily parts, it is put into kegs for exportation. Caviar is moſt palatable when freſh and ſpread on bread with ſalt, leaks, and pepper, and is therefore ſent in the winter frozen to all parts of the empire; but, as it ſoon becomes tainted by warmth, it cannot well be exported freſh.

Ruſſia affords a variety of articles of commerce, that are of great uſe to foreigners; and, as the exports of this country far exceed its imports, the balance of trade is conſiderably in its favour. The other Ruſſian home commodities are ſables and black furs; the ſkins of blue and white foxes, ermines, hyenas, linxes, ſquirrels, bears, panthers, wolves, martins, wild cats, white hares, &c. Likewiſe Ruſſia leather, copper, iron, iſing-glaſs, tallow, pitch, tar, linſeed oil, train oil, roſin, honey, wax, potaſh, ſalt-fiſh, hemp, flax, thread, calimancoes, Ruſſia linen, ſail-cloth, mats, caſtor, Siberian muſk, mamonts teeth and bones, as they are called, ſoap, feathers, hogs briſtles, timber, &c. to which may be added the Chineſe goods, rhubarb, and other drugs, with which the Ruſſians partly furniſh the reſt of Europe.

The fiſhery of ſeals, of which about ten thouſand are annnually caught, yields five thouſand meaſures of oil. The ſkins and oil are ſent to England. Morſes, or ſea-horſes, from Nova Zembla, uſed to load thirty boats a year with blubber, and their teeth are eſteemed next to ivory: but this trade being monopolized by a company, daily decays. Of cod and ſtock-fiſh, about three ſhips lading are ſent yearly to Denmark: of ſalmon, ſalted and dried, a ſhip's loading to Bilboa.

The goods imported into Ruſſia are ſilk, cotton and other woollen ſtuffs, fine linen, chintz, toys, French brandy, wine, herrings and other fiſh, ſpices, hardware, &c. In 1749, the value of the goods exported from Peterſburgh amounted to three millions one hundred and eighty-four thouſand three hundred and twenty-two rubles, and that of the imports to two millions nine hundred and forty-two thouſand two hundred and forty-two rubles. Of theſe the value of two millions two hundred and forty-five thouſand five hundred and ſeventy-three rubles were exported to England; and the value of the commodities imported from thence amounted to one million twelve thouſand two hundred and nine rubles.

But it will not be improper to enter here more minutely into the ſtate of commerce in the Ruſſian empire. The trade of Ruſſia may be divided into domeſtic and foreign, or that by land and ſea. The land-trade chiefly conſiſts of,

1. The trade to China, which is chiefly carried on by caravans, and partly by private adventurers. The moſt valuable commodities, and thoſe in the greateſt quantity, carried by the Ruſſians to China are furs; in return for which they bring back gold, tea, ſilks, cotton, &c.

2. The trade to Perſia, by the way of Aſtracan and the Caſpian ſea, is pretty conſiderable; and the returns are made in raw ſilks and ſilk ſtuffs.

3. The trade with the Calmucs, which is entirely in private hands, conſiſts of all kinds of iron and copper utenſils; in return for which they receive cattle, proviſions, and ſometimes gold and ſilver; but this trade is of no great importance.

4. The trade to Bochara, one of the chief towns of Uſbec Tartary, is either for ready money or by bartering of goods for curled lamb ſkins, Indian ſilks, and ſometimes gems brought to the yearly fair of Samarkand.

5. The traders in the Ukraine ſell all kinds of proviſions to the Crim Tartars; and alſo carry on a trade with the Greek merchants at Conſtantinople.

The inhabitants of Kiow trade to Sileſia in cattle and Ruſſia leather.

The

The Ruſſians were ſtrangers to the courſe of exchange, till it was introduced among them in the year 1670. Money was then ſo very ſcarce in this empire, that foreigners were obliged to barter their goods for thoſe of Ruſſia. Moſt of the foreign merchants then reſided at Moſcow, but took a journey in the ſummer to Archangel, where they had their warehouſes and factors. This practice continued till 1721, when, by the order of Peter the Great, the ſeat of commerce was removed from Archangel to Peterſburgh; on which the foreign traders removed their factories thither, where they are not allowed to keep the goods conſigned to them in their own warehouſes, but are obliged to depoſit them in magazines built for that purpoſe by the government, to which they pay rent for warehouſe-room, in proportion to the quantity of their goods.

The merchants and traders of Peterſburgh, as in other countries, conſiſt of natives and foreigners. The former may ſell either by wholeſale or retail; but the latter by wholeſale only, and that to none but the natives: for they are not permitted to ſell any thing to one another, or to have any commercial dealings together. Moſt of the foreign traders at Peterſburgh are only factors, and the reſt, who trade on their bottoms, deal chiefly in grocery. The factors are intruſted with large capitals, and, without engaging in commerce for themſelves, may raiſe handſome fortunes. The Ruſſian traders, who bring goods to Peterſburgh and carry foreign commodities farther into the continent, do not reſide in that city, but annually bring their goods thither in May or June by water, and in September, October, and December, return with foreign commodities; but the wealthy ſave the fatigue of travelling, by ſending their factor to Peterſburgh.

All foreign merchandizes are generally ſold at a twelve months credit; but the Ruſſian commodities muſt be paid for at the delivery of the goods, except the natives find a difficulty in ſelling their ſtock; in which caſe they deal by way of exchange; yet will not barter goods for goods, but generally inſiſt on one-fourth, one-third, or one-half of the value of the whole in ſpecie; and of late foreign merchants deal for the Ruſſian commodities by contract, and even advance the money to the Ruſſians in winter, upon condition of their delivering in the goods at a ſettled price the following ſummer; but, for the greater ſecurity, theſe contracts are entered in the cuſtom-houſe books.

The Engliſh enjoyed conſiderable privileges in trade ſo early as the reign of the czar Iwan Baſilowitz, to whom captain Chancellor delivered a letter from Edward VI. in 1553, and received a licence to trade, which was renewed by Peter the Great. In 1742 a treaty of commerce was concluded between Ruſſia and England, by which it was ſtipulated, that the Engliſh ſhould be allowed the privilege of ſending goods through Ruſſia into Perſia; but captain Elton, an Engliſhman, having entered into the ſervice of Nadir Shah, and built ſhips on the Caſpian ſea for that monarch, the Ruſſians, together with the troubles in Perſia, put a ſtop to this trade. The Engliſh, however, ſtill carry on a conſiderable trade with Ruſſia, which exceeds that of any other nation.

The goods chiefly imported from England are all ſorts of woollen manufactures, lead, tin, pewter, dying woods, indigo, olibanum, brimſtone, and lignum-vitæ. The Hollanders and Hamburghers, beſides theſe, bring wines, paper, allum, glaſs-ware, ſpices, dollars, plate, gold and ſilver lace, brocades, Sileſia cloth, &c.

The exports of the Engliſh from Ruſſia are hemp, flax, linen, train oil, pot-aſh, rhubarb, iſinglaſs, wax, tar, red hides, and caviar. The Dutch and Hamburghers receive alſo from thence wood-aſhes, maſts, hides dried, tallow, ſables, hemp-ſeed, mats, and hogs briſtles.

The Dutch carry on the greateſt trade, next to the Engliſh, with the Ruſſians. Bills of exchange are drawn at Peterſburgh on Amſterdam only; on which account the traders of other countries, who give commiſſion for buying Ruſſian commodities at Peterſburgh, are obliged to procure credit, or to have proper funds at Amſterdam.

The trade to Peterſburgh is now carried to a great height, for the number of ſhips which entered that port in 1751 from England, Holland, France, Norway, Denmark, Lubec, Hamburgh, Stetin, Roſtoc, Kiel, Pruſſia, Sweden, and Dantzic, amounted to two hundred and ninety. Indeed there is no nation in the world more inclined to commerce than the Ruſſians are at preſent; but they are ſo full of chicanery and art, that a foreigner cannot be too much on his guard in his dealings with them.

The weights peculiar to Ruſſia are a ſolothnic, which is one-ſixth of an ounce, and is divided into halves, quarters, and eighths: a Ruſſian pound, equal to ninety-ſix ſolothnics: a pud, or pood, equal to thirty-ſix pounds avoirdupois: a berkowetz, equal to ten puds. The other weights are the ſame with thoſe of Germany.

The meaſures of length are the arſhine, or Ruſſian ell, equal to twenty-eight inches and one-tenth Engliſh meaſure: a werſoc, which is one-ſixteenth of an arſhine; and a faſhen, or fathom, contains three arſhines.

All the Ruſſian coins, ducats excepted, have inſcriptions in the Ruſſian tongue. The gold coins are imperial ducats; and the largeſt ſilver coin is the ruble, the value of which riſes and falls according to the courſe of exchange. A ruble in Ruſſia is equal to an hundred copeiks, or four ſhillings and ſix-pence ſterling. The other ſilver coins are half rubles, which are called poltinnics and quarter rubles. A gryphe, or griwe, is of the value of ten copeiks; and ten griwes are equal to a ruble.

The copper coins are a copeik, which is of the value of about a halfpenny. A denga, or denuſhka, two of which make a copeik; and a poluſhka, which is a quarter of a copeik.

There are no other foreign pieces current in Ruſſia than ducats, Holland rixdollars, and Albert dollars.

Beſides the Ruſſian coins, the following are alſo current in Livonia: a white ſchelling, which is worth two black ſchellings; three of the former make one groſh, which is ſeven-fifteenths of a penny: a farding, which is one groſh and a half: a Riga mark, which is ſix groſhes: a Poliſh guilder, which is five Riga marks: a kopa-ſhock, or lowenthaler, equal to twenty-five groſhes; and a rixdollar, valued at ſixty fardings.

SECT. VII.

Of the Coronation, Titles, Arms, Court, Revenues, and Forces of the Emperor, by Land and Sea.

AT the acceſſion of an emperor to the throne, the metropolitans, archbiſhops, and biſhops, with all the nobility and principal merchants throughout the empire, are ſummoned to Moſcow againſt the day of coronation; when the archbiſhop of Moſcow conducts the emperor to the church of Precheſte, or our Lady, where a ſcaffold is erected, three ſteps high, covered with rich Perſian tapeſtry, on which are ſet three chairs at equal diſtances from each other. One of theſe is for the emperor, another for the archbiſhop, and the third for the imperial cap and robe. The robe is of purple ſattin, lined with ſable, and on the top of the cap, which is embroidered with jewels, is a ſmall crown ſet as thick as poſſible with diamonds, and ſaid to be the ſame which the great duke Demetrius Monomach took at Caffa, in Tartary, and deſtined for the coronation of his ſucceſſors.

On the prince's entering the church, the clergy begin their hymns; after which the archbiſhop prays to God, to St. Nicholas, and the other ſaints, deſiring their preſence on that ſolemn day. The prayer being ended, the chief counſellor of ſtate takes the emperor by the hand, and preſenting him to the archbiſhop, ſays, "The "knez and bojars acknowledge the prince here preſent "to be lawful heir to the crown, and deſire that as "ſuch you immediately crown him." Upon this the archbiſhop leads the prince up to the ſcaffold, ſeats him on one of the three chairs, touches his forehead with a little croſs of diamonds, and bleſſes him. Then one of the metropolitans reads the following prayer:

"O Lord our God, King of Kings, who didſt chooſe "thy ſervant David, by thy prophet Samuel, and didſt "cauſe him to be anointed king over thy people Iſrael, "attend to our prayers, which, though unworthy, we "offer up to thee. Look down from thy ſanctuary up-"on this thy ſervant, whom thou haſt choſen and ex-

"alted

" alted for king over theſe thy holy nations: anoint him " with the oil of gladneſs; protect him with thy power; " ſet upon his head a precious diadem; grant him a long " and happy life; put into his hand a royal ſcepter, and " make him ſit upon the throne of juſtice; make ſubject " to him all barbarous nations; may his heart and un- " derſtanding always continue in thy fear, and thro' " the whole courſe of his life may he obey thy com- " mandments: ſuffer not any hereſy or ſchiſm to come " near his perſon or government; but ſhew him the " ſalvation of thy holy and univerſal church, that he " may judge thy people with juſtice, protect the chil- " dren of the poor, and finally attain everlaſting life; " for thine is the kingdom, the power and the glory. " God the Father, God the Son, and God the Holy " Ghoſt, be with us, and remain with us."

This prayer being ended, the archbiſhop orders the two metropolitans to take the cap and robe; and ſome of the bojars, whom he directs to come upon the ſcaffold, are bid to put them on the prince, whom he bleſſes a ſecond time, by touching his forehead with the little croſs of diamonds; and while they ſet the ducal cap upon his head, the archbiſhop ſays, In the name of the Father, Son, and Holy Ghoſt, and bleſſes him a third time.

The archbiſhop then bids all the prelates approach, and each of them gives the emperor his benediction. The emperor and the archbiſhop then ſit down, but immediately riſe again, to order the ſinging of the Litany, every verſe of which ends with " Lord have mercy upon us," and is frequently intermixed with the emperor's name. After the Litany they ſit down again, and one of the metropolitans goes up to the altar, and ſings, " God preſerve " the health of the emperor of all the Ruſſias, whom he " hath of his love beſtowed upon us, and grant him a " long and happy life." Theſe words are echoed round for ſome time by every one preſent, after which the archbiſhop alone goes up to the prince, and tells him, " That ſince, through the providence of God, all the " ſtates of the realm, as well eccleſiaſtical as temporal, " have eſtabliſhed and crowned him emperor of all the " Ruſſias, and entruſted him with a government of ſuch " importance, he ought to apply all his thoughts to love " God, keep his commandments, adminiſter juſtice, " and protect and maintain the true Greek religion." He then bows down to the ground before the emperor, as a token of his homage; and all the reſt, eccleſiaſtics, nobles, and others, in their reſpective ranks, do the ſame. They then go to the church of St. Michael the Archangel, and afterwards to that of St. Nicholas, both of which, as well as that of our Lady, are within the walls of the palace, and, after ſinging in each of them the ſame Litany as before, conclude the ceremonies with dining in the great hall of the Kremlin.

The antient ſovereigns of Ruſſia ſtiled themſelves great dukes, and afterwards czars; but Peter the Great aſſumed the title of emperor, and that title is now given him by all Europe. The titles of the emperor at full length are, Emperor and ſole ſovereign of all the Ruſſias, ſovereign lord of Moſcow, Kiow, Wlodimiria, Novogrod; czar in Caſan, Aſtracan, and Siberia; lord of Pleſkow; great duke of Smolenſko; duke of Eſthonia, Livonia, and Carelia; of Tweria, Ingria, Pernia, Wiatkia, Bulgaria, and lord of ſeveral other territories; great duke of Novogrod, in the low country of Tſhernickow, Reſan, Roſtow, Iaroſlaw, Bielo-ſero, Uldoria, Obdoria, Condinia; emperor of all the northern parts; lord of the territory of Juweria; of the Carthalinian, Grewzinian, and Georgean czars; of the Kabardinian, Circaſſian, and Gorian princes; and lord and ſupreme ruler of many other countries and territories.

Since the reign of Iwan Baſilowitz, the arms of Ruſſia have been, or, an eagle diſplayed ſable, holding a golden ſcepter and monde in his talons: over the eagle's head are three crowns, and on its breaſt it bears a ſhield, with the arms of Moſcow in the center, encompaſſed by ſix others, which are thoſe of Aſtracan, Siberia, Caſan, Kiow, and Wlodimiria.

The power of the Ruſſian emperor is as abſolute and unlimited as poſſible. Peter the Great publiſhed an ordinance, by which the ſucceſſion was entirely to depend on the will and pleaſure of the reigning ſovereign; and this is the only written fundamental law in relation to the ſucceſſion.

The Ruſſian court has always been very numerous and magnificent, it being filled, particularly on ſolemn occaſions, by the bojars or privy counſellors, and by the nobles and gentry, who are obliged to pay a conſtant attendance, by titles of honour and diſtinction, without any ſalary; as the carvers, who are always two of the firſt nobility, and whoſe employment is eſteemed extremely honourable; the ſewers, who carry meſſages of importance, receive ambaſſadors, &c. and the gentlemen of the bed-chamber. Theſe two laſt titles are given to a great number of perſons, and deſcend from father to ſon, though they are generally confirmed by the prince; and laſtly, the chief merchants. On public feſtivals and days of ceremony all theſe antiently received rich brocade gowns, lined with furs, from the treaſury, which they returned as ſoon as the appearance was over. Peter the Firſt, however, aboliſhed theſe formalities, without ſettling any other court, either to ſave the expence during the wars in which he was engaged, or from his particular temper, which was averſe to ſuch conſtraints. On any ceremony he was attended by the chief officers of his army, and only ſome of his nobility. The former pomp has, however, been ſince reſtored, and augmented by the addition of three orders of knighthood, created by the great prince we have juſt mentioned.

The firſt and moſt honourable is that of St. Andrew, or the blue ribbon, inſtituted by Peter the Great in 1698, in honour of St. Andrew, the patron of Ruſſia. The empreſs Catharine gavè the ſtatutes, and aſſigned proper habits for this order, which hath its enſigns, motto, and collar.

The ſecond is the order of St. Alexander Newſki, or the red ribbon, which was inſtituted by Peter I. but the czarina Catharine firſt conferred it in the year 1725. This order has alſo its badge and motto.

There is likewiſe a female order founded by Peter in 1714, in honour of his conſort Catharine, and from her called the order of St. Catharine. Theſe honours, as Voltaire obſerves, command reſpect, coſt the ſovereign nothing, and flatter thoſe who receive them, without adding to their power.

The chief officer under the emperor is the chancellor, after whom is the grand maſter of the houſhold, the maſter of the horſe, the treaſurer, comptroller, chamberlain, taſters, harbingers, &c.

An hundred and fifty tables are now ſpread twice a day at the Ruſſian court, and ſerved with eighteen hundred diſhes; for this purpoſe the court-purveyor receives two thouſand rubles every three days, excluſive of the produce of the crown eſtates, and the proper quantities of wine, ſugar, and ſpices. The daily conſumption of coffee amounts to one pud, or thirty-ſix pounds weight, and ſeven thouſand puds of ſalt are expended every month.

The revenues of the Ruſſian empire are variouſly computed, ſome reckoning that they amount to ſixty millions of rubles, others to twenty millions, and others again to no more than eight millions a year: but Mr. Voltaire ſays, that, according to the Ruſſian finances in 1725, they amounted to thirteen millions of rubles, reckoning only the taxes and duties paid in money, excluſive of what is paid in kind; and adds, that this ſum was then ſufficient to maintain three hundred and thirty-nine thouſand five hundred ſoldiers and ſailors; and that both the revenue and troops have increaſed ſince. It is, however, very certain that the imperial revenues bear no proportion to the vaſt extent of the Ruſſian dominions; that they do not all conſiſt of ready money, the country in many places furniſhing recruits for the army inſtead of it; and moſt of the inhabitants of Siberia pay their tribute in furs.

Theſe revenues ariſe from the annual capitation, or poll-tax, to which the vaſſals of noblemen pay ſeventy copeiks, the burghers a hundred and twenty copeiks, and the Tartars and other nations in the territory of Caſan pay a hundred and ten copeiks a man. This tax, according to Dr. Buſching, amounts to five millions of rubles.

From the demeſne lands, occupied by three hundred and ſixty thouſand peaſants, each of whom pays a hundred and ten copeiks a year, amounting in all to three hundred and ninety-ſix thouſand rubles.

From the inns and drinking-houſes, which are about two millions; the privilege of ſelling beer, mead, and malt-ſpirits being monopolized by the crown.

From the tolls and cuſtoms by land and ſea, which produce about one million one hundred and fifty thouſand rubles.

From the trade carried on by the crown in iron, potaſh, aſhes of the willow tree, rhubarb, tar, and train oil.

From the ſalt-works, which yearly bring into the treaſury ſeven hundred thouſand rubles.

From the duty on ſtampt paper, amounting to one hundred and twenty thouſand rubles.

From a tax on law-ſuits, which pay ten per cent. of the value conteſted; from hearth-money and Bath-ſtoves; and from all hackney-horſes and carriages.

From the abbey-lands, ſince their being managed by a ſecular commiſſion, for the benefit of the crown.

From the caravans to China, which is never leſs than a hundred thouſand rubles.

The produce of the public ſhows of tumblers and rope-dancers, of which multitudes are exhibited at Eaſter for the diverſion of the people, who are paſſionately fond of them, is allotted for paying the expence of the police, paving the ſtreets, &c. Beſides this, every houſe-keeper pays an aſſeſſment for his houſe and court-yard, according to the extent of the ground, which is applied to the ſame purpoſes.

The ſalaries of all civil officers are paid out of the money received by the offices belonging to their departments; and thoſe of the governors, by the offices of their reſpective governments. The ſurplus that remains in the inferior offices is ſent to the treaſury.

According to the ſtate of the Ruſſian forces drawn up by Van Hoven, in the year 1746, the army then conſiſted of two hundred and forty-ſix thouſand four hundred and ninety-four regulars, and a hundred and twenty thouſand irregulars. The fleet conſiſted of twenty-four ſhips of the line, ſeven frigates, three bomb-ketches, and two flat boats, beſides the galley fleet at Peterſburgh, conſiſting of a hundred and two gallies. The complement of the whole fleet amounted to ten thouſand five hundred and ſeventy men, of whom ſeven thouſand ſeven hundred and one were ſailors. The fleet has continued pretty nearly the ſame ſince that time; for though ſome new ſhips have been built, others have become unfit for ſervice. The men of war are laid up at Revel and Cronſtadt, and the gallies at Peterſburgh. The Ruſſians indeed have no very good harbour in the Baltick; the water at Cronſtadt, by being too freſh, does conſiderable damage to the ſhips that lie there; beſides, the mouth of the harbour is too narrow, and ſurrounded with rocks and dangerous ſands, and is ſeldom clear of ice before the end of May: nor have they now any conſtant fleet in the Caſpian ſea.

The high-admiral of Ruſſia has the rank and pay of a general field-marſhal; and the Ruſſian fleet is divided into three ſquadrons, commanded by an admiral-general in the center, who bears a white flag, with a crimſon croſs: the van has an admiral, who bears a blue flag, with a white croſs; and the rear has another admiral, who bears a red flag, with a white croſs. Each of theſe three ſquadrons has a vice-admiral, a rear-admiral, and three commodores. The gallies are commanded by an admiral, two vice-admirals, three rear-admirals, and three commodores. Their flags are of the ſame colour as thoſe of the ſquadrons to which they belong, but of a different form. When the emperor commands his fleet in perſon, his ſhip bears the royal ſtandard of the empire, which is yellow, and in the middle of it are the arms of Ruſſia.

SECT. VIII.

Of the ſeveral Colleges, or Offices for the Adminiſtration of the Affairs of Government; the Laws and Puniſhment of Malefactors.

WE ſhall now take a view of the executive part of the government, which was regulated by Peter I. by whoſe direction all the affairs of the Ruſſian empire were managed by the following councils, offices, colleges, or chanceries, as they are called.

The ſenate, or directing council, which takes care of all domeſtic affairs, receives accounts from all the colleges, iſſues out orders to them all, and is the ſupreme court of judicature, to which all proceſſes are brought by appeal as the laſt reſort.

The holy ſynod, or eccleſiaſtical council, which regulates all affairs relating to the church.

The war-college, which has the care of recruiting and exerciſing the whole Ruſſian army, except the guards, who are under the direction of the ſovereign. This office alſo receives the taxes appointed for the maintenance of the troops, and nominates the officers as high as the lieutenant-colonels. Under the war-college are the office of the general commiſſary at war, the office of ordnance, that of the under commiſſary of war, the military cheſt, the office for cloathing the army, the victualling-office, and the accompting-office.

The admiralty-college has the management of all naval concerns, without exception; and ſuch foreſts as are near navigable rivers are under its inſpection. Subordinate to it are the office of the general commiſſary of the navy, which pays and victuals the fleet, and keeps the money aſſigned for thoſe ſervices: the ſtore-office, which has the direction of the magazines, and every thing that belongs to the equipment of ſhips of war: the office which directs the building of ſhips, provides the neceſſary materials, and has alſo the inſpection of the foreſts; and the artillery-office.

The college for foreign affairs, which pays the ſalaries of the Ruſſian miniſters at foreign courts, and the expences and penſions of foreign envoys, which are always defrayed. This college alſo makes out paſſports, and decides the difficulties and diſputes that ariſe in relation to foreign miniſters. The members of this college are the chancellor and vice-chancellor of the empire, who, when any momentous affairs come under their conſideration, are aſſiſted by ſome of the counſellors of ſtate.

The college of the treaſury, which has the direction of levying all the public revenues, except the poll-tax and the produce of the ſalt-works. The office that has the care of the money ariſing from the conquered provinces is at preſent held at Peterſburgh; but all the other departments belonging to the treaſury are at Moſcow.

The ſtate-office iſſues out the public money, and gives the neceſſary directions to the chamber of accounts; hence the revenue-chambers at Peterſburgh and Moſcow are dependant on this office.

The reviſion-college is a ſort of check on the other colleges, and therefore receives and examines their accompts.

The ſalt-office has the direction of the revenues ariſing from the ſalt-works, which are appropriated to the empreſs's purſe.

The confiſcation chancery directs the ſale of all forfeited eſtates, and the levying of all fines impoſed by the other colleges.

The colleges for trade, mines, and manufactures, are diſtinct offices; and, beſides the departments from which they take their names, have alſo the management of the naval cuſtoms and tolls, and decide all diſputes in relation to commerce between merchants and traders.

The college of juſtice at Moſcow, ſome of the members of which conſtitute a college at Peterſburgh, which determines ſuits brought thither by appeal from the conquered provinces; and has likewiſe a conſiſtorial juriſdiction over the proteſtants and papiſts in that city; but on this occaſion the miniſter of the church to which the plaintiff belongs, is ſummoned to attend.

They have alſo a feudal chancery at Moſcow, that has the care of every thing relating to the eſtates of private perſons, their boundaries, or limits.

Beſides theſe, there is a college of the magiſtracy, to which all the magiſtrates in the empire are accountable for their conduct; and a privy-chancery, as it is called, that takes cognizance of all hoſpitals, diſpenſaries, medicines, &c.

In order to give a more perfect idea of this government, it is proper to obſerve, that formerly the Ruſſian nobility conſiſted ſolely of kneſes, or princes, and gentlemen; and

and that bojar, or boyar, is not a title of nobility, but antiently denoted a poſt or office, as a privy-counſellor, &c. Peter the Great added the titles of counts and barons to the former: but no birth or title, according to the wiſe regulations made by Peter I. gives a perſon rank, unleſs he merits it by his ſervices and abilities; by which means many foreigners of mean extraction have riſen to very great honours in Ruſſia: for in regard to unlimited ſubjection to their ſovereign, the nobility are on a level with the reſt of the people. Even the greateſt of them uſed formerly to glory in ſtiling themſelves the ſlaves of the czar, whenever they either ſpoke or wrote to him; but Peter I. aboliſhed this harſh term, and ordered them to uſe inſtead of it, the word ſubject.

Yet the peaſants are ſtill perfect ſlaves, and abſolutely ſubject to the arbitrary power of their lords, who may treat them as they pleaſe, provided they do not kill them; and are liable to be transferred, with all their goods, from one maſter to another. The government itſelf is in the laſt degree abſolute; and, notwithſtanding Peter's giving them the name of ſubjects, the people of all ranks may juſtly be termed ſlaves, as their lives and fortunes depend ſolely on the will of their ſovereign. Even ſuch as are employed in the ſtate have their ſhare of arbitrary power; for their proceedings being without appeal, and in the emperor's name, they often abuſe their authority, in order to ſatisfy their avarice, revenge, or other guilty paſſions. For deciding caſes between private men, they have precedents and written laws, particularly a code called Subornoe Uloſhenie, an Uniform and Univerſal Law, which Alexius Michaelowitz publiſhed in 1649, and has been enlarged by the edicts of the ſucceeding czars. The proceſs is ſummary, and the puniſhment inflicted very ſevere, though not quite ſo rigorous as formerly.

In diſputes between private perſons, where the parties are not agreed as to a matter of fact, and have no evidence on either ſide, the judge aſks the plaintiff, whether he will take his oath, that the affair was as he hath repreſented it, or refer it to the oath of the defendant. Formerly, he who offered to take his oath was once a week, for three weeks running, brought before the judge, who every day repreſented to him the importance of an oath, and the dreadful ſin of ſwearing falſely; and if after this he ſtill perſiſted in his readineſs to take his oath, though he ſwore nothing but the truth, the people would conſider him as an infamous perſon, ſpit in his face, and turn him out of church; and he was never after admitted to the communion, till his being at the point of death. They now proceed with leſs rigour: he who is to take his oath is brought before a picture of one of their ſaints, where he is aſked, whether he will ſwear upon the ſalvation of his ſoul? If he perſiſts, they give him a little crucifix to kiſs, and afterwards the picture of the ſaint, which is taken down from the wall for that purpoſe. Though the oath be indiſputably true, the perſon who takes it is not admitted to the communion for three years; and though he is not treated as infamous, people of any rank will not eaſily ſuffer him in their company; but the perjured is puniſhed with the knute, and then baniſhed. Hence the Ruſſians endeavour as much as poſſible to avoid taking an oath, though they are very guilty of prophane ſwearing, and particularly the traders have inceſſantly in their mouths po Chreſtum, by Chriſt, making the ſign of the croſs at the ſame time. Strangers are permitted to take their oaths, according to the rules of their ſeveral religions.

The office of an executioner was formerly eſteemed very honourable; but this officer is now eſteemed infamous, and the executioner is not permitted to ſell his office; for it muſt continue in his family, on failure of which, the butchers are obliged to chooſe one out of their body.

The ordinary puniſhments in Ruſſia are, the battogen, katze, and knute. The battogen is thus inflicted; he who is to receive this chaſtiſment, is ſtripped to his ſhirt, and laid upon the ground on his belly, when two men ſitting upon him, one upon his neck, and the other upon his feet, beat him on the back with little wands, or ſwitches, during the time ordered by the judge.

The katze is ſlitting the noſtrils, which was formerly inflicted on thoſe who, contrary to an old prohibition, took tobacco in ſnuff.

The knute, as given in Ruſſia, is a moſt barbarous puniſhment. Olearius deſcribes the manner in which he ſaw it executed on eight men and one woman, for ſelling brandy and tobacco without a licence. The executioner's man after ſtripping them down to the waiſt, tied their feet, and took one at a time upon his back. The executioner ſtood at three paces diſtant with a bull's pizzle, to the end of which were faſtened three thongs of an elk's ſkin untanned, with which ſpringing forward, whenever he ſtruck, he laſhed their backs with all his ſtrength, ſo that the blood guſhed out at every blow. The men had twenty-five or twenty-ſix laſhes each, till an officer who had in writing the number of ſtripes they were to receive, cried enough. The woman, who had only ſixteen, fainted away. After their backs were thus dreadfully mangled, they were all tied together by the arms, two and two; thoſe who ſold tobacco having a little horn full of it, and thoſe who had ſold brandy, a little bottle about their necks, and whipped through the city for about half a league, after which they were brought back to the place of their firſt puniſhment, and then diſmiſſed.

Many die of this cruel flagellation. But horrid as it muſt appear to every perſon of humanity, M. de la Motraye ſays, that this is only what is called the moderate knute; for when the ſentence orders it between the moderate and ſevere, pieces of fleſh are taken off at every ſtroke of the executioner; and when it is ordered to be given with the utmoſt ſeverity, the executioner ſtriking the flank, under the ribs, cuts the fleſh to the very bowels.

Offenders are ſometimes baſtinadoed on their ſoles of their feet in a moſt cruel manner.

Thieves are tortured to make them diſcover their accomplices, and confeſs their other crimes; theſe tortures are as dreadful as can be conceived. The thief for the firſt offence is only whipt from the priſon to the market-place, where he has his ears cut off, and is ſent back to priſon for two years. If he offends a ſecond time, he is whipped as before, and afterwards baniſhed into Siberia. Theft is never puniſhed with death in Ruſſia; but the receivers and concealers of ſtolen goods are puniſhed equally with the thief.

Murder is puniſhed with death. The criminal is kept ſix weeks in a very cloſe priſon, upon bread and water alone; after which he receives the communion, and is beheaded.

Merciful as they appear in caſe of murder, they ſeem deſtitute of all humanity, where a man is ſo unhappy as to be unable to ſatisfy his creditors. He who does not pay his creditor at the time agreed upon, is put into the houſe of an officer appointed for that purpoſe, and has a certain farther time allowed him to make ſatisfaction; but if he then fails, he is carried to priſon, from whence he is brought every day to a place before the chancery, where the common executioner beats him upon the ſhin bones with a wand about the thickneſs of a man's little finger, for an hour together. He is then returned to priſon, except he can procure ſecurity for his appearing again the next day at the ſame hour, to be treated in the ſame manner, till he has made ſatisfaction. This is rigorouſly executed upon perſons of all ranks, ſubjects and foreigners, men and women, prieſts and laymen; and if at laſt the debtor cannot find wherewith to pay, he with his wife and children are ſentenced to be bond ſlaves to the creditor.

SECT. IX.

Of the Government of Kiow or Kiew, with an Account of the Zaporog, the Bielogorod, and Don Coſſacs, the Haidamacs and Yaik Coſſacs; with a Deſcription of the Cities of Kiow, and Pultowa.

HAVING given a deſcription of Ruſſia in general, with the climate, manners, religion, and government of the inhabitants, we ſhall now give ſome account of the different provinces, and principal towns of the country, which contains Great, Little, and White Ruſſia, with the provinces that formerly belonged to Sweden.

den. It muſt here be obſerved, that White Ruſſia in this empire ought not to be confounded with the country of the ſame name in Lithuania, and that Red Ruſſia belongs to Poland. Dr. Buſching obſerves with reſpect to the origin of theſe names, that it is a cuſtom among theſe eaſtern people, to diſtinguiſh countries by the epithets white and black; and that by the former, they call the moſt extenſive and fertile, and by the latter, the ſmaller and leſs fruitful territories.

The Ruſſian empire in Europe is divided into governments, and every government conſiſts of certain provinces or circles. Theſe governments have been frequently altered, but according to the preſent diviſion, they are as follow: Kiew, Woraneſh and Aſow, Bielogorod, Smolenſk, Great Moſcow, Novogrod, Niſhnoy-Novogrod, Archangel, Wiburg, Peterſburg, Narva, Reval, and Riga. We ſhall begin with the countries bordering on Turky and Poland, and for the ſake of method, proceed from ſouth to north.

The government of Kiew conſiſts of part of Little Ruſſia, and is inhabited by the Coſſacs, which word ſignifies irregular troops of horſe. The European Coſſacs are, the Zaporog Coſſacs, who live below the cataract of the Nieper, ſome on the ſide next to Ruſſia, and others on the oppoſite ſide of the river; but moſt of them are ſubject to the Ruſſians: the Bielogorod Coſſacs, and a part of the Don Coſſacs, both of which are under the Ruſſian government.

The Coſſacs were known by that name ſo early as the year 948, when they lived on mount Caucaſus, and were reduced under the Ruſſian dominions in 1021. In the beginning of the ſixteenth century, the Zaporog Coſſacs fixed their habitations on the ſpacious plains along the banks of the Nieper. The Poles, ſenſible of the advantage they might receive from their defending them againſt the incurſions of the Tartars, took them under their protection in the year 1562, and engaged to pay them an annual ſubſidy, on condition of their keeping on foot a good body of troops, for the defence of the Poliſh dominions; and to bind them by ties of intereſt, gave up to them the whole country that lies between the rivers Nieper and Nieſter, and the borders of Tartary. The Coſſacs ſo induſtriouſly cultivated that fertile tract of land, that in a ſhort time it was interſperſed with large towns, and handſome villages. They continually harraſſed the Turks by their incurſions, and to prevent the latter from purſuing them, or making repriſals, ſeized on ſeveral ſmall iſlands on the Nieper, where they kept their magazines.

This alliance, though of ſuch advantage both to the Poles and Coſſacs, did not long ſubſiſt; for the former envying the latter the fine country they poſſeſſed, attempted to bring them into ſubjection; upon which the Coſſacs, fired with indignation, had recourſe to arms, and applied both to Ruſſia and the Ottoman Porte for protection. A very bloody war enſued, which, in the ſixteenth and ſeventeenth centuries, was from time to time renewed with the utmoſt fury and animoſity. The reſult of all was, that the Coſſacs remained under the protection of Ruſſia, and their former country being laid waſte in the late wars, they ſettled in the Ruſſian Ukraine; upon their receiving aſſurances from the Ruſſian court, that they ſhould be free from all taxes, and no alteration be made in their political conſtitution: in return for which, they were always to keep in readineſs a conſiderable body of troops for the ſervice of Ruſſia. But in 1708, Mazeppa their hettman, or chief, went over from the Ruſſians to the Swedes, under Charles XII. upon which Peter I. reſolved to prevent ſuch revolts for the future, and after the battle of Pultowa, ſent a ſtrong detachment into the little iſlands of the Nieper, to which the Coſſacs had fled with their wives, their children, and all their effects, and cruelly ordered them, without diſtinction, to be put to the ſword, and the plunder to be diſtributed among the ſoldiers. He alſo ſent a great number of his men into their country, and cauſed many thouſands of the Coſſacs to be conveyed to the coaſts of the Baltic, where they were put to all manner of hard labour.

Upon the death of their hettman in 1722, that office was aboliſhed, but was reſtored again in 1750, when they elected for their hettman count Raſumowſky, privy counſellor of the Ruſſian empire, preſident of the academy of ſciences, and lieutenant-colonel of the Iſhmailow regiment of life-guards; and this election was confirmed by the reigning empreſs Elizabeth.

The country of theſe Coſſacs is commonly called the Ukraine, which word properly ſignifies a frontier; it lying on the borders of Ruſſia, Poland, Little Tartary, and Turky. By virtue of a treaty concluded in 1693, between Ruſſia and Poland, the latter remains in poſſeſſion of all that part of the Ukraine that lies on the weſt ſide of the Nieper, which is but indifferently cultivated; while the country on the eaſt ſide, inhabited by the Coſſacs, is in a much better condition.

This country, which is ſubject to Ruſſia, extends about three hundred miles in length, and about as many in breadth. It is one continued fertile plain, watered by a great number of fine rivers, and diverſified with pleaſant woods. It produces all kinds of grain, pulſe, tobacco, honey, and wax, in ſuch quantities, as to ſupply a great part of the Ruſſian empire with thoſe commodities. The paſtures are extremely rich, and the cattle of an extraordinary ſize; the rivers alſo abound with excellent fiſh. This fine country, however, is very much infeſted by locuſts, which are a great plague to the inhabitants.

Moſt of the houſes of the Ukraine are built with wood, after the Ruſſian manner. The Coſſacs are tall, and well made; they have generally an aquiline noſe, and a good mien. They are vigorous, hardy, brave, and very jealous of their liberty; fickle and wavering: but ſociable, chearful, and ſprightly. Their forces entirely conſiſt of cavalry. Their dialect is a mixture of the Poliſh and Ruſſian language; but the latter is moſt predominant. They profeſs the Greek religion; but there are alſo ſome Proteſtants and Roman catholics among them; in ſhort, they are a very powerful people. Every town, with the diſtrict belonging to it, is governed by an officer called attaman, or ottoman.

The Don Coſſacs, who inhabit the banks of the river Don, greatly reſemble thoſe we have been deſcribing. In 1549 they voluntarily put themſelves under the protection of the czar Iwan Baſilowitz, and are at preſent nearly on an equal footing with the other Ruſſian ſubjects. Theſe Coſſacs have a great number of towns and villages along the banks of the Don; but the ſcarcity of wood, and in many places of freſh water, prevents their extending themſelves farther up the country. They chiefly ſubſiſt by grazing and agriculture, and occaſionally by robbing and plundering. Every town is governed by a magiſtrate, whom they call taman; and the tamans, with their towns, are under the juriſdiction of two attamans, who reſide at Tſherkaſky. The troops of theſe Coſſacs likewiſe conſiſt entirely of cavalry. Every town and village in this country is fortified and ſurrounded with paliſadoes, to ſecure them againſt the incurſions of the Calmucs and Kuban Tartars, with whom they are always at war. The Coſſacs in general are of great ſervice in garriſoning of towns and defending them, or in purſuing an enemy; but are not ſo good at regular attacks.

The Haidamacs have their particular hettman, and live in the Ruſſian, Poliſh, and Turkiſh dominions, along the banks of the Nieper.

The Yaik Coſſacs live on the ſouth ſide of the river Yaik, and on the ſucceſs of the Ruſſian arms in the kingdom of Aſtracan, voluntarily ſubmitted to them. In ſtature they much reſemble the other Coſſacs, though from their booriſh manner of living, and intermarrying with the Tartars, they have not the ſhape and air peculiar to the reſt of their countrymen; but reſemble them, however, in their natural diſpoſitions and cuſtoms. Their chief employments are agriculture, fiſhing, and feeding cattle; and, like the other tribes, they ſeldom let ſlip an opportunity of robbing their neighbours. Their continual wars with the Kara Kalpacs oblige them to keep their towns and villages in a ſtate of defence. They are indeed ſubject to Ruſſian waywodes, to whom they annually pay a tribute in cattle, corn, honey, and wax; but have their particular chiefs, who govern them according to their antient cuſtoms. The greateſt part of the Yaik Coſſacs profeſs the Greek religion; but many relics of Mahometiſm and Paganiſm are ſtill to be found amongſt

amongſt them. They are remarkable for their hardineſs and courage, and make excellent ſoldiers. They live in peace, and even carry on a commercial intercourſe with the Calmucs.

The government of Kiow conſiſts of ten circles, the moſt conſiderable cities of which are Kiow and Pultowa.

Kiow, or Kiew, the capital of this government, which is ſituated on the Nieper, is ſaid to have been founded by Kius, a Sclavonian prince, and, according to the Poliſh writers, was built in the year 430; but this account is not to be depended upon. However, in the year 1037, the great duke Jaroſlaw declared it the capital of all Ruſſia; and it continued to be the reſidence of the great dukes till the twelfth century. It afterwards fell into the hands of the Poles; but, in 1667, they reſtored it to the Ruſſians for a certain term of years, and in 1686 ceded it to Ruſſia for ever.

This city properly conſiſts of three ſmall towns, the caſtle of Petſherſky, with its ſuburbs; the old city of Kiow; and the town of Podol, which lies below the latter: theſe are partly incloſed with a common fortification, and in other parts have a communication by a large intrenchment, carried on as the inequality of the mountains would permit. The whole garriſon conſiſts of ſeven regiments of foot, and is governed by a ſtatthalter general, a deputy ſtatthalter, and a commandant.

The caſtle of Petſherſky ſtands on an eminence facing the ſouth, and, beſides magazines, barracks for the garriſon, officers houſes, and ſome churches, includes a rich and ſtately monaſtery, founded in the eleventh century, and called Petſherſky, from the monks formerly living in a petſhera, or cavern, in the mountain on which the convent now ſtands. In its ſubterraneous vaults, which reſemble a labyrinth, and contain chapels, cells, &c. are found a great number of undecayed bodies, ſuppoſed to be the remains of ſaints and martyrs; and here the bodies of the deceaſed monks are alſo depoſited. Oppoſite to this monaſtery formerly ſtood a nunnery, which is now converted into a magazine. The ſuburbs of Petſherſky are very large, conſiſting of houſes belonging to the above-mentioned convent; and alſo of ſeveral convents and churches, the principal of which is the convent of St. Nicholas.

Old Kiow is ſeated on an eminence facing the north, and is fortified, according to the mountainous nature of the country, with horn-works, &c. Here ſtands the cathedral of the Greek archbiſhop of Kiow, Halitſh, and Little Ruſſia, who reſides in the convent of St. Sophia. To this church and the convent of St. Michael belong moſt of the houſes in the city.

Podol is ſituated below Old Kiow, in a plain on the banks of the Nieper, and, except its churches and convents, conſiſts entirely of ſhops and tradeſmen's houſes. Its magiſtrates are independent of the colonels of the regiments in garriſon, and receive their orders immediately from the war-office at Glucow. The academy adjoining to the Bratſkoi monaſtery, near the town-houſe, is entirely built of ſtone, and is one of the nobleſt edifices in the city. The univerſity of Kiow has the archbiſhop for its principal, and under him are two officers, who have the care of the ſtudents. There are nine profeſſors, who live in a wooden building, to which belongs a delightful garden: theſe are all monks, and are not to taſte fleſh throughout the whole year; but are ſaid to make little ſcruple of tranſgreſſing this rule in ptivate. Their ſalaries are but ſmall, ſo that they are chiefly maintained by the ſtipends and preſents they receive from the ſtudents, who amount to about one hundred. Public lectures in all the ſciences are read to them, and they alſo perform ſeveral exerciſes, according to the cuſtom of other univerſities, as public diſputations, and the like, beſides ſome others peculiar to themſelves. While this city was ſubject to the Poles, the papiſts had a biſhop, a Dominican convent, a college of Jeſuits, and ſeveral churches there, which are all ſuppreſſed, and appropriated to the uſe of the profeſſors of the Greek religion.

Pultowa, or Pultawa, a town ſituated on the river Worſkla. This town, with the regular fort belonging to it, is ſubject to a commandant, and not to the colonel of the regiment of Coſſacs in garriſon there. The burghers carry on a conſiderable trade to the Crimea, and through Poland to Germany. It is but an indifferent town, built in the manner of thoſe of the Coſſacs; but was rendered famous by its being beſieged by the Swedes in 1709, and by its falling into the hands of the Ruſſians after the defeat of Charles XII. near this place. The king of Sweden had his head-quarters at a monaſtery which ſtands upon an eminence without the town.

SECT. X.

Of the Governments of Woroneſh and Aſow, Bielogorod, Smolenſk, and Niſhnei Novogrod; the Number of Circles into which each is divided; and a conciſe Deſcription of the principal Towns they contain.

THE government of Woroneſh and Aſow includes ſix diſtricts, the moſt remarkable places of which are,

Woroneſh, a large and populous provincial city, ſeated in a narrow, but very deep, river of the ſame name. It is ſurrounded with a wall, and is the reſidence of the ſtatthalter, or governor, and a biſhop's ſee. Moſt of the ſtreets, inſtead of ſtone pavements, are laid with beams of timber. Peter I. in order to maintain his ſovereignty over the Black ſea, cauſed a large dock to be made for building of ſhips, which drew many new inhabitants thither, among whom were ſeveral foreign artificers. This city carries on a conſiderable trade.

Bachmut, on a river of the ſame name, is ſituated partly on an eminence on its weſtern bank, and partly in a plain on the eaſt ſide of that river. The former is defended by a citadel, and indeed the whole town is fortified for the ſecurity of the ſalt-works. The imperial ſalt-office at Bachmut maintains a battalion of regular troops, and a company of Coſſacs, conſiſting of a hundred men. The country, which is ſituated between the Donez, the Don, the Black ſea, Mius, and Kalmius, exceeds all the reſt of Little Ruſſia in fertility; and has alſo ſeveral ſpots that are ſuppoſed to contain rich ore.

The Don Coſſacs who dwell in this government are poſſeſſed of many ſmall towns ſituated on the rivers Don and Donez. Their capital, named Tſherkaſk, is the reſidence of the attoman. It is built in the Turkiſh manner, and part of it encompaſſed with high paliſadoes fixed on the Don. This city is of large compaſs; it is inhabited by a great number of Aſiatics, and carries on a great trade.

At the diſtance of four werſts is the city of St. Anna, a new town, regularly built and fortified by the Ruſſians. It is but ſmall, and is ſeated low on the banks of the Don. It has ſix baſtions and the neceſſary out-works, with a garriſon conſiſting of two marching and two garriſon regiments. The houſes are well built, the ſtreets broad and ſtraight.

The government of Bielogorod contains part of Little Ruſſia, and is divided into five diſtricts.

The capital of the government is Bielogorod, which ſtands on the river Donez, and was built in the year 990. About an Engliſh mile from the town is a large chalk hill, where Bielogorod formerly ſtood, and from which it derives its name, which ſignifies a white town; but it was afterwards built in a valley between two mountains. It is divided into the Old and New Town; it has three ſuburbs, and is a biſhop's ſee. The Old Town is ſurrounded with a rampart and moat, and the New Town with paliſadoes.

The government of Smolenſk contains White Ruſſia, properly ſo called, which was ceded by Poland to Ruſſia by a treaty concluded in 1667, and confirmed in 1686.

The moſt remarkable place in this government is,

Smolenſk, a large and well fortified town on the Nieper, the reſidence of the governor, and a biſhop's ſee. It carries on a conſiderable trade, and is famous in hiſtory from its being the ſubject of many diſputes between the Poles and Ruſſians; during which it was often beſieged and taken by both parties.

The government of Niſhnei Novogrod is inhabited by the following tribes: the Morduans, whoſe language is ſaid to reſemble the Finlandiſh dialect; the Tſheremiſſians, diſtinguiſhed into the Logowoi, who inhabit the plain on

the left ſide of the Wolga; and the Nagornoi, who live among the mountains on the right ſide of that river. The former belong to this government; but the greateſt part of the latter to that of Caſan. The Tſhuwaſhians, who live diſperſed in this government and that of Caſan, are a numerous tribe. They worſhip one ſupreme God, whom they call Tora, and conſider the ſun as a kind of ſubordinate deity, to whom they pay their adorations; and they have ſeveral other inferior deities, which, they ſay, hold the ſame rank with the ſaints of the Ruſſians. Every village has its own idol erected in a ſquare, incloſed with paliſadoes. They perform their devotions to it near a fire, where they offer a ſheep to the idol, and hang up the ſkin for a trophy in honour of it. The perſon who performs this ſacrifice, to whom they have recourſe in every difficulty, is ſtiled Yumaſſe; and both ſexes are capable of this religious office. Great numbers of theſe Pagans have been baptized; and throughout all the Ruſſian towns in the diſtricts where they live ſchools have been erected, for inſtructing their youth in the principles of the Chriſtian religion, in order to qualify them for being miſſionaries among their own tribe. This government contains four circles, and the principal place in this juriſdiction is Niſhnei Novogrod, that is Lower Novogrod, which is a large provincial city ſeated on the Wolga, at the influx of the river Oka. It was built in the year 1222, and has two cathedrals, twenty-eight pariſh churches, moſt of which are built with ſtone, and five convents. It is an archbiſhop's ſee, and is defended by a caſtle ſurrounded with ſtone-walls. The trade of this city is very conſiderable, and the ſhops make a handſome appearance, from their being richly furniſhed with all kinds of foreign goods, as well as thoſe made in Ruſſia. In the year 1715 a great fire broke out here, in which ſome thouſands of the inhabitants loſt their lives.

SECT. XI.

Of the Government of Moſcow; with a particular Deſcription of the Capital of the ſame Name.

THE government of Moſcow is the beſt cultivated and the moſt populous in the whole empire, and may be called the garden of Ruſſia. It contains eleven provinces, the principal places in which are the city of Moſcow and Yaroſlawl.

Moſcow, the antient capital of the Ruſſian empire, and the reſidence of the czars, is ſituated in the circle ofits own name, in the fifty-fifth degree forty minutes latitude, and the thirty-eighth degree eaſt longitude; fourteen hundred and fourteen miles north-eaſt of London. It ſtands in a pleaſant plain on the bank of the river Moſkwa, from which it derives its name. Mr. Hanway ſays, that river runs through it, and, making many windings, adds a very ſtriking beauty to the city; but in ſummer it is in many places ſhallow and unnavigable. Several eminences, interſperſed with groves, gardens, and lawns, form the moſt delightful proſpects. It is built ſomewhat after the eaſtern manner, it having but few regular ſtreets, and a great number of houſes with gardens. The number of the churches in the city is computed at ſixteen hundred, among which are eleven cathedrals, and two hundred and ſeventy-one pariſh churches; the reſt either belong to convents, or may be conſidered as private chapels. Near the churches are hung up ſeveral large bells, which are kept continually chiming. One of theſe is of a ſtupendous ſize, and, our author obſerves, affords a ſurpriſing proof of the folly of thoſe who cauſed it to be made; but the Ruſſians have from time immemorial been extremely fond of great bells. This bell is four hundred and forty-three thouſand ſeven hundred and ſeventy-two pounds weight, and was caſt in the reign of the empreſs Anne: but the beam on which it hung being burnt, it fell, and a large piece is broke out of it. Many of the churches have gilt ſteeples, and are magnificently decorated within with paintings; but indeed moſt of theſe are miſerable daubings, without ſhade or perſpective.

The number of public edifices and ſquares at Moſcow amount to forty-three. The mean houſes are indeed much more numerous than thoſe that are well built; the latter are, however, daily increaſing; but, as only a part of the ſtreets is paved, they are very dirty.

The city is divided into four circles, one within another. The interior circle, or the Kremelin, which ſignifies a fortreſs, contains the following remarkable buildings: the old imperial palace, pleaſure-houſe, and ſtables, a victualling-houſe, the palace which formerly belonged to the patriarch, nine cathedrals, five convents, four pariſh churches, the arſenal, with the public colleges, and other offices. All the churches in the Kremelin have beautiful ſpires, moſt of them gilt, or covered with ſilver. The architecture is in the Gothic taſte; but the inſide of the churches is richly ornamented; and the pictures of the ſaints are decorated with gold, ſilver, and precious ſtones. In the cathedral called Sobor, which has no leſs than nine towers, covered with copper double gilt, is a ſilver branch, with forty-eight lights, ſaid to weigh two thouſand eight hundred pounds. Here are depoſited, in ſilver ſhrines, the remains of three archbiſhops; and in a gold box is a robe brought from Perſia, which is here looked upon as the identical garment worn by our Saviour. The remains of the ſovereigns of the Ruſſian empire, and their male deſcendants, are interred in St. Michael's church; and thoſe of their conſorts, and the princeſſes, are depoſited in the convent of Tſhudow. All theſe ſtructures are lofty, ſpacious, and built with ſtone. This circle is three hundred fathoms in diameter, and ſurrounded with very high and thick walls, flanked with ſix towers, planted with cannon, and alſo defended by deep moats and ramparts.

From the above circle you paſs over a handſome ſtone bridge into the ſecond, which is called Kitaigorod, or the Chineſe-town. There are here five ſtreets, two cathedrals, eighteen pariſh churches, four convents, thirteen noblemen's houſes, and nine public edifices: theſe are the chief diſpenſary, in which the medicines are kept in veſſels of China porcelain, decorated with the imperial arms; and from this place the whole empire is ſupplied with medicines: the mint, which is a ſuperb ſtructure: a magazine, or warehouſe, to which all goods are brought before they have paid duty: the cuſtom-houſe: the ambaſſador's palace, which is now converted into a ſilk manufactory: a printing-houſe: a court of judicature: the phyſic garden: and the exchange, in which are about ſix thouſand handſome ſhops; here all commercial affairs are tranſacted, particularly what relates to the trade with China, whence this circle contains many merchants. This part of the city is fortified with a pretty high wall, ſtrengthened with twelve towers and ſtrong bulwarks.

The third circle ſurrounds the former, and is named Belgorod, or the White Town, from a white wall with which it is encompaſſed. It is alſo called the Czar's Town. The Neglina runs through this part of the city, from north to ſouth; but though there are in this circle ſeveral kneſes, bojars, merchants, and tradeſmen, it is in many parts very dirty, and moſt of the houſes are very mean. It includes ſeventy-ſix pariſh churches, ſeven abbeys, eleven convents, and nine public edifices: theſe are two palaces, a cannon foundery, two markets, a brewhouſe, a magazine of proviſions, the ſalt-fiſh harbour, and the Baſil garden. At the timber-market are ſold new wooden houſes, which may be taken to pieces and put together again, where the purchaſer pleaſes.

The fourth circle, called Semlanoigorod, that is, a town ſurrounded with ramparts of earth, incloſes the three preceding parts, and its ramparts include an area of great extent. The entrance was formerly by thirty-four gates of timber, and two of ſtone; but at preſent only the two laſt are ſtanding. Over one of theſe gates is a mathematical ſchool, and an obſervatory. This circle contains a hundred and three pariſh churches, two convents, an imperial ſtable, an arſenal for artillery, a mint, a magazine for proviſions, and a cloth manufactory. Round theſe principal parts of the city lie the ſuburbs, which are of great extent, and contain ſixty pariſh churches and ten convents. Theſe ſuburbs reſemble the

villages

villages in other parts of the country, except the German quarter, which is the largeſt and handſomeſt, and contains two Luthearn churches, a grammar ſchool, a Calviniſt church, and a Romiſh church. This ſuburb is ſituated towards the eaſt on the river Yauſa; to the weſt of it lies the palace of Annenhof, which has a good garden; and towards the north is a large and ſtately hoſpital. Farther to the weſt ſtands the palace of the empreſs Elizabeth.

The number of inhabitants are ſuppoſed to amount to about a hundred and fifty thouſand. Theſe conſiſt of ſtateſmen, noble families, and their ſervants, merchants, prieſts, monks, and ſervants belonging to the churches, mechanics, labourers, carriers, and ſledge drivers.

Moſcow has greatly declined ſince the building of Peterſburgh, and its being made the ſeat of the empire. An univerſity and two gymnaſia, or ſeminaries, were founded here in the year 1755. Moſcow has often ſuffered by fires, and in 1737, 1748, and 1752 a conſiderable part of it was reduced to aſhes, eſpecially by the laſt fire, which conſumed above half the city, together with the noble diſpenſary and the czarina's ſtables. But the houſes are always ſoon rebuilt after ſuch a calamity, they being for the moſt part formed of very mean materials. The gardens in its neighbourhood yield a variety of fruit, and are particularly famous for the tranſparent apple, called by the Ruſſians naliwy.

In this government are ſeveral conſiderable places, among which is Garoſlawl, a large and well built town, the capital of a circle of the ſame name; it has a good trade, and is celebrated for its Ruſſian leather. The ſhops in the large exchange make a very grand appearance, and are well ſtocked both with home and foreign goods. Here is alſo a conſiderable manufacture of all kinds of linen and flowered woollen ſtuffs. The Ruſſian church, which ſtands near the manufactory, is built in the German taſte, and has few equal to it in this country.

One of the moſt remarkable places in the circle of Moſcow is the convent of the Holy Trinity, which is the largeſt and beſt endowed of any in Ruſſia; the number of peaſants who are its vaſſals being no leſs than twenty thouſand. It is ſituated at the diſtance of ſixty werſts from Moſcow, and is built in a quadrangular form, in the old Gothic taſte. It is incloſed with ſtrong walls, ramparts, and moats, and is always garriſoned by a company of ſoldiers. The convent itſelf is a ſpacious, lofty, and handſome ſtructure. The great church is very ſplendid, and has a fine tower, in which are ſeveral valuable bells. Beſides the principal church there are nine others, and a grammar ſchool, within the incloſure of the convent. The number of monks who reſide here is ſaid to amount to about ſix hundred. This was the place where Peter I. took ſhelter after he had narrowly eſcaped the hands of the Strelitzes, who had been ſpirited up againſt him by Sophia his half ſiſter. It has been an antient cuſtom for the ſovereign of the Ruſſian empire to go in pilgrimage to this place. Here are ſeveral dead bodies, which, from natural cauſes, remain undecayed. There is a ſmall town near the convent.

SECT. XII.

Of the Governments of Archangel and Novogrod; with an Account of the Samoiedes, in the former Government; and the principal Places in each.

THE government of Archangel includes a part of Lapland, of which we ſhall give a more particular account in treating of Sweden; but, as great numbers of the people called Samoiedes live in this government, it will be proper to take ſome notice of them.

The Samoiedes inhabit the coaſt of the northern ocean both in Europe and Aſia, and we have already given ſome account of them in treating of Siberia. The word Samoiede is ſaid to ſignify man-eater, it being imagined, without any foundation, that theſe people devoured their deceaſed friends and the priſoners taken in war. The Samoiedes that live in the government of Archangel are entirely ſeparated from the reſt of that nation, and as it were excluded from any intercourſe with them. They have alſo a different language; yet as to their religion and cuſtoms, they entirely agree. They are low of ſtature, and their feet, eſpecially thoſe of the females, are remarkably ſmall. Their tawny complexion, longiſh eyes, and puffed cheeks, give them a very diſagreeable appearance in the eyes of ſtrangers. They are poor, ſimple, and undeſigning.

Their winter-dreſs is made of the ſkins of rein-deer, with the hairy ſide outwards; and the cap, coat, gloves, breeches, and ſtockings, are generally ſewed together; ſo that the whole ſuit makes but one piece. In ſummer they wear fiſh-ſkins, and inſtead of thread uſe the nerves of wild beaſts cut into long filaments.

They all ſubſiſt by hunting and fiſhing: the fleſh of rein-deer, bears, ſeals, fowls, dried fiſh, and turnips, being their uſual food. The fleſh they eat partly raw and partly boiled. Their weapons for hunting are javelins, bows, and arrows pointed with bone; they have alſo ſome darts bearded with iron. When they find it difficult to ſubſiſt in one place, they remove to another. Their ſummer huts are covered with the bark of birch trees; but in winter, with the ſkins of rein-deer. Their whole riches, and all they poſſeſs conſiſts in tents, cloaths, and rein-deer. Both ſexes wear the ſame kind of dreſs, and as their features are equally diſagreeable, it is not eaſy to diſtinguiſh them.

Their marriages are attended with no other ceremony than merely an agreement between the parties; but tho' polygamy is not prohibited among them, few of them have more than one wife. The Samoiedes, like the Oſtiacs, call their new born children by the name of the firſt animal they meet, or if they firſt happen to meet a relation, he generally names the child.

Before they were brought into ſubjection to the Ruſſian government, the only puniſhment among them was to ſell the perpetrator of any heinous crime, as murder, &c. together with his whole family, for ſlaves. But the Ruſſian laws are now introduced into the principal places in this country.

They know very little of a Supreme Being, but pay their adorations to miſhapen wooden images of men, beaſts, birds, and fiſhes. They alſo pay a kind of worſhip to the heads of beaſts of prey, particularly thoſe of bears, which they put up in the woods, and fervently pray to. Their prieſts, whom they term ſhamans, or codeſnics, are choſen from among thoſe who are moſt advanced in years, and theſe they imagine can make known to them the will of their gods, foretel future events, and by their ſtrange geſtures, and ridiculous grimaces, perform all kinds of magical operations.

Before the reign of the czar Iwan Baſilowitz, the only magiſtrate among them was the oldeſt man in the family or village, to whom the reſt were ſubject. But in his reign, a perſon called Anica Stroganow, ſent his ſon to make diſcoveries in this country, who on his return made an ample report to the government. The Ruſſians were not a little fond of the fine furs it produced, and the czar immediately ordered ſeveral forts to be built in different parts of the country. The Samoiedes readily ſubmitted to pay a tribute of furs, which was impoſed on them, and by degrees the habitable places were peopled by Ruſſian colonies and governors. The Samoiedes made two attempts to ſhake off the Ruſſian yoke; but were ſoon reduced. They have the fineſt furs in all the Ruſſian empire, which they diſpoſe of to the Ruſſians for trifles, and when they meet with ill ſucceſs in hunting and fiſhing, they exchange them for meal; this they mix with water, and eat it out of a kettle which always hangs over the fire.

In this government are twelve circles, the moſt conſiderable places in which are:

Archangel, the capital of this government, which is ſituated in ſixty-four degrees thirty-four minutes north latitude, and in forty degrees twelve minutes eaſt longitude from London, on the banks of the river Dwina, about four miles from its entrance into the White Sea. This city is about three Engliſh miles in length, and one in breadth, and the houſes are all built of wood, after the Ruſſian manner, except the exchange of the merchants, which is of ſtone. The citadel, where the governor reſides, is ſurrounded with a kind of wall made of large

large pieces of timber. This city is a biſhop's ſee; but both the Lutherans and Calviniſts have their reſpective churches there.

The foundation of its commerce was laid by the Engliſh in the year 1553, and the advantages they reaped from the Ruſſia trade, ſoon prompted other nations to put in for a ſhare of it. Proviſions are there ſold very cheap; but the gradual increaſe and proſperity of Peterſburg has made this city decline in the ſame proportion. A poſt has, however, been eſtabliſhed for the convenience of trade between this town and Peterſburg.

Uſtiug Weliki, or Great Uſtiug, the principal town of a circle of its own name, is ſituated near the conflux of the rivers Sucſona and Jug; but formerly ſtood at the mouth of the latter, from which it derives its name. This city is about three werſts and a half in length, and half a werſt in breadth; it contains twenty-three churches, beſides five convents, and is an archbiſhop's ſee. Though it is ſituated in ſixty-one degrees fifteen minutes latitude, yet the fruits of the earth often come to maturity. It has a communication by water with Archangel and Wologda, which renders it ſo convenient for trade, that moſt of its inhabitants are merchants, and ſome of them are very wealthy. Thoſe who go from Archangel to Siberia, generally paſs through this city.

The laſt place we ſhall mention in this government is that of Wologda, which is alſo a provincial city, and ſtands on a river of the ſame name. It has ſeventeen hundred dwelling houſes, ſixty-eight churches, two convents, with four churches, and a German ſuburb, tho' very few of that nation at preſent live there. It has alſo two ſuburbs inhabited by ſledge drivers, in which are two churches, beſides a convent of monks, which has four chapels. This city, which is the ſee of an archbiſhop, was formerly in a flouriſhing condition, and carried on a conſiderable trade. Its commerce now conſiſts of hemp, hemp-ſeed, and matting, made of the bark of lime-trees, which the inhabitants ſend to Archangel in a few large barges that belong to the town: they alſo ſend Ruſſia leather and tallow by land to Peterſburg. Archangel, on the other hand, ſupplies Wologda with foreign commodities, which are ſold here very cheap. Moſt of the inhabitants of this town are traders: the Dutch and Germans have been ſettled here for a long time paſt, and upon the taking of Narva, the greateſt part of the inhabitants who were made priſoners, was ſent to this town, where they provided for themſelves ſo well by their induſtry, that they returned back with reluctance.

The government of Novogrod or Nowogrod, includes the dutchy of the ſame name, or the iſland of Great Novogrod, conquered by the Ruſſians in 1478. In this country lies the lake of Ilmen, from which the river Wolcow runs; and thoſe great rivers called the Wolga, Nieper, and the Poliſh Dwina, have alſo their ſources in this province. This government includes five circles or diſtricts, the moſt remarkable places in which are,

Great Novogrod, the capital of a circle, and a very ancient, large, and celebrated city, ſeated on the river Wolcow, juſt where it runs out of the lake of Ilmen. This is a place of conſiderable trade, and the ſeat of a governor. It was firſt built in the ninth century by the Sclavonians, and was a famous ſtaple of the Hanſe-towns, till the year 1494, when it grew ſo powerful, that it became a proverbial ſpeech, "Can any body with-"ſtand God and Novogrod?" But by frequently falling into the hands of its enemies, and the many conflagrations, which, from time to time, have happened in this city, it is ſo far reduced, as to have ſcarce any remains of its former grandeur. The churches and convents are alone worthy of notice, the reſt of the town conſiſting of ſmall wooden houſes; it is, however, an archbiſhop's ſee.

St. Anthony's convent is ſituated by the river Wolcow, about two werſts from Novogrod, and is the principal monaſtery in the country. St. Anthony, its founder, was buried there in 1147, and beſides his monument, here is ſhewn a mill-ſtone, on which his votaries firmly believe, and gravely aſſert, that he ſailed from Rome to this place. They have alſo ſome other curioſities of the ſame ridiculous kind.

Twer, which is alſo a provincial town, lies on both ſides the Wolga, at the influx of the river Twerza. It is large and populous; for it has ſeventy churches and convents, and carries on a conſiderable trade in corn. It is at preſent an archbiſhop's ſee, and was formerly the reſidence of ſeveral great dukes and princes.

SECT. XIII.

Of the Provinces conquered by the Ruſſians, and firſt of the Dutchies of Livonia and Eſthonia. Their Situation, Climate, Produce, and Inhabitants. Their Government and Hiſtory; with a Deſcription of Riga, the Iſland of Oeſel, and the Cities of Reval, Narva, and other conſiderable Places in theſe Dutchies.

WE now come to the provinces acquired by Ruſſia, in the preſent century: theſe are Livonia, Ingria, and Carelia. We ſhall begin with the dutchies of Livonia and Eſthonia, which were formerly inhabited by three different nations, the Livonians, Lettonians, and Eſthonians, whence it became divided into Liefland or Livonia, Lettland, or Lettonia, and Eſthland, or Eſthonia. In common converſation Livonia includes the country properly ſo called, together with Lettonia and Eſthonia; but, to ſpeak with greater preciſion, Livonia, or the ſouth part of the country, ought to be diſtinguiſhed from Eſthonia, or the north part.

Livonia and Eſthonia border on Courland, the Baltic, the gulph of Finland, Ingria, Ruſſia, and Poland; it extending in length from north to ſouth between two hundred and fifty and three hundred miles, and its breadth from eaſt to weſt, is from two hundred to two hundred and forty miles, excluſive of the iſlands belonging to it.

Livonia conſiſts partly of woods and moraſſes, and partly of a fertile ſoil, that yields the inhabitants great plenty of all the neceſſaries of life. The air is clear and ſalubrious; and though the winter be long and ſevere, and conſequently the ſummer ſhort, yet the heat of the climate, during the latter ſeaſon, is ſuch, that the grain ſown both in winter and ſummer ripens at the proper time. In a plentiful year the inhabitants export many thouſand laſts of barley and rye to Holland, Spain, and other foreign countries, whence Livonia has been termed the granary of the north. Before the corn is threſhed, it is dried and hardened in kilns, heated by large ſtoves built contiguous to their barns; yet this renders it neither unfit for ſowing, nor for making bread and malt, though it has the advantage of making it keep the better.

Formerly this country was over-run with vaſt woods of oak, fir, pine, and birch trees; but theſe are now too thin, partly from the method of building practiſed by the inhabitants, whoſe houſes and other edifices, both in the towns and villages, conſiſt almoſt entirely of wood, and partly by their clearing of the woods, in order to prepare the land for ſowing of corn. The country, however, has reaped one advantage from the want of trees, it being leſs infeſted with bears, wolves, elks, lynxes, martens, and other wild beaſts: yet Livonia ſtill abounds with the ſmaller wild quadrupeds, and other game; ſo that hares, which turn white here in winter, and wild fowl, are ſold very cheap; but there are neither deer nor wild boars in this country. The horned cattle, horſes, and goats of Livonia are, however, very numerous, and much eſteemed; but the ſheep are not extraordinary, their wool being coarſe, and reſembling goats hair.

Vaſt quantities of flax, hemp, linſeed, leather, and ſkins, are exported from hence in foreign bottoms.

The rivers which water this country are the Duna, the Aa, the Embac, the Pernaw, &c. It has likewiſe many ſtanding lakes, as that of Peipus, the lake of Werczer, which is thirty miles in length, and twelve in breadth, the lake of Luban, and ſome others. Both theſe lakes and rivers afford plenty of the fineſt ſalmon and other fiſh. Turbots are alſo taken in the gulph of Riga, and a conſiderable part of the inhabitants are ſupported by the fiſheries. Stromlings, a ſpecies of herrings, are found in vaſt ſhoals along theſe coaſts, and are the common

food of the peaſants, who ſalt great quantities of them. A Swede has in the preſent reign eſtabliſhed a pearl-fiſhery, and there are above forty-five rivulets and lakes in Livonia and Eſthonia where this fiſhery is carried on; but the latter yield more pearls than the former, and thoſe nearly equal the oriental pearls both in ſize and clearneſs.

The highways and roads in Livonia are in very good order, and at the end of every Ruſſian werſt a red pillar is erected, on which is marked the number of the werſts paſſed and remaining, in travelling from one capital to another.

This country was formerly interſperſed with a multitude of towns and villages; but moſt of them have been deſtroyed in the wars which Livonia has ſo often experienced; and the ruins of many of them are to be ſeen. Indeed a traveller paſſes through more towns in a journey of eighty or ninety miles in many countries, than in all this extent of land. To the ſame cauſe may be attributed the ſcarcity of money obſervable among the Livonian peaſants, who, amidſt all their affluence, find ſuch difficulty in turning the overplus of their ſubſtance into money, that it is ſaid they are obliged to give half of it away, and at the ſame time they buy whatever foreign commodities they have occaſion for at a very high price.

Livonia might doubtleſs afford ſubſiſtence to a much greater number of inhabitants than it has at preſent; for they have been extremely thinned by war, peſtilence, and famine. Their number may in ſome meaſure be determined by the following method: the eſtates are taxed according to the number of hakes, that is of men fit for labour from fifteen to fifty years of age, five of theſe being reckoned to a hake. The peaſants of Eſthonia are ſaid to conſiſt only of five thouſand hakes, which only amount to twenty-five thouſand labouring men, a number that muſt appear very inconſiderable for ſo large a province.

Beſides thoſe of the inhabitants who are of German extraction, this country contains a great number of Eſthonians and Lettonians, who are of a different race, and have a different language; but their manners and cuſtoms are nearly the ſame. The Eſthonians ſeem, from the affinity of the two languages, and other circumſtances, to have deſcended from the ſame origin as the Fins; but the Lettonians, both from their name and language, appear to be ſprung from the ſame ſtock as the Lithuanians, who are a mixture of ſeveral Sarmatian tribes. The ſtature of both ſeldom exceeds the middle ſize; but they are vigorous and hardy, enduring cold and heat, and chearfully undergoing the greateſt labour and fatigue. Their houſes are meanly built, and the rooms quite black with ſmoak. They are all vaſſals, or rather ſlaves, to their lords, who may treat them as they pleaſe; ſo that they do not kill them. Their chief employments are agriculture, grazing, and ſometimes fiſhing; yet they have a good natural genius for mechanics. They are, however, addicted to drunkenneſs, and ſtill practiſe in private many ſuperſtitious cuſtoms. The languages uſually ſpoken by the inhabitants are the German, the Lettonian, the Eſthonian, the Ruſſian, the Swediſh, and that of Finland.

The nobility of this country are very numerous, and are moſtly of foreign extraction; for their anceſtors were partly ſuch families as antiently came into Livonia with the king of Denmark; but for the moſt part removed hither from Germany. Here are alſo ſome noble families of Swediſh and Poliſh extraction. The greateſt part of the nobility have always applied themſelves to a military life; and the others who reſide on their eſtates, and make improvements in agriculture, are generally inveſted with civil employments. The nobility are far from being ſufferers by falling under the dominion of Ruſſia; for ſince that time all their rights and privileges have been confirmed to them, and the eſtates which the court of Sweden had reaſſumed have likewiſe been reſtored.

Artificers and mechanics are leſs common here than in other countries. The commerce of Livonia always flouriſhes in time of peace; however, the trading towns on the coaſt ſuffer greatly by the clandeſtine trade carried on by land; and, though it has been often prohibited, it ſtill increaſes. The gentry purchaſe corn both of their vaſſals and other peaſants: ſome of them diſtil ſpirits from it, while others ſend it to the ſea-ports, and ſell it there to great advantage. The peaſants are obliged to bring what corn they intend for ſale to the noblemen's ſeats, where, inſtead of having ready money for it, they generally receive iron, ſalt, tobacco, and other utenſils and commodities.

The inhabitants of Livonia chiefly profeſs Lutheraniſm; but the Calviniſts, Ruſſians, and Papiſts, are indulged with the free exerciſe of their religion. The Bible has been here publiſhed in the Lettonian and Eſthonian languages; and there is an annual allowance from the crown of twelve hundred rubles towards the ſupport of the national churches in this country; but the churches of the ſeparatiſts do not partake of this bounty.

All the country pariſhes in Eſthonia, together with the cathedral of Reval, with regard to eccleſiaſtical juriſdiction, are ſubject to the nobility, and are but forty in number; whence we may form a conjecture of the great extent of thoſe pariſhes. The conſiſtory of nobles is compoſed of a preſident, who is a provincial counſellor, provoſts, the preachers belonging to the cathedral of Reval, and ſome other aſſeſſors. Here is likewiſe a ſupreme court of appeals in ſpiritual cauſes, which conſiſts of ſome eccleſiaſtics, provincial counſellors, and noblemen. Livonia, or the general government of Riga, contains above a hundred and twenty pariſhes, which, together with St. James's church in Riga, are under the juriſdiction of the conſiſtory of nobles: over theſe preſides a general ſuperintendant, who reſides at Riga, where is alſo held the high conſiſtory. Every circle has a governor in civil and military affairs, who muſt be of the claſs of the nobility. The miniſters of Pernau, Dorpt, and other ſmall towns in Livonia, are ſubject to the general ſuperintendant; but the cities of Riga, Reval, and Narva, have their own conſiſtories, which, as well as the magiſtracy, are independant of the nobility.

The higheſt tribunal in Eſthonia is the ſupreme provincial court, called the government, which annually meets to adminiſter juſtice about the middle of January, and continues ſitting till Eaſter. It conſiſts of the governor, as preſident, and twelve provincial counſellors, who are all nobles, and have the rank of major-general. The provincial counſellors may fill up the vacancies in their college, without any licence from the crown, from among the nobility; and the ſenior provincial counſellors compoſe a government, in the abſence of the other governors.

Subordinate to this tribunal are inferior judges, who hold inferior courts. The inferior judge of every circle in Eſthonia has two aſſiſtants. His office is to take care of the roads and bridges; to levy the money granted by the nobility at the diet, for the public ſervice; and all diſputes about limits and other incidents have the firſt hearing before him. Subordinate to the ſupreme council is alſo another court, called man-gericht, which conſiſts of a judge, two aſſeſſors, and a notary. Theſe take cognizance of all criminal affairs, and diſputes of more importance. An appeal alſo lies from the former of theſe inferior courts to the man-gericht. The judge of both theſe courts muſt be of the claſs of nobles, and continues in office only three years.

In the general government of Livonia the chief tribunals are the ſupreme court of judicature appointed by the czarina, and alſo two inferior courts. But from all theſe courts there lies an appeal to the college of judicature eſtabliſhed at Peterſburgh, for the provinces of Eſthonia and Livonia, and from that again to the ſenate, which is the ſupreme tribunal for the whole Ruſſian empire.

With reſpect to the hiſtory of theſe countries, paganiſm prevailed till the twelfth century, when the Chriſtian religion was firſt introduced into Livonia. In 1158, ſome merchants of Bremen, bound to Gothland, were driven by ſtreſs of weather on the coaſt of Livonia; but the inhabitants at firſt oppoſed their landing, yet by degrees grew familiar, and traded with them. Of this the merchants of Bremen took advantage, by reſorting thither in greater numbers with commodities to trade with the natives; and, with their conſent, went about ſix miles up the Duna, where they pitched their tents.

Afterwards they built a ſtrong warehouſe of timber on an eminence, in which they depoſited their goods. The Germans increaſing in number, brought with them, about the year 1186, an Auguſtine monk, named Meinhard, who, having learned the language of the country, perſuaded ſome of the inhabitants to be baptized. By this time, inſtead of a ſingle warehouſe, the Germans had formed a town, which was named Uxkul, and this they now built with ſtone, and erected a caſtle at the foot of the hill. Meinhard founded a church and convent of Auguſtine monks in this town, which was ſoon erected into an epiſcopal ſee, of which he was the firſt biſhop.

About the year 1196, Canute VI. king of Denmark, entering Eſthonia, ſubdued that province, introduced Chriſtianity, erected churches in the country, and ſent prieſts to officiate in them. Biſhop Albert, in order to promote the conqueſt of Livonia, inſtituted the order of knighthood called the Knights of Chriſt, and pope Innocent III. granted them the ſame ſtatutes as the Knights Templars, with a croſs and ſword, as a badge to be worn on their coats; enjoining them, at the ſame time, to obey the biſhop of Riga. In the year 1206, biſhop Albert granted to the order the third part of Livonia, with all the privileges of ſovereignty, which was confirmed by pope Innocent III. who exempted the knights from tithes and other impoſts. In 1231 they were ſolemnly united with the knights of the Teutonic order, and, as their habit was a white mantle, with a black croſs, they ſtiled themſelves Brothers of the Croſs; a title which they afterwards changed to that of Lords of the Croſs. At length the king of Denmark ſold Eſthonia to this order, and in 1521 their general purchaſed from the grand maſter of the Teutonic knights in Pruſſia the chief juriſdiction in Livonia; at the ſame time they were diſcharged from their oath of obedience to the Teutonic grand maſter. Soon after the emperor Charles V. admitted them among the princes of the empire, by which they had a right of appealing from their high court of judicature to the Aulic council at Spires.

About the middle of the ſixteenth century the czar Iwan Baſilowitz formed the deſign of conquering this country, which induced the city of Reval and the dutchy of Eſthonia to put themſelves under the protection of Sweden, on which was grounded the claim of that crown to Livonia, and the ſuperior privileges enjoyed by Eſthonia above Livonia. Gotha Ketler, chief of the order, alſo gave up Livonia to the king of Poland, and having ſolemnly reſigned his command, was created firſt duke of Courland, which he was to hold as a fief of Poland. The Poles likewiſe got poſſeſſion of Riga and Lettonia; but now this country became the ſcene of the moſt bloody wars between Ruſſia, Sweden, and Poland, which laſted for a whole century; but by the peace of Oliva, concluded in 1660, Livonia was given to Sweden, and the Duna was agreed to be the boundary between the Swediſh and Poliſh dominions.

At length, in the famous war which broke out in the North in the beginning of the preſent century between Peter the Great and Charles XII. of Sweden, this country was miſerably ravaged, till by the treaty of Nyſtadt, concluded in 1721, Sweden ceded Livonia, Eſthonia, and Ingria, with a part of Carelia, &c. for ever to Ruſſia; when his czariſh majeſty engaged to preſerve and maintain the inhabitants in the enjoyment of all the rights and privileges they had poſſeſſed while under the dominion of Sweden, and to permit the Lutheran religion, with the churches, ſchools, and all the endowments, to continue on the ſame footing as under the Swediſh government; granting the profeſſors of the Greek religion only an entire liberty of conſcience, and the free exerciſe of their religious worſhip.

In 1741, Sweden attempted the recovery of part of theſe ceded countries; but this was only attended with a loſs of part of Finland; and by the peace of Abo, concluded in 1743, Ruſſia was not only confirmed in the poſſeſſion of all its conqueſts, but acquired ſome additional diſtricts in Finland.

Since this country became ſubject to Ruſſia, it has been divided into two general governments and one city; theſe governments are thoſe of Riga and Reval.

The general government of Riga contains Lettonia, to which the name of Livonia is given in a more limited ſenſe, and conſiſts of the circle of Riga, Windin, Pernau, Dorpt, and the province of Oeſel; the principal places of which are,

Riga, the capital of the whole country, ſeated in the fifty-ſixth degree fifty-three minutes north latitude, and in the twenty-fourth degree eaſt longitude from London, on the north-eaſt ſide of the Duna; and, tho' it is not of any great extent, it is populous, well fortified, and famed for its trade and opulence. The houſes are handſome, and for the moſt part built of ſtone. They are ſeldom above two ſtories high, and have ſteep roofs, for the better carrying off the water, which is very penetrating on the melting of the ſnow, wherein they have the advantage of the Ruſſians, who have ſtill greater occaſion to provide againſt the like inconvenience. The cellars are uſed as warehouſes for flax, and other goods; and the entrance or firſt apartment in many houſes is the coach-houſe, through which you muſt paſs to the parlour and dining-room. The ſtreets are narrow. The Lutheran churches, as the cathedral, St. James's, St. Mary Magdalene's, St. Peter's, and St. John's, are handſome ſtructures. The ſeminaries, called the imperial Lyceum, and the city Gymnaſium, are in a flouriſhing condition; and the maſters have very conſiderable ſalaries. Here are alſo an old caſtle, a ſtrong citadel, and two arſenals well ſtored with arms, one at the charge of the crown, and the other of the city. The fortifications both on the land and water ſide have been improved under its preſent maſters, and thoſe towards the ſea are enlarged by additional works. This city, by means of its excellent harbour, has, during the ſummer ſeaſon, a good trade with England and Holland, and in winter a trade with the Ruſſian provinces by ſledges.

The Duna is generally frozen about the end of November, and open again near the middle of March; ſo that it has the advantage of Peterſburgh, where the Neva is cloſed about ſix weeks longer. When the ice breaks up, it frequently comes down in ſuch large pieces, as to remove points of land, and form banks that ſometimes remain for ſeveral years. For this reaſon no ſtanding bridge can be built over the river, and there is only one of rafts and boards during the ſummer ſeaſon.

The chief commodities here are maſts, timber, flax, and hemp; great part of which is brought from the Poliſh Ukraine. Near five hundred ſhips have been annually loaded at Riga.

Its privileges, which are very conſiderable, were confirmed by the empreſs Anne. The ſupreme court of judicature for Livonia and the high conſiſtory was held in this city, which is alſo the reſidence of the governor and general ſuperintendant. This city was built in the year 1200, and ſoon after incloſed with a wall. It has ſuffered much by fires and ſieges: the moſt remarkable of the latter are thoſe it ſuſtained from the Ruſſians in 1656, the Saxons and Poles in 1700, and a ſecond time by the Ruſſians in 1710, when it was obliged to ſubmit to the victorious arms of Peter the Great.

Dunnamunde is a noble fortification, about twelve miles from Riga, ſituated at the mouth of the Duna, where the ſhips which ſail out of the Baltic into that river pay cuſtoms. This place was taken by the Swedes in 1609, and 1618, and by the Saxons in 1700, who gave it the name of Auguſtuſburg. In 1701, it ſurrendered a third time to the Swedes, and in 1710, was taken by the Ruſſians.

Dorpt, a town ſituated on a plain, watered by the river Embec, in the circle of the ſame name, in latitude fifty-eight degrees, was built in the year 1030, by the great duke of Ruſſia, from whom it was taken by the religious knights in 1191; afterwards it was rebuilt, and created a biſhop's ſee. It was formerly in a flouriſhing condition, being a member of the Hanſeatic confederacy, and by means of its communication with Pernau, by a canal which was deſtroyed in the laſt Ruſſian wars, carried on a conſiderable trade by ſea. An Engliſh ſtaple was alſo fixed in this town. It has undergone many remarkable ſieges, particularly in 1704, when it was taken and plundered by the Ruſſians, and the inhabitants

habitants treated with great cruelty. But its total ruin happened in 1708, when all the inhabitants were carried away by the Ruſſians as priſoners of war, and the caſtle and fortifications blown up; but theſe captives, being afterwards permitted to return, rebuilt it with mean timber houſes.

Since the peace of Nyſtadt, the number of its inhabitants have been conſiderably increaſed; many foreigners have ſettled there, which has rendered the town more populous than it was under the dominion of the Swedes; yet moſt of the buildings ſtill lie in ruins, and the fortifications, walls, and gates, with moſt of the public edifices, fallen to decay, make a melancholy appearance. There are yet but fifteen private houſes built of ſtone, and among the public buildings, none but the magazine and the German church. The preſent inhabitants though very numerous, are generally indigent, and its univerſity, which was for a time removed to Pernau, is quite fallen to decay. Its trade chiefly conſiſts in corn and flax.

Pernau is ſituated on a river of the ſame name, near the Baltic, and is a ſmall town moſtly built with timber; it has ſome trade, and is defended by a caſtle.

The province of Oeſel, includes the iſlands of Oeſel, Moon, and Runoe. The iſland of Oeſel is at the entrance of the gulph of Riga: it is eighty-four miles in length, and between ſixteen and eighteen in breadth, and contains ten pariſhes. The ſoil is ſtony but fertile; it was formerly ſubject to the grand maſter of the Teutonic order; but without prejudice to the crown of Denmark's pretenſions to it. At laſt the knights reſigned it up to the Danes, who ceded it to the Swedes, and the latter by the treaty of Nyſtadt, gave it up to Ruſſia. It has a deputy-governor, and a college of provincial counſellors. A light-houſe has been erected on the iſland. The little iſland of Moon, ſituated near Oeſel, conſtitutes a pariſh; and the iſland of Runoe, which is alſo ſituated in the gulph of Riga, has a light-houſe erected upon it.

We now come to the general government of Revel, or Reval, which includes the province of Eſthonia, or the ſmall diſtricts of Wyk. The principal town in this government is,

Revel, which is ſeated on the Baltic, in latitude fifty-nine degrees twenty-three minutes, and twenty-four degrees eaſt longitude, though not very large, is an opulent well fortified city, that has a conſiderable trade. The houſes are moſtly of brick, and well built; but the ſtreets are ſomewhat irregular. The only churches here, beſides thoſe of the Ruſſians, are thoſe of the Lutherans. The Germans, including the ſuperintendant, have four miniſters, which conſtitute the town clergy: but the cathedral, in which two biſhops officiate, belongs to the nobility, who have alſo their chapter of nobles. There is alſo a Swediſh congregation, and another of native Eſthonians. The imperial ſeminary has four profeſſors, and one teacher of the Ruſſian language. Here is alſo a ſchool for the uſe of the town, and another for the nobility. The tolls or cuſtoms are conſiderable, of which the magiſtracy have a part, and the reſt belongs to the crown. Reval has its own arſenal, and maintains a number of matroſſes, and a company of ſoldiers. It formerly made no inconſiderable figure among the hanſe-towns. Its harbour is convenient and ſpacious, and has uſually lying in it a part of the Ruſſian fleet. The town is ſurrounded with high walls, ſtrengthened with baſtions and a deep ditch, and is likewiſe defended by a caſtle, which ſtands on a rock, and has ſeveral towers. The citizens have very pleaſant gardens without the walls.

A quarter of a league from this city, near the ſea-ſide, is the fine imperial garden called Catharinen-Thal.

The city of Narva is ſituated on the borders of Ingria, on a riſing ground by the banks of the river Narva, which runs from the Lake Peipus, and diſcharges itſelf into the gulph of Finland, about twelve miles from the city. There is a high water-fall in this river, between the city and the lake; ſo that goods brought thither from the lake, muſt be taken out there and carried by land. This city ſtands in the latitude of fifty-nine degrees eight minutes, and in twenty-ſeven degrees twenty-five minutes eaſt longitude. It is not very large, but is commodiouſly ſituated for trade, and the houſes are handſomely built with ſtone. In the market-place ſtands an elegant triumphal arch, erected in 1746, in honour of the late empreſs Elizabeth. Beſides the Ruſſian churches, it has a Lutheran church for the Germans, and two other churches for the natives of Finland and the Swedes. It is well fortified, and has a ſtrong garriſon. The chief commodities exported from thence are flax and timber, and a great quantity of ſalt is imported.

This city has frequently felt the calamities of war, when it was cloſe preſſed by the Ruſſians in 1700, it was relieved by Charles XII. of Sweden, who, with a handful of men, defeated a hundred thouſand Ruſſians, with a very great ſlaughter, and raiſed the ſiege. But in 1704 it was again beſieged by the Ruſſians, and carried by aſſault; ſince which time it has been a part of the Ruſſian dominions; but with the full enjoyment of all its rights and privileges, the Ruſſians only reſerving the right of appeal to the ſenate at Peterſburgh.

SECT. XIV.

Of the Province of Ingria, or Peterſburgh: its Situation, Extent, Rivers, and principal Places; with a particular Account of Cronſtadt, Peterſburgh, and the neighbouring Palaces; and other Places moſt worthy of Notice.

THE province of Ingria, called by the Ruſſians Ingermanland, is ſituated between the gulph of Finland, Carelia, and Ruſſia properly ſo called, and extends in length a hundred and eighty miles, and in breadth almoſt as much. The country is fertile, producing both corn and paſture, and abounds in all kinds of game, particularly elks.

The principal rivers of Ingria are the Luga, the Siſta, the Cowaſſa, and the Neva. This laſt has its ſource on the lake of Ladoga, and is a broad, rapid, and navigable river. It runs throug Peterſburgh, where it divides itſelf into ſeveral branches, particularly into the Great and Little Neva, and the Newka; and, after a courſe of forty Engliſh miles, diſcharges itſelf into the gulph of Finland.

While the Swedes were in poſſeſſion of Ingria, Lutheraniſm was the only religion profeſſed in the country: but at preſent great numbers of the Ruſſians, who are of the Greek church, are mixed with the old inhabitants.

In the year 1702 this province was recovered by the Ruſſians, who had been maſters of it once before, ſo early as the thirteenth century, but had been obliged to give it up to Sweden. It was confirmed to Ruſſia, with their other conqueſts, by the treaty of Nyſtadt and Abo. Ingria at preſent conſtitutes the government of Peterſburgh, and has the following remarkable places:

Cronſtadt, a good town, and excellent fortification, is ſeated on the iſland of Retuſari, which is about ſix miles in length, and two in breadth. This iſland lies in the gulph of Finland, about eight leagues by water from Peterſburgh, and near two leagues from the coaſt of Ingria. This town was built by Peter I. and is pretty large and regular in thoſe parts that were firſt built; but the original plan has not been entirely executed. The ſtreets are broad; but only ſome parts of them are paved. The palace of Peter the Great, which is built of ſtone, is now uninhabited, and, together with other handſome ſtone buildings, which make a grand appearance on the ſide next to Ingria, is falling to decay. The other buildings are but mean. Beſides two principal, and ſeveral dependent Ruſſian churches, here is a ſmall Lutheran church; but the Engliſh congregation is no longer in being.

The wall round the town is planted with great guns, and defended by the citadel, and the fort of Cronſhloſs, which is at a ſmall diſtance from the town, on the Ingria ſide. Cronſtadt has three harbours, all of which are large, ſafe, and commodious: that for merchantmen lies to the weſtward, and is very convenient; but that for ſhips of war, in which the greateſt part of the Ruſſian fleet is laid up, is towards the eaſt. The powder magazine is erected in the water in this harbour. The mid-

dle harbour is for other ſhips and yachts belonging to the crown.

This place Peter the Great intended to fit up for repairing his large men of war, by cutting a ſtone canal of an extraordinary breadth and depth, with ſeveral docks in it: but this great work was not compleated till the reign of the late empreſs. The canal alone is two werſts and fifty fathoms in length, and from the outward ſluice of the dock to the ſea is four hundred and ſeventeen Engliſh fathoms. The water in it is raiſed to the depth of twenty-four feet, by means of the two large ſluices. The canal, when full, is a hundred feet on the ſurface of the water, and at the bottom from fifty-four to ſixty-ſeven in breadth: the outward and inward walls of the canal, and the mole, are hewn out of the ſolid rock. At the end of the canal is a deep baſon lined with ſtone, which interſects the former at right angles, and is deſigned for a reſervoir for the water of the canal, when the docks are to be cleared of it. At the firſt opening of the canal in the year 1752, it received the name of Peter the Firſt and the Great; and at its mouth were erected two pyramids. This great and uſeful work has not its equal in any part of the known world.

The caſtle of Cronſhloſs, juſt mentioned, is built on a ſand-bank in the ſea, at the diſtance of a cannon-ſhot from the harbour of Cronſtadt, towards Ingria, and was erected by Peter I. for the defence of his conqueſts; and ſuch improvements have been ſince added, that, like Cronſtadt, it may juſtly be eſteemed the bulwark of Peterſburgh. It is erected in the form of a round tower, with three galleries one above another, and is well provided with cannon on every ſide. All the ſhips that ſail to Peterſburgh are obliged to paſs between this caſtle and Cronſtadt, within reach of the cannon on both ſides.

Directly oppoſite to Cronſtadt, near the gulph of Finland, is the fine palace of Oranienbaum, built by prince Menzſhikow; and nothing can be more delightful than the garden adjoining to this ſeat.

Peterhoff is an imperial ſeat on the coaſt of Ingria, where the late empreſs uſually ſpent the ſummer ſeaſon. From the time of Peter the Great no expence has been ſpared in adding to the fine ſituation of this palace all the embelliſhments of art. The houſe indeed is far from being regular; but whoever views the elegance of the gardens, which are adorned with fountains that throw up vaſt columns of water to an extraordinary height, with the grottos, double caſcades, pleaſant groves, and many other ornaments, will not think them much inferior to thoſe of Verſailles, which they excel in the ſweetneſs of the water. The palace ſtands on a hill about ſixty feet high, and on one ſide has a moſt extentenſive proſpect, diverſified with noble objects, as the city of Peterſburg, Cronſtadt, and the gulph of Finland. Among the ſummer-houſes belonging to this palace is one diſtinguiſhed by the name of Mon Plaiſir, or My Delight, and is particularly remarkable for its curious paintings.

At no great diſtance is Strelenhoff, or Strelna-Muſa, an imperial palace built in the water, erected by Peter the Great, who employed many thouſand men in this work; for he intended to make it a ſuperb palace, and to form a garden with a labyrinth and other embelliſhments; but his plan has never been compleated.

Catharinehoff, Annenhoff, and Elizabethhoff are imperial palaces, or pleaſure-houſes, on the river Neva. The former was the favourite reſidence of the empreſs Catharine, and properly conſiſts of two edifices. It ſtands in a wood, on one ſide of the fineſt ſpots in the neighbourhood of Peterſburgh; but, from its low ſituation, is expoſed to frequent inundations.

We ſhall now give a particular deſcription of Peterſburgh, one of the capitals of the Ruſſian empire. The beginning and increaſe of this great city were very extraordinary; for, till the year 1703, the only buildings on the ſpot where it ſtands were two ſmall fiſhing-huts. But Peter the Great having in that year taken the town of Nyenſhanze, ſeated on the Neva, and made himſelf maſter of this country, its commodious ſituation for the Baltic trade induced him to build a town and fortreſs here, and he immediately began to put his project in execution.

It was indeed firſt deſigned only for a place of arms, to which all kinds of military ſtores might be conveniently brought from the interior parts of the empire, by which means the war with Sweden might be carried on with more vigour and diſpatch. Hence the public edifices and private houſes were built only with timber, and neither the dock nor the town had any other fortifications than a mean rampart of earth, nor were the ſtreets paved. But the victory at Pultowa, and the conqueſt of Livonia, inſpired Peter with the hopes of being able to preſerve his conqueſt, and to render Peterſburgh the capital of his empire. His fondneſs for maritime affairs, a deſire of perpetuating his name by having it called by that of St. Peter, and his averſion to Moſcow, where, in his younger years, he had received much ill treatment, were the chief motives that induced him to lay the foundation of a new city that was to become the capital of his dominions.

Peter had no ſooner formed this deſign, than he ordered the caſtle to be built of ſtone, the admiralty to be walled in with the ſame materials, and all the buildings to be erected in a more handſome and durable manner.

In 1714 he removed the council to Peterſburgh, and noble edifices were erected in a ſtraight line for the public offices, which, in 1718, were alſo removed thither. The principal families of Ruſſia were likewiſe ordered to reſide there, and build houſes according to their abilities. But this occaſioned ſome irregularity in the buildings; for the nobility and burghers had been directed to build their houſes on the iſland of Peterſburgh, and many public and private ſtructures were accordingly erected there; but, in 1721, the emperor determined that the whole town ſhould ſtand on the iſland of Waſili. The ſtreets were marked out, canals were dug, the iſland was fortified with fifty-ſeven baſtions, and the nobility were to begin their houſes a ſecond time: but the death of the emperor put a ſtop to the execution of his plan; and the ſtone buildings that had been erected went to ruin.

The Ruſſian nobility were naturally averſe to ſettle in Peterſburgh, as they could neither live there ſo cheap, nor ſo commodiouſly as at Moſcow. The country about Peterſburgh is not very fertile, ſo that proviſions are brought thither from a great diſtance, and muſt be paid for in ready money; which was no ſmall grievance to the nobility, who chiefly ſubſiſted on the produce of their eſtates; but ſeldom abounded in caſh. Beſides, Moſcow ſeemed much fitter for being the imperial ſeat, as it is in the center of the empire, from whence juſtice might be more eaſily adminiſtered, and the national revenue be received and diſburſed with more convenience and diſpatch. Beſides, Peterſburgh ſeemed to them to lie too near the frontiers of Sweden. However, this city in the time of Peter I. became large and ſplendid, and under his ſucceſſors received additional improvements, ſo that it is now ranked among the largeſt and moſt elegant cities in Europe.

Peterſburgh is partly ſeated on the continent of Ingria and Finland, among thick woods, and partly on ſeveral ſmall iſlands formed by the branches of the Neva, in the fifty-ninth degree fifty-ſeven minutes north latitude, and in the thirty-firſt degree of eaſt longitude from London. The low and marſhy ſoil on which it ſtands has been conſiderably raiſed with trunks of trees, earth, and ſtone. However, its ſituation is pleaſant, and the air ſalubrious. The city is about ſix Engliſh miles in length, and as many in breadth, and has neither a wall nor gates.

The river Neva is about eight hundred paces broad near Peterſburgh; but has not every where a proportionable depth of water, ſo that large merchant ſhips are cleared at Cronſtadt, and the men of war built at Peterſburgh are alſo conveyed thither by means of certain machines called camels. Beſides the Neva, the rivers Fontanca and Moica contribute to form the iſlands on which the city ſtands, which is alſo watered by ſeveral canals; for in this reſpect Peter took his model from Amſterdam. There is but one bridge over the Neva, which is conſtructed with large flat-bottomed boats, and joins the dock-yard to Baſili Oſtrow, or Baſil's Iſland. Theſe are laid acroſs the river in ſpring, ſo as to form a ſafe and convenient paſſage; but they are always removed in autumn, before the froſt begins. The only communi-

cation

cation between the other iſlands is either by boats or barks, which croſs the water at ſtated times; but bridges are built over the Moica and Fontanca, and likewiſe over the canals.

The number of houſes at Peterſburgh are computed at eight thouſand, about ſix hundred of which are of ſtone; but the reſt are built with timber, and for the moſt part in an irregular manner, after the Ruſſian taſte. There are about twenty Ruſſian churches in the city, beſides four Lutheran churches for the Germans, and ſeveral Calviniſtical for the Swedes, Fins, Germans, and French proteſtants; and likewiſe other places of worſhip for the Engliſh, Dutch, and Roman catholics. In giving a more particular deſcription of this city, we ſhall begin with Peterſburgh Iſland, including the ſmall iſland on which the fort, which is in the middle of the Neva, and alſo of the city, ſtands.

Peterſburgh Iſland is formed by the Great and Little Neva and the Newka. The above fort is of an hexagonal form, and built of ſtone, according to the modern improvements in fortification. It is planted with a great number of cannon, and additional works are continually made to it, which are all vaulted. In the middle of it ſtands an elegant church, where the remains of Peter the Great, his conſort Catharine, and ſeveral other perſons of the royal family, are depoſited in magnificent mauſoleums. In the high beautiful tower belonging to this church, which is covered with gilt copper, hangs a fine ſet of bells, with chimes, made in Holland, that always play at twelve o'clock. On one of the baſtions of the fort facing the imperial palace is always hung out a flag, which on ſtate holydays is exchanged for a finer that bears the Ruſſian eagle. As this fort ſtands in the center of the city, it is not only a defence but a very great ornament to it. It alſo ſerves for a ſecure priſon, and on any exigency might prove a convenient aſylum to the ſovereign. On ſtate holydays the baſtions and curtains of this fort are finely illuminated with lamps.

On the iſland of Peterſburgh, properly ſo called, is a horn-work that belongs to the caſtle. This iſland is above two leagues in circumference, and is extremely well peopled; but moſt of the houſes are mean buildings, and the five Ruſſian churches, the ſhambles, inns, and corn-market, have nothing worth notice. There is ſtill to be ſeen on this iſland the ſmall wooden houſe which Peter the Great ordered to be built, and lived in, the firſt time he arrived on the ſpot on which this city ſtands; and, that it may remain as a laſting monument of that circumſtance, it is kept in repair, and incloſed with a ſtone-wall.

From the iſland of Peterſburgh you croſs the Little Neva, and come to the iſland of Waſili, or Baſil's Iſland, which is the largeſt of them all. It lies towards Cronſtadt, and is ſurrounded by the Great and Little Neva. The greateſt part of it is covered with woods, and the reſt with buildings, it having twelve broad ſtreets of an uncommon length, running in a direct line, and interſected at right angles by ſix croſs ſtreets; but they are not paved. The viſtas from theſe ſtreet are very broad and beautiful at both extremities, the largeſt extending the whole length of the iſland as far as the Galley Harbour. Oppoſite to Peterſburgh Iſland, and adjoining to the hemp-warehouſe, are the exchange, the cuſtom-houſe, the pack-houſe, and the quay, where the merchant ſhips unload. Contiguous to theſe are ſeveral large ſtone buildings belonging to the imperial academy of ſciences, founded in 1724 by Peter the Great, and endowed with an annual revenue of twenty-four thouſand nine hundred and twelve rubles. That monarch alſo intended to erect an academy of polite arts; but as eſtimates of the neceſſary charges of ſuch an inſtitution were not made, the late empreſs Elizabeth increaſed the above endowment to fifty-three thouſand two hundred and ninety-eight rubles.

The academy is divided into two claſſes, the firſt conſtituting the academy properly ſo called, and the ſecond the univerſity. The members of the former are employed only in finding out new inventions, or improving the diſcoveries of others, and are under no obligation to inſtruct youth, unleſs particular pupils are recommended to them, or they do it voluntarily for their own advantage. The univerſity has its particular profeſſors, who read lectures in the ſciences, both in the Latin and Ruſſian languages. Difference of religion does not diſqualify a perſon from being a profeſſor; but they are enjoined not to inculcate to their pupils any thing contrary to the doctrines of the Greek church. In the buildings which belong to the academy are the imperial library; a muſeum, containing natural and artificial curioſities; the printing-houſe; the bookſeller's-ſhop; and apartments for binding, letter-founding, painting, engraving, and the room where mathematical inſtruments are made. Among theſe laſt curioſities is the famous copper globe of Gottorp, which ſtood on a tower of the academy, and was almoſt deſtroyed by fire when that tower was burnt in 1747; but has been repaired at a great expence, and with admirable ſkill: you aſcend a few ſteps, and enter into the globe through a ſmall door: within ſtands a table with benches round it, on which twelve perſons may conveniently ſit. The inſide contains the celeſtial globe, and the outſide the terreſtrial; its diameter is eleven feet, and it at preſent ſtands in a ſtone edifice by itſelf.

The next remarkable place is the fire-work theatre, built on piles oppoſite to the imperial winter palace. Here is a very long ſtone building appropriated for the ſtate colleges and offices. Juſt behind theſe ſtands a ſpacious and elegant ſtructure, formerly prince Menſhikow's palace, but now the academy of the corps of cadets of noble families, who are educated gratis, according to their rank. Near this academy is another for three hundred and ſixty ſea cadets.

The Admiralty Iſland is the moſt magnificent part of the city: here is the victualling-office; the galley dock, in which all the gallies are built; and vaſt ſtore-houſes for ſhip-building. Here are likewiſe a great number of handſome ſtone houſes and elegant palaces extending along the river ſide. The Engliſh factory have their place of worſhip in this part, and behind it is New Holland, with the Rope-walk. The admiralty, or dock-yard, is fortified with a wall and five baſtions, planted with many guns; and all ſhips that enter the harbour ſalute it. The top of the tower belonging to the admiralty is gilt, in the ſame manner as that of the great church in the caſtle.

The imperial winter-palace, near this place, is a large ſquare building three ſtories high; but the architecture is not extraordinary. Behind it, in a ſpacious area, ſtands a noble equeſtrian ſtatue of braſs gilt, erected in honour of Peter the Great. Adjoining to this, along the banks of the Neva, are ſeveral other palaces, among which is the old imperial winter palace; ſeveral elegant ſtone buildings; the new play-houſe, which is built of timber; and a delightful imperial ſummer palace, which is all of wood, and, being only one ſtory high, reſembles a pleaſure-houſe. Behind it are ſeveral ſtone buildings for the officers belonging to the court. It has a fine orangery, and a large beautiful garden, moſt admirably adorned with a grotto, fountains, and other water-works, with a great number of valuable marble and alabaſter ſtatues brought from Italy; but all of them are not executed with equal ſkill. Two of theſe ſtatues which ſtand near the grotto, repreſenting Faith and Religion, are greatly admired by the connoiſſeurs for the appearance of the faces through thin tranſparent veils, which ſeem to cover them. This garden is famous for a fine grove of oaks, that has not its equal in all the Ruſſian empire. The dock affords a double viſta, one to the Ruſſian church of the Aſcenſion, the other terminated by the convent of Alexander Newſki. The elegant buildings on both ſides the river Fontanca have alſo a beautiful appearance from hence.

The ſtreets that lie behind the admiralty, and behind the imperial ſummer palace, are very grand and magnificent; but thoſe are equalled, if not excelled, by Great and Little Million-ſtreet, which are embelliſhed with the moſt ſuperb buildings. At the end of Million-ſtreet, near the garden of the ſummer palace, the emperor has a curious diſpenſary. In this part alſo lie the imperial ſtables, and the dwellings of the officers who belong to them; the church of the Swediſh Fins; the German Lutheran church, dedicated to St. Peter, which is an

elegant ſtructure; the menagery; the park; and the elephant-yard, where ſeveral of thoſe animals are kept.

The Moſcovite ſide, which is properly the city, is on the continent, and part of it very well built. In this quarter are the private dock; the court victualling-office; a foundery on the Neva, in which are caſt a great number of mortars and cannon; the fire-work elaboratory; the aqueduct, which ſupplies the fountains in the emperor's garden; the German Lutheran church, dedicated to St. Anne; three Ruſſian churches; the barracks for the horſe-guards, with the ſtables for their horſes; a ſtructure called the Pleaſant-houſe; the Italian garden; the Moſcovite *Iemſkoi*; and the convent of St. Alexander Newſki, built in honour of that pious prince, in the form of an eagle, but not yet completed: it contains about two hundred apartments. In the middle of the building ſtands a very large and beautiful church, which repreſents the eagle's body, the two towers its neck and head, the ſpire the imperial crown, and two ſmall churches on each ſide the two wings. In this convent are ſaid to be depoſited the remains of that ſaint; for which the empreſs Elizabeth cauſed a ſilver ſhrine to be made, which is fixed on a ſuperb monument covered with ſilver plates of a conſiderable thickneſs.

Jonas Hanway, Eſq; obſerves, that, with reſpect to the modern palaces and other buildings, an Italian architect having ſettled in Ruſſia, notwithſtanding the difference of climate, the taſte of Italy is adopted; and though the ſeverity of the cold is ſo great in winter, they abound much more in windows than our houſes.

There is a great variety of curious manufactures in this city, as that of looking-glaſſes, gold and ſilver works, tapeſtry, &c. Its extenſive commerce alſo renders Peterſburgh of great importance; for a multitude of ſhips from all the maritime countries in Europe frequent this port, as the mart for buying all Ruſſian commodities; and find a vent for all the goods they import, and for which there is a demand in Ruſſia.

The inhabitants of Peterſburgh, beſides Ruſſians, conſiſt of all nations; ſo that a perſon hears a variety of languages, and ſees a ſurpriſing diverſity of faſhions and cuſtoms. The citizens, properly ſo called, do not exceed two hundred; but the city contains above a hundred thouſand perſons, or according to ſome authors, two hundred and fifty thouſand, including the garriſon. The inhabitants in general imitate the ſplendor of the court, though every thing belonging to dreſs, eſpecially if made by foreign artificers, is very dear; as is alſo furniture; and houſes in a good ſituation ſometimes bear a very high price. On the other hand, all kinds of proviſions, except wine, oranges, lemons, and ſome other foreign articles, are now ſold very cheap, and in winter are brought in great abundance from the diſtance of many hundred miles.

The morals of the people, as in all large cities, are much depraved, and the ſuſpicious vigilance of the Ruſſian government renders it neceſſary for a ſtranger to be very circumſpect in his words and behaviour. Foreigners, however, enjoy all poſſible liberty of conſcience, while they take care to ſay nothing againſt the Greek religion.

When a perſon intends to ſet out from the city, in order to travel into the country, he muſt be furniſhed with a paſs, and advertiſe his name and intention of travelling in the news-papers. No ſooner is the winter ſet in, than near three thouſand Ruſſians repair with their ſledges to Peterſburgh, where they ſtand in every ſtreet; and this method of carriage is ſo cheap and convenient, that few go on foot even about the town. A ſledge and a horſe may be hired for the value of about five-pence ſterling an hour, and within that time the horſe will go about ſeven or eight Engliſh miles. It is ſufficient for a ſtranger to know the place or houſe to which he would go, and to underſtand three or four Ruſſian words. Moſt houſe-keepers have their own ſledges and horſes, and perſons of diſtinction have alſo their poſtilions. In ſummer time thoſe who are not inclined to go on foot in this extenſive city, muſt either make uſe of their own carriage or hire boats.

About thirty werſts from Peterſburgh is Sarſkoe-Selo, a pleaſant imperial palace, with a park and garden. In the hermitage is a table which may be raiſed up by ſcrews into the apartment above, and let down again at pleaſure.

Beſides the fortifications already mentioned in this province, there is the ſtrong fort of Schluſſelburg, which ſtands on a ſmall iſland in the midſt of the Neva, where it runs out of the lake of Ladoga. It was formerly called Oreſhec, from the form of the iſland, which reſembles a nut; but Peter the Great having made himſelf maſter of it in 1702, changed its name to Schluſſelburg, or Key-town, that monarch eſteeming it the key of his conqueſt. It walls are two fathoms and a half thick, and built in the old manner; and in one angle of the fort is a ſmall ſtrong caſtle. The Ruſſians have improved this fort both within and without, and added new works to it; it has undergone many ſieges, and when Peter I. took it in 1702, he ordered two medals to be ſtruck in commemoration of his ſucceſs.

SECT. XV.

Of the late Acquiſitions in Carelia, or the Government of Wiburg; with a conciſe Account of the principal Places it contains.

WITHIN this province is included part of the great dutchy of Finland, which the Swedes ceded to Ruſſia, and contains three diſtricts, Finlandiſh, Carelia, Kexholm, and Sawolax.

Carelia has frequently proved a bone of contention between Ruſſia and Sweden. In 1293 it fell under the Swediſh dominion, but in 1338 part of it was yielded up to Ruſſia. By the peace of Nyſtadt, concluded in 1721, a ſtill greater part was reſigned to the Ruſſians, the weſtern part alone being left in the poſſeſſion of the Swedes. Afterwards Sweden was obliged to give up, by the treaty of Abo, the fort of Frederickſham and Wilmanſtrand, with part of the pariſh of Pythis, ſituated on the other ſide of the eaſtern branch of the river Kymmene. In this part of Carelia are the following places:

Suſterbec, which is ſeated in the gulph of Finland, is remarkable for the excellence of its muſkets, ſwords, and iron utenſils. The greateſt part of the arms uſed by the Ruſſian troops are made in this place.

Wiburg, once the capital of Carelia, a biſhop's ſee, and the bulwark of Sweden againſt Ruſſia, is ſituated on the gulph of Finland, and carries on a conſiderable trade. Peter the Great having taken this town by capitulation, in the year 1710, improved its fortifications, which have ever ſince been kept in ſuch good condition, that Wiburg may now be conſidered as the bulwark of Ruſſia againſt Sweden.

Wilmanſtrand is ſeated on the lake Saima, and is called by the Finlanders Lappi Weſſi, or Lapp Water. It had formerly the name of Lapſtrand, and was only a market-place, but was afterwards made a town; yet it has no magiſtrate of its own, it being dependent on Frederickſham. It was a conſiderable mart for tar, and the reſidence of a Swediſh governor. On the twenty-third of Auguſt, 1741, an obſtinate battle was fought about an Engliſh mile from this town between three thouſand Swedes and ſixteen thouſand Ruſſians; but the former were at laſt obliged to yield to ſuperiority of numbers. The Ruſſians, after they had gained the victory, burnt Wilmanſtrand, which was before fortified with a wall and moat; but they have ſince cauſed it to be rebuilt.

Frederickſham is ſituated on the gulph of Finland. This town was governed by two burgomaſters, and was defended by a caſtle built in 1722: it had alſo a good harbour and a conſiderable trade in tar; but in the laſt war between the Ruſſians and Swedes it was burnt to the ground, and ceded to the latter; afterwards it was rebuilt, and the limits between Sweden and Ruſſian Carelia were fixed near this place.

The diſtrict of Kexholm has been frequently contended for by the Ruſſians and Swedes, and was reſtored to the former by the treaty of Nyſtadt. The moſt remarkable place in it is,

Kexholm,

Kexholm, a ſtrong town ſituated on two ſmall iſlands at the influx of the river Woxen into the lake of Ladoga. The town is built on one of theſe iſlands; but the houſes are all of wood; and on the other iſland ſtands the caſtle.

In that ſmall diſtrict, which is a part of Sawolax that was yielded up to Ruſſia by the treaty of Abo in 1743, is only the town of Nyſlot, and the country nine miles round it.

This town is ſituated on the Samian lake, and was built ſo lately as in the year 1745; its caſtle, which ſtands on a rock in a river near the town, is extremely well fortified both by art and nature. In the year 1495 it baffled the attempts of Ruſſia, but in 1714 was obliged to ſubmit to their arms. It was reſtored to the Swedes at the peace of Nyſtadt, but they were conſtrained to give it up to the Ruſſians by the treaty of Abo.

CHAP. III.

Of POLAND, LITHUANIA, POLISH PRUSSIA, and COURLAND.

SECT. I.

Of POLAND *in general.*

Its Name, Situation, Extent, Climate, Soil, mineral and vegetable Productions; Animals, Lakes, and Rivers.

THE limited Kingdom, or, as it is alſo termed, the Republic of Poland, is called by the natives Polſka. Theſe names are deduced from the word Pole, or Poln, which in the Sclavonic tongue ſignifies a country adapted to hunting, the whole kingdom being compoſed of vaſt plains, and antiently of foreſts that afforded ſhelter for an infinite number of wild beaſts.

In its largeſt extent it is bounded on the eaſt by Ruſſia and Little Tartary; on the ſouth by Moldavia, Tranſylvania, and Hungary; on the weſt by Sileſia, Brandenburgh, and Pomerania; and on the north by Ruſſia, Livonia, Courland, and the Baltic; extending from forty-ſeven degrees forty minutes to fifty-ſix degrees thirty minutes north latitude, and between ſixteen and thirty-four degrees eaſt longitude from London.

The air is pretty cold in winter, but very healthy; and the country is for the moſt part level, it having but few hills. On the Carpathian mountains, which ſeparate Poland from Hungary, the air is ſo very cold, that it frequently ſnows there in the midſt of ſummer; and in ſome parts of them the ſnow never melts.

The ſoil is exceeding fertile, and yields plenty of corn, which evidently appears from there being near four thouſand veſſels and floats, moſt of them laden with corn, that annually paſs down the Viſtula to Dantzic. In Podolia, Volhinia, the Ukraine, and the province of Ruſſia, corn grows in vaſt plenty, even with little culture or manure; but in Great and Little Poland agriculture requires more labour and attention: however, the harveſt amply rewards the pains of the induſtrious peaſant. The ſoil of Lithuania is as fruitful as that of Podolia, and Samogitia produces abundance of grain, beſides flax and hemp. Poliſh Pruſſia is likewiſe a very fertile country, that alſo abounds in excellent paſtures; and in Podolia the graſs grows ſo high, that ſometimes a perſon cannot ſee the horns of the cattle when they are grazing in the meadows.

In this country are found peat, oker of all kinds, belemnites, agate, chalcedony, cornelians, onyxes, opals, jaſper, fine rock-cryſtal, amethyſts, topazes, ſapphires, and even rubies. This country likewiſe affords marienglaſs, or moſcovyglaſs, talc, allum, ſalt-petre, amber, pit-coal, and an inexhauſtible quantity of ſalt, which is hewn out of the rock in large blocks; ſalt ſprings, ſpar, quickſilver, lapis calaminaris, iron, lead, and a ſmall quantity of tin.

With reſpect to the vegetable productions of this country, they have fruit, herbs, roots, and other garden-ſtuff in great plenty; but though their grapes are well taſted, they will not make wine.

Poliſh manna is produced by an herb that grows in the meadows and fenny grounds, and is gathered in great quantities from the twentieth of June to the end of July.

The Poliſh berries called kermes, are always gathered in May, before they are quite ripe; for in the month of July they ſwarm with inſects, which render the berries unfit either for dying or medicine. Theſe berries are found on an ever-green of the oak kind, adhering to its leaves; but generally to its ſtem or branches. They are of a ſpherical form, as large as a pea, ſmooth, ſhining, and full of a mucilaginous juice of a beautiful red colour. After the moſt diligent enquiries of naturaliſts into the production of this grain, it is found to be the neſt of a ſmall fly or worm, which pricking the bark or leaf, in order to depoſit its eggs, raiſes a little tumour, which by degrees fills with a red pulp, impregnated with the numerous progeny of that animalcula. Great quantities of theſe berries grow in the Ukraine, and in the neighbourhood of Warſaw and Cracow, and were formerly exported to Genoa and Florence. Here are ſeveral woods of oak, beech, pine, and fir trees. Poland alſo yields abundance of honey and wax, and of the former is made a great quantity of mead.

Horned cattle are bred in ſuch numbers, that eighty or ninety thouſand oxen are every year driven out of Poland. The Poliſh horſes are ſtrong, ſwift, and beautiful, and of theſe they have alſo great numbers. Among the wild beaſts are the elk, the biſon, which reſembles the buffaloe; and alſo deer, hares, wolves, foxes, bears, and wild aſſes; and in the Ukraine, near the Nieper, are wild ſheep and wild horſes.

In great Poland are ſeveral lakes, ſome of which abound in fiſh: the moſt remarkable of theſe is the lake of Gopler, which is near twenty miles in length, and two miles and a half in breadth.

Among the Poliſh rivers the following are the moſt remarkable.

The Duna, called by the Poles the Cubo, which has its ſource in Ruſſia, and after running through Lithuania, diſcharges itſelf into the Baltic.

The Memel, in Poliſh Niemen, which riſes in the palatinate of Novogrodec, and running through Lithuania and Pruſſia, enters the Baltic.

The Weiſel or Viſtula, in Poliſh the Wiſla, riſes among the Carpathian mountains, runs through Poland, and after receiving ſeveral other ſtreams, diſcharges itſelf into the Baltic.

The Nieſter, which riſes in a lake among the Carpathian mountains, and dividing Poland from Moldavia, falls into the Black Sea.

The Nieper, the ancient Boryſthenes, which riſes in the mountains of Budin, in Ruſſia, and after a courſe of near a thouſand miles, diſcharges itſelf into the Black Sea.

SECT. II.

Of the Perſons, Dreſs, Manners, and Cuſtoms of the Poles. Their Houſes, Food, Diverſions, Method of Travelling; Language and Skill in the Sciences.

THE Poles are generally pretty tall, and inclinable to be fat; they have fair complexions, and their hair is uſually of a pale yellow; they have good conſti-

tutions,

tutions, and have a healthful look. They cut the hair of their heads ſhort, and ſhave their beards, leaving only large whiſkers: in ſhort, they have a ſtately mien, and great gravity of countenance.

The dreſs of the Poles is pretty ſingular: they wear a veſt which reaches down to the middle of the leg, and a kind of gown over it, lined with furs, and girded with a ſaſh; but the ſleeves ſit as cloſe to their arms as a waiſt-coat. They wear a fur cap, but have neither ſtock nor neckcloth; for though they wear a ſhirt, it is almoſt like a woman's ſhift, without a collar or wriſtbands. Their breeches are wide, and make but one piece with their ſtockings. Inſtead of ſhoes they always wear Turky leather boots, both abroad and at home, with thin ſoles, and deep iron heels bent like an half moon. They carry a pole-ax, and a ſabre or cutlaſs, by their ſides, which they never put off but when they go to bed. The ſabre hangs by a leathern ſtrap, with their handkerchif, knife and ſheath, and a ſmall ſtone ſet in ſilver, to whet their knife on. When they appear on horſeback, as they frequently do, they wear over all a ſhort cloak, which is commonly covered with furs, both within and without. The people of the beſt quality wear ſables, and others the ſkins of tygers, leopards, &c. The peaſants uſually wear a ſheep-ſkin with the wool on, for their winter dreſs; but in ſummer, a thick coarſe cloth, and inſtead of boots, wear buſkins and ſhoes made of the bark of trees; but as to linnen, they wear none at all.

The habit of the women comes very near to that of the men, only people of quality affect the French mode of dreſs. The Poliſh ladies are amiable, witty, and ſprightly, and are paſſionately fond of plays and muſic. They are generally modeſt, and according to Dr. Conner, ſo ſubmiſſive to their huſbands, as to aſk them on the knee for what they want, and diſpoſe of no money without their conſent. Thoſe who are very rich, ſeldom go to church, or to pay a viſit, without their coach and ſix, a great number of ſervants, and particularly an old gentleman for their uſher, and an old gentlewoman for their governante, with a dwarf of both ſexes to bear up their train; and if it be night, their coach is ſurrounded by a great number of flambeaux.

Theſe people have long been celebrated for their courage, their ſtrength, and their longevity; no country in the world affording more extraordinary proofs of bodily vigour, and an uninterrupted flow of health, which are juſtly aſcribed to the temperature of the climate, their inuring themſelves to manly exerciſes, and the continual uſe of the cold bath, even in the coldeſt parts of Poland: this laſt is ſuppoſed to contribute greatly to that muſcular ſtrength for which they are remarkable.

The nobility are open, affable, liberal, and hoſpitable, polite to ſtrangers, rigid to their dependents, punctilious in point of honour, vain, oſtentatious, and magnificent in their apparel, equipage, and manner of living: for ſome of the wealthy will have forty ſuits of cloaths as rich as poſſible. Though the Poles are paſſionately fond of liberty, they live in a perpetual ſtate of ſervitude to their profuſion and neceſſities, which frequently make them ſtoop to be the tools of ſome political faction. The conſtitution of Poland has been the ſource of continual misfortunes, yet the nobility are attached to it to a degree of enthuſiaſm, and eſpecially to thoſe parts of it which produce the greateſt inconveniencies. Poor in the midſt of a fertile country, they abhor the notion of improving their circumſtances by trade, and are, perhaps, the only people upon earth who have provided by law againſt raiſing a maritime power. Prodigality and debauchery are ſaid not to be reputed vices among this martial nobility: they borrow without intention of paying, with the ſame freedom that they ſquander. Conſtant in their friendſhips, bitter in their enmity, open to impoſition, unſuſpicious, opinionated, and haughty, their only care is to diſtinguiſh themſelves in arms, in finery, equipage, and ſplendor.

As to the vulgar, they are mean, mercenary, ignorant, indolent, and indigent to an extreme. This is the character given by ſeveral authors of the Poles in general, as the diſtinguiſhing features of that people; but it is not to doubted, that there are many exceptions to whom this character would be highly unjuſt, and who are diſtinguiſhed by their learning, their good ſenſe, and their humanity.

The Poliſh houſes chiefly conſiſt of ground rooms; for they ſeldom live above ſtairs. The dwelling houſe is uſually oppoſite the gate, the kitchens and offices on one ſide a round, or ſquare court, and their ſtables on the other; they are generally of wood; but thoſe who affect the Italian architecture, build much higher with brick or ſtone. Every nobleman has a hall or large room ſet apart for entertainments, in which is a place railed in with balluſters, in which the plate is placed, and over it a gallery for the muſic. The rooms are uſually hung with tapeſtry, and the reſt of the furniture is proportionably rich, except where they are liable to the incurſions of the Tartars, and there they have as little furniture as poſſible. The Poliſh nobility have ſeldom any gardens or orchards to their houſes, though the ſoil is extremely proper for them. But there are bagnios and ſtoves in every houſe, and the women have them ſeparate from the men. There are alſo baths in every town for the uſe of the common people, who bathe every day.

The houſes of the peaſants conſiſt only of huts built with poles in a round form, and open on the top, to let out the ſmoke. They are covered with thatch, or with boards; and as they frequently conſiſt but of one room, the people and their cattle ſleep together.

To the character that has already been given of the love of ſplendor which prevails among the Poliſh nobility, it is proper to add, that thoſe of high rank and great eſtates have their horſe and foot guards, which ſtand centry day and night at the gates of their houſes, and in their anti-chambers, and that they march before their maſter's coaches in the ſtreet. But theſe nobles never appear with ſuch ſplendor, as when they are at the general diet, where they will have four or five hundred, and ſome a thouſand guards to attend them; for they eſteem themſelves not only equal but ſuperior to any of the German princes: and indeed, they want little to diſtinguiſh them from ſovereigns in their reſpective diſtricts, but the privilege of coining money.

When they ſit down to dinner, or ſupper, they have their trumpets and other muſic playing, and a great number of gentlemen to wait on them at table, ſome to carve, others to ſerve their wine and place the diſhes, all ſerving with the moſt profound reſpect; for though the nobility of Poland are all ſaid to be equal, as having votes in the diet, yet wealth will ever create a diſtinction, and the nobles who are poor frequently find themſelves under the neceſſity of ſerving them that are rich. Their patron indeed uſually treats them with civility, and permits the eldeſt to eat with him at his table with his cap off, and every one of them has his peaſant-boy to wait on him, maintained by the maſter of the family. Yet if any of theſe noble ſervants neglects his duty, ſo little regard is paid to his quality, that he is ſtripped naked and whipped, and this is reckoned no diſgrace; but if a nobleman ſhould apply himſelf to trade, he would be deemed infamous.

Their ordinary food is beef or veal, mutton being little eſteemed; but they have plenty of wild-fowl and river-fiſh. Though they have ſuch plenty of corn, they eat but little bread, preferring roots to it, which they dreſs different ways. They are not fond of ſoup and broth, nor do they roaſt their meat too much: they are general admirers of pig and bacon; peaſe are alſo eſteemed a genteel diſh by the great. In their ſauces they uſe a great quantity of ſaffron and ſpices; for they ſeaſon their diſhes high: they are alſo fond of muſhrooms and pickled cabbage.

At an entertainment the Poles lay neither knives, forks, nor ſpoons, but every perſon brings them with him; and they no ſooner ſit down to table than all the doors are ſhut, and not opened till the company return home. Thoſe who are invited, bring their ſervants with them; and it is ſaid to be no uncommon thing for a nobleman to give his ſervant part of his meat, which he eats as he ſtands behind him, and to let him drink out of the ſame cup with himſelf; but this is the leſs extraordinary, if it be conſidered, that theſe ſervants are eſteemed his equal. Though there are uſually great plenty of

proviſions,

proviſions, very little is left for the reſt of the family, it being ſeized by the ſervants of the viſitors, who have a napkin in order to carry off the ſweetmeats for their ladies. After the cloth is taken away the gentlemen uſually ſit down to drinking, and after the ladies are retired, ſmoak tobacco; for the other ſex are not excluded from their feaſts. Bumpers are much in faſhion, both here and in Ruſſia; nor will they eaſily excuſe any perſon from pledging them.

Their uſual drink is beer, which in Poliſh Pruſſia they make only of malt; but in other parts of Poland of wheat ground. In Lithuania, and ſeveral other provinces of Poland, they have mead and metheglin; and at Warſaw they frequently mix the juice of cherries, blackberries, &c. with their honey, upon which the liquor receives different names. But beſides beer and mead produced in the country, great quantities of wine are imported from Hungary, France, Spain, Italy, and Germany. That of Hungary is ſaid to exceed the Spaniſh in ſtrength, and is brought over the Carpathian mountains in large caſks drawn upon carriages by oxen, which makes it very dear, the beſt ſort being ſold for twenty ſhillings the Poliſh pot, which is three quarts. The Italian wines come alſo over land; but are not much drank. The French and Rheniſh wines come by the way of the Baltic to Dantzic. Their ſtrong waters and ſpirits are drawn from wheat, barley, oats, and cyder; but theſe are chiefly drank by the common people, though ſometimes the nobility will drink them in winter, when impregnated with anniſeeds, cinnamon, and other ſpices.

The people are in general ſo extremely hardy, that the boys ſlide naked on the ice: the Poles will ſleep upon the ground without a bed in froſt and ſnow, and carry about their young infants naked in the ſevereſt weather. Hunting and feats of horſemanſhip are the diverſions of the great; and leaping, vaulting, and dancing, are alſo favourite diverſions.

The uſual method of travelling is on horſeback; for a Poliſh nobleman will ſcarce walk a ſtone's throw in a town without his horſe; but as it is a champaign country, a calaſh and a pair of horſes are very much uſed on a journey.

There are very few inns upon the roads, and in thoſe a traveller meets with he can ſeldom find any thing to eat; hence he is obliged to buy proviſions in the towns, and carry them with his baggage. This inconvenience is ſaid to be owing to a want of honeſty in the natives when they travel; and the inn-keepers never make any extraordinary proviſion, from their finding by experience that their gueſts are ſeldom diſpoſed to make any returns for their entertainment.

The Poliſh language is derived from the old Sclavonic; yet differs extremely from all the other languages derived from the ſame ſource.

High Dutch is very much ſpoke in Poland; and indeed the Germans firſt introduced into Poland a taſte for learning, opened the channels of commerce, built ſeveral towns, and raiſed them to a flouriſhing condition: for Caſimir the Great, ſenſible of the advantages Poland might reap from German colonies, invited them to ſettle in this kingdom by the greateſt encouragements, granting them the moſt improveable ſpots in Poland, and permitting them to be governed by their own laws.

The Latin tongue is likewiſe commonly ſpoken in Poland, even by the lower claſs of people; but without the leaſt regard to accent, quantity, or purity of language.

Dr. Buſching obſerves, that from the time of king Sigiſmond I. to the reign of Uladiſlaus IV. was the interval when arts and ſciences flouriſhed moſt in Poland. Since that æra the Poliſh muſes ſeem to have drooped and languiſhed: however, they now begin to revive; for at preſent the purity and elegance of the Poliſh and Latin tongues are ſtudied, the new philoſophy is introduced, the mathematics are taught, and natural philoſophy flouriſhes in Poland. The learned in this country alſo apply themſelves to the ſtudy of the hiſtory of Poland, which they cultivate and improve, and endeavour to make the good writers of former ages better known, and uſe of to the preſent; and for this purpoſe the library of count Zaluſki, at Warſaw, opens an inexhauſtible treaſure of antient authors.

The Greek language alſo begins to be ſtudied in Poland, and literary correſpondences are carried on with learned foreigners; but the preſs has not yet produced ſo many books as in other countries.

Poland exports none of its manufactures, its commodities being carried out of the country unwrought. Dr. Buſching obſerves, that religious bigotry is of infinite detriment to the trade and commerce of Poland, which, notwithſtanding all its natural advantages, has been long gradually ſinking into poverty. The Poles, indeed, export grain of all kinds, maſts, deal-boards, ſhip and houſe timber, pitch, flax, hemp, linſeed, hops, honey, wax, hides, horned cattle, tallow, leather dreſſed in the Ruſſian manner, pot-aſh, horſes, and other home commodities: but theſe are much over-balanced by the imports, as wine, that of Hungary alone, annually carrying vaſt ſums out of the kingdom; the other articles of commerce imported are ſpices, plate, copper, braſs, and ſteel.

SECT. III.

Of the different Claſſes of the People; the Privileges of the Nobles, and the Slavery of the Peaſants; with a conciſe Account of the Nature of the Wealth of the Poles.

THE Poles, when conſidered as members of the community, are either nobles or citizens, under which claſs are included merchants, artiſts, and mechanics; or peaſants, who are moſtly vaſſals to the nobles.

The Poliſh nobility have from time immemorial reſided in the country; for every nobleman lives in his own village, ſeat, or caſtle; manages his eſtate by his vaſſals, or hired ſervants; and maintains himſelf and family by agriculture, breeding of bees, grazing, and hunting. Some of the nobility alſo ſpend part of their time in cities and towns.

Though Poland has its princes, counts, and barons, yet the whole body of the nobility are naturally on a level, except the difference that ariſes from the poſts ſome of them enjoy. Hence all who are of noble birth call one another brothers. They enjoy many conſiderable privileges, and, indeed, the boaſted Poliſh liberty is properly limited to them alone; for they have the power of life and death over their vaſſals, who on that account groan under an oppreſſive ſlavery. Beſides, every nobleman is abſolute lord of his eſtates; ſo that the king can require no ſubſidy from him, nor is he obliged to maintain or find quarter for any ſoldiers. If a foreigner dies on a nobleman's eſtate in Poland, without leaving any heirs, his effects fall to the lord of the manor; but on the deceaſe of a nobleman without heirs, his eſtate does not fall to the king, while there are any perſons living who are related in the eighth degree to the deceaſed; and if a nobleman dies without heirs, or any ſuch relations, the king can appropriate his eſtate to himſelf; but is obliged to beſtow it on ſome other nobleman of merit.

The houſe of a nobleman is a ſecure aſylum for perſons who have committed any crime; for none muſt preſume to take them from thence by force; and even the judges in the towns dare not cauſe a nobleman's vaſſal to be arreſted, or his effects to be ſeized; nor can any magiſtrate, not even the king himſelf, cauſe a nobleman to be arreſted, without ſignifying the crime of which he is accuſed, and giving a previous citation, except he be a robber, and has been three times impeached by his aſſociates, or be ſurpriſed in the commiſſion of a crime; or laſtly, when he cannot or will not put in bail.

All eccleſiaſtical dignities and civil poſts are to be held only by the nobility, and they alone are qualified to be proprietors of eſtates, except the burghers of the cities of Thorn, Cracow, Vilna, Lemberg, and Lublin, who have the privilege of purchaſing lands. Any nobleman may purchaſe a houſe and live in a city or town, but he muſt then ſubmit to ſerve municipal offices; and if he be concerned in trade or commerce, he forfeits the privileges of a noble Pole. Every nobleman has not only a vote in the election of a king, but is even qualified to wear

the crown, if he be raiſed to it by the free choice of the reſt of the nobility. All civil cauſes relating to the nobility are tried in the provincial courts of judicature; but if a nobleman commences a ſuit with the farmers of the royal domains, a commiſſorial court is appointed to terminate the diſpute.

Nothing can be more abject than the peaſants of Poland. If one lord kills the peaſant of another, he is not capitally convicted, but only obliged to make reparation, by another peaſant equal in value. The peaſants have no property, and all their acquiſitions ſerve only to enrich the maſter. They are indiſpenſably obliged to cultivate the earth; they are incapable of entering upon any condition of life that might procure them freedom, without the permiſſion of their lords; and they are expoſed to the diſmal and frequently fatal effects of the caprice, cruelty, and barbarity of their tyrannical maſters, who oppreſs them with impunity, and having the power of life and property in their hands, too often abuſe it in the moſt groſs and wanton manner, their wives and daughters being expoſed to the moſt brutal treatment.

According to Mr. Hauteville, a nobleman who is deſirous of cultivating a piece of land, builds a little wooden houſe, in which he ſettles a peaſant and his family, giving him a cow, two horſes, a certain number of geeſe, hens, &c. and as much corn as is ſufficient to maintain him the firſt year, and to improve for his own future ſubſiſtence, and the advantage of his lord. In return, he obliges him to till a particular quantity of land, and to pay a number of live animals out of the produce of the original ſtock.

In autumn all the peaſants are employed in cutting down and reaping the maſter's harveſt, who appoints overſeers to reward the diligent, and puniſh the indolent with ſtripes. Pillories are erected in every village, on which theſe wretched beings are obliged to ſtand a whole day, for crimes of a very trivial nature.

One bleſſing, however, attends the wretched ſituation of the Poliſh peaſants, which is their inſenſibility. Born ſlaves, and accuſtomed from their infancy to hardſhips and ſevere labour, they ſcarce entertain an idea of better circumſtances and more liberty. They regard their maſters as a ſuperior order of beings, and hardly ever repine at that ſevere lot which has deprived them of all the comforts of life, in order to heap them upon a cruel, deſpotic, and unworthy tyrant. They ſeldom want for proviſions, and think that a man can never be very wretched while he has any thing to eat. Our author adds, a total want of ſentiment, and of mental enjoyments, prevail through the whole order, as if Providence had wiſely mixed the ſtupifying drop, to render more tolerable the nauſeous draught of ſervitude.

This is the boaſted liberty of the Poles, in which the multitude are reduced to the moſt abject ſlavery; and thoſe who enjoy eſtates, though ever ſo ſmall, are allowed the privilege of being tyrants, and have greater power over their vaſſals, than God ever gave to kings. But now let us take a view of the property of the great, and ſee in what their wealth conſiſts.

Every Poliſh noble muſt be poſſeſſed either of an eſtate in land, a ſhare in the ſalt-works, or the revenues of the city of Dantzic, which are eſteemed equivalent to an eſtate in land. The Poliſh eſtates in general may be divided into royal, eccleſiaſtical, or patrimonial. The greateſt number of them conſiſt in ſtaroſties, which muſt be given away by the king ſix months after a vacancy, and are regarded as the rights of old military officers, and the reward of their paſt ſervices, the word ſtaroſt ſignifying old age. Each ſtaroſta pays a fourth of his revenue to the republic.

The eccleſiaſtical eſtates conſiſt of biſhoprics, benefices, priories, canonries, and all the land poſſeſſed by the regular clergy, which is of vaſt extent. Some of the biſhoprics exceed five thouſand pounds ſterling a year, which is an immenſe ſum of money in a country that does not abound in ſpecie.

The patrimonial eſtates compoſe the ſolid wealth of the Poliſh nobility, they being entirely independent of the court, and deſcend by inheritance from generation to generation. Theſe conſiſt of lands, houſes, towns, villages, woods, and eſpecially peaſants, which are valued as the ſlaves in our colonies, at ſo much a head, according to their age, ſtrength, and conſtitution. They are in general reckoned worth a hundred livres each a year, to the maſter, and have only one chance for becoming free, by entering into orders, and enrolling themſelves in the long catalogue of prieſts and friars, for which a very ſmall degree of learning is neceſſary: but as it is for the intereſt of the maſter to diſqualify them, he obliges them to marry when young, and by this means not only preſerves, but increaſes his wealth, by the multiplication of the ſpecies.

SECT. IV.

Of the State of Religion in Poland.

THE Poles were firſt converted from idolatry to the Chriſtian religion, about the year 964; when St. Adelbert, afterwards archbiſhop of Gneſna, was the inſtrument of this revolution; and the arts of the church of Rome have, ſince that time, kept the Poliſh government firmly in the intereſt of the Romiſh pontiff. Hence popery is the national religion; for none but perſons of that perſuaſion are permitted to ſit in the ſenate, riſe to eminence in the army, or preſide in the courts of juſtice; yet the government tolerates Lutherans, Calviniſts, Jews, Armenians, and Greeks.

Formerly Poland had a number of Proteſtants of many different ſorts, which were eſtabliſhed there ſoon after the Reformation, when above half the nobility of the kingdom became Socinians, and the palatine of Podolia erected a printing-houſe, and founded an academy for their uſe; but they were expelled by John Caſimir in 1658. The bulk of the Proteſtants now reſide in Poliſh Pruſſia, at Dantzic, Elbing, Thorn, and Marienburg, where they enjoy privileges which are not granted in any of the other provinces.

Indeed, the Lutherans, Calviniſts, and Greeks, by the treaties concluded with the Proteſtant powers, and particularly the conſtitution of 1717, are promiſed ſecurity as to their effects, and an equality with the other ſubjects as to their perſons. The Proteſtants therefore, by virtue of the above articles, have frequently ſolicited for the free exerciſe of their religion, and the Proteſtant powers have intereſted themſelves in their behalf, which has procured them many fair promiſes that have not been fulfilled. On the contrary, a great number of their churches have actually been taken from them, or demoliſhed; and with reſpect to theſe diſſenters from the eſtabliſhed church, the laws of juſtice and equity have been violated; ſo that they have now only twenty-two churches in the cities and towns, and ſixty-five in the villages of Poland. The Greeks are alſo no leſs oppreſſed; yet the Jews, before the preſent reign, were indulged with great privileges; and this country is ſtiled the paradiſe of that people. An old Poliſh general, who was a native of Germany, ſays, that there are at leaſt two millions of Jews only in the villages of Poland, excluſive of the great numbers in the towns. Their annual capitation amounts to two hundred and twenty thouſand Poliſh guilders in the kingdom of Poland, and a hundred and twenty thouſand in Lithuania, amounting in the whole to fifty-ſix thouſand ſix hundred and ſixty-ſix rix-dollars, which they pay above the general impoſts and taxes.

The king is here ſtiled Orthodoxus, as a title of honour, and St. Florian and St. Adalbert are worſhipped as the patron ſaints of Poland.

The number of monaſteries in this kingdom amounts to five hundred and ſeventy-ſix, and of nunneries to one hundred and ſeventeen, beſides two hundred and forty-ſix ſeminaries or colleges, and thirty-one abbeys. The clergy are even poſſeſſed of two-thirds of the lands and revenues of the kingdom.

The monks of Poland are wealthy, profligate, and debauched in their manners; they are often ſeen drunk, and led from taverns, without apprehending any diſgrace to their order, or dreading the cenſure of their ſuperiors, who require equal indulgence. Their faſts conſiſt in abſtaining from eggs, milk, and boiled fiſh at night. But though no clergy on earth are ſo attached to the ſee of Rome

Rome as the Poliſh, yet they prefer good living even to the opinion of the pope, and therefore confine their abſtinence from animal food wholly to the evening.

The ſecular clergy admit of pluralities, and hold profitable benefices in the moſt diſtant parts of the kingdom, without being ever ſuppoſed to perform any of the duties of their office. A canon gives two-pence to a poor ſcholar or a monk, for going through the drudgery of the maſs, as his ſubſtitute. Even the biſhops are ſaid to be ſo negligent about the due execution of epiſcopal duties, that they are forced to wink at the enormities of their inferiors; yet the few clergy who attend the duties of their profeſſion have all the appearance of piety, and the laity make up for every other deficiency by their bounty to the church. They will grind the face of the poor to found a monaſtery, cheat and defraud in order to enrich an altar. In theſe particulars Poland is now what the more civilized nations of Europe were two centuries ago. All their churches are built by donations: they are in general rich and magnificent, and the jeſuits at Leopold have a chalice ſet with jewels, ſaid to be worth a million of livres. So zealous are the Poles in the catholic faith, that they draw their ſwords at maſs, to ſhew their readineſs to defend their religion by ſlaughtering its oppoſers.

As to the erudition of the clergy, a late author obſerves, it entirely conſiſts in that ſpecies of ſophiſtry called ſchool divinity, in an unmeaning metaphyſical jargon, and the moſt uſeleſs logical diſtinctions. The divines pride themſelves in adapting the metaphyſics of Ariſtotle to the doctrines of Chriſtianity, by which they render the latter as unintelligible as the former. They pay no regard to church hiſtory, but ſolve every difficulty by the affirmations of the Stagyrite, and the deciſions of the pontiff. In a word, they are ignorant, obſtinate, opinionated, and ſuperſtitious.

SECT. V.

Of the political Conſtitution of Poland. The very limited Power of the King; the general Contents of the Pacta Conventa; the Ceremonies of the Coronation; the arms of Poland; and the Badge of the Knights of the White Eagle.

THE political conſtitution of Poland is ſo extremely ſingular, that it bears no reſemblance to any other government, ancient or modern. The people have a ſovereign, and yet the government is with great propriety called a republic. The reader has ſeen that the nobility of this country have greater power than thoſe of any other, yet they deteſt the thoughts of an ariſtocracy; becauſe they all eſteem themſelves upon a level, each Poliſh nobleman or gentleman conſidering himſelf as inferior to none but the monarch.

The republic is compoſed of the king, the ſenate, and the nobility, the peaſants being admitted to no ſhare of the government. Upon every new election the royal prerogative has been retrenched, and the liberties of the diet and ſenate proportionably extended. This idea of independency is carried ſo far, as to hazard the general ſecurity of the kingdom, the monarch not being permitted to garriſon even the moſt remote and neceſſary frontier towns; whence Poland has in all ages been made a kind of public route for the paſſage of hoſtile armies.

Upon the death of the ſovereign, the whole body of the nobility aſſemble on horſeback for the choice of a ſucceſſor, and their unanimous voice conſtitutes a legitimate election; though there have been inſtances, where a majority have been deemed ſufficient. Here the nobility aſſume a power of altering the government, and impoſing ſuch conditions on the new monarch as they think proper, and theſe they call the Pacta Conventa. This contract is drawn up, methodized and approved by the ſenate and nobility, after which it is read aloud to the king by the great marſhal, and he ſwears to perform it before the ceremony of his proclamation. As this contract may be deemed the barrier of the privileges of the Poles againſt the encroachments of the crown, we ſhall here enumerate the principal articles.

The firſt is, that the king ſhall not attempt to incroach on the liberty of the people, by rendering the crown hereditary in his family, but ſhall preſerve all the laws and cuſtoms relating to the freedom of election: that he ſhall ratify all the treaties ſubſiſting with foreign powers which are approved by the diet: that he ſhall ſtudy to cultivate peace, preſerve the public tranquility, and promote the intereſt of the realm: that he ſhall not coin money, except in the republic's name, nor appropriate to himſelf the advantage ariſing from coinage: that he ſhall neither declare war, conclude peace, levy troops, hire auxiliaries, or admit foreign troops into the Poliſh dominions, without the conſent of the diet and ſenate: that all offices and preferments ſhall be given to the natives of Poland and Lithuania, and that no pretence ſhall excuſe the crime of introducing foreigners into the king's council or the departments of the republic: that the officers of his majeſty's guards ſhall be Poles or Lithuanians, and that the colonel ſhall be a native of Poland, and of the order of nobility: that all the officers ſhall be ſubordinate to the authority of the marſhal: that no individual ſhall be veſted with more employments than the law allows: that the king ſhall not marry without the approbation of the ſenate, and that the republic ſhall regulate the houſhold of the queen: that the ſovereign ſhall never apply his private ſignet to acts and papers of a public nature: that, on the other hand, the king ſhall diſpoſe of the offices both of the court and of the republic: that he ſhall regulate with the ſenate the number of forces neceſſary for the defence of the kingdom, and adminiſter juſtice by the advice of the ſenate and council: that the expences of his civil liſt ſhall be the ſame with thoſe of his predeceſſors, and poſſeſſed by his family only during his life: that he ſhall fill up all vacancies in the ſpace of ſix weeks: that this ſhall be his firſt buſineſs in the diet, obliging the chancellor to publiſh his appointments in due form: that the king ſhall not diminiſh the treaſure kept at Cracow, but endeavour to augment that and the number of the crown jewels: that he ſhall neither borrow money, nor equip a naval force, without the conſent and full approbation of the republic: that he ſhall profeſs, promote, and defend the Roman catholic faith through all the Poliſh dominions; and finally, that all their ſeveral liberties, rights, and privileges, ſhall be preſerved to the Poles and Lithuanians in general, and to all the diſtricts and provinces within each of theſe great diviſions, without change, or the ſmalleſt violation, except by the conſent of the republic. To theſe articles a variety of others are added, according to the circumſtances and humour of the diet; but the above are the ſtanding conditions, which are ſcarce ever altered or omitted.

The king ſwears to obſerve the Pacta Conventa upon his knees at the altar in the following manner: "We ***, "elected king of Poland, and great duke of Lithuania, "Ruſſia, Pruſſia, Maſſovia, Samogitia, Kihovia, Vol-"hinia, Podolia, Podlaſſia, Livonia, Smolenſko, Sibe-"ria, and Czernicovia, promiſe before the Almighty "God, and ſwear upon the holy evangeliſts of Jeſus "Chriſt, to obſerve, maintain, and fulfil all the condi-"tions ſtipulated at our election by our ambaſſadors with "the ſenators and deputies of Poland, and of the great "dutchy of Lithuania, and confirmed by our plenipo-"tentiaries; and to execute the ſame in all the clauſes, "points, articles, and conditions ſpecified in that con-"tract, in ſuch a manner, that the *ſpeciality* ſhall not de-"rogate from the *generality*; nor, on the contrary, the "*univerſality* from the *particularity*; all which we pro-"miſe ſolemnly to ratify on the day of our coronation."

Though the king is without exception acknowledged to be their ſovereign, yet he cannot exerciſe the functions of ſovereignty before his coronation. The ſpace between the election and coronation is a kind of interregnum, though he is veſted with all the badges and external pomp of majeſty. During this period the marſhal, in all proceſſions, carries his ſtaff bent downwards before the king; but after the coronation it is always held erect. This is to ſhew that the election is imperfect till it be ratified by the coronation, previous to which the king can neither diſpoſe of offices or benefices, grant favours of any kind as a ſovereign, nor apply the great ſeal to any act or ordinance. He appoints the day for performing

his coronation, which is uſually on that ſucceeding the funeral obſequies of his predeceſſor. All imaginable magnificence is obſerved on this occaſion, and a foreigner, unacquainted with the Poliſh conſtitution, would naturally conclude, that a monarch who aſcended the throne with ſuch pomp and ſplendor, was inveſted with very extenſive prerogatives.

When the coronation-day approaches, the king makes his entry into Cracow on horſeback, with a canopy of ſtate carried before him. The troops, both horſe and foot, march before with their officers, and are followed by the palatines, biſhops, and ambaſſadors on horſeback; while a man, who rides before, ſcatters ſome ſmall pieces of ſilver, ſtamped with the effigies of the new king; who is thus conducted from the city gate to the caſtle, paſſing through the public ſquare, in which are ſeveral triumphal arches. On the day that precedes the coronation, the body of the deceaſed king is carried in great ſtate to the church of St. Staniſlaus, at Shalka, where the marſhals break their ſtaves, and the chancellors their ſeals, againſt the king's coffin. The new king, with all his courtiers, and the officers of the crown, are preſent at this ceremony. The companies of tradeſmen even walk thither bare-foot in proceſſion, each having the repreſentation of a coffin covered with a pall, ſupported by two men; after which the corpſe is brought back to the chapel of the cathedral of Cracow, where are the ſepulchres of their kings.

The next day the coronation is performed in the cathedral of Cracow, to which the king is conducted in ſolemn ſtate by the ſenate, and the reſt of the nobility. The regalia are placed upon the altar, and the biſhops of Cracow and Cujavia preſent the king to the archbiſhop of Gneſna, to whom he bows, and then all the three prelates remind him of his duty; after which he kiſſes the archbiſhop's hand, kneels, lays his hand on the goſpels, and again ſwears to the Pacta Conventa; to which is added, that if he ſhould violate his oath, or any part of it, the ſubjects ſhall be diſcharged from their obedience and oath of fidelity. Then receiving the benediction of the primate, and other biſhops, his upper garment is taken off, and the primate anoints his right hand and arm up to the elbow, and alſo his ſhoulders and forehead with conſecrated oil, ſaying, "In the name of the Father, of "the Son, and of the Holy Ghoſt."

The king is then led to the chapel, where he is dreſſed much like a biſhop, and has other ornaments put on him by the marſhals of the kingdom and dutchy, in which he hears maſs on a throne erected in the midſt of the church; and afterwards goes to the altar, where the archbiſhop, putting a drawn ſword into his right hand, ſays, "Receive this ſword, and cordially protect and de-"fend the holy church againſt all unbelievers." The ſword-bearer then puts it up in the ſcabbard, and returns it to the archbiſhop, who girds it to the king's ſide: but his majeſty drawing it, waves it ſeveral times over his head. The king then kneels, and the archbiſhop places on his head the crown, which is ſupported by the biſhops of Cracow and Cujavia. After ſome prayers, the archbiſhop puts the ſcepter into the king's right hand, and the globe of gold into his left. The primate and two archbiſhops then lead the king back to the throne, in which the archbiſhop places him, ſaying, "Sit and "maintain the place God has given thee." The king returns again to the altar, and Te Deum being ſung, his majeſty kiſſes the archbiſhop's hand, offers him gold, confeſſes, receives the ſacrament, and the biſhop's benediction; after which the court-marſhal cries out ſeveral times, Vivat Rex, and the treaſurer of the kingdom ſcatters money among the people in the church.

The next day the king goes in great pomp to the town-houſe, with the regalia carried before him, and the great treaſurer again throws medals of gold and ſilver among the people. His majeſty being there placed on a throne, receives the homage and oaths of the diet, &c. on their knees, and the magiſtrates of the cities preſent him with the keys of their gates in a ſilver diſh, and a purſe full of ducats; after which he reſtores the keys, and makes ſome of the burghers of the city knights, by ſtriking them gently on the ſhoulder with his drawn ſword.

As the king is obliged by the Pacta Conventa to conſult his people with reſpect to marriage, ſo their conſent is neceſſary to the diſſolution of the nuptial engagement; for he can neither divorce the queen, nor ſeparate from her bed, without the approbation of the diet, unleſs he was married before his election. Her majeſty has no diſtinct houſhold, except a marſhal, a chancellor, and ſome inferior domeſtics. She is furniſhed with money by the king to defray the expences of the civil liſt; and, with reſpect to her domeſtic œconomy, is little more than his houſekeeper or ſteward. The king's whole revenue for the ſupport of his regal dignity does not exceed four hundred thouſand crowns; excluſive of which there is a maintenance for the queen-dowager, his conſort, and children, in caſe of his death; though the latter are denied the privilege enjoyed by other ſubjects, of riſing to places of truſt and profit, leſt this ſhould give them an aſcendant in future elections.

The arms of the republic are, gules, an eagle argent, for Poland; and gules, a cavalier argent, for Lithuania.

In the year 1705, king Auguſtus II. inſtituted the order of the white eagle; whoſe enſign is a croſs of gold enamelled with red, with a white border, and four flames between the points, appendant to a blue ribbon. On one ſide of the badge is the Poliſh white eagle, with a white croſs and the electoral ſword, &c. on its breaſt; on the other ſide the king's cypher, and round it this motto, PRO FIDE, REGE, ET LEGE. The croſs is ſurrounded with a crown ſet with diamonds.

SECT. VI.

Of the Senate of Poland.

THE moſt reſpectable part of the Poliſh government is the ſenate, which is compoſed of the biſhops, palatines, caſtellans, and ten officers of ſtate, who derive a right from their dignities of ſitting in that aſſembly, amounting in all to a hundred and forty-four members, who are ſtiled ſenators of the kingdom, or counſellors of ſtate, and have the title of excellency, a dignity ſupported by no penſion or emoluments neceſſarily annexed to it. The ſenate preſides over the laws, is the guardian of liberty, the judge of right, and the protector of juſtice and equity.

The members are nominated by the king, and take an oath to the republic, before they are permitted to enter upon their office. Their honour continues for life, and at the general diet they are ſeated on the right and left of the ſovereign, according to their dignity. They are the mediators between the monarch and the ſubject, and, in conjunction with his majeſty, ratify all the laws paſſed by the nobility. The value they ſet on their dignity makes them deſpiſe all other honours, and they have even rejected the titles offered them by the emperor of Germany. As a ſenator is bound by oath to maintain the liberties of the republic, it is thought no diſreſpect to majeſty to remind him of his duty; for as they are his counſellors, this freedom of ſpeech is an inſeparable prerogative of their office.

All the biſhops are ſenators, and precede the ſecular members: they are only thirteen in number, beſides two titular biſhops of places ſeized by the Turks and Ruſſians; but ſtill the titular honours are retained, and eagerly ſought after, becauſe they give them a right to ſit in the ſenate. The archbiſhop of Gneſna is ſeated at their head, and is ſecond only to the monarch; he is alſo apoſtolical legate by his office, and enjoys ſuch variety of privileges as gives him extraordinary weight, not only in the ſenate, but in the common-wealth; for it is a capital crime even to draw a ſword, or to ſpeak irreverently in his preſence. During the inter-regnum he has the power, under certain reſtrictions, of coining money: he convokes the ſenate; and oppoſes the conduct of the monarch whenever he acts contrary to the conſtitution: his marſhal is a ſenator, and the croſs is carried before him. When the primate viſits the king, he is met at the bottom of the ſtairs of the palace by one of the chief officers of the crown; another great officer attends him at the top of the ſtairs, and conducts him to the royal preſence, while

while the king advances to meet him at the door. He receives the viſits of ambaſſadors without being expected to return their civilities. He is the head and ſovereign of the republic during a vacancy of the throne. He likewiſe regulates the diet of election, iſſues out writs for holding the general and petty diets, and performs ſeveral other acts of ſovereignty, aſſiſted only by the ſenate, the members of which rather compoſe his council, than are his collegues. The Poles probably annexed theſe extraordinary privileges to the primate rather than to any lay ſenator, from their being ſecured by his religious character from his aſpiring after the crown.

The office of palatine is to march at the head of the nobility of his palatinate, and in time of peace to aſſemble the nobility, to preſide in the courts of judicature, and pronounce ſentence; to ſettle the price of goods brought to market, except in war-time, and during the ſeſſion of a diet; to examine weights and meaſures, and to protect and adminiſter juſtice to the Jews. Theſe palatines amount to thirty-ſeven, including the three caſtellans and the ſtaroſta of Samogitia, who rank with the palatines.

There are eighty-two caſtellans, who in time of peace are only ſenators, without any juriſdiction; but in time of war they, by general ſummons, act as palatines, and are in ſome meaſure their lieutenants. In the Poliſh language a caſtellan is ſtiled pan, or lord, and ki, or ſki, is added to the place over which each is caſtellan, as pan Poſnanſki, lord of Poſnan. They are divided into great or little caſtellans. The great caſtellans are admitted into the moſt ſecret councils, from which the others are ſometimes excluded.

The crown officers are, the crown great-marſhal, the great-chancellor, the vice-chancellor, the great-treaſurer, the deputy-treaſurer, and the court-marſhal of Poland, and all the ſame officers of Lithuania.

Though theſe ſtate officers are the laſt of the ſenators in order, yet they are perſons of great power and dignity, and in a fair way of riſing to the higheſt poſts in the kingdom.

SECT. VII.

Of the Poliſh Diet.

WE now come to the diet of Poland, which is compoſed of the king, the ſenate, and deputies of the nobility of every palatinate; and is uſually held on two accounts, either to conſider of the reſolutions of the ſenate relating to the public welfare, or for the adminiſtration of juſtice, which are the moſt uſual diets.

The king may aſſemble the diet at any particular place, except on occaſion of a coronation, which, according to the cuſtom of the country, muſt be celebrated at the capital. Indeed for a number of years the diet regularly aſſembled at Warſaw; but, on complaint made by the Lithuanians, it was agreed, that every third diet ſhould be held at Grodno. The general rule is to meet at leaſt once in three years. When it is propoſed to hold a general diet, the king, or, in caſe of an interregnum, the primate, iſſues writs to the palatines of the ſeveral provinces, appointing the time and place of meeting. A ſketch is alſo ſent of the buſineſs to be deliberated upon by the aſſembly, and the members are allowed ſix weeks to prepare for the intended ſeſſion.

It is remarkable that the diet never ſits above ſix weeks, even in the moſt critical conjunctures and preſſing emergencies; and they have been known to break up in the midſt of an important debate, and to leave the buſineſs to a future meeting. This has been juſtly eſteemed one of the great defects of the conſtitution of Poland: it probably owes its origin to convenience; but is kept up from whim and caprice.

On recepit of the king's writ, the palatine communicates the meeting of the diet to all the officers and nobility within his juriſdiction, requiring them to aſſemble on a certain day, to elect deputies, and take into conſideration the buſineſs mentioned in the royal ſummons. Theſe meetings are called petty diets, every gentleman poſſeſſing three acres of land having a vote, and matters being determined by a majority; but in the general diet decrees are only valued when the whole body is unanimous. Theſe indigent nobles are always directed by ſome perſon of ſuperior fortune, influence, or ability, and ſeldom examine the ſubject of the debate; but remit it wholly to the judgment of their repreſentatives. Every palatinate has three repreſentatives; but the buſineſs devolves upon one of them, who is elected for his ability and experience, and the other two are only added to give weight to this leading member, and to do honour, by their magnificent appearance, to the palatinate they repreſent.

As theſe deputies have ſeats in the diet, the general aſſembly is divided into two bodies, the upper and the lower; the one being compoſed of the ſenate, the ſuperior clergy, and the great officers; the other of the repreſentatives of the palatinates, who prepare all buſineſs for the ſuperior body. Thus we ſee how near an affinity the general conſtitution of the Poliſh diet has to a Britiſh parliament, and to the original form of government among all the northern nations, however they may vary in particular circumſtances, and be altered by the influence of time.

The firſt buſineſs of the aſſembly is to chooſe a marſhal; upon which occaſion the debates and tumults ſometimes run ſo high, that the whole time for the ſeſſion of the diet is conſumed in altercation and wrangling about the election of a ſpeaker, who muſt be a native of Great or Little Poland, or of the dutchy of Lithuania. After his election he kiſſes the king's hand, and the chancellor, as the royal repreſentative, reports the matters to be deliberated upon by the diet. The marſhal then acquaints the king with the inſtructions of the deputies from their conſtituents, and the abuſes they require to be remedied: he likewiſe requeſts his majeſty to fill up the vacant offices and benefices according to law, and is anſwered by a ſet ſpeech from the chancellor, who reports the king's inclination to ſatisfy his people as ſoon as he has conſulted his faithful ſenate.

Some of the cuſtoms obſerved by the Poliſh diet are remarkably abſurd; not only an unanimity of voices is neceſſary to paſs any bill, and conſtitute a decree of the diet, but every bill muſt alſo be aſſented to unanimouſly, or none can take effect. Thus, if out of twenty bills one ſhould happen to be oppoſed by a ſingle voice, all the reſt are thrown out, and the diet meets, deliberates, and debates for ſix weeks to no purpoſe. Can any thing be more aſtoniſhing, than that a rule ſo contrary to the dictates of common ſenſe, and attended with ſuch fatal conſequences, ſhould continue among a people who appear far from being void of underſtanding?

The uſual form of paſſing laws and decrees is as follows: they are firſt reviſed by the marſhal, attended by two of the deputies, or elſe by three ſenators and ſix deputies, and then read in the ſenate in the king's preſence; after which the chancellor aſks, with a loud voice, whether the king, ſenators, and deputies, agree to have the bill ſanctified by the royal ſeal, and the arms of the republic. Having paſſed through theſe forms, it is lodged in the regiſter at Warſaw, or in the great chancery of the kingdom, till printed copies are made, and diſperſed among the ſeveral palatinates.

The diet takes cognizance of affairs relating to war, the concluſion of a peace, the forming alliances, the impoſition of taxes, the levying of troops, the framing of laws, and the final determination of civil and criminal cauſes; there being an appeal from all the inferior courts to the general diet. Here too foreigners are naturalized, and admitted to all the rights of the natives; and ſuch peaſants as have ſufficient wealth and ambition, are advanced to the rank of nobility.

The afflux of people occaſioned by the diet is very aſtoniſhing: wherever it happens to ſit, thirty or forty thouſand people, who rival each other in pomp and profuſion, are added to the uſual number of inhabitants. The nobility, who are not deputed, attend with their families for the ſake of pleaſure: they drink deep of Hungarian wine, their favourite liquor, and feaſting and mirth are more purſued than the buſineſs of the ſtate. Hence the deputies frequently come intoxicated into the diet, affront the king, excite tumults, harangue with the moſt abuſive and factious eloquence, and ſometimes occaſion the diſſolution of the aſſembly. Thus the ſupreme

ſenate of the nation is in fact little more than a factious maſs, conducted with the utmoſt indecorum. However, a politic prince may mould this turbulent multitude according to his pleaſure, by ſoothing, cajoling, treating, and making pecuniary preſents.

Beſides the regular triennial great diets, a particular diet meets, as hath been already hinted, on the vacancy of the throne, in a large field in the neighbourhood of Warſaw. Upon the death, depoſition, or abdication of the ſovereign, the primate, on whom the chief power devolves, iſſues circular letters, ſummoning the diet to aſſemble on an appointed day. A kind of booth of prodigious extent is erected, to ſhelter the electors from the weather, and deputies are elected in the uſual manner in the petty provincial diets. A marſhal is choſen by the nobility, who muſt be confirmed by the ſenate. Theſe laſt, with the nobility, then form an aſſociation, and enter into the moſt ſolemn engagements to adhere to the ſame intereſt; not to nominate a king till one of the candidates has obtained their unanimous conſent; to preſerve all the rights and immunities of the republic; to enter into no engagements with any of the candidates, or their ambaſſadors, till all the abuſes, irregularities, and grievances of the republic be fully redreſſed; to inſiſt upon the repeal of all the decrees, and even of the royal ſtatutes that have any tendency to encroach on public liberty; and to ſupport the court of juſtice eſtabliſhed for preſerving order, enforcing the laws, protecting the ſtate, coining money, and performing all the offices of the executive power, during the vacancy in the throne; to prohibit all ſtrangers from approaching the diet; to forbid the carrying of fire-arms to this aſſembly; to oblige the principal military officers to ſwear fidelity to the ſtate; to exert no undue influence, and to uſe the army only againſt the enemies of their country; to defend the frontiers, and ſecure the honour and liberty of Poland and the great dutchy of Lithuania; to oblige the officers alſo to ſwear, that in caſe of any ſedition or revolt they will aſſert the public intereſt, reſtrain the ſoldiers from acts of violence, and receive no money upon any pretence whatſoever from the clergy, laity, the candidates, or their ambaſſadors. They alſo engage to oblige the officers not to advance to the heart of the kingdom with their troops, nor to approach the diet; and neither to augment or diminiſh the army but by the diet's conſent. Laſtly, the treaſurers of the crown are forbid to iſſue out money without the approbation of the ſenate, except for the pay of the army.

When the marſhal is elected, and a court of juſtice is eſtabliſhed, the diet draws out a bill of grievances and abuſes, either with reſpect to the republic or to individuals, which they intend to have redreſſed. A certain number of ſenators are then deputed to the army to keep them ſteady, and to aſſiſt the generals with their advice. Senators and deputies are alſo appointed to take an inventory of the crown treaſure and jewels depoſited at Cracow, and to make their report to the diet. Eight ſenators are then charged with the treaſure, and a particular ſeal and key is given to each, that none of the keepers may ſingly have acceſs. The ſame form is obſerved with reſpect to the crown revenue.

During the ſeſſion of the electoral diet, which is limited to fourteen days without prorogation, all courts of juſtice, except that of the marſhal, are ſuſpended till the coronation is over. The next proceeding is to give orders to the plenipotentiaries of foreign powers, and the advocates of the candidates for the crown. The pope's legate is honoured with the firſt notice, as being the repreſentative of Chriſt's vicar, the ſovereign of princes; then the ambaſſador of his imperial majeſty, who is ſucceeded by thoſe of France, and other catholic powers. They make their ſpeeches in Latin, and are anſwered by the biſhop of Gneſna and the marſhal of the deputies. But in general it is not the moſt perſuaſive oratory that can gain the eſteem of a Poliſh diet: the deputies deſire more ſubſtantial arguments, and expect their paſſion for money and wine to be alſo gratified. Addreſs in this particular, and in ſecuring the intereſt of the clergy, are the chief qualities neceſſary in a candidate for the crown.

Immediately before they proceed to the election, public prayers are read, and the whole diet join with one voice to beſeech heaven to direct their choice, and judge them according to their integrity in an affair of ſuch conſequence to the republic; a proceeding that muſt appear equally abſurd and impious to thoſe foreign miniſters who have purchaſed their votes. The deputies of each palatinate give their votes in particular *rotas*, the archbiſhop alone preſerving his ſeat. The firſt ſenator of every palatinate numbers the votes, which are afterwards tranſmitted in a roll to the nuncio-marſhal. Should all the votes prove unanimous in favour of one candidate, the primate aſks three times, with a loud voice, whether the grievances have been redreſſed, and then proclaims the king, the marſhals of the crown and dutchy of Lithuania obſerving the ſame ceremonies. In caſe of a conteſted election, the ſenate aſſembled in a particular part of the booth endeavour, by perſuaſions, promiſes, and menaces, to bring all the electors to one opinion; and ſhould this be found impractable, the majority is declared, and their opinion paſſed for a legitimate election, though this is diametrically oppoſite to the fundamental conſtitution.

SECT. VIII.

Of the Strength of Poland, with reſpect to its Fortifications and military Forces.

ONE of the moſt extraordinary parts of the conſtitution of Poland, is the manner of raiſing and maintaining the militia. Originally Poland was an open country, as at preſent, without fortreſſes; but, in courſe of time, the government cauſed fortifications to be erected in the cities, in order to oppoſe the incurſions of the enemy: theſe were ſubject to royal authority, and defended by regular garriſons; but as they were found to increaſe the power of the monarch, by erecting a kind of ſtanding army, with which ſome ambitious prince might deſtroy the liberties of the people, ſome of the citadels were demoliſhed, and others neglected. They were then uſurped by the neighbouring lords, who by this means extended their authority over the citizens and burghers, as well as over the peaſants on their own eſtates.

Hence there are at preſent few fortified places either in Poland or Lithuania: for the Poles alledge, that the bravery of the inhabitants is the defence of their country. Kaminiec, on the frontiers of Podolia, owes its ſtrength more to nature than art. The boaſted fortifications of the city of Zamoſk, if compared with the fortified towns of other countries, muſt appear very inconſiderable; and all the towns which formerly ſtood a ſhort ſiege, are now open and defenceleſs. Hence Dr. Buſching obſerves, that "when a foreigner reads of fortified places in Poland, he muſt not ſuppoſe that ſuch expreſſions ſignify "any thing more than a ditch, a rampart, a wooden or "a ſtone wall, with which ſuch places are ſurrounded. "Dantzic is the only place that deſerves the name of a "fortreſs in the Poliſh dominions; but this is an independent city."

No ſuch thing as a ſtanding army kept in conſtant pay was formerly known in this country; but all that were capable of bearing arms took the field on any emergency: but in the year 1551, the Lithuanians, for their own ſecurity, firſt began to keep on foot a certain number of troops, and their example was followed by the Poles, who raiſed an army to defend their frontiers from the ravages of their lawleſs neighbours, who live on plunder. Theſe troops are now divided into the crown army, and that of Lithuania; but ſome of the troops in both armies are cloathed and exerciſed in the Poliſh, and others in the German manner.

The crown army conſiſts of a thouſand ſpear-men, three thouſand nine hundred and forty cuiraſſiers, a thouſand light armed troops, which are all diſciplined in the Poliſh manner; four thouſand dragoons, ſix thouſand ſeven hundred and fifty foot-ſoldiers, eight hundred and fifty matroſſes, and four hundred Hungarians; all theſe, except the laſt, are under the German diſcipline.

The Lithuanian army is compoſed of four hundred men bearing lances or ſpears, above eleven hundred and ſixty cuiraſſiers, four hundred and ſixty Tartars, two hundred

hundred and forty Coſſacs, four regiments of dragoons, three regiments of foot, and a hundred and fifty matroſſes.

The charge of theſe troops is defrayed in Poland by a poll-tax; but in Lithuania other taxes are levied for this purpoſe. The ſoldiers alſo receive, beſides their pay, what is called winter-quarter money, and are moſtly cantoned on the crown lands.

Beſides this ſmall ſtanding army, which receives conſtant pay, Poland, on any preſſing exigency, is provided with another that can ſpeedily be raiſed, and is of little expence to the public: for on any ſudden and important danger, the whole body of the nobility are ſummoned to appear in the field on horſeback, and this army is called the poſpolite. This is concluded upon in a diet, after having been previouſly propoſed in the provincial meetings, and is done by royal letters; with the ſeals of the kingdom, and the great dutchy of Lithuania. Theſe being faſtened to poles by the ſummoners, are carried to the principal noblemen, ſtate officers, and perſons of rank in every palatinate, and read in the market-places of the cities and towns. When this has been three times repeated, the nobility, after holding their aſſemblies in their palatinates and diſtricts, appear in the field on horſeback, and, during the campaign, provide ſubſiſtence for themſelves.

All gentlemen who live in cities and towns upon the intereſt of money; all tenants who have procured leaſes for a term of years, which indeed are extremely uncommon in Poland; all the king's tenants; the eccleſiaſtical advocates in the ſpiritual courts; and, in caſe of imminent danger, all the citizens in general; and even the gentry impriſoned for high crimes, are diſmiſſed to attend the poſpolite, being afterwards bound to return to their confinement, to ſtand trial, and ſuffer the puniſhment due to their crimes, unleſs they have merited a pardon by ſome ſignal acts of valour in the ſervice of their country.

At preſent this body is entirely compoſed of cavalry. There is alſo a ſmall body of infantry raiſed at the expence of the citizens, worth four thouſand florins; the more wealthy burghers are obliged to find a horſeman compleatly armed. In the great dutchy of Lithuania the clergy are alſo obliged to fit out a number of men, in proportion to their temporal and ſpiritual poſſeſſions. The poor gentry may either appear in perſon, or ſubſcribe to equip one horſeman for a certain number of eſtates; and brothers who are joint proprietors, may depute one perſon to repreſent them all. However, the court and retinue both of the king and queen are exempted from taking the field. The primate alſo is veſted with a power of protecting a certain number of the gentry within his juriſdiction from appearing in a military capacity; and this privilege is ſometimes claimed by the biſhop of Cracow.

The poſpolite of every palatinate being aſſembled at the appointed place, are led by their proper officers to the general rendezvous, where the palatines ſurrender their ſeveral charges to the commander in chief. The Poliſh nobility ſquander the bulk of their fortunes in making a magnificent appearance in the field, and come with glittering arms, fine horſes, rich trappings, and elegant apparel.

The cavalry is divided into huſſarts and tavarſies; the former are choſen men and horſe, both defended by cloſe armour; the latter are covered only by a breaſt-plate, gorget, and helmet. Lances, ſabres, and piſtols, are the arms of the huſſarts; and carbines, bows and arrows, of the tavarſies. The former dart their lances at a conſiderable diſtance; and, if they miſs their aim, recover them by means of a ſilk cord faſtened to the wriſt. All the cavalry have the ſkins of wild beaſts over their armour, and are ſtuck over with the wings of ſtorks and other large birds, which give them a fierce appearance, and terrify the enemy's horſe, which, when unaccuſtomed to ſo extraordinary a ſpectacle, cannot be brought up to the charge. As to the Poliſh light-horſe, they differ little from the other troops, being armed with coats of mail and helmets, &c. Theſe are ſent upon all foraging parties and expeditions which require celerity, they being leſs encumbered with baggage.

As no ſuttlers are admitted into the camp, every Poliſh officer muſt provide himſelf proviſions, and the cities and towns provide carriages and due military ſtores.

The king himſelf always marches at the head of his army: but after the nobility have been a fortnight at the general rendezvous, if no enemy appear, they are at liberty to to return to their reſpective homes. Theſe troops are not obliged to march beyond the limits of the kingdom; but if this be reſolved, and the nobility voluntarily conform to it, every horſeman and foot ſoldier previouſly receives five Poliſh marks, or about one pound two ſhillings and ſix-pence; and the campaign is not to laſt above three months. Such a general ſummons has not been iſſued ſince the year 1672; nor was it ever of any great advantage to the republic, on account of the ſhort duration of the campaign, the want of good diſcipline, and obedience to their chiefs.

We have now given a particular account of Poland and its inhabitants in general, and ſhall therefore proceed to deſcribe the ſeveral provinces, and the principal places worthy of notice.

The kingdom of Poland, according to Dr. Buſching, conſiſts of three principal provinces, viz. Great Poland, Little Poland, and the great dutchy of Lithuania. This diviſion, he obſerves, is of great utility with reſpect to the public law of Poland; according to which, the nation conſiſts of three diſtinct people and three provinces, and the marſhal in the diet is alternately choſen from each. But however convenient this diviſion may be for the Poles, it does not appear to be ſo to the geographers, ſince even that gentleman has placed his account of Poliſh Pruſſia, which belongs to Great Poland, after Lithuania. We ſhall therefore give what appears to us a more natural diviſion, in which the countries and people, who are, in ſome reſpects, remarkably different, will be leſs confounded by being claſſed together.

SECT. IX.

Of GREAT POLAND, *including Poland Proper, Cujavia, and Maſſovia; with the principal places in each.*

GREAT Poland, including the above provinces, is bounded on the north by the kingdom of Pruſſia and Poliſh Pruſſia, on the eaſt by Lithuania, on the ſouth by Little Poland, and on the eaſt by Sileſia.

Great Poland, properly ſo called, contains five palatinates, the moſt remarkable of which are,

Poſeran, or Poſen, the capital of the palatinate of Poſnania, is a handſome but not a very large city, ſeated on the river Warta, in fifty-two degrees twenty-ſix minutes north latitude. It is incloſed with a double wall and a deep moat. On the other ſide of the river it has two ſuburbs, ſurrounded with a large moraſs; but both the city and ſuburbs are ſubject to frequent inundations by the overflowing of the river. The caſtle, which is a good ſtructure, ſtands on an iſland in the ſame river. The city has ſeveral churches and convents, a jeſuits college, an academy, which ſtands in the ſuburbs, and an epiſcopal ſeminary. The biſhop's palace is near the cathedral, which is a fine ſtructure. This is the moſt antient biſhop's ſee in Poland, it being founded by the emperor Otho I. and made ſubordinate to the archbiſhopric of Magdeburgh, under which it continued till it was ſubjected to the archbiſhopric of Gneſna. It owes great part of its proſperity to its trade with Germany; for it is a ſtaple town, and enjoys ſeveral other privileges.

Frauſtadt, in the Poliſh language Uſkowa, is a handſome town on the frontiers of Sileſia, in latitude fifty-one degrees forty-five minutes, built by the Germans, from whom a great part of its inhabitants are deſcended; hence there are two Lutheran churches in the town. The inhabitants carry on a conſiderable trade in oxen and wool. Frauſtadt formerly belonged to Sileſia; but was annexed to the Poliſh dominions by king Caſimir, who promiſed to maintain its former privileges, among which was the right of coining money. In the year 1644, this town was almoſt deſtroyed by fire, and in 1706 the combined armies of the Saxons and Ruſſians were entirely defeated by the Swedes near this place.

Liſſa,

Liſſa, called by the Poles Leſzno, is a fine populous town and lordſhip, near the preceding, in the territory of which it lies. It was formerly no more than a village, but great numbers of proteſtants removing thither from Sileſia, Bohemia, Moravia, and Auſtria, and obtaining the free exerciſe of their religion, it increaſed till it became a conſiderable town. The inhabitants carry on a good trade, and have a Lutheran church, a ſeminary, and a Calviniſt church: and the general-ſenior of all the Lutheran churches in Great Poland, formerly ſtiled the ſuperintendant, reſides in this town. In 1656 the inhabitants deſerted it for fear of the Poliſh troops, who plundered and laid it in aſhes; and in 1707 it was laid waſte by the Ruſſians, but was afterwards rebuilt with great improvements.

In the palatinate of Kaliſh is the city of Gneſna, called by the Poles Gniezno, the capital of Great Poland, and the moſt antient city in the kingdom. It is ſituated in a plain, and is not only a large town, but the ſee of an archbiſhop, whoſe power, as we have already obſerved, is next that of the king. A court of judicature is held in the town, and a particular chancellor belongs to the chapter of the cathedral, in which is the body of St. Adalbert encloſed in a ſilver ſhrine. There is alſo a ſeminary founded here.

We now come to the province of Cujavia, which is very fertile, and watered by many lakes, that abound with fiſh: the principal of theſe is the lake of Goplo. The biſhop of Cujavia is a ſuffragan to the archbiſhop of Gneſna, and alſo ſtiles himſelf biſhop of Pomerellia. Cujavia contains two palatinates, the moſt conſiderable place in which is,

Uladiſlaw, a handſome city in the palatinate of the ſame name, ſeated on the Viſtula. Here is a fine palace, in which the biſhop of Cujavia reſides. The cathedral is an antient Gothic ſtructure, rich in plate, ornaments, and relics, and is encompaſſed by the houſes of the canons and a large free-ſchool.

Another province of Great Poland is Maſovia, or Maſuren, which, from the beginning of the Poliſh monarchy, has been conſidered as a part of that kingdom. It has been twice given to the queens of Poland as a dowry. No other religion but popery is tolerated in this province, thoſe of other profeſſions being treated with the utmoſt ſeverity; for to ſuch a height is the bigotry of the government carried, that if a Lutheran or Calviniſt miniſter be found in Maſovia, he is certainly puniſhed with death. The number of noble families in this province are computed to be no leſs than forty-five thouſand. Maſovia contains two palatinates, in which are the following places:

Warſaw, the capital of Maſovia, and the royal reſidence, is ſeated on the Viſtula, almoſt in the center of the kingdom, in fifty-two degrees twenty-one minutes north latitude, and twenty-one degrees ten minutes eaſt longitude from London. It is ſurrounded with a moat and double wall, and has a ſtately caſtle. Here are ſeveral elegant ſtone-buildings and palaces, a great number of beautiful churches and convents, an hoſpital, an arſenal, and a ſtatue of king Sigiſmund III. erected to his memory by his ſon Uladiſlaus IV. The valuable library of count Zaluſk, which was opened in 1746, ſaid to contain above two hundred thouſand volumes, is both an advantage and an ornament to the city. Some years ſince an academy for military exerciſes and a literary ſociety were inſtituted at Warſaw. When the general diet is aſſembled, there is ſuch a vaſt concourſe of people, that great numbers of them are obliged to live in tents without the city, where they continue during the ſeſſion. The provincial aſſembly, or diet, and a court of judicature are alſo held here.

King Sigiſmond III. was the firſt who made this city the royal reſidence, and his ſucceſſors have reſided here ever ſince. In 1655 this city had a Swediſh garriſon, who brought hither a conſiderable booty from ſeveral parts of Poland; and a great number of military and civil officers, with ſome ladies of diſtinction of that nation, reſided there. But the Poles laid ſiege to it in 1656, and, after a vigorous defence, obliged the city to ſurrender. By the articles of capitulation, the Swedes were permitted to leave the place; but the beſt part of the plunder they had amaſſed fell into the hands of the Poles. However, Charles Guſtavus approaching with an army to relieve the city, king John Caſimir marched againſt him, and a battle was fought near the ſuburbs of Praga, which laſted three days; but at laſt the Poles were obliged to retreat, leaving behind them their artillery and baggage; upon which the Swedes placed a ſmall garriſon in the town, and deſtroyed the fortifications. In 1702, Charles XII. of Sweden made himſelf maſter of Warſaw, which happened then to be without a garriſon, and fixed his head-quarters at Praga.

In this province is alſo the city of Ploczko, which ſtands on an eminence by the Viſtula, and affords a very pleaſant proſpect. It is the ſee of a biſhop, who is ſuffragan to the archbiſhop of Gneſna: it is alſo the reſidence of a palatine, a caſtellan, and a ſtaroſta. Here are ſeveral churches richly ornamented, the principal of which belong to the nuns of St. Mary Magdalen and the Benedictine monks in the caſtle: the latter is the cathedral, and the revenues of the chapter are almoſt equal to thoſe of the biſhop. The provoſt, or dean, is lord of the diſtrict of Sielun, and ſovereign of the nobility who reſide there, and is accordingly ſtiled prince of that territory. The jeſuits have a college there, and in the caſtle is a ſeminary. The provincial court of judicature is held in the city, and its inhabitants carry on a good trade.

Poliſh Pruſſia is conſidered as a diſtrict belonging to Great Poland, merely perhaps from its bordering on that part of the Poliſh dominions: but this province deſerves a particular deſcription.

SECT. X.

Of LITTLE POLAND, *including Podlachia, Red Ruſſia, Podolia, Kiow, and Volhinia; containing an Account of the principal Towns, particularly of Cracow, and the famous Salt Mines of Bocnia and Wiliſka.*

LITTLE Poland, which is alſo called Upper Poland, properly ſo called, contains the palatinates of Cracow, Sandomir, and Lublin, and has the following remarkable places:

Cracow, the capital of the whole kingdom, and the fixed head reſidence of the ſovereign, is ſeated in a fertile country, at the conflux of the Viſtula and the Ridawa, in nineteen degrees thirty minutes eaſt longitude, and the fiftieth degree of north latitude. The city contains a great number of convents and churches, and among the latter that of the Virgin Mary, which is the principal. On the weſt ſide of it is a ſuburb with handſome gardens, and near it is the king's palace, which has the advantage of elegant gardens incloſed with a wall. On the ſouth ſide of it is the royal caſtle, ſeated on a high rock, near the Viſtula. This large ſtructure is defended by walls, towers, and baſtions, and has the appearance of a town; it including the king's palace, the cathedral, and two other churches, with ſeveral dwelling-houſes. The cathedral is dedicated to St. Staniſlaus, formerly biſhop of this ſee, whom Boleſlaus II. killed at the altar with his own hands, becauſe that biſhop's admonitions were grown inſupportable to him. St. Staniſlaus's remains are incloſed in a ſilver ſhrine, and maſſes are continually performed day and night in this church. In the treaſury of the cathedral, among other things of great value, are the regalia, on which account it is under the care of the treaſurer of the kingdom. Here the kings of Poland are always crowned, and their remains interred. The annual revenue of the biſhopric of Cracow amounts to forty thouſand dollars. The chapter conſiſts of thirty-ſix canons, beſides other prieſts, whoſe revenues are alſo very conſiderable.

Contiguous to the caſtle is the ſuburb of Stradomo, which includes ſeveral churches, convents, and hoſpitals; and from thence a bridge over the Viſtula leads to the town of Cazimircz, which may be conſidered as the ſecond diviſion of the city of Cracow: it lies to the eaſt of the latter, was built by Caſimir the Great, and is incloſed with a wall. The chief edifice in this part of the

city is the univerſity, which conſiſts of eleven colleges, to which are ſubordinate fourteen grammar-ſchools, diſperſed in ſeveral parts of the city. The Jews-town joins to Cazimircz. To the north of the city lies the ſuburb of Kleparz, or Klepardia, which has no walls, but contains ſeveral churches, particularly that of St. Florian, which is a very ſtately edifice, and the biſhop's palace. The city of Cracow is large, and was formerly populous and flouriſhing; but by the removal of the court, and the many calamities it ſuſtained in both the Swediſh wars, has much declined. The citizens have this particular privilege, that no appeal lies from the city council, but to the king only; and his majeſty can judge no cauſes relating either to the city or its ſuburbs in any other place but in Cracow. The palatine of this city has the power of chooſing the council, but not of diſplacing any member when elected. The caſtellan of this city has hardly any thing in common with the other caſtellans; however, he has the ſame name and appointments, and by his poſt is entirely exempt from ſerving any other offices, except his being obliged to appear in council. This city has often been conſumed by fire, and in 1707 and 1708 was viſited by the peſtilence, which ſwept away ſeveral thouſands of the inhabitants. In 1655 it was beſieged and taken by the Swedes; but in 1657 they were obliged to reſtore it to the Poles.

Boſnia is a town famous for its ſalt mines, which were firſt diſcovered in 1251, when this place was only a village. The ſmall river Raab runs near this town, which is ſurrounded, with eminences. The ſalt mine is in a ſlip of land of ſeven hundred and fifty feet in breadth from north to ſouth, about ten thouſand in length from eaſt to weſt, and its greateſt depth is a thouſand two hundred feet from the ſurface. The ſalt lies in veins, and is ſomething finer than that of Wiliſka, eſpecially at a certain depth. It is cut in ſmall pieces, and put up in caſks. The number of labourers in this mine is about two or three hundred. Alabaſter and large pieces of black wood have been found in this mine incruſted with ſalt, and every part of it is dry.

Wiliſka is a ſmall town, only famous for its mines, and is ſeated in a valley about five miles from Cracow. The town is entirely undermined, and the cavities extend for a conſiderable diſtance round it. The length of the mine from eaſt to weſt is ſix thouſand feet, its breadth from north to ſouth is two thouſand, and its greateſt depth eight hundred; but the veins of ſalt are not limited to this extent, for the depth and length of them from eaſt to weſt are yet unknown, and only the breadth has been hitherto determined. There are at preſent ten ſhafts, and within the whole ſalt mine there is not ſo much as one ſpring. Here a ſtranger is ſurprized on his deſcending to the bottom to find a kind of ſubterraneous common-wealth, conſiſting of a great many families, that have their peculiar laws and polity, and even public roads and carriages; horſes being employed to draw the ſalt to the mouths of the mine, where it is taken up by engines. Theſe horſes when once they are down never more ſee the light of the ſun, and many of the people ſeem buried alive in this ſtrange abyſs; ſome being born there and never ſtirring out, though others have frequent opportunities of breathing the freſh air of the fields, and enjoying the light of the ſun. The ſubterraneous paſſages or galleries are very ſpacious, and in many of them chapels are hewn out of the rock-ſalt, and in theſe are ſet up cruciſixes and the images of ſaints, before which a light is kept conſtantly burning. The places where the ſalt is hewn out, and the empty cavities whence it has been formerly taken, are called chambers; and ſome of theſe are ſo ſpacious, that a large church might be incloſed in one of them. Several of theſe chambers are made uſe of as warehouſes for the ſalt caſks, or barns for holding the fodder for the horſes, and others ſerve for ſtables, in which ſtand twenty or thirty horſes. In ſome chambers, where the water has formerly ſtagnated, the bottoms and ſides are covered with very thick incruſtations of ſome thouſands of ſalt cryſtals, one upon another, many of them weighing half a pound or more; and when any candles happen to be brought, the numerous rays of light reflected by theſe cryſtals emit a ſurpriſing luſtre.

In ſome parts of the mine huge columns of ſalt are left ſtanding to ſupport the rock. The number of miners employed are between four and five hundred, but all the men together who work amount to about ſeven hundred.

The ſalt lies near the ſurface in large ſhapeleſs maſſes, out of which blocks of ſixty, eighty, or a hundred ſquare feet may be hewn; but at a conſiderable depth it is found in ſmaller lumps. About ſix hundred thouſand quintals of ſalt are annually dug out of theſe mines. The worſt and cheapeſt is called green ſalt, from is greeniſh colour cauſed by an heterogenous mixture of a greyiſh mineral, or clay, and entirely conſiſts of ſalt cryſtals of different dimenſions. A caſk of this ſalt, which generally contains ſix quintals, ſells for about twenty-two Poliſh guilders, each of one ſhilling and two-pence value; but a quintal of that in large maſſes or blocks is worth thirty-two or thirty-three florins, each florin worth about ſix-pence halfpenny. A finer ſort of ſalt is ſold for twenty-four florins per caſk, and in large blocks at four florins the quintal. The third ſpecies of ſalt dug out of theſe mines is ſal gemmæ, or cryſtal ſalt, which is found in ſmall pieces interſperſed in the rock; and when detached from it, breaks into cubes or rectangular priſms. This is uſually ſold unprepared. The colour of the ſalt ſtone is a dark grey mixed with yellow.

Theſe ſalt mines have always made a part of the king's board revenues as they are termed, and are generally farmed; but ſometimes the king has kept them in his own hands, and appointed proper officers for the management of them. The office of mine-maſter at Wiliſka is hereditary, and a conſiderable ſalary ariſing from them is annexed to it.

The next town we ſhall mention is Sandomir, or Sendomir, the capital of a palatinate of the ſame name. This town is ſeated on an eminence near the influx of the river San into the Viſtula; and its delightful ſituation rendered it the favourite reſidence of Caſimir the Great, and other kings of Poland. This city is well fortified both by art and nature, and has a college of Jeſuits and other orders, with a rich foundation called Collegium Canonicorum. A provincial court of juſtice is alſo held here. In the year 1259 the Tartars and Ruſſians committed terrible ravages in this city, and put the inhabitants to the ſword. In 1656 the caſtle, which ſtands on a ſteep rock, was blown up by the Swedes.

The next city we ſhall mention is Lublin, in the palatinate of the ſame name, ſurrounded by a wall and ditch; but though it is not large, it is a place of good trade. It has a caſtle built on a high rock, and ſtands in a very pleaſant and fertile country. It has ſeveral churches and convents, a college of Jeſuits, and a great number of Jews live in the ſuburbs; they have there a very ſpacious ſynagogue. In this city are held three annual fairs, each of which laſts a month, and theſe are frequented by a multitude of German, Greek, Armenian, Ruſſia, Turkiſh, and Arabian traders and merchants. The chief tribunal for Little Poland is held in this city, beſides the provincial diet and a court of judicature. In 1240 this city was ſet on fire by the Tartars, after which it continued for a long time in the poſſeſſion of the Ruſſians. It alſo ſuffered much by fire in 1447 and 1606, and in 1656 was reduced to aſhes by the Swedes.

We ſhall now give a conciſe account of the countries dependant on Little Poland, and ſhall begin with Podlachia, or the palatinate of Bielſk, which is bounded on the north by Pruſſia and Lithuania; on the eaſt by Lithuania; on the ſouth by the palatinate of Lublin, in Little Poland; and on the weſt by that of Maſovia, extending about eighty-eight miles in length, and thirty in breadth. This province was formerly the occaſion of many diſputes and quarrels between the Poles and Lithuanians. The moſt remarkable places it contains are,

Bielſk, a large city on the river Biala, ſituated in latitude fifty-three degrees four minutes. Not only the town but the caſtle and other fortifications are built with wood: it is, however, a place of great trade, which is carried on by the Jews.

Bialyſtoc, a city divided into the Old and New Town; in the latter of which is count Braniki's fine ſeat and gardens, which are much admired, and from their elegance

have been termed the Verſailles of Poland. The greateſt part of the city was deſtroyed by fire in 1753.

Tykoczin, a conſiderable town on the river Narew, and defended by a caſtle ſituated amidſt inacceſſible moraſſes. Here is held a court of judicature, and in this town Auguſtus II. inſtituted the order of the White Eagle, in the year 1705, which he conferred as a reward of courage and loyalty.

The laſt place we ſhall mention in this province is Auguſtow, a beautiful town, ſeated on a lake, and thus called from Sigiſmund Auguſtus, by whom it was founded.

Little or Red Ruſſia, including Podolia, Poliſh Kiovia, and Volhinia, is bounded on the north by Lithuania; on the eaſt by the river Nieper; on the ſouth by Moldavia, Tranſylvania, and the Carpathian mountains, which divide it from Hungary; and on the weſt by Little Poland. The country is mountainous, but watered with abundance of rivers, which render it fertile in corn.

Red Ruſſia Proper conſiſts of the three palatinates Chelm, Belz, and Lemberg, the moſt remarkable places of which are,

Lemberg, called in Latin Leopolis, and in Poliſh Lwow, is the capital of the palatinate of the ſame name, and is a large opulent city, ſituated in latitude fifty degrees thiry-two minutes, and in the fortieth degreee eaſt longitude from London. It is pretty well fortified in the Poliſh manner, that is, only with timber; and has two caſtles, one within and the other without the walls: the latter ſtands on a high hill, and the Carmelite monaſtery, which is fortified, may ſerve as a citadel to the caſtle. The city lies low on the banks of the river Peltew, encompaſſed with hills and mountains that command the town. Lemberg is not only the ſee of a Popiſh archbiſhop, but of a Ruſſian and Armenian biſhop.

Here is a magnificent cathedral, and ſeveral other churches, among which is a Ruſſian and an Armenian church. The city has alſo ſome rich convents, and one belonging to the Dominicans which is ſaid not to have its equal in Poland. There is likewiſe a college of Jeſuits, a gymnaſium, or ſeminary, an arſenal, a public granary, and two Jewiſh ſchools. A provincial diet and a court of judicature are alſo held in this city. The inhabitants are a mixture of ſeveral nations, but no proteſtants are tolerated amongſt them.

Jaroſlaw is a handſome town ſeated on the river San, and is defended by a caſtle; it carries on a good trade, and within the town is a college of Jeſuits, and without it another foundation belonging to the ſame order.

Podolia, which is dependant on Red Ruſſia, is a very fertile country; but has in all ages been expoſed to the inroads of barbarous nations, who live on plunder, and have often ravaged it in a moſt cruel manner. It abounds with a fine breed of horſes and horned cattle. The inhabitants were formerly governed by their own dukes or ſovereigns, and are of a war-like diſpoſition. Podolia conſiſts of two palatinates, that of Podolia and Braclaw. The principal town in this country is,

Kaminiec Podolſki, the capital of the palatinate of Podolia, which is ſituated in forty-eight degrees fifty-eight minutes north latitude. It has a caſtle built on a rock, and owes its ſtrength more to nature than to art; however, it is eſteemed the beſt fortification in Poland. Here is alſo a college of Jeſuits; and the city is the ſee of a Popiſh and Armenian biſhop. In 1651 the Coſſacs laid ſiege to the caſtle, but without ſucceſs; it was, however taken by the Turks in 1672, who held it till the peace of Carlowitz.

Of the palatinate of Kiovia, or Kiow, which forms a part of the Ukraine, and is inhabited by the Coſſacs, we have already given an account in treating of Ruſſia, which has all that part of this country that lies on the other ſide of the Nieper; ſo that Poliſh Kiovia includes only two diſtricts, in which are ſeveral ſmall towns ſcarce worthy of notice.

We now come to Volhinia, the laſt province dependant on Red Ruſſia, a country ſo fertile, as to ſupply the inhabitants with a great deal more grain then they are able to conſume. Roſemary and aſparagus grow wild in the woods, and can hardly be diſtinguiſhed from thoſe cultivated in the gardens. Volhinia was annexed to Poland in 1569, and in 1618, the country was ravaged by the Tartars, who beſides a great booty, carried thirty thouſand perſons out of the country to be ſold as ſlaves. This province contains two diſtricts and ſeveral towns, among which are the following.

Lucko or Luceorien, the capital of Volhinia, which is ſeated on the river Ster, in fifty degrees fifty minutes north latitude, one hundred and ſeventy-five miles to the ſouth-eaſt of Warſaw. It has a caſtle, in which the biſhop of Volhinia reſides, and it is alſo the reſidence of a Ruſſian biſhop. The Jeſuits have a college here, and it has a provincial diet, and a court of judicature; but in 1752, the greateſt part of the city was deſtroyed by fire.

Olika, a handſome town and caſtle belonging to the Radzivil family, and the capital of a dutchy. A ſchool and ſeminary are founded in this town.

Sokal, a town and fortreſs on the river Bug, remarkable for a celebrated image of the virgin Mary, for the greater ſecurity of which, the Bernardine monks have built a fine church and convent, with ſuitable fortifications, on an iſland in the river Bug.

SECT. XI.

Of LITHUANIA, *including Lithuania Proper, Lithuanian Ruſſia, and the Livonian Palatinate, with the moſt remarkable Places in each.*

LIthuania, called by the natives Litwa, is bounded on the north by Courland and Ruſſia, on the eaſt by Ruſſia, on the ſouth by Volhinia, and on the weſt by Little Poland, Podlachia, and the kingdom of Pruſſia. It was anciently very woody, and the greateſt part of it lies uncultivated; but it is now greatly improved, by cutting down the woods, and the encouragement given to agriculture. Great quantities of pot-aſh and wood-aſhes are made here, and the country produces a conſiderable quantity of buck-wheat, and other corn. It has alſo great plenty of honey, with which mead and other palatable liquors are made. The meadows and paſtures are very fertile, and afford nouriſhment to numerous flocks and herds, and the ſheep yield fleeces of very fine wool. In the foreſts are bears, wolves, wild boars, buffaloes, deer, and prodigious flights of woodcocks. Here are alſo ſeveral lakes, in which are profitable fiſheries. But notwithſtanding the fertility of the ſoil, agriculture is not yet ſufficiently encouraged; for ſome of the fineſt ſpots of land in the country ſtill lie waſte, and the luxuriant paſtures in the meadows are neglected till the graſs rots on the ground: for want of care the woods are frequently conſumed by accidental fires. Proviſions in general are extremely cheap; but this is the leſs ſurpriſing, where money itſelf is dear, and ſo ſcarce, that ten per cent is the common intereſt.

All the common people, except the burghers of the royal towns and the Germans, are vaſſals; but the nobility, who are very numerous, are for the moſt part indigent, aud thoſe who are poor ſerve the wealthy as ſtewards, treaſurers, bailiffs, and valets. The noble families in better circumſtances, endeavour to mend their fortunes by farming a large eſtate. There is ſcarce a ſingle nobleman in tolerable circumſtances in Lithuania without a title, of which they are all extremely fond, and theſe titles deſcend to their children. The principal nobility have eſtates equal to the revenues of ſome princes, and generally retain ſome hundreds of the poor nobility in their ſervice. They are likewiſe inveſted with the higheſt poſts in the kingdom; but live in ſuch pomp and ſplendor, and with ſo little oeconomy, that their expences generally exceed their income.

Popery is the eſtabliſhed religion of Lithuania; but there are alſo many Lutherans, Calviniſts, Socinians, Jews, and Turks; but the Greeks are on a much better footing than any other of the diſſenters. Though this country is ſo cloſely connected with Poland, it ſtill retains its own peculiar laws, offices, and troops.

In a diet held at Lublin in 1569, the Poles and Lithuanians agreed, that the great dutchy of Lithuania, and the kingdom of Poland ſhould for the future be ſo

 united,

united, as to form but one ſtate under one prince; that the ſovereign ſhould be elected in Poland by both nations; that the two nations ſhould have a ſenate or council, and a houſe of provincial repreſentatives in common; that the coin in the kingdom and dutchy ſhould be of the ſame value, and that they ſhould be equally concerned in treaties and alliances.

Lithuania is at preſent divided into nine palatinates, the two firſt of which conſtitute Proper Lithuania, and the others Lithuanian Ruſſia, which is divided into White Ruſſia, Black Ruſſia, and Poleſia. Beſides theſe palatinates, Lithuania alſo includes the principality of Samogitia, and the dutchy of Courland, which is a fief of Poland.

Lithuania, properly ſo called, includes the palatinates of Wilna and Trock, the principal places of which are,

Wilna, the capital of Lithuania, ſtands on the river Wilia, near the influx of the Wilika, in fifty-four degrees thirty-two minutes north latitude, and is ſituated in a mountainous country. It is built on ſeveral little eminences, and has two conſiderable ſuburbs. In an old ruinous palace is the arſenal, and the hall where the court of juſtice is held, and oppoſite to it is a magnificent church that belongs to the caſtle. This church is very rich, and is alſo remarkable for the elegant marble chapel of St. Caſimir, whoſe ſilver ſhrine is ſaid to weigh thirty quintals. There are upwards of forty churches in this city, among which are one Lutheran and one Calviniſt church, a Jewiſh ſynagogue, a Tartarian and a Greek church; but all the reſt belong to the catholics.

Wilna twice ſuffered great devaſtations from the Ruſſians and from fire; particularly in 1748, it was deſtroyed by a dreadful conflagration, when thirteen churches, the Jewiſh ſynagogue, twenty-five palaces, four hundred ſixty-nine ſtone edifices, conſiſting of private houſes, hoſpitals, inns, baths and convents, with a hundred and forty-ſix tradeſmen's ſhops and diſpenſaries, beſides a great number of granaries and warehouſes, were conſumed. The next year another fire happened by lightning, which burnt ſix churches, the council-houſe, eight palaces, and two hundred ſeventy-ſeven ſtone buildings. The chapel of St. Caſimir was alſo burnt, and the loſs ſuſtained by the deſtruction of this edifice alone with its treaſure, amounted to an immenſe ſum. The churches have been ſince rebuilt at a very great expence, and ſome of them in a more elegant manner than before; but the city has not recovered its former grandeur.

This city is a biſhop's ſee, and has an univerſity, and a high court of judicature, beſides a provincial diet.

Grodno, a large and handſome city, and next to Wilna, the beſt in Lithuania, is ſituated in fifty-three degrees thirty-eight minutes latitude, and in twenty-three degrees fifty-two minutes eaſt longitude. It ſtands on the river Niemen, partly on an eminence, and partly on a level, and is encompaſſed with hills. The old caſtle, which is ſurrounded with a deep moat, is fallen to decay, ſo that no more than one wing of it is inhabited. The new palace is a large, regular, and beautiful ſtructure, conſiſting of two ſtories: the great hall, that for the ſenate and the chapel, are its fineſt apartments; and in the court ſtands the chancery or ſtate office, which is an elegant ſtructure. In the city are nine popiſh and two Greek churches, and alſo a ſynagogue for the Jews, which is built of ſtone. The Jeſuits college has a ſplendid church, and that belonging to the Carmelite nuns is likewiſe very magnificent. The palace of prince Radzivil is a very large ſtructure, and that of the Sapiehan family is a ſuperb edifice: both of them ſtand in the market place, which, together with the caſtle-ſtreet, and the area before the palace, are clean and well paved; but the other ſtreets are generally dirty. In 1673, it was enacted that for the future, every third general diet ſhould be held here, and during the ſeſſion, the concourſe of people has been ſo great, that four apartments with the ſtables adjoining to them, have been let for two hundred and ſixty ducats a month. A provincial diet, and a court of judicature, are alſo held in this city.

In treating of Lithuanian Ruſſia, we ſhall begin with the province of Poleſia, which contains ſeveral large moraſſes, that reſemble ſo many extenſive lakes. The principal towns in this palatinate are,

Brzeſk, which is a ſtrong, but not a very large town, ſituated on the river Bug, and has a caſtle built on a rock, near it is a royal palace with a fine garden. In this town is a famous ſynagogue, to which the Jews reſort from all the countries of Europe, both on account of ſtudy and preferment among their own people. A provincial diet is held in this town, and a Greek biſhop reſides here.

Pinſk is a large, handſome trading town on the river Pina, ſituated in the midſt of extenſive moraſſes, and inhabited not only by the Jews, who have a ſchool here, but alſo by people of many other religions, eſpecially by the Greeks, who have a biſhop here. The leather dreſſed in this town, after the Ruſſian manner, is eſteemed the beſt in the whole kingdom. A provincial diet is held here.

Under Lithuanian Ruſſia is included Black Ruſſia, called by the Poles Rus Czarna, which includes the palatinate of Novogrodec, and contains four diſtricts, the principal place of which is,

Novogrodec, a town ſituated on a hill, in which are ſeveral Popiſh and Ruſſian convents, with a college of Jeſuits. It has a provincial diet, and an inferior court of judicature; and an high tribunal, after the model of that of Wilna, is held alternately here, and at Minſk, which continues ſitting five months every year.

In White Ruſſia, called by the Poles Rus Biala, are four palatinates, the moſt conſiderable places in which are,

Minſk, which is ſeated on the river Swiſlocz, in the palatinate of Minſk, and has two caſtles. A provincial diet is held here, beſides a high tribunal once in two years. This town was taken by the Ruſſians in 1656.

Mohilow, in the palatinate of Miſciſlaw, is a handſome commercial town on the river Nieper, and the inhabitants carry on a conſiderable trade with the Ruſſians. In 1654 Mohilow was taken by the Ruſſians; and tho' it was inveſted by the Poles in 1660, they were obliged to raiſe the ſiege. It was, however, taken from the Ruſſians in 1662 by the inhabitants, who ſent off part of the garriſon by ſtratagem, and then made the reſt priſoners of war.

Poloc, a fortified town on the river Dzwina, and in the palatinate of Poloc. It has two ſtrong caſtles, and carries on a conſiderable trade. In this town the Jeſuits have a college, and the Greeks an academy for the ſtudy of philoſophy. A popiſh Greek biſhop alſo reſides here. In this town are likewiſe held a provincial diet and a court of judicature. In 1563 Poloc was taken by the Ruſſians, but in 1579 was retaken by the Poles.

We now come to the Livonian Palatinate, called by the Poles Woiewodztwo Inflantſkie. This country was a part of Livonia, and is alſo termed the palatinate of Wend. The Poles, on their delivering up Livonia to Sweden, by the treaty of Oliva, reſerved this part, which has a biſhop, a palatine, and a caſtellan, and ſends ſix deputies to the general diet. It has alſo five or ſix ſmall towns.

SECT. XII.

Of SAMOGITIA.

Its Situation, Extent, Soil, and Produce. Its Hiſtory, and the Manners of the preſent Inhabitants.

SAMOGITIA called by the Poles Zmuyds, or Xieſtwo Zmudſkie, is bounded on the north by Courland, on the eaſt by Lithuania, on the ſouth by Regal Pruſſia, and on the weſt by the Baltic ſea, it being about a hundred and ſeventy-five miles in length, and about a hundred and twenty-five in breadth; but this is only to be underſtood of its longeſt and broadeſt part, the two extremities being much contracted.

Great part of the country has a marſhy ſoil, and abounds with rivers and lakes, which at ſome ſeaſons overflow the land. Here are alſo inacceſſible mountains; the country is much over-run with woods, in which the inhabitants find great quantities of honey; for it is ſaid that almoſt every tree has a ſwarm of bees; and their

wax

wax is whiter and purer than either that of Lithuania or Ruſſia. We are told, that though the arable land is very ſtiff, the inhabitants uſe none but wooden plough-ſhares; becauſe one of their ſtaroſtas, introducing iron ſhares, and the ſeaſon afterwards proving leſs kindly than uſual, they had the weakneſs to attribute the cauſe ſolely to this change; upon which he was forced to let them return to the uſe of the wooden plough-ſhares, for fear the prohibition ſhould cauſe an inſurrection. Samogitia abounds with cattle, and has a breed of horſes, which, though ſmall, are ſprightly, ſwift, and hardy.

This country antiently belonged to Lithuania; but in the year 1404, was ceded to the knights of the Teutonic order: about four years after, it was taken from them by Uladiſlaus Jagello, king of Poland; after whoſe death it returned again to them; but in 1525, when Albert of Brandenburg was made hereditary duke of Pruſſia, it returned to the crown of Poland. The Chriſtian religion had been introduced for ſome time, and in 1413, it was made a biſhop's ſee.

The peaſants of this country differ but little from thoſe of Lithuania; but are not ſo laborious, and conſequently enjoy leſs plenty. Many of them, inſtead of bread, eat turneps, which grow wild, and are of a prodigious ſize. They are robuſt, bold, and nimble; and it is not uncommon for people to live a hundred or a hundred and twenty years of age.

The peaſants live in cottages, for the moſt part near lakes and rivers, and theſe are covered with thatch or boards. They are low, and of an oblong ſquare, with a hearth in the middle; their furniture is but mean, and they have only one room for themſelves and their cattle. Thoſe in good circumſtances drink out of horn cups, and eat out of wooden platters. However, moſt of the inhabitants differ but little in their manners, habit, or language, from the Lithuanians.

There are about twenty-eight towns in Samogitia; but all of them are ſmall and ill built; among theſe is Mednicki, where the biſhop of Samogitia reſides, and Roſienie, where the provincial diet and a court of judicature are held.

SECT. XIII.

Of COURLAND.

Of its Situation and Extent, Soil, Produce, and Rivers. Of the Inhabitants of Courland, and the Privileges of the Nobility. A general Hiſtory of Courland. Its Arms, Officers of State, and Courts of Judicature. The Diviſion of the Country, and a Deſcription of the principal Towns in each.

THE dutchy of Courland, which is dependant and under the protection of Poland, is bounded on the weſt by the Baltic, on the north by the gulph of Riga and Livonia, towards the eaſt by Lithuania Proper, and by Samogitia towards the ſouth. It extends fifty German miles in length, and in ſome places twenty, and in others hardly ten German miles in breadth; but towards the ſouth-weſt it gradually terminates in a cape or point of land.

The ſoil, except in a few diſtricts, is heavy, fat, and clayey, and the country abounds in woods and ſwamps: hence the roads of Courland are remarkably bad. In ſpring and autumn the meadows and low grounds are under water; but this only ſerves to improve the land. Some ſkilful farmers have drained ſeveral of the fenny parts of Courland, and converted them into what they call ſtaungens; that is, land which is ſown three years ſucceſſively with ſummer ſeed, and then left uncultivated for the like term. Courland, however, contains good arable land and fine paſtures, and produces great quantities of excellent flax. Here is alſo plenty of ſea-fiſh, and the woods abound with elks, bears, and wolves. Courland has alſo its mines of iron ore and other minerals, its quarries of ſtone, chalk, and ſtucco, and its mineral ſprings. Amber is likewiſe found on the coaſt.

The principal rivers in this country are the Windau, which riſes in Samogitia, and diſcharges itſelf into the Baltic near the town of Windau. The Aa, which has alſo its ſource in Samogitia, and empties itſelf into the gulph of Riga. The ſmall rivers are the Anger, the Abau, the Berſe, the Bartau, the Muſſa, &c.

The inhabitants of Courland conſiſt of Germans and Lettonians; but the latter are not only the tenants and vaſſals of the former, but in a manner their ſlaves. Hence there are two languages uſually ſpoken in Courland, the German and the Lettonian.

The reformation, or Lutheran religion, took place in this dutchy ſo early as the year 1522, and in 1532 Courland joined with Riga in a particular religious league; ſo that when this country fell under the dominion of Poland, all the inhabitants were Lutherans, and they had no papiſts amongſt them. But the miſunderſtandings which afterwards happened between the dukes and nobles of Courland occaſioned ſeveral orders to be iſſued by the court of Poland, and judiciary commiſſions to be deputed from thence, by which means a fatal gap was opened, by which popery entered. The Roman catholics were at firſt only permitted to have churches in this country; but they ſoon raiſed themſelves to a level with the Lutherans. In 1717 and 1727 they received ſome additional privileges, and ſeveral of the nobility who had embraced the doctrines of popery exerting their zeal, in order to introduce it into the churches within their juriſdictions, greatly contributed to its ſpreading over the country. The marriages of the dukes of Courland with princeſſes who were Calviniſts, alſo introduced that religion into the dutchy; but the Calviniſts are excluded from all public employments.

The nobility of Courland enjoy great privileges, and the old nobility are carefully diſtinguiſhed from the new; and by an antient law, which has been frequently confirmed, the former alone are capable of filling poſts of honour. The noblemen of Courland generally embrace a military life. They enjoy in Poland the ſame privileges as the natives, and a Poliſh nobleman has the ſame indulgence in Courland. However, neither of them enjoy that privilege till they are ſettled in thoſe countries; and indeed a Courlandiſh nobleman at preſent ſeldom holds any eminent poſt in Poland, except thoſe of the law, unleſs he be a papiſt. The nobility of Courland have no ſeat in the general diet of Poland.

A noble Courlander is proprietor of all the mines diſcovered in his eſtate: he is not to be taken into cuſtody, or his effects confiſcated, till he has been previouſly ſummoned and legally convicted before a court of judicature: his houſe is an aſylum, from which no perſon can forcibly be taken: his tenants, vaſſals, and domeſtics are exempted from paying any toll, cuſtom, or exciſe; and no ſoldiers are to be quartered on the eſtate of a Courlander. No new created nobleman is qualified to hold a poſt of honour, or to be a magiſtrate, till the third generation; nor can he be ſent as an envoy, unleſs he has diſtinguiſhed himſelf in the ſervice of his country, or is recommended by ſome of the antient noble families.

The nobility, among other privileges, have an unlimited power over their vaſſals, which extends even to life and death; but before they can puniſh a vaſſal with death, they are obliged to hold a regular court, under the penalty of paying a hundred florins; each florin equal to fourteen-pence ſterling. Hence the reſpect paid by the peaſants to their lords riſes almoſt to adoration, and whatever theſe require from them they are obliged to give up, and immediately obey their commands without murmuring. The nobility are all on a level, and have, in conjunction with the duke, the patronage of the pariſh churches; the duke being patron of ſome, and the nobility of the others. In war-time they appear on horſeback, according to the ſervice they owe the duke as his vaſſal: but when ſuch a general military appearance is required, the duke is obliged to march at their head. They indeed chooſe their own colonels and other officers; but theſe are all under the duke's command. They are, however, not obliged to march beyond the frontiers of Courland, except the duke voluntarily agrees to paſs beyond thoſe boundaries.

Courland antiently belonged to Livonia, and both were conquered by the knights of the Teutonic order, who kept them till the year 1561, about which time the Ruſſians

Ruſſians invaded the country; but the order being then much declined from its former power and greatneſs, Gothard Ketler, the laſt grand maſter, gave up Livonia to the king of Poland, as great duke of Lithuania; and, in return, Courland and Semigallia were erected into a temporal dutchy, and Ketler was inveſted with it as an hereditary fief.

In the beginning of the eighteenth century Courland was harraſſed both by the Swedes and the Ruſſians; but in 1710 Frederic William, the ſixth duke, married Anne a princeſs of Ruſſia, who, after his deceaſe, remained in poſſeſſion of the ſovereignty, under the protection of her uncle the czar Peter I. though Ferdinand, brother to the late duke's father, to whom the ſucceſſion belonged, was ſtill living.

Ferdinand and the nobility were at variance, leſs on account of his changing his religion, than for his generally living out of the dutchy, and his being deſirous of holding the reins of ſovereignty, though abſent. This put the Poliſh ſtate on contriving the means of incorporating Courland with the kingdom of Poland, on the demiſe of duke Ferdinand, and of dividing it into palatinates. This project filled the noble Courlanders with ſuch apprehenſions for their religion and liberties, that, notwithſtanding a royal inhibition was iſſued out, they held an extraordinary diet at Mittau in June, 1726, in which the ſucceſſion, on the deceaſe of Ferdinand, was ſettled on count Maurice of Saxony, as natural ſon to the king of Poland, and his male heirs. This election was oppoſed both by duke Ferdinand and the Poles, who voted it null and void, and by a new law confirmed the intended union of this country with Poland. The patriots of Courland ſtrenuouſly proteſted againſt this encroachment on their liberties, and maintained, that the ſtates of the dutchy derived from their anceſtors the right of electing their dukes: a right which they had never forfeited. At length the princeſs Anne Iwanowna aſcending the throne of Ruſſia, ſignified to the court of Poland, that ſhe could never conſent to that dutchy being abſolutely incorporated with that kingdom, but would protect it in its right to remain as a fief of the republic, under its own dukes. To this Poland at length conſented, and in 1736 it was agreed, that on the failure of the Ketler line in duke Ferdinand, the dutchy of Courland ſhould have its own dukes by the free election of the ſtates.

On the deceaſe of Ferdinand in the following year, the ſtates, at the recommendation of the empreſs of Ruſſia, choſe for their duke John Erneſt Biron, count of the holy Roman empire, and high chamberlain to her czariſh majeſty, who in 1739 was inveſted duke in the perſon of his envoy, or repreſentative. This prince's dignity was, however, but of ſhort duration; for in 1740, the czarina Anne cauſed him and his family to be taken into cuſtody, and ſent them into exile in 1741; upon which the ſtates of Courland choſe for their duke Lewis Erneſt, duke of Brunſwick-Wolfenbuttle, brother to the regent of Ruſſia's huſband; but this election not being compaſſed without force, it has not yet taken its proper effect.

Indeed Erneſt John is ſtill conſidered as duke of Courland, notwithſtanding his being deprived of the exerciſe of his power. However, the ducal chair having been declared vacant by the high council, all public inſtruments are iſſued out in the name of his Poliſh majeſty, who at preſent perſonates the duke, and are ſigned by the four lords of the regency who have the diſpoſal of public employments. Mean while the court of Ruſſia keeps ſix thouſand men in this country, and alſo a plenipotentiary, who reſides at Mittau; but his only employment is to take care of the revenues, and thoſe lands which the duke had either purchaſed or redeemed from the nobles to whom they had been mortgaged, alledging, that this was done by the duke's embezzling the money belonging to that crown; and accordingly near a hundred thouſand rixdollars are annually paid out of the ducal revenues into the hands of the Ruſſian miniſter.

The revenues of the duke of Courland are ſaid to be very conſiderable; for the ducal domains make above a third part of the whole country: if to theſe be added its convenient ſituation for a maritime trade, the duke of Courland, when in the full poſſeſſion of that office, cannot fail of being very rich. A judgment may be formed of the wealth of this dutchy, if we conſider that James duke of Courland was maſter of forty-four ſhips of war and ſeventy-five merchant ſhips, and endeavoured to ſettle colonies even in America.

The arms of Courland are, quarterly, the firſt and fourth argent, a lion gules, crowned or, for Courland; the ſecond and third azure, a demi-elk crowned proper, for Semigallia. In the center is a ſmall eſcutcheon party per pale, reſerved for the particular coat of the ducal family. The arms are within a ducal mantle of purple and ermine, and ſupported by two lions crowned or, and the whole ſurmounted with a ducal coronet.

By virtue of a form of government for the dutchies of Courland and Semigallia, drawn up in 1670, by a commiſſion from the king of Poland, the following officers of ſtate are appointed in Courland:

Four high counſellors, viz. a ſteward, a chancellor, a burgrave, and a marſhal.

Two civilians, who are the duke's council. The high council, during the abſence, minority, ſickneſs, or death of the duke, adminiſter juſtice, iſſue orders, paſs decrees, and tranſact all other ſtate affairs in his name.

Four ſuperior prefects, two for Semigallia, and two for Courland, who adminiſter juſtice both to the nobles and commonalty within their reſpective juriſdictions. From theſe the vacancies in the high council are filled up, and under each of them are two inferior prefects, who upon occaſion are promoted by the duke to the office of ſuperior prefects. From the court of the latter appeals lie to the ducal ſupreme court, where the duke aſſiſts in perſon, together with the high council. This is held twice a year, and from it, in cauſes amounting to above ſix hundred florins, an appeal lies to the king of Poland, except in caſes of wilful murder, burning of houſes, robbery, rapes, or open violence. Eccleſiaſtical cauſes are tried by the chancellor, aſſiſted by the ſuperintendant and four provoſts: If any diſputes happen to riſe between the duke and nobility, they are decided only by the king in perſon.

The adminiſtration of juſtice in the towns belongs either to the magiſtrate, or the prefect of the diſtrict in which the defendant reſides; according to the nature of the cauſe; and the ſecond and laſt hearing is at the ducal court. Suits relating to debts are heard by officers called executoriales.

Every two years a diet is held at Mittau, to which every pariſh ſends a repreſentative with full powers.

Courland conſiſts of three diviſions, Courland Proper, Semigallia, and the diſtrict of Pilten. The laſt has a particular form of government; but the two firſt are divided into prefectures, and theſe into pariſhes. There are here large and ſmall towns, ſeats, caſtles, farm-houſes, and ſingle houſes of accommodation; but no villages. The number of towns, caſtles, ſeats, &c. is about nine hundred.

In Courland Proper the moſt conſiderable place is,

Libau, which is a ducal city, and a port of good trade on the Baltic. It is ſituated in fifty-ſix degrees fifty-four minutes north latitude, and in twenty-one degrees twenty-ſix minutes eaſt longitude. It is of a middling ſize, and conſiſts entirely of wooden houſes, only one ſtory high; but there is a Lutheran church built in the modern taſte, with a flat roof and balluſtrade. The papiſts are allowed a church at Libau, and there is a proteſtant ſchool. As the harbour wants ſufficient depth of water for ſhips of burthen, they are unloaded in the road; but ſince duke Erneſt John cauſed it to be cleared in 1737, and prevented a future accumulation of mud and ſand by a water-work, it is rendered very commodious for light veſſels. Above one hundred and fifty ſhips annually arrive in this port, in order to load with hemp, linſeed, &c. A court of admiralty is alſo held here, and near the town is a freſh water lake, called the lake of Libau.

The ſecond principal diviſion is that of Semigallia or Semgallen, which includes the prefectures of Mittau and Seelburg, the moſt conſiderable places in which are,

Mittau, the capital of Courland, and the reſidence of the duke, which is ſituated in fifty-ſix degrees forty-

four minutes north latitude, and in twenty-three degrees fifty-one minutes eaſt longitude. This town ſtands on the river Aa, and is very extenſive; but within its circuit are many gardens and open places. The houſes have for the moſt part nothing very elegant to attract the eye, and both the walls and moats of the town are decayed. It is, however, pretty well inhabited. It has two Lutheran churches, a beautiful church belonging to the Calviniſts, and a popiſh church. The ſchool, though it is the principal in the whole country, is far from being in a flouriſhing condition. This city is the ſeat of the regency and ſuperintendant of both dutchies.

At a ſmall diſtance from the city ſtands a palace, begun by the unfortunate duke Erneſt John; but only the front of one wing is compleated, and the reſt hardly carried up as high as the roof. It is built in a moſt delightful ſituation, on the ſame ſpot where the old caſtle ſtood, and is two ſtories high. The palace, according to the plan from which it is built, would probably have been one of the moſt magnificent ſtructures in Europe, had not the building of it been interrupted by the diſgrace and exile of its unhappy founder. It is at preſent a deſolate place, and is gradually falling to decay. The cielings and floors of ſome of the apartments were of moſt excellent workmanſhip; but theſe have been taken away, and the rooms converted into granaries. Under one wing of this building is a handſome vault, in which are depoſited the remains of the deceaſed dukes, moſt of which lie in coffins of fine pewter curiouſly decorated; and among the princes lies a peaſant in a pewter coffin, on account of his heroic fidelity, in voluntarily ſuffering himſelf to be ſhot inſtead of duke Ferdinand, by ſome noblemen who had conſpired againſt that prince's life.

The next diviſion of Courland is that of Pilten, which lies in Courland properly ſo called, and derives its name from the ancient caſtle or palace of Pilten, built by Waldemar II. king of Denmark, about the year 1220, when he founded a biſhop's ſee in this country, for the more effectual converſion of its Pagan inhabitants.

This diſtrict afterwards ſucceſſively belonged to the Germans, then again to the king of Denmark, the duke of Courland, and to Poland; and by virtue of the inſtrument of regency drawn up for this diſtrict in the year 1717, the government is lodged in ſeven Poliſh ſenators or counſellors, from whom an appeal lies to the king. The biſhop of Samogitia alſo ſtiles himſelf biſhop of Pilten.

The moſt remarkable part of this diſtrict is the promontory of Domeſneſs, which projects northward into the gulf of Livonia. From this cape a ſand-bank runs four German miles farther into the ſea, half of which lies under water, and cannot be diſcerned. To the eaſt of this promontory is an unfathomable abyſs, which is never obſerved to be agitated. For the ſafety of veſſels bound to Livonia, two ſquare beacons have been erected on the coaſt, near Domeſneſs church, oppoſite to the ſand-bank, and facing each other. One of theſe is twelve fathoms high, and the other eight; and a large fire is kept burning on them from the firſt of Auguſt to the firſt of January. When the mariners ſee theſe fires appear as one in a direct line, they may conclude that they are clear of the extremity of the ſand-bank, and conſequently out of danger; but if they ſee both beacons, they are in danger of running upon it.

The diſtrict of Pilten contains ſeven pariſhes, but no towns worthy of notice. The inhabitants are chiefly of the Lutheran religion.

SECT. XIV.

Of POLISH PRUSSIA.

Its Situation, Extent, and Produce. Of the Religion and civil Privileges of the People; the Form of the Government. The Diviſions of the Country, with an Account of the principal Towns in each, particularly of Dantzic and Thorn.

POLISH or Regal Pruſſia, which has been added to the general province of Great Poland, is a very different country, inhabited by a different people, who have their peculiar laws and privileges; and therefore deſerves to be ſeparately conſidered, for the ſake of that order and perſpicuity which ought ever to accompany works of ſcience.

This country is bounded on the north by part of Pomerania and the Baltic Sea; on the eaſt, by the kingdom of Pruſſia; on the ſouth, by Great Poland; and on the weſt, by Great Poland and Pomerania. It is far inferior in extent to the kingdom of Pruſſia, it being only about ſixty miles in length, and fifty-one in its greateſt breadth; but in ſome places the latter does not exceed eighteen miles.

The face of this country is diverſified with mountains, woods, and lakes; but in the ſouth part there is little paſture ground, and conſequently few cattle. The fiſheries are of great advantage to this country, which alſo yields a vaſt quantity of honey and wax. The woods abound with wild boars, roe-bucks, and wild fowl, and a good deal of lime is alſo burnt in ſome parts of the country.

The moſt remarkable heaths in Poliſh Pruſſia are thoſe of Skal, Maſura, Nicholait, and the deſart of Johanneſberg, which is ſeven German miles in length, and four in breadth.

It is inhabited partly by Poles, and partly by Germans. The Reformation was introduced here early in the ſixteenth century, and in a few years the profeſſors of the Lutheran religion increaſed ſo faſt, that their number in the principal cities and towns far exceeded that of the Papiſts, and they had almoſt as great a ſuperiority in the ſmaller towns and villages. But ſucceeding times have introduced conſiderable alterations. The kings of Poland have, indeed, allowed the inhabitants the free exerciſe of the Lutheran religion in the cities of Pruſſia; but there are at preſent only few towns in which the Lutherans have churches, and in other towns they have been compelled to give them up to the Papiſts. Beſides, the Proteſtants are continually oppreſſed, and promiſes of preferment and other means are too ſucceſsfully employed, in order to ſeduce the Pruſſian nobility from the Lutheran church.

Poliſh Pruſſia is a diſtinct political body or ſtate, that has nothing in common with Poland, except its having the ſame ſovereign, and being connected with that crown by a perpetual alliance. For when the inhabitants put themſelves under the protection of king Caſimir IV. in 1466, it was expreſly ſtipulated, that the dutchy of Pruſſia ſhould have nothing to do with the republic of Poland; but that the king alone ſhould perſonally order and determine all matters relating to the former; and for that purpoſe ſhould come among them, and ſummon general diets. Hence this ſtate enjoys the ſame right as Poland and Lithuania, of voting at the election of a king, who after his coronation is obliged to ſwear, that he will maintain the Pruſſians in their rights and privileges; and when this is done, they pay homage to the new ſovereign.

In matters of a public nature, the king can determine nothing without the concurrence of the ſtates, who are divided into ſpiritual and temporal members, the latter conſiſting of nobles and burghers. Of theſe the ſenate is at preſent compoſed. This council conſiſts, firſt, of the biſhops of Ermland and Culm. The former is the preſident and chief among the nobility, and is not under any ſubordination to the archbiſhop of Gneſna; but holds immediately of the pope. His dioceſe, in which he has the ſupreme authority both in civil and eccleſiaſtical cauſes, is of very large extent. Its revenues are divided into three parts, one of which belongs to the chapter; but the other two, which are computed at ſixty-four thouſand dollars, are aſſigned for the epiſcopal table. The dioceſe of the biſhop of Culm is not near ſo extenſive, and conſequently the revenue is much inferior to that of the biſhop of Ermland. The biſhop of Culm is a ſuffragan to the archbiſhop of Gneſna, and the king abſolutely diſpoſes of that biſhopric without calling a chapter.

The other members of the council are three palatinates, who are of equal dignity with thoſe of Poland; three caſtellans, who are not inveſted with any particular office or employment, but on a general ſummons

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of the nobility, may be looked upon as the lieutenants of the palatinates. Three vice-treaſurers, who have only a bare title; but as they are counſellors of ſtate, they take place of the reſt of the nobility. Two counſellors from each of the three great cities, Dantzic, Thorn, and Elbing, and each of theſe repreſentatives have a vote.

All theſe ſtate counſellors, according to the laws of the country, ought to be native Pruſſians; but they have ſeldom theſe qualifications. They are nominated by the king of Poland, and take a particular oath at their admiſſion. The biſhop of Ermland ſits as preſident in the Pruſſian diet; but in his abſence, his place is ſupplied by the principal perſon among the nobility who are preſent. Theſe members are ſtiled the two ſtates of the dutchy of Pruſſia, and royal counſellors: they may likewiſe be termed the ſuperior ſtates, to diſtinguiſh them from the inferior, compoſed of the lower nobility, and the deputies of the ſmall towns. Formerly king Caſimir IV. engaged for himſelf and ſucceſſors, not to determine any affair of conſequence, without the previous concurrence of the ſtates of Pruſſia. This was the original of theſe Pruſſian diets, which had formerly no connection with thoſe of Poland. But in the year 1569, part of the ſenate, or council of Pruſſia, was united with the ſenate of Poland, and the ſtates of the former were compelled to appear at the general diet of the kingdom. From that time the political conſtitution of Pruſſia has been much changed; but it is not entirely interwoven with that of Poland, and ſtill enjoys particular rights and privileges.

At ſummoning the general Pruſſian diet, which is alternately held at Marienburg and Graudenz, the king ſpecifies the time of holding the leſſer diets, where the repreſentatives of the former are choſen, and receive their inſtructions. Theſe provincial diets are held in every palatinate, and the happy concluſion of them is a preſage of the proſperous iſſue of the general diet; for if only one of theſe aſſemblies riſes abruptly, the general diet is ſeldom expected to aſſemble. The number of repreſentatives for every palatinate is not fixed, but they have lately been more numerous than formerly. The inſtructions given them are in the Poliſh tongue, and during the ſeſſion of the diet their expences are defrayed.

The Pruſſians, beſides their own general diet, aſſiſt at the general diet of Poland; but they agree to the taxes to be impoſed on them, only in their own general diet, and not in that of Poland.

The Pruſſians had formerly their own coin, which is now reduced to the ſtandard of the Poliſh money. However, the three principal cities of Pruſſia have ſtill the privilege of coining gold and ſilver pieces, impreſſed with the king's head on one ſide, and their reſpective arms on the reverſe; which, after receiving the royal ſanction, paſs as the current money of Pruſſia.

Beſides the counſellors of ſtate, already mentioned, there are ſeveral other public officers in Pruſſia, as the treaſurer, who is the principal, and the only one that has an annual appointment: the ſword-bearer, who has only the bare title: the ſtandard-bearer, who bears the ſtandard of the province, when all the nobility take the field; and ſeven judges, with their aſſiſtants.

With reſpect to the towns of Pruſſia, it is worthy of notice that they are divided into the three great cities, Dantzic, Thorn, and Elbing, and twenty-ſeven royal towns, beſides thoſe that belong to the biſhops of Ermeland and Culm. An aſſociation was formed among theſe ſmall towns under the government of the knights of the Teutonic order. By this union, which ſtill continues, they are to unite in behalf of their common privileges; to conſult their intereſt as a community in their particular aſſemblies; and to recommend their common concerns in the general diet of Pruſſia to the repreſentatives of the great cities. Marienburg, which is the moſt conſiderable among theſe towns, has the directory, and this, with Graudenz, Dirſhau, Stargard, and Konitz, are called the plenipotentiary towns; for, beſides their own affairs, they are charged with thoſe of all the other towns, which they lay before the directory, and the latter repreſent them to the deputies of the great cities.

Theſe ſmall towns are at preſent far from being in a flouriſhing condition. From the ſentences of their magiſtrates an appeal lies to the ſtaroſtas, and from the latter to the king.

Poliſh Pruſſia conſiſts of four provinces; we ſhall begin with that of Pomerellia, or Little Pomerania.

Pomerellia was antiently a part of the dutchy of Pomerania; but at laſt fell under the dominion of Poland. This palatinate contains five circles, and has four provincial judges; the moſt remarkable places in this province are,

Dantzic, called by the Poles Gdantzk, a celebrated commercial city and fortreſs, ſituated on the Viſtula, near five miles from the Baltic, in fifty-three degrees thirty-eight minutes north latitude, and in eighteen degrees thirty-five minutes eaſt longitude. The ſmall rivers called the Radaune and the Motlau run through the city; the latter dividing into two channels, which run between the Old and New Town, and afterwards unite again below the city, and, with the Radaune, fall into the Viſtula. It is a large, beautiful, and populous city, built after the antient manner of the Hanſe-towns. The houſes are generally five ſtories high, which make the ſtreets appear the narrower, eſpecially as the entrance into the houſes is by four or five ſtone ſteps, and a balcony, which make a projection of ten or twelve feet. Theſe houſes are kept clean after the manner of the Dutch, though with leſs nicety. Many of the ſtreets are planted with cheſnut-trees about thirty feet high, which afford an agreeable ſhelter.

This city has a beautiful harbour, and the inhabitants, who are remarkably civil and obliging to ſtrangers, carry on a conſiderable trade, eſpecially in corn. The ſhips belonging to this port are very numerous, and the privileges of this city are of great importance. As it is one of the three great cities, it ſends repreſentatives to the Pruſſian ſenate or council of ſtate, who have likewiſe a ſeat in the general diet of Poland, and vote at the election of a king. The Dantzickers have alſo the privilege of coining money, gathering amber, &c.

In this city are twelve Lutheran churches, excluſive of thoſe in the houſe of correction and in the alms-houſes, two Calviniſtical churches, and one Popiſh church, with a college of Jeſuits. The cathedral, which is a large Lutheran church dedicated to the Virgin Mary, is the moſt magnificent, and the principal church in Dantzic. Mr. Hanway obſerves, that this is an antient ſtructure that has not been much changed by the eſtabliſhment of the proteſtant religion of this city: for it was agreed by treaties to leave the crucifixes, images, and pictures, as in the times of popery. They ſhew a very curious piece of painting on wood, of the reſurrection, by Van Eyck. It is much admired, particularly for the hands and faces, and is ſaid to be one of the firſt performances in oil colours; yet is ſo perfect, and delicate, as to bear the niceſt examination. But this church, upon every frivolous pretence, is ſubject to the impoſitions of the Popiſh biſhop. The firſt preacher, or miniſter of this church, is called ſenior miniſterii, the reſt are equal as to dignity, and two of them muſt always be doctors in divinity. There is a Lutheran academy in the Grey Friars convent, in which are ſeven profeſſors and one teacher of the Poliſh language. In this convent is alſo the city library.

The other public buildings are the exchange, the council-houſes in the Old and New Town, the public weigh-houſe, the arſenal, which contains a good collection of arms, but many of them are old and uſeleſs; they have a hundred and fifty large braſs cannon, ſome of which are ſaid to weigh fifteen thouſand pounds. They have alſo a fine mill erected on the river Radune, which has eighteen wheels, is the largeſt in all the city, and is ſaid to have brought in a ducat every hour to the proprietors.

This city was antiently the principal of the Hanſe-towns, it being one of the firſt that entered into the Hanſeatic aſſociation. The German is almoſt the only language ſpoken here, the Poliſh being little uſed by the inhabitants.

This city has its own garriſon, and the fortifications make a good appearance, eſpecially towards the ſouth

and

and weſt; thoſe parts of the town being ſurrounded with eminences, ſome of which riſe higher than the towers of the city.

According to the bills of mortality eighteen hundred and forty-ſix perſons died in this city in 1752. In the ſame year twelve hundred and eighty-eight Poliſh veſſels, ſmall and great, from the Viſtula, and a thouſand and fourteen ſhips from the ſea, arrived in this port; and fifty-eight thouſand and ſixty buſhels of corn were brought into this city for exportation. Indeed the moſt conſiderable branch of the trade of Dantzic is that of corn, which is brought by the Polanders, in large barks of about fifty tons burthen, down the Viſtula. In plentiful years theſe barks annually amount to about ſixteen hundred. As theſe cargoes are often expoſed to the weather, it is cuſtomary to ſpread their ſails on the banks of the river, and to dry their corn upon them. They alſo export bees-wax to the annual amount of near a thouſand ſchippounds; beſides narrow linens, ſacking, pot-aſh, pearl-aſh, pipe-ſtaves, and oak-plank.

It appears from antient records, that Dantzic was a large commercial city ſo early as the year 997. The New Town was founded by the Teutonic knights in the year 1311, and was firſt encompaſſed with a wall and moat in 1343. Dantzic ſhook off the yoke of thoſe knights in 1454, and the inhabitants, upon certain conditions, ſubmitted to Caſimir, king of Poland, who, among other privileges, granted them the right of coining their own money. Afterwards they refuſed to do homage to Stephen, king of Poland, without the previous confirmation of their rights and privileges; upon which the city was put under the ban, and beſieged by that prince; but the affair was accommodated, and, on their publickly acknowledging their error, and paying a large fine, the king received them into favour, confirmed their privileges, and granted them the free exerciſe of the Lutheran religion. In 1734, Staniſlaus, king of Poland, took refuge here, which occaſioned a hot ſiege and bombardment from the Ruſſians and Saxons; but Staniſlaus making his eſcape, Dantzic ſubmitted to Auguſtus III. as its rightful ſovereign.

The city is in the dioceſe of Cujavia, and the inhabitants pay the popiſh biſhop all the regard conſiſtent with the difference of their religion, and the privilege and immunities of the city. Without the walls of Dantzic lie the following places within its juriſdiction.

The Dantziger Werder, or iſland, which is ſurrounded by the Viſtula, the Motlau, and the moraſſes cauſed by theſe rivers, and contains about fourteen hundred hides of land, and about thirty-three villages. It is entirely under the government of the magiſtrates of Dantzic; and the ſenior burgomaſter, and two of the ſenators, are ſuperintendants of it. There are twelve church-villages in this iſland, and among them is one Calviniſt church and two chapels.

The Friſche Nehrung is a long narrow ſlip of land, extending between the ſea and the harbour. It contains five villages that have churches; but the moſt remarkable place on this iſland is a fort called Munde, which is very ſtrong, and has a church and a commodious harbour. The Hohe, on which are eight church villages; and the little town of Hela, likewiſe belongs to Dantzic, and is on a point of land which projects with a curve into the Baltic, forming the Pantzkerwic-bay, where ſhips uſually caſt anchor.

About a German mile from Dantzic is Oliva, a celebrated convent, that has been frequently conſumed by fire. It is at preſent inhabited by about fifty Ciſtercian monks. The inſide of the church is extremely ſplendid, particularly the high altar and the pulpit, which are finely gilt and extremely beautiful. It has forty altars, all embelliſhed with the richeſt ornaments, and ſeveral chapels, among which that of the bleſſed Virgin is the moſt magnificent. The remains of the founder of the monaſtery, and his ſons, are depoſited under a marble tomb-ſtone in the choir, and the walls are ornamented with the ſtatues of the principal benefactors to this religious houſe. Near the entrance of the church is a marble table in the wall, in commemoration of the treaty of Oliva concluded in this monaſtery between the Poles and Swedes in 1660. The diſpenſary belonging to the convent is elegant and well contrived. This monaſtery has the privilege of gathering amber on the ſea coaſt. Round this ſtructure a pretty village has been gradually built. There are ſeveral other ſmall towns in the diſtrict belonging to Dantzic.

The next province of Poliſh Pruſſia is that of Culmerland, or the palatinate of Culm. This province has a palatine, who is the firſt of thoſe belonging to Pruſſia, a caſtellan, a vice-treaſurer, a ſword-bearer, a judge, and eight ſtaroſties. The principal places in this palatinate are,

Culm, or Chelmno, the capital of the province, which ſtands on an eminence on the banks of the Viſtula, in fifty-three degrees twenty minutes north latitude, and in nineteen degrees twenty minutes eaſt longitude. This city was founded in 1239, and bequeathed by one of the dukes of Maſovia, to the knights of the Teutonic order. The inhabitants afterwards withdrew themſelves from their obedience, and ſubmitted to Poland. While the Teutonic knights had the ſovereignty of Culm, the high tribunal of Pruſſia was held in this city, and the Culmean law became in ſuch reputation, that there were few places in Pruſſia or Maſovia, where it was not received. The biſhopric of Culm is the moſt antient ſee in Poliſh Pruſſia, and the college or chapter conſiſts of only four canons, who are choſen by the biſhop, and the reſt of the chapter. Culm is a large city, though but thinly inhabited, and was formerly one of the Hanſe towns. It is at preſent ſubject to the biſhop.

Thorn, the chief of the three great cities of Poliſh Pruſſia, ſtands on the Viſtula, ſeventy-two miles ſouth of Dantzic, in fifty-two degrees forty-ſix minutes north latitude, and in nineteen degrees fifteen minutes eaſt longitude. This city was founded by Herman Balck, firſt grand maſter of the Teutonic order, who in 1231, built the caſtle of Thorn, and in the following year laid the foundation of the town; but in 1235, the building of it was diſcontinued, on account of its inconvenient ſituation, and the city was built about four miles and a half up the river, where the city now ſtands. It is ſuppoſed to have been called Thorn, becauſe the knights, by building it, opened to themſelves a thor, or door, into Ruſſia. Thus the ſeal of the city preſents a gate thrown open. Thorn ſoon after its being built became diſtinguiſhed above the other towns of Pruſſia by its enjoying ſeveral valuable privileges; but when the Teutonic knights made a very ill uſe of their power throughout all Pruſſia, Thorn was the firſt city that formed the noble ſcheme of ſhaking off their oppreſſive yoke. The inhabitants having concerted an agreement with the other towns in the year 1454, made themſelves maſters of the caſtle, and demoliſhed it; and having expelled the Teutonic knights by force of arms, the confederates put themſelves under the protection of Caſimir the Great, king of Poland; but their rights, privileges, and immunities were to remain entire. They were to honour his Poliſh majeſty as their ſovereign; but without any farther connection with Poland than a cloſe harmony and alliance, by which they engaged to have the ſame allies and enemies, to aſſiſt each other on all occaſions, and reciprocally to promote the welfare and proſperity of both parties.

The privileges granted to theſe three cities in common were as follows: they were declared free, and were to be governed by their own magiſtrates, conſiſting of the council, the chief perſons of which are the burgrave and preſident, the judges, and the repreſentatives of the burghers. The members of the council were to be ſtiled noble; they were allowed to hold a ſupreme court of judicature, and in criminal caſes to puniſh capitally even thoſe who were not inhabitants of the city if they were taken in the fact; to have their own garriſon; to coin money, and to have their law-ſuits decided only in Pruſſia. They were to pay no other cuſtoms in Poland but thoſe uſually demanded at the firſt barrier on the frontiers. Laſtly, they were to be members of the ſtate-council of Poliſh Pruſſia, and to have a ſeat and vote in the Poliſh diet, and at the election of a king. The third jubilee of this event was commemorated with great rejoicings

rejoicings in the ſchools of all the three great cities in February 1754, when Thorn and Dantzic cauſed medals to be ſtruck on the occaſion.

In this city the records of Poliſh Pruſſia are kept; it has ten gates, and is divided into the Old and New Town, each of which had formerly its reſpective council, magiſtracy, and police; but in 1454 they were incorporated into one city. They are, however, ſeparated by a wall and moat within the town, but on the outſide are defended in common by a double wall and moats. This is eſteemed the handſomeſt city in Poliſh Pruſſia, its ſtreets being broad and regular, and for the moſt part planted with rows of trees: the houſes are alſo remarkable for their elegant appearance and cleanlineſs. The wooden bridge over the Viſtula in this city may be juſtly eſteemed the longeſt, the moſt extraordinary, and expenſive bridge in Europe, the city being obliged to expend great ſums in keeping it in repair. It properly conſiſts of two bridges, the iſland of Bazar dividing it in the middle. That part of it next to Thorn is called the German bridge, and the channel over which it lies is eſteemed the German Viſtula; but the other part is diſtinguiſhed by the name of the Poliſh bridge, it lying over the channel called the Poliſh Viſtula. As the river grows continually wider, the bridge muſt neceſſarily be lengthened; ſo that at preſent it takes up half an hour to walk over it from one bank of the river to the other. It is alſo the moſt ſingular on account of the quick-ſand into which the piles are driven, which occaſions the whole bridge to ſhake and totter whenever any carriages or horſes are upon it, or even when it is paſſed by a conſiderable number of foot-paſſengers: a ſtranger, who is unacquainted with its conſtruction, apprehends himſelf in great danger in paſſing over it. The ice on the Viſtula, which is frequently two or three feet thick, and the rapidity of the current, carry away every year at leaſt one third of it. Hence ſome idea may be formed of the vaſt expence the city of Thorn is at in repairing theſe annual damages; for the Poles, notwithſtanding the heavy loads they bring over it, pay no part of the expence.

Thorn has its own garriſon, which generally conſiſts of only one company. The ſope, gingerbread, &c. of this city are every where in great requeſt; and accordingly great quantities of them are exported. The aſparagus that grows wild in ſome of the city lands is not inferior to that cultivated in the gardens of other countries.

The inhabitants of Thorn are commended by all foreigners for their civility and politeneſs, in which they exceed thoſe of every other town in Pruſſia. It is alſo obſervable, that the German tongue is ſpoken here in the greateſt purity; ſo that even the inhabitants of Upper Saxony acknowledge that they are at preſent equalled, if not excelled, in this particular by the commonalty and burghers of Thorn. But what is ſtill more remarkable is, that not only the German but even the Poliſh language, which is neceſſary for carrying on trade, is alſo ſpoken here in ſuch perfection, that the Poles ſend their children hither, merely to learn their native tongue in its utmoſt purity and elegance.

The inhabitants of Thorn embraced the reformation very early. In the year 1557, king Sigiſmund Auguſtus granted them conſiderable privileges. The Lutherans were allowed St. John's church and St. Mary's in the Old Town, and St. James's in the New, beſides St. George's and St. Catharine's in the ſuburbs. On the other hand, the Papiſts were allowed a chapel near St. John's, and the church of St. Laurence in the ſuburbs. The Dominicans retained their church of St. Nicholas, and their convent in the New Town; and the Benedictine nuns their church of the Holy Ghoſt, and their nunnery, which ſtands on the Viſtula. In the above churches the Lutherans adminiſtered the ſacrament of the Lord's Supper in both kinds, and the council are empowered to nominate the miniſters of their religion. But in the year 1593 St. John's church was transferred to the papiſts, and afterwards the Jeſuits built a college at Thorn, which has always been much frequented by ſtrangers, and has occaſioned many calamities to the city, particularly in the year 1724. The city has, however, maintained its right of patronage of the above church, and alternately with the king of Poland nominates the Romiſh prieſt who officiates in it. In this church is to be ſeen the epitaph of the celebrated aſtronomer Nicholas Copernicus, who was born in this city. In 1667, St. James's church, in the New Town, with the hoſpital belonging to it, was taken from the Lutherans, and given to the Benedictine nuns, and they were deprived, in the ſame unjuſt manner, of St. Mary's, the only remaining Lutheran church, with the celebrated ſeminary, which was removed to another edifice, after having flouriſhed there ſince the year 1568. The Lutherans of the Old Town continued for ſeveral years to perform divine ſervice publicly in the exchange, which ſtands in the market-place; but that edifice was too ſmall for the congregation; for the burghers amount to at leaſt a thouſand men, who are all Lutherans, except about thirty perſons; on which account they have ſince the year 1755 built a new church on one ſide of the market-place. There are four Lutheran churches in the villages belonging to Thorn. In the city are alſo ſome Calviniſts, who perform their religious worſhip in a private houſe. The Jews have likewiſe a ſmall ſynagogue in the city. About a German mile from Thorn is a Popiſh chapel dedicated to St. Barbara, diſtinguiſhed by many pretended miracles; and an annual proceſſion is made with great ſolemnity every Whitſun-Tueſday from the city to this chapel, for obtaining public indulgencies.

Among the public edifices of the city, the town-houſe in the Old Town is worth the notice of the traveller: it ſtands in the market-place, on every ſide of which very handſome houſes are erected, and forms an elegant quadrangular ſquare ſtructure, built with ſuch magnificence, that for the beauty of its architecture, foreigners give it the preference to moſt edifices of that kind in Europe.

The exchange, which is alſo in the market-place, is a ſuperb ſtructure, adorned with towers, and its front embelliſhed with gilded buſtoes of the kings of Poland.

The popiſh churches, both for their ſpaciouſneſs and ornaments, deſerve particular notice, as does the Jeſuit's college.

The junkerhof which ſtands on the bank of the Viſtula, and belongs to the exchange, is a delightful place intended for feſtivity, and the entertainment of the principal merchants and citizens.

The leaning tower, as it is called, is an extraordinary piece of architecture; for as its outſide is built obliquely from the ground, it appears as if ready to fall: but on the inſide the floors and ceilings are perfectly horizontal, and the walls perpendicular to the horizon.

Graudenz, formerly called Grodec, and in the Poliſh language Grudziandz, is a handſome town pleaſantly ſituated on an iſland formed by the river Oſſa, which here flows through two channels into the Viſtula. The caſtle ſtands on an eminence, and within it is a church; there is another in the town, of which the Lutherans were deprived in 1598, on which account they are obliged to perform divine ſervice in the town-houſe, where they have alſo a ſchool, and the Jeſuits a college. The Pruſſian diet is held here and at Marienburg alternately.

The next province of Poliſh Pruſſia we ſhall deſcribe is the prefecture of Marienburg, which has a palatine, a vice-treaſurer, and a provincial judge. This palatinate contains three werders. A werder is a fen, or moraſs, ſurrounded with water, and improved for tillage and habitation. They produce plenty of graſs and corn, but have ſeldom either woods or hills. That called the wood of Elbing is the moſt conſiderable in this diſtrict. In many parts the only fuel is turf, ſtraw, and ſtubble; and even where there are woods, they afford little game, except hares, woodcocks, and other wild-fowl, but harbour very fierce wolves. The freſh water in theſe werders is very good; the air is tolerably healthful; a great number of cattle are bred here, and the horſes are much eſteemed. The inhabitants of the werders have from time immemorial been free peaſants, and are ſtiled the royal vaſſals and werderers. Thoſe however who are ſubject to

the juriſdiction of the cities, are under greater reſtrictions than the royal peaſants who live in the Marienburg werders. They ſpeak the German and Poliſh languages, and are for the moſt part Lutherans or Papiſts; but there are alſo ſome Calviniſts, and a conſiderable number of Mennonites, a ſort of Baptiſts.

The principal places in the prefecture of Marienburg are, Marienburg, a well built town, ſtands on an eminence near the river Nogat, in a pleaſant and fertile country, in fifty-four degrees twelve minutes north latitude, and in nineteen degrees twelve minutes eaſt longitude. Here is a handſome church dedicated to the Virgin Mary, from which the town takes its name. The wooden bridge laid over the Nogat is five hundred and thirty-nine feet in length, and is a very great charge to the city; the fund appropriated for building and repairing it not being ſufficient for that purpoſe. In the caſtle is the treaſury, where are kept the revenues of Poliſh Pruſſia: the ſtreets of the town are very dirty. Moſt of the inhabitants are Roman catholics, and there is but one Lutheran church.

Elbing, a handſome large city, fortified after the antient manner, ſtands on a river of the ſame name, in fifty-four degrees twenty-one minutes north latitude, and nineteen degrees fifteen minutes eaſt longitude. It was built in 1239, and is a place of conſiderable trade. Between the Old Town and the ſuburbs, where the ſtore-houſes of the merchants are erected, runs the river Elbing; and the Old Town is divided from the New by a wall and moat. The houſes are high, narrow in front, and built in the old taſte much like thoſe at Dantzic. The ſtreets are alſo very narrow, occaſioned by the balconies which project into them; and before theſe are receptacles for all the duſt and filth thrown out of the houſes. Here are ten churches, in which divine ſervice is performed. That of St. Nicholas, which is the largeſt and handſomeſt church in Pruſſia, was given up to the papiſts in 1616. The Calviniſts perform divine ſervice in a large hall, and the Mennonites in a private houſe in the city; but the ſchool belongs to the Lutherans. This is one of the Hanſe-towns, and as it is inhabited by a colony from Lubec, it is governed by the laws of that city; the burghers, however, have their particular rights and privileges. The caſtle, which was built in 1237, was demoliſhed by the burghers in 1454. The fortifications towards the werder are very ſlight, but on the oppoſite ſide they are in a much better condition; yet it is eſteemed one of the ſtrongeſt towns in Poliſh Pruſſia. Some companies of the crown-army of Poland are cantoned in this town, but the burghers keep guard at the gates, and the ſuburbs have a Pruſſian garriſon.

This city in eccleſiaſtical matters is under the juriſdiction of the biſhop of Ermeland, as far as is conſiſtent with the difference of religion, and without prejudice to the rights and privileges of the city; but in civil affairs it is only ſubject to the king. In 1703, Elbing fell into the poſſeſſion of the Swedes, who laid it under contribution; but the Ruſſians took it from them by ſtorm. It was formerly mortgaged to the elector of Brandenburg, as a ſecurity for the payment of four hundred thouſand rixdollars; but as the elector did not receive the ſum ſtipulated, the king of Pruſſia took poſſeſſion of the diſtrict belonging to the city, in virtue of the above agreement.

The laſt province of Poliſh Pruſſia which remains to be mentioned is that of Ermeland, which is entirely ſurrounded by the kingdom of Pruſſia. This province belongs to no palatinate, but is entirely ſubject to the biſhop and chapter; ſo that neither the nobility nor the other inhabitants of Ermeland can appeal to any other judicature. Two-thirds of this province belong to the biſhop, and the remaining third part to the chapter. Their ſubjects have recourſe to the ſame courts of judicature as the reſt of the Pruſſians; but they have ſome particular laws to themſelves. They have alſo a provincial diet, to which the nobility, the burghers, and country judges, together with the freemen, are ſummoned. Though the Ermelanders do not aſſiſt at the Pruſſian diets, the biſhop is always preſent, and propoſes whatever is debated concerning his dioceſe, particularly in relation to the taxes, according as they have been agreed upon in a provincial meeting held for that purpoſe, where the Ermelanders ſeldom diſſent from their biſhop and the Pruſſian ſtates.

The moſt conſiderable places in Ermeland are,

Braunſberg, a pretty large trading town, ſituated on the Paſſarge, at a ſmall diſtance from its mouth. It was built in 1255, and received its name from Bruno, biſhop of Prague. It is divided into the Old and New Town, and is very populous. The celebrated college of the Jeſuits in this town was formerly a Franciſcan convent; it is now under the juriſdiction of the biſhop.

Heilſberg, a beautiful town on the Alle, in which ſtands an elegant ſeat belonging to the biſhop of Ermeland. There is a college of Jeſuits in the town. It is ſaid to be built in 1240, and was deſtroyed by fire in 1521. Charles XII. king of Sweden, had his head-quarters here in 1703.

Keſſel, an elegant little town with a caſtle, has a college of Jeſuits, to which the church of the Holy Linden-tree in Brandenburgh Pruſſia belongs. This town is well ſupplied with proviſions, and carries on a good trade.

We might here be expected to conclude this chapter on Poland, by following the example of almoſt all other geographers, in joining to Regal or Poliſh Pruſſia the kingdom of that name; but this new kingdom ought no longer to be conſidered as a petty dukedom; it ought no longer to be placed on a level with Poliſh Pruſſia, and the other ſtates dependent on the republic of Poland; its ſovereign has given it a more reſpectable appearance in the eyes of all Europe: we ſhall therefore treat of it in a ſeparate chapter.

CHAP.

A New & Accurate
MAP
of the Kingdom of
POLISH PRUSSIA
and
PRUSSIA
from the Sieur Roberts
ATLAS

CHAP. IV.

Of the Kingdom of PRUSSIA.

SECT. I.

The Situation, Extent, Climate, Produce, Rivers, Lakes, and Bays of the Kingdom of Pruſſia in general; with a particular Account of the Properties of Amber.

THIS kingdom, which has been generally called Ducal Pruſſia, and belongs to the houſe of Brandenburg, is divided from the other dominions of its ſovereign by Poliſh Pruſſia, and is bounded on the north by Samogitia, on the eaſt by Lithuania, on the ſouth by Poland Proper and Maſovia, and on the weſt by Poliſh Pruſſia and the Baltic. Its greateſt length from its northern extremity to Soldau is about a hundred and ninety miles, and its breadth from the borders of the great dutchy of Lithuania, near Shirwind, to the weſtern coaſt of Samland is a hundred and fourteen miles; but in other places it is much narrower.

With reſpect to the climate and temperature of the air, the two laſt months of the ſpring and the two firſt ſummer months are temperate, warm, and pleaſant, and the weather generally favourable for bringing the fruits of the earth to maturity; but before and after theſe months the air is cold and piercing: autumn is often wet, and the winter ſevere. The air is, however, well purified by high winds. As to the diſtempers which moſt prevail in Pruſſia, the inhabitants are more ſubject to the gout and ſtone than to the ſcurvy.

The ſoil produces great plenty of corn, fruit, excellent herbs, and paſturage. Pruſſia likewiſe abounds with flocks and herds, and exceeding fine horſes; its chief commodities are buck-wheat, wool, flax, hemp, wax, honey, hops, pit-coal, and pitch.

Pruſſia alſo affords plenty of game, as elks, ſtags, roe-bucks, white and common hares, and wild boars; and is infeſted with beaſts of prey, as lynxes, bears, wolves, and foxes; but as for the buffaloes that formerly frequented this country, they have been extirpated by the poachers, and wild horſes and aſſes ſeem to have deſerted Pruſſia.

The woods, particularly thoſe of oak, are ſaid to be greatly diminiſhed, eſpecially in Leſſer Lithuania.

Pruſſian manna is found in the meadows on the top of a kind of graſs, and gathered in the morning, while the dew lies upon it. Natangen yields the beſt ſort, and in the greateſt plenty.

The beautiful red colour called St. John's blood, is made of the eggs of a ſmall worm, or inſect, very common in this country.

Vaſt quantities of amber are found on the coaſts of the Baltic, in Pruſſia, particularly on the Samland ſhore. It owes its origin to a ſulphureous matter, is pellucid, and generally yellow; but the white ſort is eſteemed the beſt. If amber be well rubbed, it attracts light ſubſtances; it is alſo inflammable, and when burnt, its odoriferous effluvia ſurpaſs thoſe of frankincenſe or maſtic. It likewiſe yields an acid ſpirit. That it was once in a fluid ſtate evidently appears from the leaves, minerals, flies, ſpiders, ants, gnats, worms, frogs, fiſhes, drops of water, pieces of wood, and grains of ſand, that are frequently ſeen incloſed in it. Dr. Buſching obſerves, that amber is generally found on large trees which are buried under ground in a vitriolic earth, and contain an oily ſubſtance; and that hence ſome are of opinion, that the oil being coagulated by the acidity of the vitriol, becomes the ſolid body which we call amber. Amber is not only obtained by digging, but is found in the ſea, it being waſhed off the trees by the agitation of the waves in high weſterly or north-weſt winds, and driven on ſhore. The profits ariſing from amber belongs to the crown of Pruſſia, and annually amount to about twenty-ſix thouſand dollars.

Pruſſia yields neither ſalt, wine, nor minerals, except in ſome places it contains iron ore. It is for the moſt part a level country. Among the Pruſſian mountains, that of Goldberg and Goldap are the higheſt.

The lakes, rivers, and canals, with the neighbouring ſea, afford a variety of excellent fiſh, as ſalmon, ſturgeon, cod, turbots, ſoles, hallybuts, pike, perch, plaiſe, eels, and many others.

The principal rivers in the kingdom of Pruſſia are, the Weichſel, or Viſtula, the Pregel, the Memel, or Mummel, the Paſſarge, and the Alle. Theſe rivers are partly navigable, but at certain times of the year, and in high winds, are apt to overflow their banks, and to cauſe terrible inundations.

This country is likewiſe watered by ſeveral large bays, lakes, and canals, which yield great plenty of fiſh, and the conveniency of a communication by water between ſeveral towns, the principal of theſe are,

The Friſche Haf, or Freſh Haven, in Latin Sinus Venedicus. This bay is from five to fourteen miles in breadth, and fifty-ſeven in length. It has a communication with the Baltic by a ſtreight called the Gatt, and in other places is ſeparated from the Baltic by a narrow ſlip of land called the Friſche Nerung. The Gatt is about an Engliſh mile in breadth, and twelve feet in depth; and the Friſche Haf is ſo ſhallow, that no ſhips of burthen can ſail upon it, and therefore they are obliged to unload at Pillau.

The Curiſche Haf, in Latin Sinus Curonicus. This bay is about ſeventy miles in length, and twenty-eight in breadth. It is ſeparated from the Baltic by a narrow ridge of land called Curiſche Nerung, but joins the ſea near Memel, where it is about an Engliſh mile broad, and nineteen feet deep. This bay is full of dangerous ſhelves and ſand-banks, and is agitated by frequent ſtorms. Its coaſts on every ſide are inhabited by fiſhermen.

As to inland lakes, this country has many of them from four to thirty miles in length, and five or ſix miles in breadth; the principal of which are thoſe of Spirding, Angerburg, Rein, and Drauſen.

SECT. II.

Of the Inhabitants of the Kingdom of Pruſſia. Their Number, Deſcent, and Religion. Their Manufactures, Commodities, and Coins. The Hiſtory and Arms of Pruſſia; the Orders of Knighthood; the Form of Government, and the royal Revenue.

THE number of inhabitants in this kingdom were in the year 1755 computed at ſix hundred and thirty-five thouſand nine hundred and ninety-eight perſons capable of bearing arms, and conſiſt of native Pruſſians, who, from their language and manners, appear to be deſcended from the Germans; of Lithuanians, who have their peculiar language; and of Poles. Since the year 1719, it is computed that above thirty-four thouſand perſons have removed from France, Switzerland, and Germany into the kingdom of Pruſſia, ſeventeen thouſand of whom were Saltzburghers: ſuch advantages has this nation reaped by wiſely giving encouragement to all who were perſecuted on account of religion, to ſettle there. Theſe ſtrangers have built four hundred ſmall villages, eleven towns, eighty-ſix ſeats, fifty new churches, and founded a thouſand village-ſchools in this country. Little Lithuania is for the moſt part peopled by theſe colonies; but it is thought that Pruſſia can afford both room and ſubſiſtence for as many more emigrants.

The Pruſſian nobility are for the moſt part deſcended from the antient Germans, and the peaſants are chiefly vaſſals either to the king or nobles.

With

With reſpect to the religion of Pruſſia, the inhabitants are in general Lutherans; but as a great number of the coloniſts are Calviniſts, they have alſo their churches, not only in the cities and towns, but in ſome villages they have a particular church appropriated to their uſe, and in other places they perform divine ſervice in the Lutheran churches. The Papiſts have a few churches in this kingdom; here are alſo ſome Mennonites, and a few congregations of Socinians.

The manufactures in Pruſſia are daily improving and increaſing, particularly the glaſs and iron works, manufactures of ſilk, cloth, camblet, linen, and ſtockings; paper, powder, copper, and braſs mills. Pruſſia is conveniently ſituated for trade, and to promote it a college of commerce and navigation has been erected, which takes cognizance of all diſputes and propoſals relating to trade and commerce.

The commodities of Pruſſia and Great Lithuania ſold to foreign merchants, and annually exported, are all kinds of grain, to the amount of twenty thouſand laſts; pine trees for maſts, deal boards, and other timber; tar, wood-aſhes, pot-aſh, elks ſkins, leather, furs, amber, about twelve thouſand five hundred ſtone of wax, honey, manna, linſeed oil, flax, hemp, linſeed, and hemp-ſeed; alſo yarn, hogs briſtles, ſtags horns, and elks hoofs; oatmeal, mead, dried fiſh, ſturgeon, caviar, lampreys, ſauſages, butter, and tallow, of which laſt three thouſand four hundred ſtone are exported every year.

The number of foreign ſhips that reſort hither for theſe goods are ſuppoſed to amount to about five hundred and fifty, which import ſuch commodities as are wanted here, as wine, ſalt, ſpices, linen and woollen ſtuffs, herrings, tin, iron, lead, tobacco, ſugar, rice, coffee, tea, raiſins, almonds, prunes, indigo, Brazil wood, &c.

With reſpect to the Pruſſian coins, they are as follow:

Six pfennings, which are only imaginary pieces of money, make a Pruſſian or Poliſh ſchilling.

Three ſchillings make a Pruſſian or Poliſh groſchen, each groſchen being of the value of ſeven-fifteenths of a penny ſterling.

A Brandenburg piece, of ſix pfennings, contains two groſchen.

An ort is eighteen groſchen, which is the higheſt groſchen piece, and is worth about eight-pence halfpenny.

A dollar, which is equal to three ſhillings and ſixpence ſterling, is worth three guldens, ninety groſchen, five achtzehners, fifteen ſeſchers, thirty dutchens, or two hundred and ſeventy ſchillings.

Ducats, ſpecie dollars, two-third pieces, and other foreign gold and ſilver coin, are alſo current in Pruſſia.

The name of Pruſſians was unknown till the tenth century, and its etymology is very uncertain: ſome authors ſuppoſe, that the former inhabitants, alluding to their proximity to the Ruſſians, called themſelves Poruſſi, or bordering on the Ruſſians, for po, in the old Pruſſian language, ſignifies near.

In that age the kings of Poland took great pains, and even made uſe of fire and ſword for the converſion of the Pagan Pruſſians to Chriſtianity. Boleſlaus I. began with chaſtizing the Pruſſians for the murder of St. Albert, or Adelbert, called the apoſtle of that nation. His ſucceſſors had alſo ſeveral quarrels with the Pruſſians: and Boleſlaus IV. who committed dreadful ravages in this country, loſt his life in an unſucceſsful battle in 1163.

In the thirteenth century the Pruſſians ravaged Culm, Cujavia, and Maſovia; upon which Conrad, duke of Maſovia, was obliged to apply to his allies, who all wore the croſs, which they carried into the field againſt the Pruſſians, whom they conſidered as the enemies of the Chriſtian name. But all their efforts proving ineffectual, the duke applied to the German knights of the Teutonic order, and ſtrongly repreſented the great importance of defending the frontiers. Accordingly, in 1230, they obtained the palatinates of Culm and Doberzin for twenty years, and afterwards for ever, with the abſolute authority of any future conqueſts in Pruſſia. Theſe knights, after long and bloody wars during the ſpace of fifty-three years, by the aſſiſtance of the ſword-bearing knights, ſubdued the whole country. Afterwards a war broke out between the Teutonic knights and the Lithuanians, which was attended with the moſt dreadful outrages. Theſe knights made religion the cloak of their ambitious views, and under the pretence of propagating the goſpel of peace, committed the moſt inhuman barbarities; and it is generally agreed, that they extirpated the native Pruſſians, and planted the Germans there in their ſtead. But in 1410 their ſavage zeal received a terrible check; for after a moſt bloody battle they were totally defeated.

In 1454 half of Pruſſia revolted from their obedience to the Teutonic order, and declared for Caſimir III. king of Poland. This occaſioned a freſh effuſion of blood; till at laſt a peace was concluded in 1466, by which it was agreed, that the part now called Poliſh Pruſſia ſhould continue a free province under the king's protection; and that the knights and the grand maſter ſhould poſſeſs the other part, but were to acknowledge themſelves vaſſals of Poland. The knights ſoon endeavoured, but in vain, to throw off this yoke. In 1519 they raiſed new wars, which were terminated in 1525, by a peace concluded at Cracow; by which it was agreed, that the margrave Albert, grand maſter of the Teutonic order, ſhould be acknowledged duke or ſovereign of the eaſt part of Pruſſia, which he was to hold as a fief of Poland, and which was to deſcend to his male heirs; and upon failure of male iſſue, to his brothers, and their male heirs. Thus ended the ſovereignty of the Teutonic order in Pruſſia, after it had ſubſiſted three hundred years.

The new duke favoured the introduction of the reformed religion into his dominions, and founded the univerſity of Konigſberg. The elector Joachim added the dutchy of Pruſſia to the electoral houſe of Brandenburg, with which it had been long cloſely connected. The reign of the elector George William was unhappily diſtinguiſhed by the calamities of a thirty years war, in which Pruſſia ſuffered much from the ravages of the Swedes: but Frederic William, his ſon, was by the conventions of Welau and Bromberg freed by Caſimir, king of Poland, from vaſſalage, and, with his deſcendants, declared independent and ſovereign lords of his part of Pruſſia. He alſo obtained a grant of the lordſhips of Lauenburg and Butow, to be held in the ſame manner as they had formerly been by the dukes of Pomerania; and having farther increaſed the power of his electoral houſe, obtained the title of the Great.

Frederic, the ſon of Frederic William the Great, and the grandfather of the preſent king, raiſed the dutchy of Pruſſia to a kingdom, and, on the eighteenth of January, 1701, in a ſolemn aſſembly of the ſtates of the empire, placed the crown with his own hands upon his head and that of his conſort; ſoon after which he was acknowledged as king of Pruſſia by all the other Chriſtian powers.

His ſon Frederic William, who aſcended the throne in 1713, peopled his country by the favourable reception he gave to the diſtreſſed and perſecuted Saltzburghers, and rendered his reign glorious by many uſeful and magnificent foundations.

This monarch was ſucceeded in 1740 by his ſon Frederic II. his preſent majeſty, who has annexed to his dominions the greateſt part of Sileſia and Eaſt Frieſland, rendered his kingdom formidable by his valour and uncommon prudence, and promoted the happineſs of his ſubjects by an amendment and reduction of the laws, the increaſe of commerce, and many other wiſe regulations.

The royal arms are argent, an eagle diſplayed ſable, crowned, or, for Pruſſia. Azure, the imperial ſcepter or, for Courland. Argent, an eagle diſplayed gules, with ſemi-circular wreaths, for the marquiſate of Brandenburg. To theſe are added the reſpective arms of the ſeveral provinces ſubject to the Pruſſian crown.

There are two orders of knighthood, the firſt that of the black eagle, inſtituted by Frederic I. on the day of his coronation at Konigſberg. The enſign is a croſs of gold, in the ſhape of that of Malta, enamelled with blue. In the middle of it, on one ſide, is a cypher of the king's name, F. R. and at each of the four angles, next the middle, is a black eagle diſplayed. The knights wear this croſs appendant to a broad orange-coloured ribbon over the left ſhoulder, acroſs the breaſt to the right hip. On the left ſide of their breaſt a ſilver ſtar is embroidered on the coat, and in the middle of it a black eagle volant, with

with a laurel wreath in one of its talons, and in the other a thunderbolt, with this motto, SUUM CUIQUE. The ſovereign is always grand maſter, and the number of knights, excluſive of the royal family, is limited to thirty.

Next to this is the order of Merit, inſtituted by his preſent majeſty, the enſign of which is a golden ſtar of eight rays enamelled with blue, which is worn appendent to a black ribbon edged with ſilver, and the motto is POUR LE MERITE.

Frederic the Second has new modelled the form of government, and appointed nine chambers of juſtice for determining cauſes in trade, and even eccleſiaſtical affairs. Theſe are ſubordinate to the high court of judicature at Konigſberg, to which they may appeal from the high court of judicature. An appeal alſo lies to the ſupreme court of appeals, where the chancellor ſits as preſident, and, according to the nature of the cauſe, it may be farther removed to the ſecret chamber of juſtice at Berlin.

The ſupreme college in Pruſſia is the royal court of regency, which ſuperintends all the affairs of the kingdom, whether civil, political, or eccleſiaſtical; and likewiſe all feudal and academical cauſes. Every member is ſtiled a privy-counſellor, or miniſter of ſtate and war, and has his particular department. Theſe are five in number, who have two ſecretaries. Pruſſia has its own particular digeſt of laws, which was publiſhed, with amendments, in the year 1721, and have ſince been improved and reduced into a ſmall compaſs. There are alſo two chambers of war and the domains, erected by king Frederic William, one at Konigſberg, and the other at Gumbinnen, that have the direction of every thing relating to the exciſe, the revenue, commerce, manufactures, magazines, forage, and whatever belongs to the colonies; every war and domain counſellor has his peculiar department. Subordinate to theſe are the counſellors of the taxes, the provincial receivers of the taxes, the commiſſaries of war, the officers of the exciſe and licences, the farmers of the royal diſtricts, and the officers of the revenues in cities and towns.

The royal revenue chiefly ariſes from the produce of the exciſe, cuſtoms, and ſervices; the farm of the royal domains, ſtamped paper, almanacs, and news-papers; mills of ſeveral kinds; duties ariſing from veniſon, and the ſkins of ſtags, elks, and other beaſts; maſts cut in the royal foreſts; the ſalt and iron works; the pot-houſes, granaries, manufactures, the cheſt of forfeitures, and the receipt cheſt, into which the purchaſe money of poſts and employments is paid; amber and the fiſheries. The taxes are heavy in Pruſſia, and our author obſerves, that whoever would live independent, either in town or country, muſt be very careful and induſtrious; but adds, that ſuch perſons ſeldom fail of getting a fortune here, when trade is briſk.

The military forces of Pruſſia, eſpecially in the preſent reign, have been no leſs formidable for their diſcipline, than by their number: and it may be juſtly aſſerted, that for a fine appearance, military diſcipline, and activity, the army of the king of Pruſſia has not its equal. The body of cadets at Berlin is a nurſery for good officers. Every regiment has its diſtrict, or canton, where the young men belonging to ſuch diſtrict are regiſtered, and in caſe of neceſſity may be ordered to march. But towards the concluſion of the laſt war his Pruſſian majeſty iſſued an order, that all the regiments ſhould be recruited with volunteers and foreigners, and that the young peaſants of Pruſſia ſhould remain unmoleſted.

SECT. III.

A general Diviſion of the Country, and a particular Deſcription of the City of Konigſberg, the Capital of the Kingdom.

THE kingdom of Pruſſia at preſent conſiſts of two departments, the German and Lithuanian. We ſhall begin with the former, which contains forty-four towns, fifty-ſix governments, and two hundred and eighty pariſhes, ſeven of which are inhabited by Calviniſts, ſeven by Papiſts, and all the reſt by Lutherans. Before we deſcribe the ſeveral diviſions of this department, we ſhall give a particular account of the metropolis of all Pruſſia.

Konigſberg, called in Latin Mons Regius, or Regiomontum, and in the Poliſh language Krolewies, is ſeat on the river Pregel, over which it has ſeven bridges, in the fifty-fourth degree forty-three minutes north latitude, and the twenty-firſt degree twenty minutes eaſt longitude. This city was founded in the year 1255, when Premiſlaus I. king of Bohemia, coming to the aſſiſtance of the Teutonic knights againſt the pagan Samlanders, a caſtle was built by his advice, and afterwards a town which was named Konigſberg, in honour of that prince; but in the year 1264 Konigſberg was rebuilt on another ſituation.

It is a large beautiful city. The rampart with which it is ſurrounded is about ſeven Engliſh miles in circuit, and has thirty-two ravelins and eight gates. This rampart incloſes ſeveral gardens, the large caſtle moat, and ſome meadows and fields. However, the whole circuit of the city is above eight Engliſh miles, and contains about three thouſand eight hundred houſes; the inhabitants amount to ſixty thouſand ſouls. Konigſberg properly conſiſts of three towns joined together, Altſtadt, Lobenicht, and Kneiphof, and of ſeveral ſuburbs.

Altſtadt, which ſignifies the Old Town, was particularly called Konigſberg till the year 1455; but afterwards it was named Altſtadt, to diſtinguiſh it from Lobenicht. It contains ſixteen ſtreets, in which are five hundred and fifty houſes, above one hundred of which are malt-houſes and brew-houſes. It has ſix gates, beſides four poſterns, two ſtrong built towers, and four bridges. Its other public edifices are the pariſh-church of St. Nicholas, which is of very great extent; the pariſh ſchool, which has nine maſters, and in this edifice is the city library; the poor-houſe, which is for the maintenance of thirty poor ſcholars; the town-houſe; the junkerhof, where weddings and other ſolemnities are celebrated, and which has a garden belonging to it; the common garden, which is frequented by artizans and mechanics; and laſtly, the hot baths.

The ſuburbs of Altſtadt are the Steindam, which is extremely well built, and contains eleven ſtreets, with the oldeſt church belonging to Konigſberg: the ſuburb called the New Roſs-Garten; on an eminence in this ſuburb ſtands the New Roſs-Garten church; here is alſo a large hoſpital for the burghers widows, an orphan-houſe, peſt-houſe, and ſhooting-ground: the Laacke, in which are the city timber-yard, and a long pleaſant walk called Reifferbahn: the Laſtadie, in which are the merchants magazine, the ware-houſes, the pack-houſes, the herring-bridge, the crane-wharf, the wine-wharf, the tar-wharf, and the king's licence-houſe, in which the colleges of admiralty and licences meet overy Monday and Thurſday. Without the wooden gate of Altſtadt lie the coal-magazines, many of which are now converted into dwellings; and the Lomſe, or Lanſe, in which are handſome houſes, with delightful gardens. The laſt ſuburb of Altſtadt is Dam, where are erected manufactures for woollen cloth, ſtockings, and leather.

Lobenicht was built about the year 1300, and was formerly called Neuſtadt, or the New Town. It has four gates, and is divided into two parts; one which ſtands on an eminence, is uſually called Der Berg, or the Mountain, and contains the city church, the city ſchool, and a public garden: in the other part, which has a lower ſituation, are the town-houſe, the junkerhof, the weigh-houſe, a large hoſpital, which has a church, and was once a convent; and the Munchenhof, which was formerly a monaſtery, but has been converted into a ſtore-houſe.

Without the gate of Lobenicht are ſeveral ſuburbs, among which is Sackheim, which is almoſt as old as the city itſelf, and conſiſts of five long ſtreets, interſected by others that run acroſs them; and has a Roman catholic church, a German Lutheran church, a Lithuanian Lutheran church, the royal orphan-houſe, with its chapel, and the king's great and little timber-yard, with the offices belonging to it.

Kneiphof, the moſt modern of the three towns, was not founded till the year 1324. It ſtands on an iſland formed by the river Pregel, and is erected on piles of alder-

tree, which, by length of time, are become as hard as iron. It has five large gates, and thirteen ſtreets, among which the Long ſtreet is the fineſt in the city of Konigſberg. Among the public edifices in Kneiphof the following are the moſt remarkable: the fine cathedral, in which is the famous organ finiſhed in 1721, which conſiſts of five thouſand pipes; and the Wallenrod library, which has above five thouſand books: the grammar ſchool: the poor-houſe ſtands near the cathedral, and contains thirty poor boys, which are decently provided with all kinds of neceſſaries. On the other ſide of the cathedral ſtands the biſhop's palace. The other buildings are the univerſity, or college, as it is called, which has thirty-eight profeſſors, excluſive of the tutors: in the refectory are eight tables, and twelve perſons ſit at each of them: twenty-eight of the ſtudents have their commons gratis, beſides ſeveral exhibitions, or penſions, which are beſtowed according to merit and the circumſtances of the pupils. The town-houſe, which is a very fine building, where the magiſtrates of the three towns meet every day: the edifice where the royal German ſociety meet: the junkerhof: the exchange for merchants, which is embelliſhed with curious paintings, in ſixty compartments. Not far from the exchange is a foundation for ſtudents. There are alſo the exterior and interior ſuburbs.

We ſhall now deſcribe the palace, which is built in the form of an oblong ſquare, with an area within it, that is a hundred and thirty-ſix paces in length, and ſeventy-five in breadth. The north ſide appears to be extremely antient, and even to have been built when the knights of the Teutonic order flouriſhed. The ſouth and eaſt wings were erected by the margrave Albert the Elder, and the margrave George Frederic added the weſt ſide of this ſtructure. In the laſt are the Lutheran court church; the library, which is opened on Wedneſdays and Saturdays; the domain office; the ſupreme court of juſtice; the Samland conſiſtory; the room where the archives of the court are kept; the Moſcovite-hall, as it is termed, which is two hundred and ſeventy-four feet long, and fifty-nine broad; and the college of phyſicians.

In the eaſt wing are the great palace-gate, with apartments for the principal miniſters of ſtate, and the royal apartments; within a pavilion are the chamber of war, the domain-chamber, the accompt and rent-chamber, and the exciſe-office.

The north wing contains the amber-office, the private chancery, the apartment in which the archives of the Pruſſian ſupreme court are kept, the fief-chamber, the revenue-office, the privy-chamber, where the lords of the regency meet, the accomptant's-office, the college of health, the high tribunal, and the apartments in which the ſtates of the country aſſemble, and the provincial cheſts are depoſited.

In the ſouth wing are ſeveral kitchens and apartments for the royal family and foreign princes; at one end of it ſtands the palace tower, which is aſcended by two hundred and eighty-four ſteps, and affords a noble proſpect of the whole city and the adjacent country. The ſtables, the wardrobe, the pleaſure-garden, and the great and little park are very beautiful.

In the liberties of the palace, which are five in number, the moſt remarkable places are the mint, the German Calviniſt church, the new French church, the German ſchool, where a congregation of Poliſh proteſtants aſſemble, the Jews ſchool, the college, the gardens belonging to the palace, and ſeveral other ſtructures, with ſome ſtreets, in which are many elegant houſes.

The ſtrong citadel, called Frederickſburg, ſtands facing Kneiphof, at the conflux of the two branches of the Pregel. This fort is a regular ſquare building, ſurrounded with broad ditches, and by the river Pregel; and within it is a church and an arſenal.

Konigſberg has always diſtinguiſhed itſelf by its commerce; for it was formerly one of the Hanſe-towns, and its trade is ſtill in a flouriſhing condition. The river Pregel, which is here navigable for the largeſt ſhips, is from a hundred and twenty to two hundred and forty feet in breadth. In the year 1752 there arrived in this port four hundred and ninety-three ſhips, beſides two hundred and ninety-eight ſmaller veſſels, and three hundred and ſeventy-three floats of timber.

Moſt of the inhabitants of Konigſberg are Germans of the Lutheran profeſſion, and a colony of French Calviniſts of about fifty families are ſettled there. Commerce has introduced the Poliſh and Lithuanian languages into this city.

Beſides the poor who are provided for in alms-houſes and hoſpitals, above eight hundred indigent perſons receive weekly penſions out of the general charitable fund, which is a proof of the opulence, as well as of the humanity of the inhabitants.

We ſhall now give an account of the ſeveral diviſions of the kingdom of Pruſſia, and the principal places in each. The German department is divided into German Samland, Old Natangen, and Oberland.

SECT. IV.

Of the Province of German Samland, and the principal Places it contains; with a particular Deſcription of Pillau and the neighbouring Country, and the remarkable Peninſula called Friſche Nerung.

THE diſtrict of German Samland contains three governments, the moſt remarkable places in which are,

Pillau, which is eſteemed the bulwark and key of Pruſſia towards the ſea. It ſtands on a point of land that projects into the Baltic, in the fifty-fourth degree forty-five minutes north latitude, and in twenty degrees five minutes eaſt longitude. It is well fortified: the fort is nearly a regular pentagon: the baſtions make a grand appearance; and all the buildings belonging to the fortifications are ſtrong, regular, handſome, and well planted with cannon; and the fort has a magazine for military ſtores. The ſtreets are broad, and run in a ſtraight line; and the houſes are built and furniſhed in the Dutch taſte: the harbour is a very fine one, and veſſels of great burthen are cleared and take in their lading here, for the Friſchehof has not a ſufficient depth of water to carry them to Konigſberg.

The city is frequented by people of various nations. Below the gate of the caſtle is a ſtone equeſtrian ſtatue of Frederic William the Great, and over the gate is a fine watch-tower, where a centinel ſtands day and night. There is alſo a church in the fort, which ſerves both for the Lutherans and Calviniſts. Over the gate on one ſide of the entrance towards the out-works ſtands the image of Mars in a bold attitude, looking towards Sweden.

The peninſula which extends from beyond Pillau to Fiſhauſen is, from its extreme pleaſantneſs and fertility, called the Paradiſe of Pruſſia; for it not only yields great plenty of the neceſſaries of life, but every thing that contributes to pleaſure and entertainment. Near the above fort is a fine plain, where the Friſchehof forms a ſemi-circular bay, which is frequented by a multitude of ſwans, ſea-mews, wild-ducks, and other water-fowl. On the other ſide of this bay lies Old Pillau, which conſiſts of two contiguous villages, inhabited by fiſhermen; theſe are called Alt Pillau and Wogram. In Alt Pillau is a public burying-ground, and near the church ſtands on a ſteep hill a building which was formerly the cuſtom-houſe. This ſtrong lofty edifice ſerves as a land-mark for the ſhips bound to Pillau, and nothing can exceed the proſpect this place affords, for it extends to a part of Samland, Natangen, and Ermeland; and is diverſified with a view of the ſhips coming in and going out of the harbour, and of the Nerung, or narrow ſlip of land that lies between the haven and the ſea. In a contiguous village, called Wogram, lies the ſtorbude, where the ſturgeons are boiled and packed up, and where caviar is made of their roes; moſt of which is exported to England. The fiſhermen in theſe parts catch at leaſt thirty different ſpecies of ſea and freſh-water fiſh; and in ſome parts of the year are ſeen aſtoniſhing flights of thruſhes, blackbirds, and magpyes. Round theſe villages are a great number of kitchen-gardens and orchards. After paſſing this delicious ſpot about Old Pillau, you croſs a barren piece of land to a well cultivated farm, and the Pillau Kruge, as it is called, which is a public-houſe ſeated in a moſt delightful grove, conſiſting of various

kinds

kinds of trees, whoſe branches are ſo cloſely interwoven, as to afford a good ſhelter from the rain. It was probably from this delightful grove that the adjacent country obtained the name of Paradiſe.

It will be proper to take particular notice here of the Curiſche Nerung, called in Latin Peninſula Curonenſis, which is a narrow ſlip of land that ſeparates the Baltic ſea from the Curiſche-haf, and is about ſixty miles in length, and in moſt parts one in breadth. This peninſula is a barren ſandy tract, where the high winds frequently make great ravages by tearing up the pine trees by the roots, and blowing up the ſand into high ridges and hills, which ſometimes obliges the poor inhabitants to remove their dwellings. Moſt of the trees, particularly on the Baltic ſide, are more or leſs blaſted, and appear like bare trunks; they however afford ſhelter for ſtags, falcons, and great numbers of thruſhes. There are ſeveral ſmall mean villages on this peninſula, in which the inhabitants live chiefly by fiſhing, and have very few cattle.

The next place we ſhall mention is Welau, an antient well built town, founded in 1336. It is ſeated on an iſland at the conflux of the Alle and the Pregel, and conſiſts of two principal and five croſs ſtreets, two ſuburbs, and two hundred and ſixty-four houſes. It has about a hundred and fifty burghers, beſides the other inhabitants. Great part of this town was burnt in 1736, ſince which time the buildings have been much improved; however, it has not recovered its former trade. It is chiefly remarkable in hiſtory for the treaty concluded there with Poland in September 1657, when the elector Frederic William was inveſted with the ſovereignty of Ducal Pruſſia.

In this diſtrict are ſeveral navigable rivers that abound with fiſh, and canals that are alſo of great ſervice to trade.

Among the latter is the New Deim, which begins at the royal manor of Schmerberg, and is carried above ten miles, till it enters the Pregel.

Two new canals called Great and Little Frederic's canal, which join the river Deim to the Wippe and Nemmonin, and alſo the latter to the Gilge. Great Frederic's canal commences at the Wippe, which is a branch of the river Nemmonin, and is carried on for fourteen miles to Labiau, a trading town on the river Deim. Little Frederic's canal begins at the river Gilge, and extends about ſix miles in length to the river Nemmonin. Theſe works, which are very convenient for the trade with Poland, were executed between the years 1688 and 1696, by order of the counteſs-dowager of Waldburg; and the counts of Waldenburg received a toll from all veſſels which paſſed through them, till the king purchaſed that right in the year 1713, and made it a part of the royal domains.

We now come to that diviſion of the kingdom of Pruſſia called Natangen, which is a populous and well cultivated country, conſiſting partly of arable and partly of meadow land; and though the ſoil is in ſome parts very ſtony, it produces better corn than either Samland or Little Lithuania; it is alſo well wooded, and yields all ſorts of game and great plenty of fiſh.

Old Natangen contains eight governments, the moſt conſiderable places in which are,

Gerdauen, a ſmall town in the government of the ſame name, was built in the year 1325. It is ſeated on the river Omet, and has two caſtles belonging to the count and baron Schlieben. The new ſeat is a magnificent ſtructure, and has an elegant garden. The town derives its name from E. Gerdaw, a Pruſſian nobleman, near whoſe caſtle it was built in the year above-mentioned. In a lake near this town is a floating iſland, which is a plat of ground covered with verdure, and driven backwards and forwards from one bank of the lake to the other. It was formerly three hundred and fifty paces in length, and two hundred and fifty in breadth; ſo that it afforded paſture for a hundred head of cattle: but it is at preſent divided into ſeveral little pieces, which are continually decreaſing. This iſland is called the Gerdauen Almanac, becauſe the inhabitants of the town prognoſticate approaching ſtorms by its motions.

Raſtenburg, a handſome town, with a caſtle, in a government of the ſame name, and ſeated on the river Guber. It was built in the year 1329; and though it was deſtroyed by the Lithuanians in 1348, it was ſoon rebuilt, together with its caſtle, and put in a more defenſible ſtate than before. It is incloſed with a wall and a rampart. The German pariſh church is the largeſt and handſomeſt ſtructure of that kind in all the Pruſſian inland towns, except the cathedral of Marienwerder, and the ſenior of the three miniſters who belong to it has the ſuperintendency of forty-ſix churches. The church of St. Catharine ſtands in the ſuburbs, and is one of the moſt antient in the kingdom of Pruſſia; and in the middle of the great hoſpital is the church of the Holy Ghoſt. This hoſpital was founded in 1361, and conſiſts of two wards, in which twenty indigent perſons are comfortably provided with food and a penſion in money. In the ſecond hoſpital twenty-five poor perſons are maintained by the alms of the charitable. Here is alſo a ſchool, under the direction of a rector and three aſſiſtants. The burghers amount to about two hundred, moſt of whom are Lutherans; and the inhabitants are ſupported by brewing, agriculture, and mechanic trades. This town is poſſeſſed of the largeſt territory of any inland town in Pruſſia, except Fiſhauſen.

Angerburg is a modern well-built town, ſituated in the government of the ſame name. It is encompaſſed with palliſadoes, and defended by a ſtrong caſtle, built in 1335 on the bank of the lake where the river Angerap has its ſource. This lake, which is ſeven German miles in length, and one and a half in breadth, is of great ſervice to the town. The church of Angerburg is a large handſome ſtructure. An arch-preſbytery was founded here in the year 1725.

By the ſide of the above lake, and about five miles from Angerburg, is Steinort, a noble ſeat of count Lelendorf, which has one of the fineſt gardens in all the country. The iſland which belongs to it, and is ſituated in the lake, with the ſummer-houſe built upon it, are extremely pleaſant.

SECT. V.

Of the Province called Oberland, with a Deſcription of its moſt remarkable Towns.

THE country of Oberland is fertile, rich, and well cultivated, and was formerly ſo populous, that it could bring into the field an army of ten thouſand horſe and foot; but the people having, on ſeveral occaſions, exerciſed great cruelties towards the Chriſtians, the Teutonic knights, in the year 1273, ravaged the country, and made themſelves maſters of it. Oberland, at preſent, conſiſts of nine governments, the principal places in which are as follow:

Marienwerder, in Latin Inſula Mariana, and in the Poliſh tongue, Kwidzin, is a well-built town, with a caſtle, which ſtands on the frontiers of Pomerania, on the Leibe, at a ſmall diſtance from the Viſtula. Marienwerder is ſituated in the forty-third degree fifty minutes north latitude, and was firſt built in 1233, on a werder or ſmall iſland called Kwidzin, but was ſoon after rebuilt on the ſpot where it now ſtands. The cathedral, which was erected about the thirteenth century, is the largeſt church in the kingdom of Pruſſia, it being three hundred and twenty feet long, and by its ſtrong breaſt-works appears to have formerly ſerved for a fortreſs. The palace of Marienwerder is a ſpacious building, erected in the Gothic taſte. The adjacent country is very pleaſant, and filled with eminences and gentle declivities. The inhabitants carry on a conſiderable trade with their neighbours. Salt-works were ſet up here in the year 1723, and in 1728 was built a magazine for corn and forage. This town has been often damaged by inundations, war, and fire. The league againſt the Teutonic knights was concluded here in 1440, and in 1520 the town held out againſt a vigorous ſiege. In 1709 the czar Peter the Great had an interview at this place with Frederic I. king of Pruſſia; and king Staniſlaus retired thither from Dantzic in 1734. The ſuburbs

of

of Marienwerder are continually improving, and the adjacent country is fertile and well inhabited.

Reiſenburg ſtands on an eminence near the river Leibe, in the fifty-third degree forty-eight minutes latitude, and derives its name from the adjacent Pruſſian territory, which was anciently called Reſin. The Poles call it Prabutha, which ſignifies a ruinous houſe: indeed it is a mean town, with narrow ſtreets. It was built in 1169, and the caſtle, which is even ſtill more ancient, ſtands on a hill, and is extremely decayed. The town contains a German and a Poliſh church. The burghers, beſides having a little commerce, ſubſiſt by brewing, agriculture, and feeding of cattle. In the year 1323, 1414, and 1422, Reiſenburg was burnt by the Poles. It was alſo conſumed by fire in 1628, 1688, and 1728.

Mohrungen, a little town in the government of the ſame name, is ſituated to the north-eaſt of Reiſenburg, and is ſaid to have been founded in 1302, and compleated in 1328; but the old caſtle is more antient. Count Dohna has here a remarkable ſeat. The town is well built, and ſurrounded with good walls and a double moat; beſides, it is almoſt encompaſſed by the lake of Mohrungen. As this town lies in the road to Poland, it is much frequented by ſtrangers. It was entirely deſtroyed by fire in 1697; but has been ſince rebuilt in a much more handſome manner than before.

Oſterrode, a well-ſituated trading town, in the province of the ſame name, ſeated by the river and lake of Dribentz, which ſupply it with plenty of fiſh. It ſtands in the fifty-third degree forty minutes north latitude, in a ſandy, but fertile country. Salt-works have been ſet up there, and the inhabitants carry on ſome trade with Poland. Some ancient Roman coins have been found at a ſmall diſtance from the eſtate of Gorlitz, which belongs to his Pruſſian majeſty.

Holland is a handſome town, ſeated on an eminence near the river Weeſke, in the fifty-fourth degree four minutes north latitude, and has a ſtrong fortreſs. It is ſaid to have been built by ſome Hollanders of diſtinction, who fled hither on account of the murder of count Florentius V. from whom it obtained the name of Holland. Its ſituation renders it naturally ſtrong, and beſides, it is ſurrounded with a wall and towers. The ſtreets are long and broad, and the houſes well built. To this town belong two ſuburbs, and ſeveral country ſeats with pleaſant gardens. The inhabitants have a free fiſhery, and the liberty of going out in their boats on the lake of Drauſen. St. Bartholomew's church is a large handſome ſtructure. The Calviniſts celebrate divine ſervice in a large hall which belongs to the fortreſs, and without the town ſtands a church dedicated to St. George. Here is alſo a good hoſpital, ſalt-works have been erected in the town, and likewiſe a public magazine for corn and forage. The preſent caſtle was begun by duke Albert, and compleated by George Frederic. It is encompaſſed by moats and walls, and has fine apartments that yield a noble proſpect.

SECT. VI.

Of the Department of Little Lithuania, and the Poliſh Governments ſubject to the King of Pruſſia, with the principal Places contained in each.

IN this diviſion are eighteen towns, ſixty-two diſtricts, and a hundred and five pariſhes.

Little Lithuania is a hundred and fourteen miles in length, and from thirty-eight to fifty-ſeven in breadth, but was antiently over-run with thickets and woods, and in 1710 was almoſt depopulated by the peſtilence; but in 1720 king Frederic William generouſly aſſiſted twenty-thouſand French proteſtants, Palatines, Franconians, and Swiſs, at the expence of five millions of rix-dollars, to ſettle in this country; and in 1732, three hundred and fifty thouſand dollars were diſtributed among a freſh colony of twelve thouſand five hundred Saltzburgers. By the ſkill and induſtry of theſe people, this deſolate country has been extremely well cultivated, ſuperfluous woods have been rooted up, moraſſes drained, and a multitude of towns, villages, farm-houſes, and churches built; whence the country has put on a new appearance, and now makes ample returns for the great ſums which his Pruſſian majeſty wiſely laid out upon it. The richneſs of the paſtures, the many thouſand laſts of corn which are either exported or laid up in the king's granaries, the fine horned cattle, excellent horſes, and numerous flocks of ſheep, with the excellent butter and cheeſe this country affords, are inconteſtible proofs of its uncommon fertility. It alſo abounds with wood for fuel, and has plenty of game and fiſh. Several manufactures of coarſe and fine cloth, leather, &c. are alſo eſtabliſhed here.

The ancient inhabitants of Little Lithuania have a peculiar language, into which the Bible, the Catechiſm, and ſome books of devotion have been lately tranſlated. The Lithuanians of this country are far from being ſo ſtupid as they have been generally repreſented; but like other nations they have their good and ill qualities. Among the coloniſts the Swiſs are chiefly employed in grazing and breeding cattle; the French are well verſed in trade, and ſkilled in the cultivation of tobacco, which they have introduced into this country; and the Saltzburgers are remarkable for their ſkill in agriculture. The Swiſs, French, and Franconians, are all Calviniſts, ſo that there are ten German and French reformed pariſhes, as they are called in Little Lithuania, and the reſt are Lutherans, with very few Papiſts among them.

There are four governments in the Lithuanian department, the principal places in which are,

Memel, a trading town, port, and fortreſs, ſeated at the northern extremity of the bay called Curiſche-haf, in the fifty-fifth degree forty-ſix minutes north latitude, and in the thirty-ninth degree nineteen minutes eaſt longitude. It was built in the year 1279, and fortified in 1312, and has on one ſide the Baltic, and on the other the Curiſche-haf, beſides which it is watered by the river Dange. The harbour is deep and has a very good entrance, and within theſe few years has been improved with two moles, which are carried above fifty rods into the bay. The town lies under the guns of the fort, and is well inhabited; it conſiſts of above four hundred houſes, and beſides the German church, here is one belonging to the Lutherans and another to the Calviniſts. The burghers, who are divided into thoſe of the Old Town and Frederic's Town, are employed in commerce, brewing, ſope-boiling, agriculture, fiſhing, &c. Great quantities of flax, hemp, thread, and linſeed, are annually exported from this town. In 1752 ſeventy ſhips arrived in this port, and ſixty-nine ſailed from thence to other ports. Memel is fortified with three whole, and two half baſtions, with other works all in the modern way. The citadel conſiſts of four pretty regular baſtions, with ravelins and half moons. The buildings and apartments in this citadel were much improved by the elector Frederic William and king Frederic I. The moſt remarkable things within it are the two arſenals, the ſuperb houſe of the commandant, the garriſon church, and the powder-magazine. In this town is likewiſe a college of juſtice, a ſalt-factory, and a poſt-office, which brings in a conſiderable revenue.

The next city worthy of notice, is that of Tilſit, the capital of the government of the ſame name. This city is, next to Konigſberg, the largeſt and moſt opulent place in the kingdom of Pruſſia, and carries on the greateſt trade; for the river Memel, which runs along the north ſide of it, affords the advantage of a very great trade with Konigſberg, in linſeed, corn, butter, and other proviſions. It is ſituated in the fortieth degree eaſt longitude, and in the fifty-fourth degree fifty minutes north latitude. Tilſit, properly ſo called, conſiſts of two long ſtreets of a conſiderable breadth, called German-Street and High-Street, contiguous to which is the ſuburbs, called the Liberty. The number of houſes in this city amount to about ſix hundred, and the inhabitants to ſeven thouſand ſouls. The eccleſiaſtical buildings are a Lutheran German church, near which is the royal provincial ſchool, a Lithuanian church, and one belonging to the Calviniſts. Without the town ſtands a Lutheran chapel, and at about the diſtance of an Engliſh mile is a Romiſh chapel. Here is an hoſpital, where ninety indigent perſons have a comfortable ſubſiſtence; and in the peſt-houſe the ſick and lame, as well as thoſe infected with

with contagious diſeaſes, are carefully provided for. Here is alſo a poor-houſe, in which ten poor boys are maintained, beſides a number of widows. Salt-works are alſo eſtabliſhed in this town.

The flat country about Tilſit, which is eighteen miles in length, and as many in breadth, is one of the moſt fertile ſpots in the whole kingdom; and the inhabitants furniſh not only Pruſſia, but other places, with excellent butter and cheeſe, and the fiſheries in this place are alſo very conſiderable. The natives breed great numbers of horned cattle, and the horſes are large and ſtrong, but clumſy. Barley is almoſt the only grain ſown in theſe parts, which at preſent afford little or no wood. The marſh lands are expoſed in ſpring to inundations by the overflowing of the rivers, which frequently do much damage.

Ragnit, a ſmall town, about five miles to the eaſtward of Tilſit, is ſeated on the river Memel, and in the government of Ragnit. It is ſurrounded by paliſadoes, and has a caſtle, which is one of the moſt antient ſtructures in the country, and was famous even in times of paganiſm. In this caſtle is a very large royal magazine for proviſions, &c. and the proſpect from a part of it, called Konigſberg, is hardly to be equalled. On the other ſide of the Memel is a mountainous, but delightful country, which, from its extraordinary fertility in corn and paſturage, is called the Larder of Lithuania. Here are prodigious flocks of ſheep, great plenty of all kinds of game, and excellent horſes.

Inſterburg, a town in the government of the ſame name, is ſeated on the Angerap, near its conflux with the Inſter, where it aſſumes the name of Pregel, in the fifty-fourth degree thirty-four minutes latitude, and the thirty-ninth degree forty-four minutes eaſt longitude. This town was built in 1572, and ſurrounded with paliſadoes in 1727. It contains about three hundred and fifty houſes, and three thouſand inhabitants; and beſides the Lutheran churches, there is one belonging to the Calviniſts. The caſtle was built in the middle of the fourteenth century, and much improved by king Frederic William. Here is a court of judicature for the adminiſtration of juſtice in all the Lithuanian governments, and alſo a granary and ſalt factory. The town carries on a conſiderable trade in corn, and very excellent beer, remarkable both for its wholeſomeneſs and ſtrength.

Gumbinnen, which lies to the ſouth-eaſt of Inſterburg, is a town regularly built ſince the year 1725, in a very pleaſant and fertile country on the river Piſſe. It conſiſts of about two hundred houſes, and the number of its inhabitants amount to three thouſand. The antient deputation-chamber, and the war and domain-chambers, have been removed to this place. The public buildings are the conference-houſe, the town-houſe, and the magazine, which was built in 1742. The other public buildings are the Calviniſt church in the New Town, and the Saltzburg alms-houſe. Here is a good cloth manufactory.

The laſt town we ſhall mention in the Lithuanian department is Stallupehenen, a newly built town, to which a charter was granted in the year 1722. The inhabitants carry on a conſiderable trade in cattle, and a good fair is held here; but freſh-water and wood for fuel are very ſcarce.

There are alſo ſeveral diſtricts ſtiled Poliſh governments, and two other diſtricts ſubject to his Pruſſian majeſty, all of them bordering on Little Lithuania; the principal places in which we ſhall now deſcribe.

Oletzko is a caſtle in the government of the ſame name, and was much embelliſhed on the inſide in the year 1640. Near it ſtands the large and regular town of Margrabowa, which derives its name from the Margrave Albert, who built it in memory of the interview he had in that place with Sigiſmund Auguſtus, king of Poland; and the latter in 1560 alſo cauſed a new town to be built on the Poliſh frontiers, about eight German miles diſtant from Margrabowa, and from his own name called it Auguſtowa. The market-place of Margrabowa is the largeſt in Pruſſia, and in it ſtands the church, which is entirely detached from any other building. In the neighbourhood of this town the electoral and Swediſh troops defeated the Tartars in 1656, and releaſed the prince of Radzivil, whom they had taken priſoner.

Lick, called in Latin Licca, is a trading town in the government of Lick, ſeated on the lake of Satrind, in the fifty-third degree fifty minutes north latitude, and the forty-third degree three minutes eaſt longitude. The caſtle, which was built in 1272, is pleaſantly ſituated on an iſland: but the town has nothing worthy of notice, except its church, the provincial ſchool, and the archpreſbyter's manſion-houſe. This country ſuffered extremely by the inhuman ravages of the Tartars in 1656, till they were defeated and driven from the frontiers by the battle of Warſaw. The adjacent country yields plenty of wood, and abounds with fiſh and other proviſions.

The villages of Taluſſen and Kuſſinowen in this diſtrict are chiefly inhabited by Arians, who live in a quiet inoffenſive manner, and perform their devotions in private houſes.

Johanneſburg is a ſmall but handſome town, ſeated on a plain near the lake of Spirding, in which are four iſlands and plenty of fiſh. It is ſeated in the fifty-third degree thirty-five minutes north latitude. Here is a caſtle, which was once fortified, a large granary, and a magazine for forage; and in this town an archpreſbyter reſides. In 1698 the elector Frederic had here an interview of four days with Auguſtus II. then newly elected king of Poland.

The king of Pruſſia is alſo poſſeſſed of two lordſhips in the Poliſh territories. Tauraggen, a large diſtrict near the river Juhr, in Samogitia, which has an excellent breed of horſes, abounds with fiſh, and yields plenty of game. This diſtrict devolved to the houſe of Brandenburg in 1691, on the deceaſe of the princeſs of Radzivil.

The other is Serrey, in the great dutchy of Lithuania, and the palatinate of Trocko, and contains twenty-two villages, three manors, and twenty great and ſmall lakes. This lordſhip devolved to the houſe of Brandenburg by the marriage of Lewis Margrave of Brandenburg with the princeſs Ludovica Carolina of Radzivil.

The other dominions of his Pruſſian majeſty are entirely ſeparated from this kingdom, and are even much more extenſive; but the deſcription of the dutchy of Brandenburg and Sileſia muſt be deferred till we enter upon the German empire. We ſhall now therefore proceed farther to the north, and deſcribe the extenſive country of Sweden.

CHAP. V.

Of the Kingdom of SWEDEN.

SECT. I.

Its Situation, Extent, Climate, Coaſts, Rivers, Foſſils, Minerals, Vegetables, and Animals.

UNDER the name of Sweden is included that extenſive country that lies between Denmark, Norway, and Ruſſia: having Ruſſia and the Baltic on the eaſt; the Baltic and the gulph of Finland on the ſouth; Norway, the Sound, and Categate on the weſt; and Norwegian Lapland on the north: extending from fifty-five degrees forty minutes to the ſixty-ninth degree of north latitude, and from the twenty-eighth to the fortieth degree of eaſt longitude from London; ſtretching about two hundred or two hundred and fifty Swediſh miles in length; and as each Swediſh mile is at leaſt equal to ſix Engliſh, its length may be computed at about fifteen hundred miles, its breadth is reckoned to be a hundred and thirty Swediſh miles, or ſeven hundred and eighty Engliſh, and its area is computed to amount to ten thouſand ſquare Swediſh miles, or ſixty thouſand Engliſh.

The climate of this country is very healthful, but the winters are extremely cold, more eſpecially towards the north. The air is, however, clear and ſalubrious. In the long nights of winter the moon, the reflection from the ſnow, and the clearneſs of the ſky, give ſuch light that one may travel as conveniently as in the day. In ſummer the days are very long, and the heat intenſe; but the nights are luminous, and exceeding pleaſant. Violent ſtorms of wind and rain are ſeldom known here, and the ſharp keen north wind ſerves to purify the air. We ſhall give a more particular account of the climate of the northern parts in treating of Swediſh Lapland.

The highways in Sweden are better than can be imagined, conſidering the many rugged mountains and rocks in the country. Theſe are in a manner plained and made even by the peaſants, ſo that, as Motraye obſerves, there are ſcarce better roads in any country in Europe; nor can a man any where travel with more ſecurity and leſs expence; for horſes are hired for about a penny a mile: but then there are very poor accommodations on the road, both for lodging and diet. The eaſieſt and moſt expeditious method of travelling is in winter, when they make uſe of ſledges, eſpecially in thoſe parts of the country which abound in lakes and rivers; for theſe being all frozen, they meet with no obſtacles in their way, and they can more conveniently carry proviſions with them in a ſledge than on horſeback.

The coaſts of Sweden are encompaſſed with innumerable capes, rocks, and iſlands; ſo that the approach to the continent is ſomething dangerous: theſe they call ſheers, and they derive their diſtinguiſhing names from the provinces oppoſite to which they lie, as the Upland ſheers, the Sundermanland ſheers, &c. Theſe iſlands, or rocks, lie very near each other, and are of different dimenſions. Several thouſands of them are inhabited by people who live chiefly by fiſhing.

The lakes of Sweden are very numerous: the large ones amount to ſeventeen.

The number of rivers in Sweden is likewiſe very conſiderable; the largeſt of them are in the Swediſh language called Elbe. The principal of theſe are the Dal-Elbe, in the vale country, which is the largeſt river in Sweden: the Gullſpang, which divides Weſt Gothland from Wermeland; the Gothiſhe-Elbe, or Gothic river, which riſes in the lake of Wener, and about forty-five miles before it falls into the North Sea forms a cataract, by precipitating itſelf from a high precipice: the Stang, which divides Eaſt Gothland into two parts: and the Motalaſtrom, which iſſues from the Wetter-lake, being increaſed by ſeventeen ſmaller rivers, forms a cataract, by falling ſixteen feet, and diſcharges itſelf into the Baltic.

Both the lakes and rivers abound in fiſh of ſeveral kinds, the principal of which are ſalmon and trout of various ſorts.

Sweden likewiſe affords medicinal ſprings of experienced virtue.

This country abounds with minerals and foſſils of all kinds, as topazes, amethyſts, cryſtals, cornelians, agate, a reddiſh ſtone called violſtein, coral, a greeniſh ſemi-pellucid ſtone, porphyry, lapis-lazuli, aſbeſtos, load-ſtone, touch-ſtone, free-ſtone, mill-ſtones, ſtucco-ſtones, ſlate, lime-ſtones, coarſe and white marble, and beautiful petrifactions; alſo excellent white marble with beautiful green veins, which are ſometimes of a dark, and at others of a bright vivid green, finely interwoven, marienglas or iſinglas, vitriol, mercury, amianthus, lead ore, cobalt, allum, fullers-earth, petrolium, ſulphur, mother of pearl, &c. gold, ſilver, tin, lead, copper, and iron.

Though Sweden is extremely mountainous, it affords many tracts of even ground fit for agriculture. The ſoil is in general ſandy or ſwampy, but is not void of fertility. Gothland produces the greateſt quantity of grain, as wheat, rye, barley, oats, and peaſe; but every part of Gothland is not equally fertile. Sweden alſo affords good paſtures, and in the ſouthern parts ſome orchards, which yield fine fruit; but this country is more famous for its mines than the produce of the ſoil. Nordland, being full of rocks and mountains, produces but little corn; however, it has ſome ſpots fit for grazing. Lapland yields ſtill leſs grain than Nordland; but Finland is in moſt places extremely fertile, though it is far from being properly cultivated. The corn in the ſhort but hot ſummers of this climate ſuddenly grows up and ripens; but it is far from being ſufficient for the ſubſiſtence of the inhabitants, and therefore ſeveral hundred thouſand quarters are annually imported from abroad, particularly from Livonia, Pomerania, and Wiſmar.

Some patriots among the Swedes ſtrenuouſly endeavour to promote ſchemes for the encouragement of agriculture and manufactures; and if the ſucceſs be anſwerable to the preſent favourable appearances, the produce of the country will ſoon be ſufficient to ſupport ſome millions of inhabitants more than it does at preſent, and that in greater affluence and plenty.

In the year 1752, the king granted the new ſociety of agriculture a great deal of waſte land for forty or fifty years rent-free, and exempted them from taxes. Hitherto conſiderable advantages have been made in the foreſts by cutting down the trees, burning them, and ſtrewing the aſhes on the land before it is ſown. This ſort of ground thus prepared yields a great crop of corn for three years after.

The ſouth parts of Sweden produce pretty good fruit and vegetables; but towards the north theſe gradually become more ſcarce, they degenerate in flavour and goodneſs, and in the moſt northern parts no ſuch vegetables are to be found.

In the beginning of the ſummer the fields in the ſouth are ſtored with variety of flowers, and, according to ſome authors, ſtrawberries, raſberries, and ſuch kind of fruit grow upon every rock. In dry years melons are brought to perfection in the gardens; but peaches, apricots, and other wall-fruit, are extremely ſcarce, as are alſo pears, apples, and plumbs; and thoſe they have are not well taſted. They have, however, cherries of ſeveral ſorts, and ſome tolerably good. According to Motraye, the gardens about Stockholm are very fine, and, notwithſtanding the ſeverity of the winter, their green-houſes afford orange, fig, myrtle, and other trees, plants, and flowers of the moſt tender nature. Finland produces excellent turnips; and flax, hemp, and tobacco, are cultivated to great advantage. Their woods chiefly conſiſt

of

A New and Accurate MAP of SWEDEN and NORWAY from the Sieur Roberts ATLAS with Improvements

To avoid contracting the Scale of Sweden, & Norway, the Isle of Iceland, is placed here.

North

North Fiordun

South Skalholt

Hecla

East Fiordun

Grim I.

Raudaynupur

Long Nes

Papey Nes

Papey I.

Stromfiord

Jokuls fiord

Ice fiord

Hvallet Mess

Gills fiord

Gunnbiorn Cudvet Mess

Eldey I.

Reykel Head

C. Hecla

Wartmanns

26 Degrees of Long.e to West from London 16

NORTH SEA OR GERMAN OCEAN

Surey I.

Wardhus

G. of Waranger

Tiedna Wolok

Seven Islas

C. Swetnose

Tokanskri

Lombuskoi

Willowatte

Wabri Lauki

Pansionskoi

Pulakka

Pudosk

Arendal

Lofoten I.

Torneo

Lapmark

Pitha

Uma

Angermania

Jemtlandia

Medelpadia

Helsingia

Nordlandia

Westmania

Dalecarlia

Gothland

West Gothland

East Gothland

Gothland I.

Oeland I.

Dago I.

Oesel I.

Stockholm

Inghia

Petersburg

Livonia

Courland

Riga

Torneå

Kemi

Kajaneborg

Tornea

Kengis

Kemi

Uleå

Pitha

Lula

Lapmark

Umeå

Angermania

Jemtlandia

Medelpadia

Helsingia

Nordlandia

Westmania

Dalecarlia

of pines, beech, birch, alder, juniper, and ſome oak; which are generally ſtraight, tall, and fit for building. But the extenſive woods in Sweden become thinner, and daily decline from the immenſe conſumption of wood in making charcoal, tar, pitch, pot aſh, and burning the land. Oaks in particular grow very ſcarce.

In ſeveral parts of Sweden the inhabitants ſubſiſt by grazing, but in all the northern countries, the cattle are ſmall, and the wool of the ſheep very coarſe; ſo that in order to mend the breed, rams are imported from England and Spain. The horſes are ſtrong, hardy, and vigorous. Of the extraordinary advantages they reap from their rein-deer, we ſhall give a particular account in our deſcription of Lapland. This kingdom affords plenty of all ſorts of deer, elks, hares, and all ſorts of tame and wild fowl; and ſome parts of Sweden are much infeſted with lynxes, bears, wolves, foxes, otters, martens, and weaſels.

Tame and wild fowl are very plentiful and good; the reder, which is as large as an ordinary turkey, is much admired, as is alſo the orras, which is about the ſize of a hen. Partridges abound here, as does alſo a bird called yerper, which has ſome reſemblance to a partridge. In winter they take great numbers of blackbirds, thruſhes, and of a beautiful bird of the bigneſs of a field-fare, whoſe feathers are tipped with ſcarlet, and are ſuppoſed to come from Lapland in the hard ſeaſon. They have but few pigeons. The northern countries abound with eagles, hawks, and other large birds of prey.

SECT. II.

Of the Perſons, Dreſs, and Manners of the Swedes; the Number of the Inhabitants, their Employments, Food, Language, Skill in the Sciences, Religion, and Hierarchy. The Progreſs of the Arts and Manufactures; with a conciſe Account of the Trade and Coin of Sweden.

THE Swedes are of a good ſtature and robuſt conſtitutions, capable of enduring hardſhips and fatigues. Where they are not too much expoſed to the weather they have good complexions, and their hair, like that of other northern nations, is inclined to yellow. The women are of a juſt proportion; they have alſo good features, and thoſe who are employed at home are generally fair: but the peaſants generally make their females undergo an equal ſhare in all laborious employments. They go to plow, threſh their corn, row upon the water, ſerve the bricklayers, and carry burthens like the men. The inhabitants are, however, far from being ſufficient to people the country; there is a remarkable inſtance of this in one place, which though not the moſt northerly part, there are hardly four thouſand ſeven hundred people to be found in the compaſs of twelve hundred and ſeven ſquare miles.

The number of inhabitants of Sweden and Finland have been computed by ſome learned Swedes at about three millions, reckoning eighty thouſand farms, on which are one million ſix hundred thouſand ſouls, including the women, children, and ſervants; and it is ſaid, theſe farms make up above half the number of the inhabitants in the whole kingdom. Indeed at preſent ſome pariſhes are ſo extenſive, and at the ſame time ſo thinly inhabited, that a peaſant muſt travel ſeveral Swediſh miles to viſit his next neighbour; others contain not more than ſeventy farms, and yet take up a tract of land equal to the whole province of Holland, though perhaps ſuch a pariſh has not ſo many cottages as there are towns in that flouriſhing country.

The common people ſubſiſt by agriculture, working in the mines, grazing, hunting, fiſhing, and commerce, both domeſtic and foreign. Indeed the wealth of Sweden ariſes from its mines, ſome gold ore has been diſcovered, and there are ſeveral large ſilver mines ſaid to be very rich. The number of the copper mines, hammering mills, and ſmelting-houſes, is very conſiderable. Iron ore is in ſuch plenty that it generally appears on the ſurface of the earth, and is remarkable for its richneſs. Indeed the produce of the mines conſtitutes two-thirds of the national revenue.

The inhabitants of the north parts of Sweden are ſtrangers to delicacies, and live very hardly. They eat a ſort of bread made of the bark of birch and pine-trees, ſtraw, and roots. The hacke, or ſtampe, is a kind of bread very common in the north; and in times of ſcarcity is ſometimes uſed in the ſouth parts. This is made of the ears of corn cut from the ſtems and chopped ſmall; after which it is dried and ground: on this kind of meal they pour boiling water, and mix it with leaven and corn-meal, where it is to be had. In ſpring they alſo take the bark of firs, which at that time comes the eaſieſt off the trees; but not the thick bark next the wood. Having pared off the outward coarſe knots, it is dried in an oven, or placed over a wood-fire, till both ſides become brown, ſwell, and undergo a kind of fermentation, by which the reſin is conſumed. Theſe pieces of bark being thus dried, are ground, and then bread is made of the meal.

Neceſſity has alſo taught theſe poor people to make bread of a plant called miſſe, and by the Fins, wekka, called in Latin *calla foleis cordatis*, which is gathered during the ſpring in the moraſſes. After it is dried in the ſun, it is baked in an oven, or half dried in a warm room, while it is ſprinkled with water. It is then put into the oven a ſecond time, and dried till the leaves fall off, and the outward tegument detaches itſelf at the knots from the ſtem; then the ſtems are chopped ſmall in a trough, and being afterwards ground, the meal is ſifted and dough made of it, by pouring hot water on the meal; it is uſual to pour alſo ſome brandy lees amongſt it, to give the bread a more agreeable flavour. The dough is afterwards kneaded with great labour, and then a third part of corn-meal is mixed with it.

The reſt of their food conſiſts of fiſh, and dried fleſh. The rich, however, and the people in the great towns, are not unacquainted with delicacies; and perſons in affluent circumſtances here, as in other countries, keep a good table.

Their cloathing in winter is ſuitable to the climate: the rich wear cloaths lined with warm furs; inſtead of which thoſe who cannot afford them, make their cloaths of ſheep-ſkins with the wool on; and thus, as a modern writer obſerves, are better provided with cloathing adapted to the ſeaſon, and to their condition, than the people of moſt other countries.

The faſhion reſembles that of the Germans, and other European nations; and, like them, they wear in ſummer ſuch cloths and ſtuffs as they can procure; the great adorning themſelves with lace and embroidery.

The Swediſh tongue has ſuch an affinity with the Daniſh and Norwegian, that the inhabitants of the three kingdoms readily underſtand each other; but Finland and Lapland have their reſpective dialects. In the times of paganiſm, the Swedes made uſe of a particular alphabet, termed Runic characters; as appears from the Runic ſtones ſtill to be ſeen in moſt of the provinces near the ſepulchres of the dead.

The Swedes are of late greatly improved in arts and ſciences; but the branches of literature which they chiefly ſtudy are œconomics, natural philoſophy, with the antiquities, hiſtory, and geography of their own, and other countries.

The moſt ancient and conſiderable univerſity in Sweden is that of Upſal; there is alſo one at Lund in Schonen, and another at Abo in Finland. There is likewiſe a royal academy of ſciences at Stockholm: in the ſame city is a royal academy of painting and ſculpture; and another for that part of the mathematics which relate to the military art. At Drotningholm has been alſo lately inſtituted an academy for the polite arts.

Seminaries for the education of youth are inſtituted in ten towns of Sweden, and epiſcopal ſchools are founded at Upſal and Abo. There are inferior ſchools in ſeveral other places. In ſhort, an ordinance for the improvement and regulation of the art of printing was publiſhed by his Swediſh majeſty in 1752, by which a new ſociety was inſtituted for that purpoſe.

With reſpect to the religion of Sweden, it muſt be obſerved, that it was formerly involved in the groſſeſt darkneſs

neſs of idolatry, and Upſal was the ſeat of their ſuperſtitious worſhip. The emperor Charles the Great ſent hither an eminent eccleſiaſtic, named Herbert, who preached the goſpel in Eaſt Gothland; and for the ſame purpoſe the emperor Lewis ſent into Sweden the famous Anſcharius, who was ſucceeded by ſeveral others. In the middle ages the clergy had obtained the poſſeſſion of ſeveral large eſtates, and the pope aſſumed a great power over the temporal concerns of the kingdom. Theſe abuſes procured Olaus Petri, a diſciple of Luther, a favourable reception in Sweden, where he promulgated the pure doctrines of the goſpel and that great king Guſtavus Vaſa happily introduced the reformation in Sweden, in ſpite of all the numerous difficulties he had to encounter. Indeed it afterwards met with great oppoſition, and underwent many trials in the reigns of John and Sigiſmund; yet it was at laſt eſtabliſhed by the diet and ſynod held at Upſal in 1593, when the ſtates of the kingdom ſolemnly engaged to adhere to the doctrines of Luther; and this religion, ſince the decree of uniformity paſſed in 1613, is to be eſteemed both by the ſovereign and his ſubjects, the only eſtabliſhed church in the kingdom. Indeed in 1741, his majeſty was pleaſed to permit by a royal edict, that the Calviniſts and members of the church of England ſhould enjoy the free exerciſe of their religion in all the ſea-ports, except that of Carlſcroon.

The hierarchy of Sweden is compoſed of the archbiſhop of Upſal, who performs the coronation ceremony, and ten biſhops, with three ſuperintendants, one of whom reſides at Carlſtadt, another at Hernoſand, and the third in Gothland. The other eccleſiaſtics, who are ſubordinate to theſe, are the provoſts, deacons, chaplains or curates, and the miniſters or incumbents in villages.

Mr. A. Birch, in a diſſertation delivered in the year 1749, obſerves, that in this kingdom, excluſive of the German provinces, there are in all three thouſand eccleſiaſtical benefices, one thouſand three hundred civil poſts, filled by perſons learned in the laws, one thouſand three hundred military poſts, occupied by men of literature, ſix hundred officers relating to the ſeveral departments belonging to the government, and two thouſand ſix hundred phyſicians and ſurgeons.

We ſhall now take a view of the arts cultivated in Sweden; and here it is neceſſary to obſerve, that a few centuries ago no manufactures were eſtabliſhed in this kingdom. The Hanſe-towns not only exported unwrought iron and copper, but the ore of thoſe metals, and when they were wrought into various tools and utenſils, ſold them again to the Swedes. The inhabitants of the coaſts were all fiſhermen, and the towns had no artificers. The Swedes firſt began to work their metals, and even their wood, in the reign of the great Guſtavus Vaſa; and towards the middle of the ſeventeenth century began to ſet up all kinds of manufactures, but chiefly employed foreigners, particularly the Dutch and Flemings. In the year 1641 a glaſs-houſe was firſt erected in Sweden; in 1643 the Swedes began to make ſtarch; in 1646 they erected tin-works. They had no bookſellers ſhops till the year 1647; nor needle and ſilk manufactures till 1649. Leather-dreſſing and ſope-boiling were introduced into this country in 1651; ſawing-mills were erected in 1653; iron and ſteel manufactures in 1654; ſugar-baking in 1661; but the woollen and ſilk manufactures flouriſhed more than all the reſt, till the wars of Charles XII. put a ſtop to trade, and conſequently to the progreſs of the arts.

However, in the reign of Frederic I. trade and manufactures revived; the breeding of ſheep was encouraged, tobacco planted, and foreign artiſts and manufacturers allowed the free exerciſe of their religion.

Sweden has at preſent manufactures of ſilk, cloth, cotton, fuſtian, and other ſtuffs; linen, ſail-cloth, Morocco leather, dying, and printing of cottons; they have houſes for boiling or refining of allum, ſugar, ſope, and ſalt; for making glaſs, porcelain, and paper; they have alſo gun-powder mills, ſtamping mills, boring mills, wire and flatting mills; vaſt quantities of copper, braſs, iron, and ſteel are wrought in Sweden, which has founderies for great guns, pots, and the like, and forges for fire-arms, anchors; great numbers of ſhips are alſo built, and wooden veſſels and utenſils made in the kingdom.

Sweden is conveniently ſituated for commerce, as it lies between the Baltic and the North Sea. The towns which are allowed to import and export goods in their own ſhips, and to trade both with natives and foreigners, are called ſtaple-towns; theſe are thirty-four in number: but thoſe that lie near the ſea, and yet have no foreign commerce, and are only permitted to carry on a domeſtic trade, to have ſhares in the freight of goods, and to purchaſe by wholeſale the goods imported by the ſtaple-towns, are called land-towns: ſome of theſe are within land, and others ſea-port-towns; others again are mine-towns. The chief ſtaple-towns in Sweden are Stockholm and Gottenburg. At the former are held the college of commerce, an aſſurance-office, and the national bank, which has frequently advanced conſiderable ſums of money for the ſervice of the government, and has a fund of about ſix millions of ſilver dollars, each equal to one ſhilling and ſix-pence two-thirds ſterling, beſides current bills to the amount of ſeventy millions. At Gottenburg is the Eaſt India company, erected in 1731, which pays for every ſhip that returns from India fifty thouſand ſilver dollars to the government: the Swedes have alſo a Levant company.

The exports from Sweden are iron wrought and in bars, other wrought metals, timber, gun-powder, pitch, tar, ſalt-petre, pot-aſh, cordage, cobalt, furs, Morocco leather as it is called, and dried fiſh. The imports are grain, fleſh, bacon, cheeſe, butter, tallow, wine, brandy, ſalt, drugs, hides, hemp, flax, ſilk, and ſeveral foreign manufactures.

The coins of Sweden are, the gold ducat, worth about nine ſhillings and four-pence ſterling.

The ſilver coins are the oer, one of which is equal to four pfennings, twenty of them to a caroline, which is about one ſhilling and two-pence ſterling, and thirty-two to a ſilver dollar, equal to one ſhilling and ſix-pence three farthings Engliſh money. There are double and half carolines; and alſo double, ſingle, and half-ſingle oers.

The copper pieces are the copper oer, which, like the rundſtuc, is equal to two pfennings, and is no more than the eighth part of a penny Engliſh. An half, a quarter, and a ſixth part of a copper oer. A copper dollar, which is about four groſchen, and is nearly equal to ſix-pence farthing.

The imaginary money are the ſilver mark, equal to about four-pence three farthings, and the copper mark; the former is three times the value of the latter, and ſix ſilver, or eighteen copper marks, is equal to a ſpecie dollar, or thirty-two groſchen, which is about one ſhilling and three-pence ſterling.

SECT. III.

A general View of the Hiſtory, antient and preſent Government, Expences, Revenues, military and naval Strength of Sweden.

SWEDEN is famous for being the native country of the fierce and warlike Goths, whoſe emigrations make ſuch a diſtinguiſhed figure in hiſtory. The kingdom of the Swedes was ſeparate from that of the Goths till the twelfth century; but in 1132 both nations, with their ſeveral dependencies, were united under Suercher, king of the Oſtrogoths, who was proclaimed king of the Swedes and Goths. It was afterwards agreed by both nations, that the Swediſh and Gothic princes ſhould hold the ſovereignty alternately; but this occaſioned many bloody inteſtine wars.

Magnus Smeek added Schonen and the adjacent territories to the kingdom; but at length by his maladminiſtration, deprived both himſelf and his family of the throne: for after Albert, duke of Mecklenburg, his ſiſter's ſon, had been elected king, Margaret, who was heireſs to the crowns of Denmark and Norway, compelled him to give up the kingdom of Sweden to her; and by the union of Calmar, in the year 1397, united the

the three northern kingdoms under one head. This union filled the Swedes with the greateſt indignation: but after ſeveral unſucceſsful attempts, they at length, by the aſſiſtance of a Swediſh nobleman, named Guſtavus Erickſon von Vaſa, ſhook off the Daniſh yoke. What moſt provoked them to engage in this revolt, was a perfidious maſſacre, perpetrated at Stockholm in 1520 by king Chriſtian II.

The brave Guſtavus Vaſa, who had rendered himſelf extremely popular by the conduct and intrepidity he had ſhewn in reſcuing Sweden from the oppreſſion of the Danes, was elected king, and not only became the founder of a line of monarchs of his family, but advanced the royal authority to a very great height.

The crown of Sweden had hitherto been elective; but the Swedes had been deprived of this right under the Daniſh kings; and according to the laws of Sweden, the royal authority was ſo limited, that the prince had little more than the name of a ſovereign; for he could neither make war nor peace, levy money nor troops, without the conſent of the ſtates. He could neither erect a fortreſs, introduce foreign troops, nor put any ſtrong place into the hands of a foreigner. The revenue of the crown then ſolely aroſe from the ſmall domains about Upſal, an eaſy poll-tax on the peaſants, and from ſome fines and forfeitures which fell to the crown in criminal proceedings. The government of caſtles, fiefs, or manors, which were at firſt granted by the crown only for a term of years, or at moſt for life, were inſenſibly changed into hereditary poſſeſſions, which the nobility held by force, without paying the rents that had been reſerved out of them. This was alſo done by the biſhops and clergy, who poſſeſſed ſuch eſtates on pretence that the lands of the church ought to be exempted from all duties; and by theſe encroachments the royal revenue was ſo reduced, that the king could ſcarce maintain more than five hundred horſe. He was conſidered only as a kind of captain-general during a war, and as preſident of the ſenate in time of peace. The prelates and nobility fortified their caſtles, and rendered them the ſeats of ſo many independent ſtates; and arming their vaſſals, frequently made war on each other, and ſometimes on their ſovereign. They neither ſought nor expected redreſs, when they thought themſelves injured, from the king's courts; but took upon themſelves the power of doing themſelves juſtice. The kingdoms of Norway and Denmark were under the like form of government, both of them were elective, and had their reſpective ſenates, without whoſe concurrence, or that of the ſtates aſſembled in their diet, the king could tranſact nothing of importance.

But to return to Guſtavus, who found the kingdom in this ſituation. The ſtates, who thought they never could ſufficiently expreſs their gratitude to their deliverer, paſſed a ſolemn decree, by which they obliged themſelves to approve whatever Guſtavus ſhould think fit to perform for the preſervation of his dignity, againſt a pretender who was ſet up in oppoſition to him. They, in particular, impowered him to make peace and war, and reſolved that the enemies of Guſtavus ſhould be eſteemed the enemies of the nation.

This happened at the time that the doctrines of the reformation began to prevail in Sweden, and the Romiſh clergy, Guſtavus's greateſt enemies, being in poſſeſſion of half the lands and revenues of the kingdom, and among others, of many royal caſtles and domains, he thought this a proper time to reſume them, by falling in with the doctrines of Luther. He therefore procured an act to be paſſed, by which it was ordained, that the biſhops ſhould immediately ſurrender their caſtles to the king, and diſband their troops: that their pretended rights to fines and forfeited eſtates, which originally belonged to the crown, ſhould be entirely abrogated: that all the ſuperfluous plate and bells belonging to the churches ſhould be ſold to pay the public debts: that all the grants of eſtates to the clergy ſince the year 1445, ſhould be vacated, and the lands re-united to the crown: that two-thirds of the tythes, generally poſſeſſed by the biſhops and abbots, ſhould be ſequeſtered, for maintaining the army in time of war, and for erecting and endowing public ſchools and hoſpitals in time of peace: and that all the privileges of the clergy ſhould be entirely at his majeſty's diſpoſal.

The king having thus obtained a legal title to the revenues of the church, marched through great part of his dominions, at the head of a body of horſe, to ſee the act put in execution, attended by Olaus Petri, and other Lutheran doctors, whom he ordered to preach before him in the principal churches. Wherever he came, he commanded the titles and grants by which the clergy held their lands to be brought before him, and either reunited them to the crown, or reſtored them to the heirs of the ancient proprietors; by which means he recovered from the ſecular and regular clergy above two-thirds of their revenues, and ſeized upon near thirteen thouſand conſiderable farms. He alſo cauſed the ſuperfluous church plate to be melted down, and carried into the public treaſury. This indeed occaſioned ſome conſpiracies and inſurrections; but they were eaſily ſuppreſſed.

Having now ſucceeded ſo happily in ſuppreſſing his greateſt enemies, he obliged the nobility and gentry who held the crown lands, which they had kept as their own, to reſign up their fiefs, or to pay the rents that were originally due to the crown. Upon this they were obliged to compound with the king, and agree to pay him annually, a certain ſum for all their fiefs and manors.

Guſtavus next entailed the crown upon his iſſue, by the free conſent of the ſtates, and it has accordingly been enjoyed by his deſcendants ever ſince. But the diviſion of the kingdom among his children, the mal-adminiſtration of his ſon John, with the propenſity of Erick, John's brother, and his ſon Sigiſmund king of Poland to popery, threw the kingdom into terrible diſtractions, till they were at laſt compoſed by Charles IX. and his ſon Guſtavus Adolphus. This laſt prince conquered the greateſt part of Livonia, and penetrated ſo far into Germany as to become formidable to the emperor; but in 1632 he loſt his life in the battle of Lutzen.

His daughter Chriſtina, who ſucceeded to the throne, took from Norway and Denmark the territories of Jamtland and Harjedalen, with the iſlands of Gothland and Oeland, and in 1648 added Upper Pomerania, Bremen, Verden, and Wiſmar to the Swediſh dominions; but in the year 1654 that princeſs ſolemnly reſigned the crown of Sweden, and was very inſtrumental in advancing to the throne her couſin Charles Guſtavus prince Palatine of Deux-Ponts, who in 1658 added Schonen, Halland, Blekingen, and the Lehn of Bohus to the Swediſh dominions. His ſon Charles XI. re-aſſumed all the alienated crown-lands, and rendered himſelf an abſolute monarch.

Charles XI. dying in 1697, in the forty-ſecond year of his age, and the thirty-ſeventh of his reign, was ſucceeded by his only ſon Charles XII. who being under fifteen years of age, a regency was appointed. In the year 1700 the Poles, Danes, and Ruſſians, taking advantage of the king's youth, endeavoured to recover the dominions of which their anceſtors had been deprived. The Engliſh and Dutch ſent a fleet to his aſſiſtance, and compelled the Danes to conclude a peace with him. This young prince then marched againſt the Ruſſians and Poles, whom at the beginning of the war he defeated in almoſt every engagement, with numbers far inferior to thoſe of his enemies, though he had well-diſciplined veteran troops of Saxons to contend with, as well as Ruſſians and Poles: but while, filled with the utmoſt contempt for his enemies, he buſied himſelf in dethroning the king of Poland, the czar Peter, improving by his misfortunes, in his turn learnt to conquer: Charles was defeated at Pultowa, and his whole army entirely cut off, or made priſoners, except three or four hundred horſe, with whom he eſcaped to Bender, in Turky. He there gave ſignal proofs of his intrepidity and his folly; and, a few years after his return to Sweden, was killed at the ſiege of Fredericſhall. His exceſſive fondneſs for war brought the kingdom to very great diſtreſs, and he was the laſt male heir of his family.

After Charles's death his ſiſter Ulrica Eleanor aſcended the throne, by the free election of the ſtates; but firſt gave up all pretenſions to arbitrary power; and in 1720, by conſent of the diet, transferred the government to her huſband Frederic, hereditary prince of Heſſe Caſſel.

King Frederic having no iſſue, the ſtates in 1743 nominated Adolphus Frederic, duke of Holſtein, and biſhop of Eutin, his ſucceſſor, who accordingly on the deceaſe of Frederic, on the fifth of April, 1751, aſſumed the reins of government.

The titles of the kings of Sweden have been frequently varied. His preſent majeſty is ſtiled Adolphus Frederic, by the grace of God, king of Sweden, and of the Goths and Vandals; great Prince of Finland; hereditary ſovereign of Norway; duke of Sleſwic, Holſtein, Stormarn, and Ditmarſh; count of Oldenburg and Delmenhorſt.

The arms are quarterly: in the firſt and fourth azure, three crowns or, for the kingdom of Sweden; in the ſecond and third barré, onde argent and azure, a lion rampant or, crowned gules, for Gothland; with the arms of Holſtein in the eſcutcheon.

In 1748, Frederic I. revived two antient orders of knighthood, and founded another. The principal is the blue ribbon, or the order of Seraphim, inſtituted in 1334 by Magnus Smeek. The next is the yellow ribbon, or the order of the ſword, founded by Guſtavus Vaſa in 1523. The order of the black ribbon, or the north ſtar, is of late inſtitution. All three have their proper badges and mottos.

The preſent form of government was ſettled in Sweden in the year 1720, by which the king's male iſſue are declared his heirs and ſucceſſors to the throne; but before the new ſovereign enters on the adminiſtration of the government, he renounces by a ſolemn oath all claim to arbitrary power, and engages to puniſh with the utmoſt rigour all who ſhall endeavour to promote it, as traitors and enemies to the king and kingdom. The king cannot appropriate to himſelf or alienate any of the national revenues: he cannot ſettle any of the royal domains on his children, but muſt ſupply the neceſſary ſums for their education and portions in ready money: he muſt be of the Lutheran religion: he is to govern in concert with the council of ſtate, according to the general laws of Sweden, and the preſent form of government: he is not to engage in any war, to impoſe any new taxes, to alter the value of the current coin, to detain the ſalaries or penſions accruing to the officers and ſoldiers from the crown lands, nor to annul any ordinances made for the improvement of navigation, trade, and manufactures, without the conſent of his council and the ſtates of the kingdom.

The ſtates, according to the antient form of government, conſiſt of four orders. The firſt of theſe is the nobility, conſiſting of counts, barons, and gentry. One is choſen out of each family to repreſent that body, and with them the colonels, lieutenant-colonels, majors, and captains of every regiment, ſit and vote.

The ſecond order is compoſed of the repreſentatives of the clergy, who chuſe one out of every rural deanery, conſiſting of ten pariſhes, and their charges are borne. Theſe, with the biſhops and ſuperintendants, make about two hundred, who repreſent that body.

The third order of the ſtate conſiſts of the repreſentatives of the burghers, who are choſen by the magiſtrates and common-council of every corporation. Of theſe there are four elected for Stockholm. Some of the towns have two votes; but moſt of them have only one. Theſe members amount to about a hundred and fifty in the whole.

The fourth order conſiſts of the peaſants, who chooſe one out of every diſtrict, whoſe charges they bear, and theſe amount to about two hundred and fifty.

The king is obliged to convene a diet once in three years; but if he dies without leaving a male heir to the crown, the ſtates meet of themſelves. Each of the four claſſes has its chairman; the marſhal of the diet is uſually the chairman of the nobles, and the archbiſhop of Upſal that of the clergy: the burghers uſually chooſe one of the burgomaſters of Stockholm, and the peaſants have alſo their ſpeaker; but the counſellors of ſtate have no vote in the diet. Each of the four claſſes has alſo its reſpective houſe at Stockholm.

When they aſſemble they firſt meet in a large room in the king's palace, called the diet-chamber; where his majeſty being ſeated on his throne, and the ſenators or privy-counſellors ſitting at ſome diſtance from him, the preſident of the chancery uſually compliments the aſſembly in the king's name; after which a ſecretary acquaints them with the ſtate of affairs ſince their receſs, and the reaſon of requiring their advice and aſſiſtance; to which the marſhal of the nobility returns an anſwer; and after him the archbiſhop for the clergy, and the ſpeakers of the other orders of the ſtate. They then ſeparate to their ſeveral houſes or chambers, where they chooſe a ſecret committee, compoſed of an equal number of each body, to whom the miniſtry communicate ſuch particulars as are not thought proper to be made public, and they prepare what is to be propoſed to their reſpective bodies. In each houſe affairs are determined by a majority of voices; and a majority in all the chambers is neceſſary to the paſſing of every act. When the particulars propoſed by the king have been conſidered and diſpatched, each houſe offers its grievances ſeparately to his majeſty, to which he returns an anſwer; and each member of the three inferior houſes has a copy of the king's anſwer to their reſpective grievances, and of all the acts paſſed by the ſtates; both of which they communicate to their electors.

We ſhall now give an account of the ſenate, and the ſeveral courts or colleges for the adminiſtration of public affairs. Theſe are,

The ſenate, the council of ſtate, or ſupreme council, in which the king himſelf preſides, and has two votes. Here all national affairs that admit of no delay are determined by a majority of voices. This council conſiſts only of fourteen members, who are choſen in the following manner: twenty-four of the nobility, or houſe of lords, twelve of the clergy, and as many of the burgeſſes being aſſembled, take an oath of ſecrecy, after which they proceed to chuſe three perſons fit to be advanced to that dignity, on a vacancy, in which they muſt be unanimous. Of theſe his majeſty chooſes which he pleaſes. No ſenator can be elected in the intervals of their diet; nor may more than two of one family be of the ſenate at the ſame time.

The royal courts of juſtice, of which the Swediſh properly ſo called is held at Stockholm, the Gothic at Jonkoping, and that of Finland at Abo.

The royal war-office has a ſenator for preſident, and two others of the ſame dignity for his aſſociates, with a general of the artillery, a quarter-maſter-general, and two counſellors of war, under whoſe direction are all the land-forces, the artillery, and fortifications. Under this office are the commiſſary of war's, the ordnance, and pay-maſter's-offices; thoſe of the militia, the fortifications, ſtores, camp, cloathing, quarters, &c.

The court of admiralty, which is held at Carlſcroon, has an admiral for its preſident, with all the other admirals and principal ſea-officers for his aſſiſtants.

The ſtate-office, in which the prime miniſter reſides. As this office has the care of the records of the kingdom, the ſecretary of ſtate is a member of it.

The royal chamber of finances.

The royal domain chamber.

The royal chamber of reviſion.

The royal college of commerce.

The royal chancery.

The office of the ſtates, and the manufacture-office.

Foreigners are excluded from all poſts in the government.

With reſpect to the laws of Sweden, the new Swediſh digeſt was allowed of by all the ſtates in the diets held in 1731 and 1734, and was confirmed by the king, and publiſhed in 1736. It contains a new courſe of proceedings, by which all law-ſuits are eaſily determined and brought to a ſpeedy iſſue. The towns and diſtricts of the peaſants have their inferior courts, from which an appeal lies to the ſuperior or provincial courts, and from theſe again to the royal courts of juſtice. In the village courts of judicature twelve peaſants always ſit as aſſiſtants in trying cauſes.

The puniſhment of theft in Sweden is perpetual ſlavery; the criminal being condemned to labour all his life in the ſervice of the crown, in carrying wood and ſtone for the repair of the fortifications, or other ſervile and laborious employment. He wears an iron collar night and day

about his neck, to which a bow of the ſame metal is faſtened that comes over his head, and has a little bell that rings upon the leaſt motion.

Duelling, where one of the parties is ſlain, is puniſhed with the death of the ſurvivor; and if neither of them fall, they both ſuffer two years impriſonment, during which they are to live upon bread and water, and alſo pay a fine.

For murder, adultery, and burning of houſes, the criminal, if a man, is hanged; and if a woman, beheaded: but where the facts are attended with aggravating circumſtances, the offender is hung in chains, burnt, or quartered. Where a nobleman or gentleman commits a capital crime, he is ſhot to death.

We ſhall now conſider the expences, revenues, military and naval forces of Sweden. The ordinary and extraordinary expences for the kingdom of Sweden, and the great dutchy of Finland, for the year 1753, amounted to ten millions two hundred and forty thouſand four hundred and thirty-four ſilver dollars; but the ordinary revenue of the kingdom does not exceed eight millions ſeven hundred and forty-five thouſand ſeven hundred and eleven, including the ſum allowed to the king for his civil liſt. The uſual grant to the king for his privy purſe is about two hundred thouſand ſilver dollars; to the queen a hundred thouſand; to the princeſs and princeſſes, the children of the reigning monarch, thirty thouſand. The crown debts are ſo great, that ſince the year 1753 the annual intereſt of them has amounted to one million twenty-eight thouſand two hundred and eighty-ſix ſilver dollars.

The military forces of Sweden conſiſt partly of raiſed and partly of diſtributed regiments. The latter, which are the national militia, form the greateſt part, and, according to an ordinance publiſhed by Charles XI. are maintained by the country; for that prince obliged the nobility and gentry, as well as the peaſants, to provide and maintain both horſe and foot, of which each province furniſhes its contingency.

As to the infantry, every three farmers provide a foot-ſoldier, furniſh pay, and give him a dwelling and a piece of land; but he has his accoutrements, arms, and ammunition from the crown, which alſo pays the principal and ſubaltern officers, and ſupplies the troops with proviſion when they are on their march, or in the field, except at the rendezvous, in order to be muſtered.

The officers of horſe and foot are maintained out of the lands reſumed and reunited to the crown. Every officer has a houſe and land aſſigned him in that part of the country where his regiment is quartered, and the rent of other farms to the value of his pay, which they receive either in money, corn, or other goods. The lands aſſigned for the payment of a colonel of foot are about three hundred pounds a year, and the reſt of the officers in proportion. But on a march, or in the field, the crown furniſhes them with ſubſiſtence, and provides ammunition and forage for their horſes.

The raiſed regiments of infantry, moſt of which ſerve as garriſons in the fortified places, conſiſt of the king's life-guards, which amount to thirteen thouſand eight hundred men; a regiment of artillery, conſiſting of three thouſand; and the diſtributed regiments, which amount to twenty-four thouſand two hundred and thirty-eight. Hence the whole body of the infantry amount to forty-one thouſand and thirty-eight. The cavalry, including the king's regiment of life-guards, amounts to ſeven thouſand and twenty-ſix; beſides three regiments and one ſquadron of dragoons, amounting together to three thouſand one hundred and fifty-four. Hence it appears that the whole army conſiſts of fifty-one thouſand two hundred and eighteen men: but in time of war ſeveral extraordinary regiments are raiſed, which amount to at leaſt an equal number.

A college of invalids is founded at Wadſtena for twenty-eight field-officers, nineteen ſubaltern officers, and twenty-two private men, who are there provided with lodging, firing, proviſions, and cloaths: beſides theſe above five hundred field officers, five hundred and fifty ſubalterns, and four thouſand private men have penſions, and ſome other ſmall gratuities.

The Swediſh navy conſiſts of twenty-four ſhips of war, from the firſt to the ſixth rates, carrying from a hundred to forty-two guns; twelve frigates, carrying from thirty-ſix to twelve guns; four brigantines, carrying from eight to ſix guns; with ſeveral bomb-ketches, and forty gallies.

Sweden at preſent conſiſts of five great diviſions, or general provinces; Finland, Gothland, Sweden properly ſo called, Nordland, and Lapland.

SECT. IV.

Of Finland, its Situation, Extent, and Produce. A Deſcription of its ſeveral Provinces, and of the principal Places in each.

IN deſcribing the provinces of Sweden we ſhall begin with the eaſtermoſt part. Finland, called by the natives Suomi, is bounded on the eaſt by Ruſſia, on the ſouth by the gulph of Finland, on the weſt by the gulph of Bothnia, and on the north by a part of Swediſh Lapland. This country contains about eighteen thouſand ſquare Engliſh miles, and is naturally fertile; but it is far from being properly cultivated or ſufficiently peopled according to its extent.

The paſtures of Finland are in many places ſo rich, that the inhabitants obtain great profit by grazing; but the breed of cattle is here very ſmall. Here are conſiderable woods of pine-trees; ſo that vaſt quantities of timber, boards, and charcoal, are ſent from hence to Stockholm for exportation. It produces ſeveral ſorts of fruit, as pears, apples, plumbs, and cherries; and abounds with all ſorts of game.

Finland is every where watered with lakes, rivers, and brooks, which yield plenty of fiſh, and fine pearls are found in the pearl-fiſheries. Lead ore is found in ſeveral parts of this province, and in the lakes and moraſſes are dug up a ferruginous earth, from which iron is extracted. Finland is divided into five provinces, of each of which we ſhall give ſome account.

We ſhall begin with Finland Proper, which is ſituated at the angle where the gulphs of Bothnia and Finland join, and is about a hundred and ſeventy-four Engliſh miles in length, and a hundred and eight in breadth. The ſoil is very fertile, and the country yields very delightful proſpects, eſpecially in the ſouthern parts, where it is agreeably diverſified with lakes, rivers, corn-fields, paſtures, hop-grounds, woods, and ſome iron works; but the north part of Finland is not ſo well cultivated. The fief of Biorneborg is one of the moſt fertile parts in all Finland; and here is a rich pearl-fiſhery, where pearls of an extraordinary ſize are found, for the moſt part ſingle; but ſometimes a cluſter of two or three pearls are found in the ſame ſhell. The inhabitants of this country ſubſiſt by grazing, agriculture, fiſhing, and making of wooden-ware; and traffic in grain, meal, cotton, butter, talc, yarn ſtockings, and linen.

The principal places in Finland Proper are,

Abo, in Latin Aboa, is ſeated on the river Aurojocki, which runs through the city. It ſtands on the point of the angle formed by the gulph of Bothnia and Finland, has a commodious harbour, and is the moſt conſiderable ſtaple town in the whole country. It is ſituated in ſixty degrees forty minutes north latitude, and in twenty-one degrees twenty-eight minutes eaſt longitude, and is almoſt ſurrounded with hills. The cathedral, which was built in 1390, is a handſome ſtructure. King Guſtavus Adolphus founded a ſeminary here, which queen Chriſtina afterwards converted into an academy. A royal high court of judicature, which is the only one in Finland, is held at Abo, where the governor of the province alſo reſides. The chief magiſtrates are two burgo-maſters. The city carries on a briſk trade in corn, proviſions, linen, planks, &c. The Ruſſians, who were in poſſeſſion of this place from the year 1713 to 1720, committed great ravages here. It has alſo frequently ſuffered by fire. In the year 1743 a peace was concluded in this city between Sweden and Ruſſia. Abo caſtle is one of the moſt antient fortifications in Finland; it is ſeated on a peninſula at the mouth of the river Aura, and has been ſeveral times deſtroyed by the enemy, and conſumed by fire.

At

At the diſtance of nine Engliſh miles from Abo is Nadendahl, in Latin Vallis Gratiæ. A convent which occaſioned the building of this town, was ſequeſtered at the Reformation, the nuns, however, continued there till the year 1595, and ſet up a manufactory of knit ſtockings, which ſtill continues to flouriſh, and ſeveral hundred pairs of thread ſtockings are annually ſold at a very low rate, and ſent from hence to Stockholm and other places. Near the town is a fine medicinal ſpring.

Biorneborg is a ſea-port town, ſituated in the ſixty-ſecond degree of north latitude, on a narrow ſandy tract of ground on the bank of the river Kumo, which, juſt below the town, divides itſelf into ſeveral branches, forming many ſmall iſlands within the diſtance of three miles. Great quantities of wooden-ware and fiſh, particularly ſalmon and large whitings, are exported from hence to Stockholm and other places. The quay belonging to this town is at Sandud, which is at about ſix miles diſtance.

Between the iſland of Aland and Finland are many ſmall iſlands, ſhelves, and rocks, which render that part of the ſea very dangerous to mariners. Aland is ſituated in the ſixty-firſt degree five minutes north latitude; it is about thirty-ſix miles in length, and near as many in breadth. The ſoil is ſo fertile, that the inhabitants ſeldom experience any ſcarcity of corn. It alſo produces rich paſtures for grazing. The woods belong to the king, and are every where encloſed. In different parts of the iſland are quarries of lime-ſtone; and lynxes, foxes, and hares abound here; but bears are not very common. The inhabitants, who ſpeak the Swediſh dialect, chiefly ſubſiſt by agriculture, grazing, fiſhing, hunting, catching of ſea-fowl, and working in the woods. They alſo trade in butter, wooden-ware, coals, and lime; and ſome of them are good mariners. The clergy of this iſland are under the juriſdiction of the biſhop of Abo.

The next province of Finland we ſhall mention is that of Eaſt Bothnia, which lies farther north on the ſea-coaſt, and obtained its name from its being ſituated on the eaſt ſide of the gulph of Bothnia. Nature has ſeparated it from the adjacent countries by a chain of hills, which run along the eaſt ſide of it; and from theſe eminences iſſue ſeveral rivers. The country, eſpecially on the ſea-coaſt towards the ſouth, is for the moſt part level, but full of moraſſes. The induſtry of the inhabitants in agriculture is attended with good ſucceſs, ſo that they ſupply other places with corn; but their hopes of a good crop are ſometimes fruſtrated by an unexpected froſt. However, ſome large tracts of land lie uncultivated. Eaſt Bothnia abounds in woods, and with lakes and rivers that yield plenty of fiſh; and in ſome of the rivers are found pearls. The inhabitants ſubſiſt chiefly by agriculture, grazing, burning lime and tiles, and in making tar. Of the laſt they annually extract fifty thouſand barrels. They alſo employ themſelves in hunting and fiſhing, ſhip-building, and making of wooden-ware. The commodities exported from hence are beams, planks, tar, train oil, cattle, fiſh, and other proviſions.

All the pariſhes in this province amount only to nineteen inhabited by Fins, and nine by the Swedes. The number of the inhabitants is computed at eighty thouſand.

Eaſt Bothnia is divided into three parts, all under one governor; the principal places in which are,

Ulea, or Ulaborg, a ſea-port town, ſituated on a peninſula at the mouth of the river Ulea-Elf, in the ſixty-fifth degree twenty minutes latitude, and is the largeſt town in all Eaſt Bothnia. It has very ſtraight and long ſtreets, a good ſchool, a commodious harbour, and a fine ſalmon fiſhery. In the year 1714 it was demoliſhed by the Ruſſians. The caſtle which ſtands near it on a ſmall iſland, is ſaid to be at preſent in a ruinous condition.

Gamla-Carleby, in Latin Carolina-Antiqua, was built in the reign of Guſtavus Adolphus, in a fertile and pleaſant country, in the ſixty-fourth degree eight minutes north latitude. It has a commodious harbour, and the inhabitants not only carry on a conſiderable trade in tar, but make great advantages by ſhip-building. The adjacent country is famous for a particular kind of ſalt, which the peaſants boil from the ſea-water in ſpring and autumn. At firſt it is of a dirty grey colour; but upon pouring ſome ſour milk into the clarifying veſſel, it becomes as white as ſnow.

The province of Tavaſtland, in Latin Tavaſtia, lies in the middle of Finland, and is a hundred and eighty miles in length, and a hundred and twenty in breadth. The country, which is very fertile, conſiſts of fine plains, watered by a great number of lakes and rivers that abound with fiſh, and is diverſified with meadow and arable lands; and with reſpect to theſe natural advantages, it is ſcarce ſurpaſſed by any province in Sweden. It is alſo ſtored with cattle, and all ſorts of game: but it is far from being well cultivated, and conſequently the peaſants are generally poor. The inhabitants ſubſiſt by agriculture, grazing, and breeding of cattle, and ſome of them are employed in the fiſheries. They alſo trade in corn, peas, beans, butter, cattle, leather, dried fiſh, tallow, flax, hemp, lime, and the bark of trees.

One of the moſt remarkable places in this province is Croneburg, or Tavaſtehus, in Latin Croneburgum, a ſmall town built in 1650, on a pleaſant ſpot, and endowed with conſiderable privileges. This town, which is ſituated in the ſixty-firſt degree twenty-five minutes latitude, was taken by the Ruſſians in 1713, and in the laſt war between them and the Swedes it was laid in aſhes. The caſtle, which, excluſive of the town, is properly called Tavaſtehus, or Tavaſteburg, is well fortified, and ſerves for an arſenal and royal magazine.

The province of Nyland, in Latin Nylandia, lies in a bay of the gulf of Finland, and was formerly peopled by the Fins; but is now inhabited by the Swedes. It is near a hundred and twenty-eight miles in length, and in few places more than thirty in breadth. It is a level, fertile, and pleaſant country, better peopled and cultivated than the neighbouring provinces. It conſiſts of arable and excellent paſtures, woods, rivers and lakes that abound with fiſh, and is well ſtored with all ſorts of game. Here are alſo ſome ſawing-mills and iron-founderies. The inhabitants ſubſiſt by agriculture, grazing, and fiſhing, and trade in corn, planks, linen, and dried-fiſh.

The principal towns in this province are,

Helſingfors, in Latin Helſingoforſa, a ſtaple-town, and the beſt in the province, is ſeated on a peninſula, on the ſouth coaſt, and has a good harbour, not inferior to any in Sweden. This town was built by Guſtavus I. but in the late wars was laid in aſhes, and has not yet recovered its former flouriſhing ſtate. The governor of Nyland and Tavaſtland reſides in this town, and within theſe few years ſeveral forts have been built in its neighbourhood.

Borgo, in Latin Borga, an ancient ſea-port, with an indifferent harbour. This town was almoſt entirely demoliſhed in the late war; but is now in a very flouriſhing condition. It is a biſhop's ſee, and has a good ſeminary. The inhabitants trade in all kinds of linen.

Degerby, or Louiſa, is a well-built ſtaple-town on a creek of the gulf of Finland, and has a commodious harbour. It was built in 1745 as a frontier town towards the Ruſſian territories, according to the limits ſettled by the laſt treaty of peace, and was called Degerby from the nobleman's eſtate on which it ſtands; but in 1752 king Adolphus Frederic changed its name to that of Louiſa.

Beſides the above five provinces, Finland contains the country of Sawolax, which is two hundred and four miles in length, and a hundred and twenty-ſix in breadth, but produces very little corn or paſture, it moſtly conſiſting of woods, lakes, rivers, and moraſſes. The land is ſo unequally divided, and ſo thinly inhabited, that the grounds belonging to ſome farms, lie above ſixty miles from the houſe. The inhabitants, however, get a tolerable ſubſiſtence by ſowing buck-wheat, grazing, hunting, fiſhing and making wooden-ware. They alſo trade in tallow, butter, dried fiſh, hides, and furs. The country abounds in elks and rein-deer; but contains no towns worthy of notice.

SECT.

SECT. V.

Of Gothland in general; its great Diviſions; with a particular Account of them; and their ſeveral Provinces, Iſlands, and Towns.

GOTHLAND is bounded on the eaſt and ſouth by the Baltic; on the weſt by Norway, the Sound, and the German ocean; and on the north by Sweden Proper. It is a pleaſant and fertile country, conſiſting of fine plains and encloſures, and the greateſt part of the corn of the growth of Sweden is produced here. It alſo abounds in lakes and rivers, which yield great quantities of fiſh, and in extenſive foreſts and rich mines.

Gothland had anciently its own ſovereigns; but Suercher, king of the Oſtrogoths, being proclaimed king of the Swedes and Goths in 1132, both theſe kingdoms became united under one ſovereign. The arms of Gothland are azure, a lion rampant going over three ſtreams; by which the Goths probably intended to denote their warlike proweſs, and the ſucceſs of their arms in three countries of Europe.

The number of towns in Gothland amount to forty-eight, and it is divided into Eaſt Gothland, Weſt Gothland, and South Gothland.

Eaſt Gothland, in Latin Oſtro-Gothia, properly ſo called, includes Smaland, with the iſlands Oeland and Gothland. This country, which had formerly its particular kings and its own laws, is ninety-ſix miles in length, and ninety in breadth, and produces wheat, rye, barley, oats, and peas in ſuch plenty as to ſupply the neighbouring provinces. It has alſo many fine orchards, meadows, and paſtures, with lakes and rivers abounding with variety of fiſh, extenſive foreſts, ſome of which are of oak and birch, and valuable iron mines. The inhabitants are employed in agriculture, grazing, hunting, fiſhing, and in the mines and quarries. Along the banks of the lake of Wetter are found agate, cornelians, touch-ſtone, and rattle-ſtones. In the foreſt of Kalmarden are dug up fine marble, and a reddiſh violet-ſtone which emits a very fragrant ſmell. Antimony is found in mount Amberg, and beautiful petrifactions in ſeveral parts of the country.

There are twenty-three lakes in Eaſt Gothland, the moſt remarkable of which is the Wetter, which extends ninety miles in length, and fifteen in breadth, and contains two or three iſlands. It has but one outlet, which is by the river Motala, though above forty little ſtreams diſcharge themſelves into it. This lake is ſaid to lie above a hundred feet higher than either the Baltic or the North Sea, and is deep and clear, but very boiſterous in winter.

The rivers of Eaſt Gothland are the Motala, juſt mentioned, which receives ſeventeen rivulets, and paſſing through the whole country diſcharges itſelf into the Baltic; near Norkioping it precipitates its waters from a rock ſixteen fathoms high: the Stang, which divides the country into the eaſt and weſt parts, and diſcharges itſelf into the lake of Roxen: the Molby or Nibro, the Kareſbo, and the Skena.

Eaſt Gothland conſiſts of one dioceſe, which is that of Linkioping; the ſecond in Sweden as to precedence. It includes twenty-two provoſtſhips, and is divided into twenty-one diſtricts, which belong to the prefecture of Linkioping.

The principal place in Eaſt Gothland is Norkioping, in Latin Norcopia, a ſtaple-town ſituated on the river Motala. It is next to Stockholm in extent, and is eſteemed one of the beſt cities in the kingdom. It was deſtroyed by the Ruſſians, but has recovered itſelf, and contains five churches, has a new and commodious quay, and carries on a conſiderable trade. Here are paper mills, copper mills, a printing-houſe, and woollen manufactures.

The country of Smaland, or Smoland, is a hundred and twenty miles in length, and ſeventy-two in breadth, and was antiently governed by its own kings. It probably received the name of Smaland, or ſmall parcels of land, becauſe in antient times the country was ſo overrun with woods and barren waſtes, that the inhabitants could only cultivate a few ſpots here and there between them; and even to this day are ſeen large heaps of ſtones in the woods, which were thrown together by the firſt inhabitants, in order to clear the ground. Though Smaland is mountainous, thoſe parts which are cultivated are very fruitful, and it is particularly remarkable for its fine paſtures. Here are large foreſts of beech and other trees. A vein of gold has been diſcovered in this province, and there are alſo mines of ſilver, copper, and iron, and even a great quantity of the latter is found at the bottom of the lakes.

The high mountain of Hunſberg reſembles a cone, and may be ſeen at the diſtance of eight Swediſh miles. The inhabitants obtain a comfortable ſubſiſtence by agriculture, grazing, and the mines. They alſo deal in cattle, butter, cheeſe, fleſh, bacon, tallow, fiſh, hops, beans, planks, maſts, tar, pot-aſh, iron, and grain.

In this province are twenty-one lakes, which afford nothing remarkable, and ten rivers, the principal of which are the Emma, the Niſſa, the Laga, and the Helgea.

Smaland conſiſts of two dioceſes, that of Wexio, and that of Calmar, and contains three prefectures, which include twenty-four diſtricts, the moſt remarkable places in which are,

Calmar, in Latin Calmaria, is ſeated in the prefecture of the ſame name on the main ſea, oppoſite to the iſle of Oeland, in the fifty-ſixth degree forty minutes latitude, and in the ſixteenth degree four minutes eaſt longitude. It is a fine ſtaple city, and one of the oldeſt in Gothland: it is nearly of a circular form, and has fine regular ſtreets, in which are about five hundred houſes. It is ſurrounded on the land ſide by four walls and moats; but has only one wall towards the ſea. At the diſtance of a mile and a half from the town, ſtands the ſtrong fort of Grimſkiar, and towards the north is another fort on the iſland of Karinglaret. Calmar caſtle ſtands near the Sound, or ſtreight, oppoſite to the city; it has two ditches, and is ſo well fortified, that it has been generally conſidered as the ſtrongeſt and moſt important fortreſs on the frontiers. The prefect or governor reſides in the royal palace of Hoſmo, near the city; here are alſo a biſhop's palace, a fine cathedral, a commodious quay for ſhipping, and a ſeminary, and it has good manufactories of cloths and woollen ſtuffs. The Sound, which runs between the caſtle and the iſland of Oeland, is called Calmar-Sound, and is about ſix miles over. In this city the famous union of Calmar was concluded between the three northern kingdoms.

Jonkioping, in Latin Junecopia, is a very ancient ſtaple-town, in the prefecture of the ſame name, ſituated on a peninſula between the lakes of Wetter, Monk, and Rock. This town formerly ſtood in another place; but the inhabitants were removed hither in the reign of Guſtavus Adolphus. The ſuburbs on both ſides are ſeparated from the town by a canal that conveys water out of the lake of Lill into that of Rock. There are here three churches, an armoury, an elaboratory, and an arſenal belonging to the crown: fire-arms are alſo made here. The ſupreme court of juſtice for Gothland is held in this town, and ten provincial with forty-eight inferior courts are under its juriſdiction.

Wexio, in Latin Wexionia, is ſeated in the prefecture of Cronoberg, almoſt in the center of the province, and is the reſidence of the prefect or governor. In the year 1570, this town was reduced to aſhes by the Danes. A ſeminary was founded here in 1648; but the library and cathedral, which was above nine-hundred years old, and in which St. Siegfried, its founder, was interred, were deſtroyed by fire in 1740.

About twelve miles from this city is Browalla heath, famous for being the place where the Danes were totally defeated by the heroic Blenda, who commanded the Smaland women in the abſence of their huſbands, that were engaged in another expedition. As a recompence for their bravery, the women of Smaland were honoured with extraordinary privileges, and diſtinguiſhed by their wearing a kind of martial head-dreſs: they have even ſtill an equal ſhare with the men in inheritances.

The pleaſant iſland of Oeland, called in Latin Oelandia, lies in the Baltic, directly oppoſite to the Calmar-

Sound. It is eighty-four miles in length, and but nine broad in the wideſt place. It is divided into the north and ſouth parts: in the former are ſeveral fine foreſts, and many quarries of ſtone; but in the latter the ground being more level, is fit both for paſture and tillage. The iſland in general yields plenty of honey, wax, butter, and nuts. The Oeland horſes are ſmall, but ſtrong, and full of mettle. Here are alſo a multitude of deer of ſeveral kinds, as likewiſe hares and wild boars. The king's foreſt extends over the whole iſland. Both parts of Oeland abound in allum-mines, black marble, and free-ſtone, remarkable for its hardneſs. The inhabitants are ſaid to exceed ſeven thouſand perſons, who are employed in agriculture, working in the quarries, cutting ſtone, burning lime, fiſhing, and navigation.

In the north part of the iſland is Borgholm, a ſtately royal ſeat well fortified, though it has been ſeveral times taken by the Danes; but the Swedes have always inſiſted on its being given up to them by treaties. Near it is the commodious habour of Borga.

In the province of Eaſt Gothland is alſo the iſland of Gothland, or Gottland, in Latin Gottlandia, which is ſituated in the Baltic, and is about a hundred and eight miles in length, though but from thirty to thirty-ſix in breadth. From its convenient ſituation it acquired the name of the Eye of the Baltic. It was formerly governed by its own kings, and had its peculiar laws and privileges; but is at preſent ſubject to the ſupreme court of juſtice at Stockholm. It is ſaid to have obtained its name from its having been the winter-quarters of the Goths, when they put to ſea on naval expeditions.

As the ſoil is fertile, it has good paſtures, fine woods of oaks and pines, as well as profitable fiſheries. It has large quarries of ſtone of different kinds fit for building. Here are alſo ſeveral curious ſpecies of ſtone, corals, cornelians, agates, and beautiful petrifactions.

The inhabitants ſubſiſt by agriculture, grazing, fiſhing, burning lime, working in the quarries, navigation, and ſeveral ſorts of mechanic trades. The peaſants ſell none of their commodities to the inhabitants of the towns; but when one of them, ſays Dr. Buſching, comes to market, the burgher to whom he applies, furniſhes him with all neceſſaries, and gives him money to enable him to pay his taxes; while the peaſant, on the other hand, delivers up to the burgher all the produce of his induſtry, without mentioning a word about the price, both parties proceeding according to the dictates of natural juſtice and equity.

This iſland is divided into three parts, namely, the North, Middle, and South part; the firſt of which contains ſeven, the ſecond ſix, and the third ſeven diſtricts; but the only town worthy of notice is

Wiſby, a very ancient ſtaple city, which in former times was one of the Hanſe-towns, and was frequently viſited by the Swedes, Goths, Danes, Normans, French, Engliſh, Saxons, Livonians, Spaniards, Ruſſians, Greeks, and other nations. In times of popery there were three churches and five convents within the city, beſides two within the walls. The maritime laws of Wiſby were famous in all parts, and adopted along the coaſt of the Baltic. Wiſby is the reſidence of the ſuperintendant and prefect; it has a church and ſchool; its harbour is ſafe and commodious, and the town is in a pretty flouriſhing condition.

We now come to Weſt Gothland, which contains four provinces, Weſt Gothland properly ſo called, Warmeland, Daland, or the Vale Country, and Bohus-Lehn.

Weſt Gothland properly ſo called, lies below the lake of Wener, and is a hundred and twenty miles in length, and ninety-ſix in breadth. It was antiently governed by its own kings, and had its particular laws and privileges. The paſtures are ſo rich, that the inhabitants are able to ſupply other parts with butter and cheeſe; the laſt of which is much admired. The country alſo produces corn, fruit-trees, and vegetables; and here likewiſe are iron and allum works.

The lake of Wener, or Vener, is eighty-four miles in length, and forty-two in breadth; it ebbs and flows in a very extraordinary manner, is ſtored with great plenty of fiſh, and has ſeveral iſlands. Twenty-four rivers diſcharge themſelves into it, yet none flows out of it, but the large river called Gotha-Elbe.

The Gotha-Elbe, or Gothic river, diſcharges itſelf into the North Sea near Gottenburg. About forty-five miles from its mouth is the remarkable cataract of Trolhatta, where the water is precipitated between two rocks; it conſiſts of three caſcades, each of them about five fathoms high, and about three hundred fathoms from each other. At the diſtance of three miles from this cataract is a bridge, built from one rock to another, over another high cataract formed by this river, at the bottom of which great number of ſalmon are caught; and twelve miles lower down is another water-fall, where the boats and other veſſels paſs through three ſluices.

The other rivers in Weſt Gothland are the Halle and the Gullſpang, which laſt divides Eaſt Gothland from Warmeland.

Weſt Gothland is divided into two dioceſes, that of Skara, and that of Gottenburg. The former is the third in rank, and includes fifteen provoſtſhips; the latter is the tenth in rank, and contains nine provoſtſhips. The moſt conſiderable town in Weſt Gothland Proper is,

Gottenburg, in Latin Gothoburgum, a ſtaple-town, firſt built in 1607 by Charles IX. on the iſland of Hiſingen; but being deſtroyed by the Danes in 1611, the inhabitants, about ſeven years after, removed to the place where the town now ſtands, and were favoured with ſeveral conſiderable privileges. Gottenburg carries on the greateſt trade of any city in Sweden, except Stockholm. It is ſituated on the borders of Weſt Gothland, at the mouth of the river Moludal, which runs cloſe by the north ſide of the city, and is conveyed through it by ſeveral canals. The ſtreets are broad and kept very clean, and ſince the year 1746 the greateſt part of the houſes have been rebuilt with ſtone. It is regularly fortified, and on the land-ſide is defended by two citadels, called the Lion and the Crown; and towards the ſea by the citadel of New Elſsburg. The governor of the prefectures of Gottenburg and Bohus, who is alſo commandant of the forts and fortifications, reſides in the city. Gottenburg is a biſhop's ſee, and has two printing-houſes, a city church, a ſeminary, an orphan-houſe, an edifice called the crown-houſe, where the garriſon attend divine ſervice, a German church, and ſeveral quays and docks. The number of inhabitants is ſaid to amount to thirteen thouſand. In 1731 an Eaſt India company was eſtabliſhed in this city, for the harbour is a very fine one, and is reſorted to by a great number of ſhips: there is here alſo a college of admiralty and a court of appeals. It is ſituated in fifty-eight degrees twenty-nine minutes north latitude, and in eleven degrees thirty-ſix minutes eaſt longitude.

The province of Warmeland forms a ſemicircle round the north part of the lake of Wener, and is about two hundred and ten miles in length, and a hundred and fourteen in breadth. It is ſaid to derive its name from the Gothic word Wara, which ſignifies to defend; the inhabitants of this country having bravely defended it from the incurſions of their enemies.

Warmeland is very mountainous; but the ſouth and eaſt parts are moſt level and fertile; yet the woods and mines of ſilver, lead, copper, and iron, with the forgeries and founderies on the weſt and north, furniſh a great variety of employments for the inhabitants. In the year 1726 ſome pure ſilver was found in an iron mine near Philipſtadt, and the memory of this extraordinary circumſtance has been preſerved by ſome medals being ſtruck on the occaſion.

One of the principal towns in this province is Carlſtadt, an inland town, built by duke Charles on the iſland of Tingwalla, where the Clara falls into the lake of Wener. It ſtands on a commodious ſituation, has about eight hundred inhabitants, a ſuperintendant, a ſchool founded by king Charles XI. a woollen manufacture, a good metal weigh-houſe, from which great quantities of iron and copper are exported, and the town carries on a conſiderable trade.

Daland, or Thalland, or the vale country of Weſt Gothland, derives its name from the great number of vallies it contains. It lies between the lake of Wener and

and Bohus-Lehn, and is ſixty miles in length, and thirty-five in breadth. The greateſt part of the province is covered with rocks and mountains; but the plains and valleys that lie between them are ſo fruitful, as to ſupply the country with plenty of grain. The inhabitants chiefly ſubſiſt by grazing, breeding of ſheep, agriculture, fiſhing, and working in the mines. They alſo carry on a conſiderable trade in maſts, deal-planks, tar, horſes, oxen, ſheep, bacon, butter, and cheeſe. The principal town in this province is,

Amal, which is ſituated on the lake of Wener, and divides the town and market-place into two parts. This town has a metal weigh-houſe, and carries on a conſiderable trade, particularly in timber, deals, and tar.

The government of Bohus-Lehn is bounded on one ſide by the North Sea, and on the other by the vale country of Weſt Gothland, extending a hundred and twenty-ſix miles in length, and betweeen eighteen and twenty four in breadth. The country is in general level, and the ſoil, which is fertile, conſiſts of fine meadows and arable land, diverſified with woods, lakes, and rivers; but there are ſome mountains in which are large cavities that reſemble ſpacious apartments, and are called the caves of the giants. There is alſo a high mountain, which chiefly conſiſts of a kind of ſhells that are dug up and calcined for making lime. The inhabitants are chiefly employed in agriculture, grazing, and fiſhing. They alſo carry on a trade in maſts, planks, deals, tar, cattle, hides, tallow, lime, and all kinds of fiſh. This country is in the dioceſe of Gottenburg.

We now come to South Gothland, which conſiſts of the three provinces Schonen, Halland, and Blekingen.

The province of Schonen was in antient times governed by its own kings, and had its particular laws. If meaſured according to the roads, it is eighty-four miles in length, and about ſixty-ſix in breadth. It is the moſt level, pleaſant, and fertile ſpot in all Sweden, and produces plenty of rye, barley, oats, buck-wheat, peaſe, cummin-ſeed, and honey; alſo pit-coal, chalk, tiles, and pot-aſh, of which ten thouſand tons are annually exported from hence. The inhabitants likewiſe carry on a conſiderable trade in mill-ſtones, oak, timber, cordage, fiſh of ſeveral kinds, fine horſes, ſheep, and horned cattle. All the animals are larger in Schonen than in the northern parts of Sweden; but are leſs vigorous. Allum, ſulphur, and amber, are alſo found here. This country, with regard to its many advantages, may be called the ſtore-houſe and granary of Sweden. It contains more well-built towns, and finer ſeats belonging to the noblemen, than any other province in Sweden. The number of its inhabitants are computed at above ſix hundred thouſand perſons.

The principal places in this province are,

Lunden, in Latin Lunda Gothorum, a very antient city, an archbiſhop's ſee, and formerly the place where the kings of this country reſided. It is ſaid to have contained in the times of popery twenty-three churches, and at leaſt as many convents. Its cathedral, which is dedicated to St. Lawrence, is an antient ſtately building, and has a ſuperb altar, and a pulpit of alabaſter and black marble. Authors have mentioned, as the greateſt curioſity in this church, a very curious clock, which not only ſhews the hour, day, month, and year, together with all the feſtivals; but every hour two horſemen come forth, and encounter each other, giving the ſame number of blows that the hammer ſtrikes upon the bell: then a door opening diſcovers the Virgin Mary ſitting on a throne, with the infant Jeſus in her arms, and the wiſemen paying their homage to him, two trumpeters ſounding all the while. Within this cathedral is a fine well, with which all the other wells in the city have a communication. The city has an univerſity founded by Charles XI. whence it is ſtiled Academia Carolina Gothorum: it has ſince received the addition of a very elegant anatomical theatre; and has alſo a phyſic-garden. The biſhop of the ſee is vice-chancellor of the univerſity. The inhabitants of the city are chiefly employed in agriculture. In its neighbourhood are ſeveral good tobacco plantations, which nearly produce a hundred and ſixty thouſand pounds weight annually. Above twenty thouſand mulberry-trees have alſo been lately planted in the neighbourhood of this city. In 1679 king Charles XI. entirely defeated the Danes near this place, and in 1679 a peace was concluded here between the two kingdoms. It ſtands in latitude fifty-five degrees forty-one minutes ſix ſeconds.

Chriſtianſtadt is ſituated on the river Helgea, by which it is encompaſſed on three ſides, in the latitude of fifty-ſix degrees one minute twenty ſeconds. This town was originally built in 1614 by Chriſtian IV. king of Denmark, from whom it received its name. It has a handſome church, a good ſchool, and a ſtrong bridge, on which ſeveral warehouſes are built. It has manufactures of ſilk, woollen, and linen cloth, and carries on a conſiderable trade. It is fortified with walls and hornworks; but the caſtle, which ſtands near the church, has nothing worthy of notice. In 1676 the Danes made themſelves maſters of this town, but the very next year Charles XI. retook it ſword in hand.

Ween, in Latin Hevona, is a fertile iſland in the Sound, about eight thouſand one hundred and ſixty paces in circumference, and at a diſtance appears like a high mountain. By the treaty of Roſchild, in 1658, it was annexed to the crown of Sweden. This iſland was rendered famous by its being granted to the celebrated aſtronomer Tycho Brahe, together with a fief in Norway, and ſome other lands by Frederic II. king of Denmark, who cauſed an elegant ſeat to be built for him at a very conſiderable expence. This ſtructure, which is called Uranienburg, is ſixty feet ſquare, and ſeventy feet high. It has two towers deſigned for obſervatories, and two others which are not ſo high, but yield an extenſive proſpect, and it has alſo a delightful garden. However, the malice of Tycho's enemies deprived him of theſe enjoyments; he was obliged to leave Uranienburg in 1597, and died in Germany in 1601. His celeſtial globe, which was ſix feet in diameter, and is ſaid to have coſt him five thouſand dollars, was carried from hence to Benadky, in Bohemia, and ſoon after it was removed to Prague, from whence it was conveyed to Neiſſe, in Sileſia; but that town being taken in 1632, this curious machine was removed to Copenhagen, and depoſited in the round tower, where it was entirely deſtroyed in 1728 by the dreadful fire which laid great part of that flouriſhing city in aſhes. All the other valuable mathematical inſtruments and curious machines belonging to that celebrated aſtronomer have likewiſe been gradually loſt, and his favourite Uranienburg now lies in ruins. In the whole iſland is but one village, which conſiſts of fifty or ſixty houſes, and a church.

The province of Halland, which ſignifies high land, was thus called either from its lying higher up the country than Schonen, or from its high mountains. It is ninety-ſix miles in length, and about twenty-four in breadth. The produce of the arable land is not ſufficient for the ſupport of the inhabitants, but they have great plenty of fiſh, particularly ſalmon, which is eſteemed the beſt in all Sweden. The inhabitants have alſo ſome pearl-fiſheries, and an advantageous trade in cattle. The few inhabitants chiefly ſubſiſt by grazing and fiſhing; they alſo ſpin, weave, and make a kind of knit garments.

One of the moſt conſiderable towns in this province is Helmſtadt, which is a pleaſant well-built ſtaple town, ſituated at the mouth of the river Niſſa. The fortifications erected here by Chriſtian VI. king of Denmark, have been razed, but the governor of the province reſides in the caſtle. The linen and woollen manufactures eſtabliſhed here are in a flouriſhing condition, and the ſalmon-fiſhery near the town is very famous.

The laſt province which remains to be mentioned in South Gothland is that of Blekingen, which lies to the eaſt of Schonen, and extends about ninety miles in length, and twenty-four in breadth. It is a mountainous country, and exceeds in pleaſantneſs moſt of the provinces of Sweden; but is computed to contain only about a thouſand and eighty-nine families. The inhabitants have a conſiderable trade in beams, maſts, deal-boards, hides, tallow, pot-aſh, and tar: the beſt cheeſe in Sweden is made here, and grazing turns to a very good account.

The

The principal islands belonging to this province amount to about a hundred and thirty, and it contains twenty-nine parishes. The principal town in the province is,

Carlscron, or Carlscroon, in Latin Caroli Corona, a handsome staple town situated on the Baltic, in the latitude of fifty-six degrees twenty minutes, and longitude fifteen degrees two minutes east from London. It was built by Charles XI. who called it after his own name, and is esteemed next to Stockholm, the best town in the kingdom. A part of it is built on the small island of Biorkholm, where is the marine hospital; part on that of Stubholm, on which the arsenal is erected; and part on the mole, where the fleet is usually laid up. The large and small islands near the town, with the woods of oak, beech, and birch, render its situation extremely pleasant. Here are three churches; these are one Swedish, called the town-church, one which belongs to the Germans, and one belonging to the admiralty. The harbour is so commodious, that the whole royal navy may ride in it in safety, and its mouth is defended by two forts, in which there is a handsome parish church, and a German church. The dock-yard is remarkable for being dug out of a mountain to the depth of eighty feet. Its length is from three hundred to three hundred and fifty feet at the place where the king's fleet lies. This excellent dock, though prosecuted with all possible vigour, employed the engineers from the year 1715 to 1724, before it was compleated. Its entrance, which has a sufficient depth of water to set the largest wen of war on float, is closed by two flood-gates, and the bason may be emptied in twenty-four hours; so that the dock becomes quite dry for repairing and careening the ships, after which the water is readmitted by means of two sluices, in order to carry them out of the bason. The inhabitants are supposed to amount to about five thousand.

SECT. VI.

Of SWEDEN PROPER.

Its Situation, Extent, Divisions, Produce, and the principal Places in each; with a more particular Account of Stockholm, the Capital of the whole Kingdom.

SWEDEN properly so called, is bounded on the north by Nordland, on the east by the sea, on the south by Gothland, and on the west by Warmeland and Norway. This country was antiently sometimes a distinct kingdom, and at others united to that of Gothland, as it has been ever since the year 1132. Of all the Swedish dominions this has the greatest number of mines, forges, and hammer-mills. It is divided into the five following provinces: Upland, Sudermanland, Nericia, Westmanland, and Dahl, or the Vale Country. These had all their respective kings, and were governed by their own laws, Nericia only excepted, which had no peculiar laws of its own. This country contains twenty-five cities and towns.

In describing these several provinces, we shall begin with Upland, called in Latin Uplandia. This country received its name from the superiority of the antient kings, who resided at Upsal, to the vassal kings and governors who were their tributaries. This province extends about a hundred and eight miles in length, and ninety in breadth. It is for the most part a level fertile country, that produces wheat, rye, barley, and oats, in such plenty, that the inhabitants sell considerable quantities to their neighbours. But in some parts of Upland there are neither woods nor pastures.

Among the mountains of this province, some are remarkable for having spacious caverns that resemble large regular apartments.

In Swedeland Proper are twelve rivers, and a still greater number of lakes. The principal of the latter is the lake of Maler, which is situated between Upland, Sudermanland, and Westmanland. It is seventy-two miles in length, yields great plenty of fish, and is said to contain twelve hundred and ninety islands. It has a communication with the sea through the mouths of the north and south rivers, which enter it near Stockholm, and its banks are beautifully diversified with towns, castles, churches, noblemen's seats, and other edifices. In this province are the best iron mines in the kingdom; and there are several wealthy persons who are owners of mines and hammer-mills. The chief employment of the inhabitants is in agriculture, and a number of persons are also maintained by the fisheries.

The most remarkable places in Sweden Proper are the following:

Stockholm, called in Latin Holmia, is a staple city, the capital of the whole kingdom, and the residence of the king, is situated in the fifty-ninth degree twenty minutes of north latitude, and in nineteen degrees thirty minutes east longitude, at the junction of the Baltic and the lake of Maler, and therefore has the convenience both of salt and fresh water. Its circuit, computed from one gate to the other, is twelve miles, and it stands partly on islands and partly on peninsulas. Most of the streets are broad and kept very clean, and the market-places are spacious. In what is properly called the city there are above five thousand houses, most of which stand on piles, though they are entirely built of stone, and are four or five stories high: some of them are covered with copper or iron plates, and others with tiles. Besides these, there are a great number of timber houses in the suburbs, and twenty churches in all.

On the island of Stockholm, which contains what is properly called the city, is the new palace, which is a very magnificent structure, the senate-house, the town-house, St. Nicholas's church, St. Gertrude's or the German church, near which stands a grammar-school, the great market, the bank, the corn quay, and the house of the marine fraternity.

The senate-house just mentioned is a very superb structure, and one of the finest edifices in the kingdom: it is, as it were, one large pavilion, adorned on the outside with columns and marble statues, and within with pictures and sculptures, especially two large halls, where the nobility assemble.

Among the churches that of St. Nicholas is both the largest and most magnificent, it being supported by marble pillars, and covered with copper. It is also adorned with a great number of tombs of different kinds of marble. The statue of St. George on horseback trampling on a dragon is much admired. This is the fabulous history of his delivering Cleodolinda, the daughter of the king of Lydia, and twelve other devoted virgins from the fury of the dragon; and that princess is seen kneeling with her hands lifted up, returning thanks to their preserver. Over the altar is a cabinet finely gilt, on which is a table of a pyramidal form, with shelves of massy silver, on which are the following histories in basso relievo: on the first is the nativity of Christ; on the second his last supper; on the third his crucifixion; on the fourth his burial; and on the fifth his resurrection. These are all of silver, and on the top is a statue of the same metal about two feet high, representing the Ascension. There are other silver statues about the altar of the same height; as that of Moses, with the two tables of the law; John the Baptist, with a cross and lamb; and the evangelists, with the animals usually assigned them by painters and statuaries; all of them of silver, weighing together about thirty thousand ounces. This is the account given by several authors; but it is probable that the necessities of the state have caused this silver to be applied to a very different purpose. On the right side of the altar is a large picture of heaven and hell, which reaches from the roof to the pavement, and on the left side of the altar is painted the crucifixion. This church is very rich in plate, and, according to Mr. Motraye, is worth no less than forty thousand crowns. The other churches are little remarkable, only they are generally covered with copper, have very lofty spires, and instead of bells have very musical chimes in their steeples, which play upon festivals and other solemn occasions.

The other islands on which the city stands are, the Ritterholm, which lies on the west side of the city, with which it has a communication by means of a bridge. On this island stood the old royal palace, which was burnt in 1697, and St. Francis's church, in which are interred many of their kings and queens.

Helgandsholm,

Helgandſholm, or the iſland of the Holy Ghoſt, which lies in the north channel between the city and the north ſuburb, and contains, among other buildings, the king's ſtables.

Schiffiſholm, which lies to the eaſt of the city, and contains the dock-yard and the admiralty.

Konigſholm, on which ſtands the Ulrica Eleanora church.

Ladugardſland, which is conſidered as a ſuburb, and contains Hedwick's church, a market-place, an orchard belonging to the king, an orphan-houſe founded by the free maſons in the year 1750, alſo two large ſuburbs. On the eaſt ſide of this iſland is a royal palace named Fredericſhof, built in 1732 by Frederic I. and near it is a park and an orangery, which is much admired.

The north ſuburb is ſeparated from the city by what is called the north ſtream or channel, and lies in Upland, containing four churches, another orphan-houſe, the arſenal, and three market-places.

The ſouth ſuburb is ſeparated from the city by a canal dug in the year 1008, and lies in Suderland. In this ſuburb are three churches, one of which belongs to the Dutch Calviniſts, and alſo a Ruſſian chapel, with the Sudermaler market, in which is the town-houſe, the new market, a large hoſpital, and a fine iron weigh-houſe.

All theſe parts of Stockholm are joined together by bridges. The city on one ſide affords a proſpect over the lake, and on the other over the harbour, which, being almoſt encloſed by rocks, reſembles another lake; its water is ſo little brackiſh that it may be drank, which is owing to the great quantity of freſh water that runs into it from the lake.

We have obſerved that the houſes in theſe ſuburbs are chiefly built with wood, and it is ſaid the inhabitants ſometimes ſend the dimenſions of the houſe they intend to build to Finland, where the walls and ſeveral ſeparations are formed of pieces of timber laid one upon the other, and joined at the corners, and afterwards marked, taken down, and ſent by water to Stockholm, there to be ſet up and finiſhed.

The number of inhabitants who pay taxes in this metropolis is computed at ſixty thouſand.

The government of the city is lodged jointly in the magiſtracy and the governor, who preſides in the royal chancery, and the city council-chamber. There are beſides four burgomaſters. The magiſtracy is divided into four particular offices: thoſe of juſtice, the police, trade, and manufactures; and likewiſe into three courts of judicature. Here is alſo held the royal high court of Sweden eſtabliſhed in 1614, for Sweden properly ſo called. In this city are likewiſe a college of phyſicians, a royal academy of ſciences inſtituted in 1739, a royal academy for military architecture, and another for land-ſurveying, a chemical and mechanical elaboratory, an academy of painting and ſculpture, and a royal library.

There are beſides in this capital a board of admiralty, a navy-office, a cuſtom-houſe, an office of the revenues, a national bank, an inſurance-office, an edifice where goods manufactured in the kingdom are examined, and diſputes between manufacturers decided, a large iron weigh-houſe, commodious docks, in which many ſhips are built for foreigners, with manufactories of porcelain, glaſs, ſilk, woollen cloth, canvas, cotton, and parchment.

The foreign and domeſtic trade of Stockholm may be ſuppoſed to be very conſiderable, as it has an excellent harbour; but the many rocks at its mouth render its entrance ſomewhat difficult.

About a mile to the weſt of Stockholm is Carlberg, a fine royal pleaſure-houſe, with a garden laid out in a moſt elegant taſte, and adorned with ſome beautiful ſtatues.

Three miles to the north of Stockholm is Ulricſdal, another royal ſeat, which has a fine park and garden, remarkable for the elegance of its curious grotto.

On the iſland of Lofon, which lies about a Swediſh mile to the weſt of Stockholm, is Drotningholm, the fineſt of all the king of Sweden's palaces: it was founded by Hedwig Eleanora, conſort of prince Charles Guſtavus, the former palace being conſumed by fire. Facing the ſouth front of this noble ſtructure is a pleaſant garden adorned with a variety of fountains, and the eaſt and north ſides exhibit a view of the ſhips at ſea.

At the diſtance of about twelve miles from Stockholm, juſt at the entrance of the channel into the lake, is Waxholm, a ſtrong citadel, built on a ſmall iſland, in the year 1649. It has been ſince greatly improved and enlarged, ſo that it reſembles a little town. On this iſland, which is called Waxon, are alſo a church, a ſchool, and a cuſtom-houſe, and here all homeward-bound ſhips are ſearched. The chief employment of the inhabitants is fiſhing.

The next place we ſhall mention is Upſal, in Latin Upſalia, a very antient and pretty large city, ſeated on the river Fyris, which divides it into two parts, that on the eaſt ſide of the river being properly the city, and that on the weſt called Fierding. Upſal was antiently the chief ſeat of the ſovereigns of Sweden, where they held their ſupreme tribunal. During the times of Paganiſm the greateſt ſacrifices offered by all the northern provinces were brought hither, and the moſt eminent heathen prieſts reſided in the city. It is ſituated in latitude ſixty degrees ten minutes, and in the ſeventeenth degree fifty-ſix minutes eaſt longitude from London.

All the buildings of Upſal are of wood, except the cathedral and a few ſtone houſes, and the roofs are frequently compoſed only of the bark of birch trees covered with turf. Here are three churches, the principal of which is the cathedral, which was built in the thirteenth century, but was not conſecrated till the year 1435. The architect, being a native of Paris, took the church of Notre Dame in that city for his model. This cathedral has been five times deſtroyed by fire, the laſt time was in 1702; however, it has been ſince rebuilt in an elegant manner. The royal palace was conſumed in 1702. Here the kings of Sweden are generally crowned.

Here is an univerſity, called Academia Guſtaviana, which is three ſtories high, and was built by Guſtavus Adolphus in 1622. It has a round dome at the top, in which is a curious anatomical theatre; it has alſo a very valuable library, which contains near a thouſand manuſcripts. The muſeum, or cabinet of curioſities, is ſaid to be worth a thouſand Swediſh dollars, at one ſhilling and nine-pence each: it has an aſtronomical obſervatory planned by the celebrated Celſius, and a phyſic-garden chiefly laid out by the famous Linnæus. A royal academy of ſciences was inſtituted here in the year 1728. The archbiſhop of Upſal, who is the only one in the kingdom, is vice-chancellor of the univerſity. The Swediſh geographers place their firſt meridian, from which they compute the longitude, at Upſal.

Sudermanland, the ſecond diviſion of Sweden Proper, is a hundred and fifty miles in length, and ſeventy-two in breadth, and appears to have been one of the firſt that was inhabited and cultivated in this kingdom. The ſoil is fertile, and no labour is ſpared for its improvement; it abounds in fine arable land, paſtures, woods, iron mines, and forges. Its lakes are well ſtocked with fiſh, and its advantageous ſituation, between the ſea and the lake of Maler, is the cauſe of its carrying on a conſiderable trade. This country has ſeveral other lakes beſides that juſt mentioned, particularly the Kielmar, which is forty-two miles long, and has a communication with the lake of Maler by means of a canal and the river Arboya. Among the principal lakes is alſo that of Bawen, in which are a hundred iſlands.

The inhabitants chiefly ſubſiſt by agriculture, fiſhing, hunting, and working in the mines; and carry on a conſiderable trade in corn, iron, and wooden-ware. From the pleaſantneſs and fertility of this country the queen-dowager uſed to have her dowry, and the dukes their dutchies in this province.

The principal city in Sudermanland is Nikioping, which ſignifies a new mart, and is called in Latin Nicopia. It is a well-built ſtaple town, and the capital of the province. It is one of the moſt antient cities of Sweden, and was formerly the reſidence of the kings and princes of Sudermanland. The air is ſo temperate and ſalubrious, that when a contagious diſeaſe prevails in Sweden, the royal family and the public offices have frequently removed from Stockholm to this place. The

city is divided into nearly two equal parts by a large river, over which a ſtone bridge was built in the year 1728, that is ſcarcely to be equalled in the whole kingdom. Here was formerly a very antient caſtle famous in hiſtory; but it was demoliſhed in 1665: in this ſtructure the kings of Sudermanland reſided, and it was ſo ſtrongly fortified, that it was thought to be little inferior to thoſe of Stockholm and Calmar. The ſtreets of the city are all well laid out, and the High Street planted with Dutch limes. It has two handſome churches, with the palace of the governor of the province, who reſides there; and without the town is a royal incloſure. It has a commodious harbour, and the inhabitants, who amount to about twelve hundred, have ſeveral manufactures of cloth, and what is called Morocco leather: they ſpeak the Swediſh language in the greateſt purity, and carry on a conſiderable trade by ſea. Its chief magiſtrates are two burgomaſters. Nikioping was almoſt conſumed by fire in 1661, and ſuffered extremely by the ravages of the Ruſſians in 1719.

The province of Nericia, called by the Swedés Nerike, is ſixty miles in length, and forty-ſix in breadth. The ſoil is in moſt parts fertile, and produces corn and paſturage. The country has alſo quarries of loadſtone, limeſtone, and allum; with mines of iron and ſulphur. Here are large woods, ſeveral high mountains, ſeven conſiderable rivers, and twenty-three lakes, which abound with fiſh.

Nericia is famous for its flouriſhing manufactures of all kinds of hard-ware, and in particular has always been remarkable for forging arms, &c. The chief employments of the inhabitants are agriculture, working in the mines and forges, hunting, and fiſhing; and they trade in grain and all kinds of iron-wares.

The principal place in this province is Orebro, an antient town ſituated at the junction of the river Schwart with the lake of Hielmar, in fifty-nine degrees twenty-five minutes north latitude. It is a long narrow town, with a caſtle encompaſſed by water; and, as it has been frequently beſieged, king Guſtavus I. cauſed it to be well fortified, and the fortifications have been ſince improved. It has at preſent two churches, a grammar-ſchool, and a manufacture of fire-arms. Its harbour on the lake of Hielmar has a communication with the Maler, by means of the river and canal of Arboga, and conſequently there is a paſſage by water from hence to Stockholm. The inhabitants carry on a conſiderable trade, and have the reputation of uſing great exactneſs in their weights and meaſures.

The ſulphur work of Axberg lies about ſeven miles from Orebro. Of the ore dug up here, our author ſays, is firſt made ſulphur, afterwards vitriol, and laſtly a red colour for painting.

We now come to the province of Weſtmanland, in Latin Veſtmania, which is a hundred and two miles in length, and ſixty-four miles in breadth. The ſoil is fertile, and principally conſiſts of arable land, with meadows, paſtures, and ſome fine woods. It alſo contains ſilver, copper, and iron mines: it has many curious copper, ſteel, and braſs hammer-mills; and, indeed, is the moſt famous province in the kingdom for mines, the quantity of iron annually exported from hence amounting to a hundred and twenty thouſand pounds. The ſouth part of the province ſupplies the inhabitants of the mine diſtricts in the north with corn.

This province is well watered both by rivers and lakes, which yield vaſt plenty of fiſh; and the lake of Maler is of very great advantage to its commerce, as it affords a communication between this diſtrict and Stockholm.

The following are the moſt remarkable towns in this province:

Weſterahs, in Latin Aroſia, an antient inland town ſituated on the banks of the river Schwart, which, after running through it, diſcharges itſelf into the Maler. It is an epiſcopal ſee, and has a caſtle, part of which is made uſe of as a granary, a ſeminary, a weigh-houſe for metals, from whence a vaſt quantity of copper, braſs, and iron is annually exported to Stockholm, and is the reſidence of the governor of the province. The cathedral, which is a ſpacious and magnificent ſtructure, is particularly remarkable for the architecture of its tower, and for being the burial-place of king Eric XIV.

Sala, or Salberg, a handſome large mine town ſituated on the river Sag, in the ſixtieth degree ten minutes north latitude, and in the ſeventeenth degree five minutes weſt longitude. It was built by king Guſtavus Adolphus in 1624, who endowed it with ſeveral privileges. The ſtreets are ſtraight and well paved, and the market-place regular and ſpacious. Here is held a mine court, a court of works, and town council, and an inferior court of judicature. To this town belong ſeveral conſiderable eſtates, and the neighbouring villages ſupply the inhabitants with all kinds of commodities at a very cheap rate; no cuſtom or duty being paid here.

Near the town is a very large antient ſilver mine, which uſed annually to produce twenty-four thouſand Lothige marks of ſilver, each of theſe marks equal to nine ounces twelve pennyweights troy, but it is now greatly declined. In 1710 the royal family choſe this town for the place of their retreat during a raging peſtilence, and in 1736 it was deſtroyed by fire.

We now come to Dalecarlia, alſo called Swediſh Thal-Land, from its many valleys. This province is two hundred and forty miles in length, and a hundred and fifty-ſix in breadth: it is very mountainous, and has little arable land; but where the ſoil between the mountains allows of tillage, it yields plenty of oats and peaſe, of which the inhabitants make bread. It is indeed every where diverſified with mountains, valleys, woods, heaths, lakes, and rivers; and abounds in mines of ſilver, copper, and iron; with quarries of ſlate and mill-ſtones, and the paſtures are proper for grazing, which turns to good account.

The inhabitants, who are called Dalecarlians, are celebrated for their integrity and firm attachment to their king and country, and particularly for their bravery. They are proof againſt toil, hardſhips, and want; and have thoroughly learned the advantage of induſtry and œconomy, by being able to ſubſiſt by their labour in ſuch a barren mountainous country. In many pariſhes there is ſcarce a man who is not ſkilled in all neceſſary handicraft trades; and when they are in other parts of the kingdom, they hire themſelves as labourers, maſons, carpenters, and the like. They trade in the bark of birch trees, hops, ſlate, lime, wooden-ware, ſcythes, hatchets, and other iron utenſils. In the north part of this province they ſpeak a particular language that has a great affinity with the Gothic dialect; and they ſtill retain the manner of living, dreſs, and cuſtoms of the antient Swedes. The Runic calendar is ſtill in uſe among them, which they carry about them as a perpetual almanac.

The principal towns in this province are,

Hedemora, a very ancient city, which has been handſomely rebuilt: it ſtands on the lake of Hafran, carries on a good trade, and has an annual fair on the feſtival of St. Peter and St. Paul. It is indeed one of the principal cities in the whole kingdom, and is famous for the gunpowder made there. A mint was formerly ſet up in this town by Guſtavus Vaſa; and ſome of the pieces coined in this place are ſtill to be ſeen in the cabinets of the curious. The gardens around the town, in which fruit trees are cultivated, are the moſt pleaſant in all Dalecarlia.

Falun, in Latin Faluna, is a mine town, ſituated between two lakes and two mountains: it is large and very populous, but though its ſtreets are regular, the houſes are ill built with timber. One of its two market places is very ſpacious and handſome. On the north ſide of it ſtands a large ſtone edifice, in which is held a court of juſtice; and in the ſame market place are erected a granary and diſpenſary. On the eaſt ſide of it, is a handſome church built with ſtone, and the roof covered with copper, the doors are of braſs, and the tower is remarkably high. Without the town, towards the eaſt, ſtands another church built with ſtone, and covered with copper. Falun has a good ſchool, a fine copper weigh-houſe, a mine court, and other inferior courts. At a ſmall diſtance to the weſt of Falun, is the famous copper mine that uſed every year to produce ten thouſand

ſand tons of copper, and in ſome years even more, but of late its produce is greatly decreaſed. The depth of this mine is 350 Swediſh ells, and a great variety of curious engines belong to this work.

SECT. VII.

Of Nordland, its Situation and Produce. Its Provinces deſcribed, with the Peculiarities and principal Places in each.

NORDLAND, in Latin Nordlandia, doubtleſs received its name from its being ſituated to the north of Sweden Proper. It is bounded on the eaſt by the gulph of Bothnia; on the ſouth by Upland and Dalecarlia; on the weſt it joins to Dalecarlia, Norway, and Lapland; and to the north it borders on Lapland only. This country, in the times of paganiſm, was a diſtinct monarchy, to which ſeveral vaſſal kings were tributary. It has more timber and veniſon than any of the other parts of the kingdom, but its rocks and mountains leave only a ſmall extent of land fit for tillage. It has however ſome fertile ſpots and verdant paſtures, that are agreeably interſperſed with lakes, rivers, and woods, which abound with fiſh; and a great number of cattle are bred in the country. Here are greater flights of wild geeſe than in any other part of the kingdom; but oak and birch trees do not grow wild beyond Upland, ſo that thoſe trees are very ſcarce. This province has ſeveral rich mines.

It is divided into ſeven provinces, and yet has no more than nine towns.

The province of Gaſtrickland, in Latin Gaſtricia, derives its name from the word Gaſtrick, which ſignifies hoſpitable, and contains little arable land, it moſtly conſiſting of mines, woods, rivers, and lakes, from which the inhabitants procure a tolerable ſubſiſtance.

The only remarkable town in this province is Geſle, in Latin Gevalia, which is the largeſt in all Nordland, and is well ſituated on a creek of the gulf of Bothnia. The river Geſle, which runs through the town, ſupplies it with plenty of ſalmon, and afterwards dividing into three branches, forms the two pleaſant iſlands of Alderholm and Iſlandſholm; and about the diſtance of three miles from the town diſcharges itſelf into the main ſea. This is a ſtaple town of ſuch antiquity, that it boaſts of being founded three hundred years before Stockholm. Some of the buildings are of ſtone, and others of wood, others have a mixture of both. The ſtreets are very irregular, and the market place ſo badly laid out, that a ſtranger would never be able to find it without a guide. The town is populous, and has a fine town-houſe built with ſtone, a very ancient hoſpital, that was rebuilt with ſtone in the year 1731; and it carries on an advantageous trade. The company of fiſhermen conſtitute two thirds of the burghers. The caſtle was entirely deſtroyed by fire in 1727, but it has been ſince rebuilt, and the governor reſides in it. On the neighbouring iſland of Alderholm juſt mentioned, are a handſome iron weigh-houſe, a dock, a landing-place for deals, &c. a large cuſtom-houſe, an arſenal, a magazine, and two warehouſes; and ſeveral magazines and warehouſes are alſo erected on Iſlandſholm.

The province of Halſingland, called in Latin Helſingia, is one hundred and twenty miles in length, and ninety-ſix in breadth: its paſtures feed a great number of fine cattle, and the little arable land it contains yields good crops. Linſeed is cultivated here with great induſtry. Here are alſo large foreſts and good iron works.

The inhabitants trade in iron, linen, tallow, butter, tar, deal boards, timber, and wild fowl, as partridges, woodcocks, and moorhens, ſome thouſands of which are every winter carried in ſledges to Stockholm. The Helſingians are celebrated for their bravery, and have made themſelves maſters of ſeveral countries where they have ſettled, and to which they have given their own name. Beſides the Gothic or Runic calendar, which is here every where known, they have the Halſingland Runic, as it is called, which differs from the former.

There are no conſiderable cities in this province, thoſe moſt noted being only ſmall ſea-port towns that contain nothing worthy of obſervation.

The province of Medelpad, in Latin Medelpadia, is eighty-four miles in length and forty-two in breadth. Though it is very mountainous and woody, it has ſeveral valleys of arable and meadow land. The ſeed is not ſown here till about Whitſuntide, but the corn ripens in ten weeks. Among the foreſts of this province there are ſome of prodigious extent that abound in game of all ſorts, as elks, rein-deer, beavers, martens, lynxes, foxes, weaſels, and wild-fowl.

The country is agreeably interſperſed with lakes and rivers, which ſupply it with plenty of fiſh; and the grain produced in the province is ſufficient for the ſupport of its inhabitants. They have alſo plenty of cattle; and deal in timber, hoops, flax, hemp, butter, fowls and dried fiſh; ſalmon and ſeals are alſo caught here.

The principal place in this province is Sundſwall, a well-built ſmall town, and the only ſea-port in the country. It was built in the reign of Guſtavus Adolphus, on the ſpot now called the Old Town, but formerly the Trading-Place; but in 1647 was rebuilt by Queen Chriſtina in its preſent ſituation, which is a barren ſandy plain between high mountains. In the middle of the town is a pond well ſtocked with a kind of ſmall carp. A woollen manufacture has been lately ſet up in this town; and here is a dock where ſeveral large veſſels have been built. The harbour, which is above a league in breadth, is very commodious, and the inhabitants have a good trade in linen, fleſh, cheeſe, butter, wooden chairs, deals, tar, and the bark of birch trees.

The next province we ſhall deſcribe is that of Jamtland, called in Latin Jemtia, which borders on the kingdom of Norway, and is nearly of a circular form. It is an hundred and thirty-ſix miles in length, and an hundred and twenty in breadth, and was annexed to the crown of Sweden in 1658 by the treaty of Roſchild. It is in general a mountainous country; the weſtern part, on the frontiers of Norway, is over-run with vaſt craggy rocks and high mountains, and between theſe are deep vallies and rapid torrents; but there are ſome verdant ſpots among the mountains, that afford good paſture: in theſe parts the inhabitants houſe their cattle even in ſummer-time, and by this means breed fine cows, whoſe milk yields excellent butter.

The eaſtern part conſiſts of a champaign country, watered by ſeveral lakes and rivers that abound with fiſh. Barley is the grain moſtly ſown here; they alſo ſow a conſiderable quantity of rye, and ſome wheat, with oats of an extraordinary goodneſs. The country abounds with excellent turneps. The ſeverity of the froſt ſometimes, indeed, cauſes a ſcarcity of corn, which obliges the Jamtlanders to make bread of the pounded bark of trees, the rye bread being reſerved for feſtivals. Here are great numbers of elks, which the Jamtlanders caſtrate, in order to make them grow large and fat: and many hands are employed in extracting iron from a kind of iron ore, that reſembles ſmall ſtones, and are collected in fenny places. Here are alſo allum quarries, ſand-ſtone, ſlate, the lapis ollarius, fine rock-cryſtals, lead-ore, a place where ſalt-petre is refined, and two new built copper-works.

This country is ſo thinly inhabited, that there are only ſix places where divine ſervice is performed every Sunday; in ſome churches it is celebrated every other Sunday, in others only every third Sunday, and in all the reſt the congregations aſſemble but three or four times a year. There is not ſo much as one town in the whole country, and only eleven pariſhes, in which are erected forty-ſix churches: in all theſe pariſhes there are but ſeven hundred and ſeventeen chimnies, though they form an area of two thouſand four hundred ſquare miles.

The inhabitants chiefly ſubſiſt by agriculture, grazing, hunting and fiſhing. They likewiſe carry on a conſiderable trade with the Norwegians, whom they ſupply with ſalt-pans, ſteel, iron-ware, and a kind of leather, dreſſed in ſuch a manner as entirely to keep out the water; with this leather they make ſhoes, boots, and even jackets, that are proof againſt wet. In this ſolitary and

deſart

deſart country, hypocondriac diſorders and ſelf-murders are very frequent.

The next province we ſhall deſcribe is that of Harjedalen, in Latin Hardalia, which was added to the Swediſh dominions by the treaty of Bremſebro, concluded in 1645, and is ninety miles in length, and from forty-two to forty-eight miles in breadth. It abounds in woods and mines; but little of the ground is tilled: it has however paſtures that enable the inhabitants to carry on an advantageous trade in horned cattle; they ſubſiſt by grazing, hunting, and fiſhing, and ſell a great quantity of cheeſe, which is much eſteemed.

The province of Angermanland, in Latin Angermannia, lies to the north of Harjedalen, and is an hundred forty-four miles in length, and thirty-ſix in breadth. It is extremely mountainous and woody; but ſome parts produce barley, rye, peaſe, linſeed, and good flax; the meadow lands afford paſture for the cattle, and the lakes and rivers yield plenty of fiſh. Here are ſeveral fine iron works; and in the bottom of ſome of the ſtagnant lakes is found a fine red colour fit for painting.

The only town in this country is Hernoſand, in Latin Herneſandia, a ſea-port on the iſland of Hernon, near the mouth of the river Angerman, where it diſcharges itſelf into the gulf of Bothnia. It was built in 1584, and has a communication with the continent by a bridge about a hundred Swediſh ells in length. The houſes, which are of timber, have very thick walls, and ſtand on the declivity of a hill towards the ſea. On the north ſide of the harbour the water is of a ſufficient depth for the largeſt ſhips to come up and unload at the warehouſes; but on the ſouth ſide this can only be done by flat-bottomed veſſels and lighters. This was formerly a ſtaple town, and it ſtill carries on a conſiderable trade, particularly in linen, and the annual fair held at this town on the fourteenth of September, is the moſt frequented of any in Nordland. The town has a ſeminary and a ſchool. In 1710, 1714, and 1721, it was burnt by the Ruſſians, but it has ſince recovered from theſe dreadful deſolations.

The laſt province in Nordland is that of Weſt Bothnia, which lies on the weſt ſide of the upper part of the gulf of Bothnia, while the oppoſite ſide is termed Eaſt Bothnia, of which we have given an account in our deſcription of Finland.

The inhabited part of Weſt Bothnia, from the frontiers of Angermanland to the church of Upper Tornea, is computed to be about three hundred forty-eight miles in length, and its breadth from ninety-ſix to a hundred and eight miles. Many pleaſant iſlands lie off the coaſt of this province; it has alſo ſeveral foreſts, with many lakes and rivers. Weſt Bothnia has ſome excellent paſtures, though the ſummits of the high mountains are moſtly covered with moſs, on which the rein-deer generally feed. The land is for the moſt part level, and the ſoil tolerably fertile; for though they ſow the corn very late, it ripens in ſix, ſeven, or eight weeks, according as the place lies more or leſs expoſed to the north winds: ſudden froſts, however, often prove extremely detrimental to the corn, particularly the froſty nights that frequently happen in the month of July. There are alſo ſeveral good copper and iron mines in this province.

The inhabitants, who are famed for their courage and bravery, ſubſiſt by agriculture, grazing, hunting, and fiſhing; they endure hunger and want better than moſt other people, they being inured to it from their youth, and even in fruitful years they mix their corn with chaff and pulverized pine-bark, to make what they term pounded bread. They trade in ſables, and the ſkins of blue and white foxes, hyenas, bears, wolves, ermines, martens, beavers, and rein-deer; and alſo in beams, deal boards, timber, and ſhingles; tar, ſalted and ſmoke-dried ſalmon, and other fiſh; train oil, veniſon, tallow, butter, cheeſe, caſtor, and linen. Theſe commodities are not only carried to other parts of Sweden, but over the mountains to Norway, or through vaſt deſarts to Ruſſia.

Weſt Bothnia is divided into four inferior governments, the principal places in which are,

Umea, in Latin Uma, a conſiderable ſea-port town, built by Guſtavus Adolphus, at the mouth of the river Umea. It has four ſtreets, which extend in a ſtraight line from eaſt to weſt, with ſeveral others interſecting them at right angles from north to ſouth. At the eaſt angle is a large area, on which the church ſtands; the harbour is commodious, and the inhabitants carry on a conſiderable trade.

Pitea, in Latin Pitovia, is a ſea-port ſituated in a ſmall iſland at the mouth of a river of the ſame name. It is joined to the continent by a wooden bridge, at the end of which a gate is erected. The ſtreets run in parallel lines; but the church ſtands a good way without the town; ſo that the bridge muſt be croſſed to go to it. Pitea was firſt built in 1621, by Guſtavus Adolphus, about three miles higher up in the country; but the town being entirely deſtroyed by fire in 1666, it was rebuilt on its preſent ſituation, where it has a commodious harbour and a good ſchool. Old Pitea is now a large village, conſiſting of many houſes irregularly ſcattered on a fine common.

The laſt town we ſhall mention in this province is Tornea, in Latin Torna, a ſmall ſea-port ſituated on a peninſula formed by the river Tornea, where it falls into the gulph of Bothnia, in the ſixty-fifth degree fifty minutes fifty ſeconds north latitude, and is ſaid to be the fartheſt towards the north of any town in Europe. It has three ſtreets, which run in parallel lines from north to ſouth, and are interſected at right angles by fourteen croſs ſtreets or lanes. The church, which is built with timber, ſtands at a ſmall diſtance from the other buildings; but within the palliſadoes that incloſe the town, and alſo a pretty large piece of arable land. Divine ſervice is here performed in the Swediſh language, which is uſed by the burghers. There is another church built with ſtone on an iſland called Biorkhon, which lies near the town, and here the ſervice is performed in the Finean language for the benefit of the ſervants of the burghers, and the inhabitants of the adjacent country. All the dwellings in Tornea, like thoſe in the neighbouring country, have a large court, of which two ſides at leaſt are taken up with apartments; and in the other two are the ſtables, barns, and other out-houſes. Theſe courts, in the country habitations, are exactly ſquare; but in Tornea are of an oblong form. A very conſiderable trade is carried on here, not only by the Swedes and Laplanders, but by the Norwegians and Ruſſians; who alſo reſort to the trading places of Tornea, in order to traffic.

Mr. Buſching obſerves, that in 1694 this town was honoured with the preſence of king Charles XI. who, being accompanied by ſeveral perſons of diſtinction and learning, took a view of the ſun at midnight from the tower of the church at Tornea; for in the midſt of ſummer the ſun may be ſeen above the horizon when in the oppoſite part of the meridian of Tornea, by a ſpectator placed at a certain height above the ſurface of the earth.

SECT. VIII.

Of SWEDISH LAPLAND.

Its Situation and Extent; with a very particular Account of the Climate, and Face of the Country; the Beauty of the Northern Lights in a Lapland Winter; the Beaſts, Birds, and Fiſhes.

SWEDISH Lapland, which is called by its inhabitants Sameland, or Samenolmoi, is bounded on the eaſt by Eaſt Bothnia and Ruſſian Lapland, on the ſouth by Jamtland, and on the weſt and north by Norwegian Lapland. According to ſome computations this country is four hundred and twenty miles in length, and three hundred and ſixty in breadth; but others repreſent it as every way much more extenſive.

It muſt, however, be acknowledged, that this country ſeems at firſt ſight, eſpecially in winter, ſcarce fit to be the habitation of man. In moſt places it abounds with rocks and mountains, whoſe ſummits ſeem to pierce the clouds, and are covered with everlaſting ſnow. Other parts of Lapland conſiſt of barren heaths and ſandy deſarts, over-run with moſs, fern, and to appearance unprofitable weeds; while one barren wild ſtretches beyond another,

another with little or no paſture growing on the intermediate ſpots.

Beſides theſe inconveniencies, the long and ſevere winters, the cold, dark, and tedious winter nights, with the vaſt depth of ſnow that covers this deſolate region, might ſeem ſufficient to deter every living creature from fixing his abode in this inhoſpitable country. The deſcription given by M. Maupertuis of the ſeverity of this climate, when he, with other aſtronomers, went by order of the French king to determine the figure of the earth at the polar circle, is enough to make one ſhudder, though he made his obſervations on the ſouthern borders of this country. "In December, ſays he, the ſnow continu-"ally falling, or ready to fall, for the moſt part hid the "ſun the few moments he might have appeared at mid-"day. In the month of January the cold was increaſed "to that extremity, that Mr. Reaumur's mercurial ther-"mometer, which at Paris, in the great froſt of 1709, "it was thought ſtrange to ſee fall to fourteen degree "below the freezing point, were now got down to thir-"ty-ſeven. The ſpirit of wine in the others was frozen. "If we opened the door of a warm room, the external "air inſtantly converted all the vapour in it into ſnow; "whirling it round in white vortexes. If we went a-"broad, we felt as if the air was tearing our breaſts in "pieces; and the cracking of the wood of which the "houſes are built, as if ſplit by the violence of the froſt, "continually alarmed us with an encreaſe of cold; and "in this country you may often ſee people who have loſt "an arm or leg by the froſt. The cold, which is always "very great, ſometimes increaſes by ſuch violent and "ſudden fits, as are almoſt infallibly fatal to thoſe who "are ſo unhappy as to be expoſed to it; and ſometimes "there riſe ſudden tempeſts of ſnow that are ſtill more "dangerous. The winds ſeem to blow from all quar-"ters at once, and drive about the ſnow with ſuch fury, "that all the roads are in a moment rendered inviſible. "Dreadful is the ſituation of a perſon ſurprized in the "fields by ſuch a ſtorm: his knowledge of the country, "and even the mark he may have taken by the trees, "cannot avail him: he is blinded by the ſnow, and if he "attempts to find his way home is generally loſt. In ſhort, "during the whole winter the cold was ſo exceſſive, "that on the ſeventh of April, at five in the morning, "the thermometer was fallen to twenty diviſions below "the point of freezing, though every afternoon it roſe "two or three diviſions above it: a difference in the "height not much leſs than that which the greateſt heat "and cold felt at Paris uſually produce in that inſtru-"ment. Thus in twenty-four hours we had all the va-"riety felt in the temperate zones in the compaſs of a "whole year."

When at laſt, in ſummer, the ſun warms the air, Lapland is infeſted with ſuch ſwarms of gnats and flies of various ſpecies, that, like clouds, they darken the ſky, and obſcure the light of the ſun. Theſe fix on every naked part of the body, bite with unremitting fury, and ſome draw blood wherever they fix.

After this deſcription it muſt appear much leſs ſurpriſing that Lapland ſhould be thinly peopled, than that it ſhould be peopled at all: but notwithſtanding theſe diſadvantages, Nature has beſtowed on theſe dreary regions ſeveral conveniencies; and it is certain, however improbable it may appear, that content and happineſs are to be found there.

The mountains, which are of a prodigious height and extent, are perhaps intended to ſhelter the plains from violent winds; and even their wildneſs and irregularity has ſomething very entertaining to the eye, eſpecially in ſummer: the alternate ſucceſſion of hills and valleys exhibit a delightful variety of proſpects; and there are ſome places in this country, which in ſummer may be reckoned amongſt the moſt delightful ſpots in the world. The fine lakes, ſays the laſt mentioned author, that ſurround the mountain of Niemi, give it the air of an inchanted iſland in romance. On one hand you ſee a grove of trees riſe from a plain ſmooth and level as the walks of a garden, and at ſuch eaſy diſtances as neither to embarraſs the walks, nor the proſpect of the lakes that waſh the foot of the mountain. On the other hand are apartments of different ſizes that ſeem cut by art in the rocks, and to want only a regular roof to render them complete: The rocks themſelves are ſo perpendicular, ſo high, and ſo ſmooth, that they might be taken for the walls of an unfiniſhed palace, rather than for the work of nature: "From this height, he adds, we ſaw thoſe vapours riſe "from the lake which the people of the country call "haltios, and deem the guardian ſpirits of the moun-"tains. We had been frightened with ſtories of bears "haunting this place, but ſaw none. It ſeemed rather, "indeed, a place of reſort for fairies and genii, than for "thoſe of ſavage animals."

It alſo appears, from the trials that have been made, that theſe mountains are inferior to none in the richneſs of ores and foſſils: at leaſt the largeſt and cleareſt rock-cryſtals, purple amethyſts, topazes, loadſtones, native cinnabar, quickſilver, and other foſſils and minerals, have been found in their bowels.

If at a certain ſeaſon of the year the days are very ſhort, and the nights long, tedious, and irkſome; this is in ſome meaſure compenſated by the pleaſant luminous ſummers, when, in moſt parts of this country, the ſun is viſible for ſeveral weeks above the horizon; a phenomenon to which the inhabitants of the temperate climates are entirely ſtrangers. Even in winter, the radiancy of the ſun, the brightneſs of the moon-light, the twinkling of the ſtars, and the effulgent corruſcations of the aurora borealis, afford a light ſufficient for moſt occaſions of life. "The ſhort days are no ſooner cloſed, ſays Mau-"pertuis, than fires of a thouſand figures and colours "light up the ſky, as if deſigned to compenſate for the "abſence of the ſun. Theſe fires have not here, as in "more ſouthern climates, any conſtant ſituation. Tho' "a luminous arch is often ſeen fixed towards the north, "they ſeem more frequently to poſſeſs the whole extent "of the hemiſphere. Sometimes they begin in the form "of a great ſcarf of bright light, with its extremities "upon the horizon, which, with a motion reſembling "that of a fiſhing-net, glides ſoftly up the ſky, preſerv-"ing in this motion a direction nearly perpendicular to "the meridian; and moſt commonly after theſe preludes, "all the lights unite at the zenith, and form the top of "a crown. Arcs like thoſe ſeen in France towards the "north, are here frequently ſituated towards the ſouth; "and often towards both the north and ſouth at once. "Their ſummits approach each other; the diſtance of "their extremities widens towards the horizon. I have "ſeen ſome of the oppoſite arcs whoſe ſummits almoſt "joined at the zenith; and both the one and the other "have frequently ſeveral concentric arcs beyond it. "Their tops are all placed in the direction of the meri-"dian, though with a little declination to the weſt; "which I did not find to be conſtant, and which is "ſometimes inſenſible. It would be endleſs to mention "all the different figures theſe meteors aſſume, and the "various motions with which they are agitated. Their "motion is moſt commonly like that of a pair of colours "waved in the air, and the different tints of their light "gives them the appearance of ſo many vaſt ſtreamers "of changeable taffety. Sometimes they line a part of "the ſky with ſcarlet. On the eighteenth of December "I ſaw a phenomenon of this kind, that in the midſt "of all the wonders to which I was now every day ac-"cuſtomed, raiſed my admiration. To the ſouth a great "ſpace of the ſky appeared tinged with ſo lively a red, "that the whole conſtellation of Orion looked as if it "had been dipped in blood. This light, which was at "firſt fixed, ſoon moved, and changing into other co-"lours, violet and blue, ſettled into a dome, whoſe top "ſtood a little to the ſouth-weſt of the zenith. The "moon ſhone bright, but did not in the leaſt efface it. "In this country, where there are lights of ſo many "different colours, I never ſaw but two that were red; "and ſuch are taken for preſages of ſome great misfor-"tune. After all, when people gaze at theſe pheno-"mena with an unphiloſophic eye, it is not ſurprizing "if they diſcover in them armies engaged, fiery chariots, "and a thouſand other prodigies."

Another advantage is the twilight, which begins four or five hours before ſun-riſe, and laſts as long after that luminary is ſet. Indeed many of the inhabitants ſleep away moſt of the dark ſeaſon, and employ the luminous

part of the year in their reſpective occupations; and, in general, ſuffer little in their health from this apparent inconvenience.

In the woods upon the mountains are almoſt as many trees fallen as ſtanding; for the ſoil, after having raiſed them to a certain height, can generally no longer furniſh proper nouriſhment; nor is it deep enough to allow them to take firm root; whence they are overſet by the leaſt blaſt of wind, and in all theſe woods a multitude of firs and birches are blown down. Time reduces the wood of the latter to duſt, without affecting the bark; and one would be ſurprized to find pretty large trees that crumble upon the ſlighteſt touch. This probably gave the Swedes the hint of covering their houſes with this bark; and indeed nothing can be imagined fitter for the purpoſe.

In the valleys, and along the banks of the lakes and rivers, where the trees find a deeper ſoil, pine, fir, birch, juniper, aſpen, alder, willow, and other trees, are obſerved to thrive; and ſome wholeſome vegetables, berries, and flowers, are produced. The pine-trees are more ſerviceable than orchards would be there; that beneficial tree, beſides ſeveral other uſes to which it is applied, being an eſſential part of the food of the inhabitants; for a labouring man who feeds on bread made of the pounded bark of the pine-tree, preſerves his health and vigour to a great age.

Lapland abounds in many kinds of beaſts, birds, and fiſhes. The furs and ſkins of bears, wolves, beavers, martens, otters, wild and tame rein-deer, hyenas, ermines, hares, ſquirrels, black, red, and white foxes, &c. bring a great deal of money into the country. Here are alſo a ſpecies of partridges, moor-hens, woodcocks, falcons, ſnow-birds, as they are called, and other large and ſmall birds.

The fiſheries not only afford a plentiful ſubſiſtence to many of the inhabitants, but enable them to ſell a conſiderable quantity of fiſh to their neighbours. The pearls found in the rivers of Lapland are remarkably valuable; and ſwans, geeſe, all kinds of wild ducks, and ſeveral ſorts of ſea-fowl unknown in other countries, abound here, eſpecially in the ſouthern parts of Lapland.

SECT. IX.

Of the Perſons, Dreſs, and Manner of Life of the Laplanders, whoſe principal Wealth and Subſiſtence conſiſts in their Rein-deer, which are therefore particularly deſcribed. Their Arts; the Riches of thoſe who engage in Trade; their Tents and Furniture; and their Skill in the Management of their Boats. The Food of the different Tribes.

THE Laplanders are of a brown and ſwarthy complexion, which is the caſe with the inhabitants both of very cold and very hot countries; their hair is black, and their faces broad, with peaked chins, and hollow cheeks. They are generally of a middling ſtature. The all-wiſe Creator has made a proviſion for them againſt the ſeverity of winter, by placing there a multitude of animals, whoſe ſoft and warm furs and ſkins defend them from the moſt piercing cold.

The upper garment both of the men and women is made of ſkins with the hair on, formed like the ploughman's frock, girt about them with a broad belt; they wear breeches which reach down to their ancles, and their cap, which is made of the ſkin of a young rein-deer, ſits as cloſe to their heads as a ſcull-cap, covering all the neck and ſhoulders. Their ſhoes are peaked, and turned up at the toes. The finery of the women conſiſts in a kind of pewter wire, with which they work the boſoms of their coats, their girdles, and the edges of their caps. Neither ſex know what it is to wear linen; but in the cold ſeaſon wear next the body a fawn's ſkin waiſtcoat. Almoſt the only difference between the dreſs of the men and that of the women is, that the latter is ſomewhat longer. A purſe hangs at their girdles, with their money, rings, and toys; a knife, and a leathern bag.

Theſe people afford an inſtance of a whole European nation ſubſiſting contentedly without ploughing, ſowing, or planting; without ſpinning or weaving, brewing or baking. They employ themſelves in feeding of herds; and as their lot is caſt in a country where winter takes up the greateſt part of the year, and conſequently renders it impoſſible for them to provide a ſufficient quantity of hay and fodder for great herds of cattle, the bountiful Creator has therefore beſtowed on them a ſpecies of animals that are provided for with little trouble: this is the rein-deer, which of all tame animals requires the leaſt attendance and ſupport, while it procures the greateſt advantage to its owners. Theſe creatures provide for themſelves, feeding in ſummer on leaves, moſs, and graſs, of which they find as much as is ſufficient for them, even among the mountains; and in winter live only on a kind of moſs that grows in almoſt every part of Lapland. They come at this moſs by ſcraping away the ſnow with their feet, and are taught by inſtinct to find the ſpots where it grows. During a journey of ſeveral days with theſe animals, the only trouble a traveller is at is, either to turn them looſe, or tie them to a tree, where the quantity of food they eat at a time does not exceed a handful. The Laplanders are only ſolicitous to keep their herds of rein-deer from going aſtray, and to protect them from wild beaſts; and this, particularly in ſummer, they think no inconſiderable taſk. They have no occaſion to houſe theſe animals, for they always lie out in the open air, without any inconvenience; and when after a ſtrict ſearch there is no danger from beaſts of prey, they turn them looſe into the woods; but when they are under any apprehenſion of danger from that quarter, they are watched by the Lapland herdſmen.

The rein-deer nearly reſembles a ſtag, except its hanging the head down a little, and the horns projecting directly forward: beſides, on the fore part of the head, near the root of the large horns, are two ſmaller branches; ſo that they ſeem to have four horns. There are two different ſpecies of theſe animals, namely, the wild and the tame. The latter is well made and exceeding ſwift, and indeed is of ſuch uſe to the Laplanders, that it ſupplies the place of corn-fields and meadows, horſes and cows. In winter they make uſe of the rein-deer in travelling; its fleſh, either freſh or dried, without ſalt, is their chief food; and all their cloathing, from head to foot, conſiſts of the ſkins of theſe animals. The rein-deer alſo ſupplies its owner with a bed, and both winter and ſummer, with good milk and excellent cheeſe; beſides, of the inteſtines and tendons he makes thread and cordage.

The Laplanders, with reſpect to their manner of living and habitations, conſiſt of two different tribes, namely, the Foreſt and Mountain Laplanders. The former ſpend the greateſt part of the ſummer in the woods, and have no property; but the latter live among the mountains. The food of the former chiefly conſiſts of fiſh and fowl; but that of the latter principally depends on their herds of rein-deer. The Laplanders in general, and particularly the Foreſters, are eſteemed good marksmen. They have a great averſion to mining. In moſt of the lapmarks they make it their employment to carry the burghers to the yearly fairs; and ſome of the Laplanders, for a reaſonable reward, look after the rein-deer belonging to other people. Moſt of them chooſe rather to ſleep away the whole day in their tents, than to engage in any laborious employment; but thoſe whom want has prompted to induſtry, give evident proofs that they are not without a capacity for mechanic trades, nor even for exquiſite pieces of workmanſhip. Their boats and utenſils are plain indications of their ſkill, and ſome of their ſledges are inlaid with horn in a variety of figures. Their horn ſpoons, their Runic calendars, their moulds for caſting pewter utenſils, their bows and arrows, and the like, are all of their own making.

The Lapland women make uſe of a horn perforated with large and ſmall holes, through which they draw tin or pewter into wires of different thickneſs, with which they neatly embroider their girdles, cloaths, and ſledge furniture. They alſo prepare all kinds of ſkins by various methods, and cut out and ſew the habits uſed among them.

Several Laplanders, beſides the herds of rein-deer, are maſters of a conſiderable quantity of ſilver in rings, buckles, large and ſmall ſpoons, cups, &c. and money

grows

grows daily more and more in uſe among them: but they prefer the Holland rixdollar to all other coins, becauſe the Norwegians, with whom they trade in ſummer, will not take any other money in exchange for their goods. The reſt of their ſubſtance conſiſts of domeſtic utenſils and other furniture, as tents, iron pots, copper and braſs kettles, furs and other cloaths, bed-furniture, fine ſledges with harneſſes, hatchets, boats, and fiſhing-tackle. As to the poorer ſort, they are obliged to be ſatisfied with fewer conveniencies.

As feeding their herds of rein-deer is the chief employment of the Laplanders, they frequuently ſhift their habitations. At the approach of ſpring moſt of them move with their families twenty or thirty Swediſh miles among the mountains of Norway as far as the North Sea, where they fix their abode till autumn, and then quit the mountains and return to the ſouth, to prevent their being frozen to death for want of fewel; and their rein-deer being ſtarved, there being little or no moſs ſo far to the north.

The other Laplanders, who make no excurſions to the mountains, but dwell in the village diſtricts, or live by fiſhing, likewiſe never ſettle in one place: to this they are obliged by their rein-deer, which at certain times ſhew a diſpoſition to remove, either from the want of fodder, or their being ſenſible of the changes that will happen in the weather.

This unſettled way of life obliges the Laplanders to provide portable dwellings, and ſuch are their tents, which are thus formed: they firſt ſet up ſeveral poles in a circular poſition, gradually cloſing together on the top, much in the form of a ſugar-loaf with the top of it broken off. Over theſe poles they lay a kind of coarſe cloth, and thus form tents, ſome of which are ſufficient to contain twenty perſons. The hearth is in the middle, with ſtones laid round it, to prevent the fire from ſpreading. An aperture is left at the top, where the poles almoſt join, which ſerves both for chimney and window. From this hole hang two chains with hooks at the end, to hang the pots on, in order to boil their victuals, or melt the ice or ſnow into water to drink. Round the inſide of the tent they lay their cloaths to keep out the cold wind, and ſpread branches of birch or fir round the tent, by way of ſeats to ſit upon; for they have neither chairs, ſtools, nor benches. About the tent ſtand the cupboards, where they keep their proviſions; theſe are fixed on poſts or blocks of wood, and have ſome reſemblance to pigeon-houſes erected on pillars. The Laplanders, whenever they have an opportunity, pitch their tents near dried pines, for the convenience of fewel; but in ſpring and autumn they are forced to be contented with bruſh-wood. It ought not to be omitted, that in ſome of the lapmarks they erect boarded cottages, or wooden houſes, that reſemble thoſe of the Swedes.

Their carriages are ſledges ſhaped like ſmall boats with a broad keel, and ſo thick, that no water can penetrate through them. They have a back-board for the traveller to lean againſt, who ſits faſt laced in the ſledge, and well ſecured from the cold. This vehicle is drawn by the rein-deer with incredible ſwiftneſs through the ſnow over mountains and valleys. The rein-deer is harneſſed with a large cloth girt, embroidered with pewter wire, and faſtened on his back. The bit is a piece of leather tacked to the reins of the bridle over the deer's head and neck, and from the breaſt a leather ſtrap paſſing under the belly is faſtened to the fore-part of the ſledge, which ſerves inſtead of ſhafts. The rein-deer in a great meaſure loſe their vigour and ſwiftneſs in ſummer, when theſe are leſs neceſſary; but even then they are very proper for carrying the Laplanders effects from one place to another.

The Laplanders alſo uſe a kind of ſkates, like thoſe uſed by the Fins and Nordlanders. Theſe conſiſt of a board three or four Swediſh ells in length, and ſix inches broad, ending in a point which turns up before. With theſe boards faſtened to their feet, and a pole, with a round piece of wood at the end to prevent its ſinking too deep into the ſnow, the Laplanders ſlide along with ſuch ſwiftneſs, as to overtake wolves and bears.

The Laplanders who practiſe fiſhing, and live in South Lapmark, make uſe of a kind of boat or little bark for croſſing rivers, made of ſlight boards curiouſly joined together with filaments of the roots of trees, or hempen ſtrings, and are ſo light that a Laplander carries his boat on his ſhoulders, with the oars and every thing belonging to it, beſides his bag of proviſions. Theſe boats they ſteer with amazing dexerity, even among the rocks and down the moſt rapid water-falls; and though the cataract be ever ſo dreadful, and the Laplander ever ſo great a ſtranger to it, he undauntedly ventures down the precipice in his little boat: but when he ſteers againſt the ſtream, and comes to a water-fall, he puts aſhore, takes his boat upon his back, and travels till he comes to ſmooth water.

In the Northern lapmarks they have larger boats, four or five fathoms in length; theſe they either haul up the great water-falls with ropes, or where the caſcades are ſmall, ſhove them up with poles; which is done by two men, one of whom ſits at the head, and the other at the ſtern. As for going down the water-falls with the ſtream, they conſider it as attended with no difficulty.

The Mountain Laplanders in ſummer live chiefly upon milk, and of the cheeſe made of it, of which they lay up a ſtore for winter. In the month of September, before the piercing froſts ſet in, they kill as many of their rein-deer as they think will ſerve them till Chriſtmas: afterwards they kill as many as will ſupply them for the reſt of the winter, and ſometimes kill one or two occaſionally. It is not unuſual with the Weſtern Laplanders to buy Norway cows and ſheep in ſummer, which they kill for their winter proviſion. They alſo eat the fleſh of bears and beavers, ſea and wild fowl, &c. The poor who live in villages are contented with the fleſh of dogs, wolves, foxes, and horſes, when they can get them. The Fiſhing Laplanders live on fiſh, which they have various ways of dreſſing; and thoſe who have rein-deer on their high days and feſtivals, dreſs fleſh and fiſh together. In ſummer they buy their ſalt of the Norwegians, and in the winter purchaſe it of the burghers. Tobacco is not very uncommon among them; but they buy it at a very high price. In this country none of the women have any hand in dreſſing proviſions, that office belonging to the maſter of the houſe. They never omit ſaying of grace before and after meat, nor ſhaking one another by the hand before they riſe from table.

SECT. X.

Of the Marriages and Religion of the Swediſh Laplanders; their Sorcerers, and the Manner in which they pretend to foretel future Events by their Magic Drums. The Government, Trade, and Diviſions of Lapland.

THE marriages of the Laplanders depend entirely on the pleaſure of their parents, who pay no regard to the inclinations and affections of their children; and it is ſaid that a widow, though decrepid with age, and both deaf and blind, will never want ſuitors, if ſhe be but rich. They ſeem to diſapprove of marriages between relations, and even intimate friends: as to polygamy, it has never obtained amongſt them. When the parents have determined to chooſe a daughter-in-law, they take their ſon, let him be ever ſo unwilling, and accompanied by ſome of their near relations, go to the dwelling of the ſon's future father-in-law, always taking ſome brandy with them. This liquor is the firſt and moſt powerful pleader in their behalf, and the acceptance of it is eſteemed a good preſage of ſucceſs; but if the treaty comes to nothing, the young woman's parents are obliged to pay for all the brandy uſed during the courtſhip. If the marriage takes place, an agreement is made about the money and goods which the parents of the bridegroom are to give to thoſe of the bride. In return, the bride's parents are obliged to give the new-married pair as much furniture and as many rein-deer as are eſteemed an equivalent for the preſents they have received. Thoſe who are poor marry without any of theſe previous ceremonies, every one at ſuch times providing according to his ability. The marriages are ſolemnized in the churches; and the bride uſually feigns ſuch timidity, and ſhews ſuch reluctance, that force is ſometimes obliged to be uſed to

get

get her thither. After the ceremony the company return to their tents, where they have a feaſt, every one bringing his portion of proviſions, which are all dreſſed and ſerved up together.

The children are inured to hardſhips from their infancy: they are firſt ſecurely laced up in little cradles, which are ſuſpended in the ſmoke near the top of the tent, and rocked by pulling two cords that hang down from each ſide. They are very careful when they begin to grow up, to teach them to earn a comfortable ſubſiſtence, by accuſtoming them to all kinds of work practiſed among them; but they have a great averſion to ſchools.

Though the inhabitants of the Swediſh lapmarks make an outward profeſſion of Chriſtianity, yet the greateſt part of them are moſt groſsly ignorant, and ſhew no other ſigns of their having embraced that religion, than by being baptized and called by Chriſtian names. Indeed they are extremely tenacious of their pagan rites and cuſtoms, which proceeds from the high idea they entertain of their anceſtors, and their willingneſs to believe that whatever they did muſt be reaſonable, juſt, and worthy of commendation.

Thoſe who are ſtill pagans call the Supreme God by the name of Jubmal, and term the prince of the evil ſpirits Perkmel. As they attribute to this laſt ſpirit a power equal to that of God, they endeavour to obtain his favour and render him propitious, in order that he may not hurt them. Beſides theſe, and ſome other deities, they have a number of demi-gods. They make images both of wood and ſtone, but pay the greateſt reverence to the latter. When the Laplanders come within ſight of the place where the idol ſtands, they uncover themſelves, make low bows, and creep on their hands and feet up to the idols, in order to make their offerings.

Much has been ſaid of the ſorcery practiſed by theſe people; but fame has magnified their ſkill far beyond the truth. Few of the Laplanders pretend to have any ſkill in magic, and when any thing ſingular ſeems to be brought about by their magicians, it cauſes as much admiration as among other nations. They are indeed perſuaded that their ſorcerers, by repeating myſtical words, or by ſome other means, can reſtore health to the ſick, give tidings of goods ſtolen, and have it in their power to injure their neighbours.

Almoſt every body has heard of their magic drums; but they are ſo cautious in the uſe of them, that their own countrymen ſcarce know any thing about them; for if they are detected in uſing them, it coſts the pretended magician his life. They are ſuppoſed to uſe theſe drums as oracles; for they imagine, that by means of various figures painted on the head of the drum, they can know what paſſes in diſtant places; whether they ſhall meet with ſucceſs in hunting; what offerings will be moſt acceptable to their gods; with the cauſes and cures of certain diſeaſes.

We are told that M. Motraye, who travelled through Lapland in 1718, hired a guide to direct him to the tent of one of theſe magicians in the moſt remote part of Lapland; but was firſt obliged to give the guide all imaginable aſſurances that he would not betray him to the government. He found the wizard in a poor hut, and in as wretched circumſtances as can be imagined. This miſerable magician gave M. Motraye his hand, and ordered him to follow him to the top of a high mountain, where he deſired him to ſtay while he fetched his drum and other utenſils. Soon after the Laplander returned with his magic drum, which he had concealed among the ſhrubs for fear of a diſcovery. It was of an oval form, and had but one head, which was covered with a kind of tranſparent parchment, wretchedly painted with the celeſtial ſigns; and to it was faſtened a chain with ſeveral braſs rings. Before the operation began, the wizard demanded if they had any brandy; and half a pint of that liquor being given him, he immediately drank two-thirds of it. He then put the chain and rings into the inſide of his drum, and turning the bottom upwards, beat upon it with a forked piece of a rein-deer's horn for a few minutes, the rings all the while jumping about and making a jingling noiſe. After this he laid himſelf flat on his back, ſet the head of the drum on his bare breaſt, and ſhutting his eyes, pretended to be in a trance; but at length fetching a deep ſigh, he gently raiſed the drum above his head, and looked at the rings, which he could eaſily diſcern through the tranſparent parchment. Having obſerved their poſition and diſtance from the figures of the celeſtial ſigns, he fixed his eyes upon M. Motraye, and declared he would run a great hazard of his life by water as he returned in his ſledge, and would alſo be in great danger in going down the cataracts in a boat: that he would have another narrow eſcape from fire; and that his life would be long and healthful after he had overcome two fits of illneſs, both which would ſeize him within the ſpace of two years. As for the Lapland interpreter who led M. Motraye to his cell, he directed him to go out to fiſh on ſome particular days in that and the following month, when he ſhould return home laden with fiſh: he alſo pretended to tell him on what days he would be equally fortunate in hunting. M. Motraye aſked if he could tell whether he was a batchelor or a married man, into what countries he had travelled, and other queſtions of the like nature; but this pretended magician was too wiſe to gueſs at things that were paſt, in which he knew his ignorance muſt be inſtantly diſcovered.

With reſpect to the government of this country, the Laplanders in general acknowledge the king of Sweden for their rightful ſovereign; though ſome of them alſo pay tribute to Denmark and Ruſſia, as at certain ſeaſons they pitch their tents within the dominions of thoſe crowns. They, however, conform to the Swediſh laws; ſome of them attend the celebration of divine ſervice in the Swediſh churches, and apply to the Swediſh courts of judicature eſtabliſhed all over Lapland.

The judges aſſiſtants are choſen from among the Laplanders, and the taxes are uſually paid at the time when thoſe courts of juſtice are held. At the places appointed for theſe courts, and for levying the taxes, are houſes and tents, erected by the Laplanders for their own convenience, with houſes and ſhops that are let to the burghers who frequent the annual fairs. The moſt conſiderable of theſe fairs are held at the ſame time with the courts of juſtice, and in ſome provinces laſt about a fortnight, but in others only a few days. The goods which the Laplanders buy from the inhabitants of the towns are chiefly tobacco, ſalt, meal, cloth, a kind of coarſe cloth called walmar, kettles, pots, ſilver ſpoons, buckles, girdles, rings, cups, needles, laces, hatchets, knives, ſciſſars, lead, powder, fire-arms, tin, or pewter, ſulphur, wine, malt-liquor, figs, &c. The Laplanders in return ſell to the inhabitants of the towns furs of all kinds, the fleſh and ſkins of rein-deer, fur gowns, boots, ſhoes, fiſh, cheeſe, &c. There are neither towns nor any fixed or meaſured miles uſed in any of the lapmarks.

Lapland is divided into ſeven lapmarks, or provinces, which receive their names from the places of note in Nordland in whoſe neighbourhood they lie. They all belong to the government of Weſt Bothnia, except Jamtland lapmark, which is included in the government of Weſt Nordland. We might here give an account of each of theſe lapmarks, but as it would afford neither any uſeful inſtruction nor entertainment to the reader to deſcribe petty villages, conſiſting of a few little wooden houſes, or huts, and a church reſembling a barn, we ſhall conclude our account of Swediſh Lapland, and proceed to Norway, which bounds it to the weſt.

CHAP.

CHAP. VI.

Of NORWAY.

SECT. I.

Of the Situation, Climate, Coaſt, Mountains, Roads, Bridges, and Face of the Country in Norway. Of the different Kinds of Marble, and other Stones; with a particular Account of the Aſbeſtos, or Amianthus, a Sort of incombuſtible Flax; and of the Mines of that Country.

NORWAY, which is called by the Danes and the Norwegians themſelves Norge, is bounded on the north and weſt by the North Sea, on the eaſt by Swediſh Lapland and Sweden, and on the ſouth by the ſea called the Categate, extending in length from the fifty-ſeventh degree forty-ſeven minutes to the North Cape in the ſeventy-firſt degree thirty minutes north latitude, and in breadth from the fourth degree thirty-five minutes to very unequal diſtances within land, it being in ſome places two hundred and eighty, in others about a hundred and fifty, and in others not above thirty miles broad.

In moſt parts of Norway the air is pure and ſalubrious, but more ſo in the middle and eaſt ſide than on the weſtern coaſt; for in the latter the air is damp, and the weſtern extremely variable, on which account ſcorbutic diſorders are very common among the Norwegians.

In the ſummer nights the horizon, when unclouded, is ſo clear and luminous, that at midnight one may read, write, and do all kinds of work as in the day; and in the extremity of this country, towards the iſlands of Finmark, the ſun is in the midſt of ſummer continually in view, and is obſerved to encircle day and night the north pole, contracting its orbit and then gradually enlarging it, till at length it leaves the horizon. On the other hand, in the depth of winter the ſun is for ſome weeks inviſible, all the light perceived at noon being a faint glimmering that continues about an hour and a half, which, as the ſun does not then appear above the horizon, chiefly proceeds from the reflection of the rays on the higheſt mountains, whoſe ſummits are ſeen more clearly than any other objects; but the bountiful Creator has granted the inhabitants all poſſible aſſiſtance; for beſides the moon-ſhine, which by reflection from the mountains is rendered exceeding bright in the valleys, the people receive conſiderable relief from the aurora borealis, or northern lights, which frequently afford them as much light as is neceſſary for their performing their ordinary labours.

In the weſtern parts of this country the cold of winter generally ſets in about the middle of October, and continues till the middle of April. The waters are congealed to a thick ice, and the mountains and valleys covered with ſnow: yet even this is of ſuch importance to the welfare of the country, that in a mild winter the peaſants, who live among the mountains, are conſiderable ſufferers; for without this ſevere froſt and ſnow, they can neither convey the timber they have felled to the rivers, nor carry their corn, butter, furs, and other commodities, in their ſledges to the market-towns; and after the ſale of them carry back the neceſſaries with which they are there ſupplied: for the largeſt rivers, with their roaring cataracts, are arreſted in their courſe by the froſt, and the very ſpittle is no ſooner out of the mouth than it is congealed, and rolls along the ground like hail. But the wiſe Creator has given the inhabitants of this cold climate a greater variety of preſervatives againſt the weather, than moſt countries afford. Extenſive foreſts ſupply them with plenty of timber for building and for fuel; the wool of the ſheep, and the furs and ſkins of wild beaſts, furniſh them with warm lining for their cloaths, and covering for their beds; innumerable flights of wild fowl ſupply them with down and feathers; the mountains themſelves ſerve them for fences againſt the north and eaſt winds, and their caverns afford them ſhelter.

While the winter thus rages in the eaſt of Norway, the lakes and bays on the weſt ſide are kept open by the warm exhalations of the ocean, though lying in a direct line with theſe frozen eaſtern parts; and the froſts are ſeldom known to laſt above a fortnight or three weeks. Even in the centre of Germany, which is two hundred leagues nearer the line, the winters are generally more ſevere, and the froſts ſharper than in the dioceſe of Bergen; for the inhabitants here are often ſurprized at reading in the public papers of froſt and ſnow in Poland and Germany, when they feel no ſuch weather; and the learned Dr. Pontoppidan obſerves, that the harbours of Amſterdam, Hamburg, Copenhagen, and Lubec, are much oftener froze than thoſe of Norway, where this ſeldom happens above two or three times in a whole century. Thus the winter at Bergen is ſo moderate, that the ſeas are almoſt always open to the fiſhermen and mariners; and there the North Sea continues navigable during the whole winter as far as the eightieth or eighty-ſecond degree. Thus while the inhabitants of the eaſtern parts have by means of the ice and ſnow the convenience of bringing their commodities in ſledges to the market-towns, thoſe of the weſtern ſide on the ſea coaſt are at the ſame time employed in their profitable fiſheries. However, Bergen, and all the eaſtern coaſt, is ſo ſubject to frequent rains, that the men, whenever they go abroad, wear rain-hats made like umbrellas, and the women in all weathers ſecure themſelves by wearing a woollen or ſilk black veil over their heads.

In ſummer the weather is not only warm but extremely hot. Theſe violent heats, which are, however, of ſhort duration, may be partly derived from the valleys incloſed within high mountains, where the reverberation of the rays of the ſun on all ſides heat the air; and as there is almoſt no night, neither the atmoſphere nor the mountains have time to cool. Indeed there cannot be a more deciſive proof of the ſummer's heat in Norway, than that ſeveral vegetables, and particularly barley, in ſome places grow up and ripen within ſix weeks or two months.

With reſpect to the coaſt, that on the weſt of Norway is ſurrounded by a great number of iſlands and rocks, ſome of the former being three, ſix, or nine Norway miles in length, and pretty fertile; but moſt of them are ſmall, and inhabited by only a few fiſhermen and pilots. The rocks, which riſe ſeveral fathoms above the ſurface of the water, are a kind of rampart that defends the coaſt, and amount to ſome hundred thouſands. They form abundance of good harbours; and in many places iron rings are faſtened to them for mooring ſhips, where there is not ſea-room or good anchorage. As the water is calm and ſmooth, they are of great ſervice to coaſters, the violence of the waves being broken againſt theſe barriers, while the open places are very dangerous, and every year prove fatal to many ſmall veſſels. The ſhore of Norway is generally ſteep and perpendicular, ſo that cloſe to the rocks, the depth of the ſea is from a hundred to two, three, or four hundred fathoms.

Several gulphs and creeks run forty, fifty, and ſixty miles into the land, and in ſome of them, which are but from fifty to a hundred fathoms in breadth, runs a narrow channel four hundred fathoms deep; but on the ſides the depth does not exceed a hundred fathoms.

As the country is extremely mountainous, the arable land is but little in compariſon of the waters and deſarts, which obliges the inhabitants to procure half their ſubſiſtence from the ſea. Hence the villages are ſmall, and the houſes ſcattered among the vallies: in ſome places, however, thoſe of the peaſants ſtand ſo high on the edge of ſteep precipices, that ladders are fixed to climb up to them; ſo that when a clergyman is ſent for, who is unuſed to the road, he riſks his life in aſcending them, eſpecially in winter, when the ways are ſlippery. In

ſuch places the bodies of the dead are let down with ropes, or brought down on men's backs, before they are laid in a coffin; and at ſome diſtance from Bergen, they are obliged in winter to draw the mail over the ſteepeſt mountains.

One of the principal inconveniencies experienced by travellers ariſes from the roads; for they cannot, without terror, paſs even the king's road, which in ſeveral places extends up the ſides of ſteep and craggy mountains on ways that are either ſhored up, or ſuſpended by iron bolts fixed in the mountains; and, though not above the breadth of a foot path, have no rails on the ſide. If two travellers were to meet there in the night, and not ſee each other ſoon enough to ſtop where the road will ſuffer them to paſs, they muſt ſtop ſhort, without being able to paſs by each other, or to find a turning for their horſes, or even to alight. The only reſource I can imagine in this difficulty, ſays the biſhop of Bergen, is, that one muſt endeavour to cling to ſome cliff of this ſteep mountain, or, if help be at hand, be drawn up by a rope, and then throw his horſe headlong down a tremendous precipice, in order to make room for the other traveller to paſs.

The caverns of the mountains alſo afford ſhelter to the wild beaſts, which render it difficult to extirpate them; and it is not eaſy to deſcribe the havoc made by the lynxes, foxes, bears, and eſpecially wolves, among the cattle, goats, hares, and other uſeful animals.

Another diſadvantage is, that the cows, ſheep, and goats belonging to the peaſants often fall down the precipices, and are deſtroyed. Sometimes they make a falſe ſtep into a projection called a mountain-hammer, where they can neither aſcend nor deſcend: on this occaſion a peaſant chearfully ventures his life for a ſheep or a goat; deſcending from the top of a mountain by a rope of ſome hundred fathoms in length, with his legs over a croſs ſtick, till he ſets his foot on the place where he finds his goat, when he faſtens it to the rope, and it is drawn up along with himſelf. But the moſt amazing circumſtance is, that he runs this riſk with the help of only a ſingle perſon, who holds the end of the rope, or faſtens it to a rock, if there be one at hand proper for that purpoſe. There are inſtances of the aſſiſtant himſelf having been dragged down, and ſacrificing his life from his fidelity to his friend, on which both have periſhed. When a man or beaſt has thus the misfortune to fall ſome hundred fathoms down the precipices, it is obſerved, that the air preſſes with ſuch force againſt the bodies thus falling, that they are not only deprived of life for ſome time before they reach the ground, but their bellies burſt, and their entrails come out, which is plainly the caſe when they fall into deep water.

From the multitude of ſprings that iſſue from the mountains, and the vaſt maſſes of ſnow accumulated on their ſummits, which gently diſſolves in ſummer, are formed many lakes, in ſome of which are floating iſlands, and a conſiderable number of rivers, the largeſt of which is the Glommen, or Glamer; but none of them are navigable far up the country: the paſſage being every where interrupted by rocks, and in ſome places by dreadful cataracts, in which the ſtream precipitates itſelf from the height of forty, fifty, and even a hundred fathoms. The bridges over theſe rivers are not walled, but formed of timber caſes filled with ſtones, which ſerve for the piers on which the timbers are laid. The largeſt bridge of this kind has forty-three ſtone caſes, and is a hundred paces in length. In thoſe places where the narrowneſs and rapidity of the current will not admit of ſinking theſe caſes, thick maſts are laid on each ſide on the ſhore, with the thickeſt end faſtened to the rocks: one maſt being thus laid in the water, another is placed upon it, reaching a fathom beyond it, and then a third or fourth in like manner to the middle of the ſtream, where it is joined by other connected maſts from the oppoſite ſide. Thus in paſſing over the bridge, eſpecially in the middle, it ſeems to ſwing, which to thoſe who are not uſed to theſe bridges appears extremely dangerous, ſo that filled with terror they alight from their horſes, and lead them over.

The mountains of Norway are, however, attended with ſome advantages: a great chain of them ſerves as a barrier between this country and Sweden; and beſides, they exhibit the moſt delightful proſpects; for here nature has added greater beauties to the ſituation of cottages and farm-houſes, than in other countries can be enjoyed by royal palaces, though aſſiſted by all the varieties of groves, terraſſes, canals, and caſcades. A predeceſſor of mine, ſays the biſhop of Bergen, is ſaid to have given the name of the Northern Italy to the diſtrict of Waas, which lies ſome leagues to the eaſtward of Bergen; and certainly there cannot be a more inchanting proſpect. All the buildings in it are the church, the parſonage, and a few farm-houſes ſcattered on different eminences. The beauty of the place is much heightened by two uniform mountains gradually riſing to a vaſt height, betwixt which runs a valley near half a league in breadth, and a river which ſometimes precipitates itſelf down the rocks in foaming cataracts, and at others ſpreads itſelf into ſmall lakes. On both ſides it is bordered with the fineſt meadows intermingled with little thickets, and by the eaſy declivities of the verdant mountains covered with fruitful fields and farm-houſes, ſtanding above each other in a ſucceſſion of natural terraſſes. Between theſe a ſtately foreſt preſents itſelf to the view, and beyond that the ſummits of mountains covered with perpetual ſnow, and ten or twelve ſtreams iſſuing from the ſnowy mountains, form an agreeable contraſt in their meanders along the blooming ſides of the hills, till they loſe themſelves in the rivers beneath.

Within the bowels of ſome of the mountains are ſeveral of the moſt beautiful kinds of marble, ſome white, others veined with blue, and others variegated with a variety of colours: there is likewiſe black marble ſpotted with white, green marble with greyiſh veins, and blue marble with white veins. They alſo contain ſuch quantities of the magnet or loadſtone, that ſome tons of them have been exported: they likewiſe yield the aſbeſtos, of which incombuſtible linen and paper have been made.

It will not be unentertaining to the reader to ſee here a particular account of the aſbeſtos, or amianthus, as deſcribed by Dr. Pontoppidan, biſhop of Bergen: "Having heard of ſome wood petrified by a certain ſpring, "I wrote, ſays he, for ſome ſamples, and a large parcel "of it was ſent me. At firſt I thought it reſembled "hazle, that had lain a long time in the water; but "upon a narrower inſpection, and drawing out ſome of "the filaments, I found it to be amianthus, much finer "than the Greenland ſtone-flax, which the reverend "Mr. Egede ſays is uſed there as wicks in the lamps, "without being in the leaſt waſted, while ſupplied with "oil or fat. This amianthus, from the ſoftneſs and "fineneſs of its fibres, deſerves to be called ſtone ſilk, "rather than ſtone-flax: I alſo made a wick for a lamp "of it, and it was not conſumed; but its light being "much dimmer than that produced by cotton, I laid it "aſide. I have alſo in my poſſeſſion a piece of paper of "this aſbeſtos, which when thrown into a fierce fire is "not in the leaſt waſted; but what was written on it to-"tally diſappears.

"The manner of preparing this ſtone-ſilk or ſtone-"flax is this: After its being ſoftened in water, it is "beaten with a moderate force, till the fibres, or long "threads, ſeparate from each other; afterwards they are "carefully and repeatedly waſhed till clear of all terrene "particles; then the flax is dried in a ſieve: all that re-"mains now is to ſpin theſe fine filaments, wherein "great care is required; beſides which the fingers muſt "be ſoftened with oil, that the thread may be the more "ſupple and pliant."

Though this country thus abounds in ſtones, no flints have yet been found there, ſo that thoſe for fire-arms are imported from Denmark or Germany: but though there are no flints, there are amethiſts, garnets, chalcedonies, agate, jaſper, and cryſtals.

Norway formerly produced gold; but the expence of working the mines, and ſeparating the gold from the ore, being greater than the profit, they have been neglected. There are, however, ſilver mines, which are extremely valuable, and give employment to ſeveral thouſand perſons. The copper-mines are alſo extraordinary rich, and employ great numbers: one of the moſt profitable productions of this country is iron, ſeveral hundred thou-

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ſand quintals being annually exported chiefly in bars, and the reſt caſt into cannon, kettles, ſtoves, and the like. Here are likewiſe ſome lead-mines, but none of tin or quickſilver.

SECT. II.

Of the Corn, Fruit, and Trees; Beaſts, Inſects, Birds, and Fiſhes of Norway.

THOUGH this country is ſituated ſo far to the north, it produces rye, barley, white, grey, and green peas, vetches, which are uſed as provender for horſes; hops, flax, and hemp; many kinds of roots and greens for the kitchen, with a conſiderable number of hardy flowers. There are ſeveral kinds of cherries, of which the peaſants ſell great quantities dried; there are alſo many ſorts of wholeſome and well-taſted berries, as ſtrawberries, raſberries, red and white currants, red and white gooſeberries, ſun-berries, barberries, biſberries, cranberries, blackberries, and many others; ſeveral kinds of plumbs attain to a tolerable ripeneſs; but this is ſeldom the caſe with peaches, apricots, and grapes. However, ſeveral ſorts of apples and pears are found all over the country; but the greateſt part of theſe are ſummer fruit, which ripen early; for winter fruit ſeldom come to perfection, except the ſummer proves hotter, and the winter ſets in later than uſual. But though Norway is inferior with reſpect to its fruits than many other countries in Europe, yet this deficiency is compenſated by its inexhauſtible foreſts, from which moſt of the provinces are enabled to receive immenſe ſums from foreigners for beams, maſts, planks, and boards; beſides the great conſumption for houſes built at home, entirely of beams of wood, ſhips, bridges, and a prodigious number of founderies, which require an immenſe quantity of charcoal in the fuſion of metals; to which we muſt add, that in many places the woods are felled only to clear the ground, and are burnt for the ſake of the aſhes, which ſerve for manure.

In treating of the animals in Norway, we ſhall begin with the horſes, which are of greater uſe in riding than in drawing; they have an eaſy pace, are full of ſpirit, and very ſure-footed. When they mount or deſcend a ſteep rock on ſtones, like ſteps, they firſt tread gently with one foot, to try if the ſtone they touch be faſt, and in this they muſt be left to themſelves, or the beſt rider will endanger his neck; but when they are to go down a very ſteep and ſlippery place, they, in a ſurprizing manner, draw their hind-legs under them and ſlide down. They ſhew great courage in fighting with the wolves and bears, which is very uſual with them; for when a horſe perceives any of theſe furious animals advancing towards him, and has a mare or gelding with him, this generous animal places them behind him, and then attacks his antagoniſt, by ſtriking at him with his fore-legs, with ſuch courage, that he commonly remains conqueror. Both the Norway horſes and cows are generally of a yellowiſh colour, but the latter are ſmall, and yield no great quantity of milk; however, their fleſh has a fine grain, is juicy, and well-taſted. The ſheep are alſo ſmall, and reſemble thoſe of Denmark.

In many places the goats run wild in the fields, both in winter and ſummer, till they are ten or twelve years old, and when the peaſant to whom they belong is reſolved to take them, he muſt either do it by ſome ſnare or ſhoot them: They are ſo bold, that on the approach of a wolf, they ſtay to receive him, and if they have dogs with them, will reſiſt a whole herd. They alſo frequently attack the ſnakes, and when they are bit by them, not only kill, but eat them, after which they are never known to die of the bite, though they are ill for ſeveral days. If theſe goats are tame, the owner warms their own milk, and with it waſhes the wound.

The biſhop of Bergen obſerves, on mentioning theſe animals, that near Roſtadt is a flat and naked field, on which no vegetable will grow. The ſoil is almoſt white, with grey ſtripes, and has ſomewhat ſo peculiarly poiſonous in its nature, that though all other animals may ſafely paſs over it, a goat or kid no ſooner ſets its foot upon it, than it drops down, ſtretches out its legs, its tongue hangs out of its mouth, and, if it has not inſtant help, it expires.

Norway has few ſwine, and not many of the common deer; but the hares, which in the cold ſeaſon change from brown or grey to a ſnow white, are very cheap in winter. In ſome parts of the country there are elks, but they are not numerous. The rein-deer, however, run wild in herds, and are ſhot for food by the inhabitants. Of theſe animals we have given a deſcription in treating of Swediſh Lapland; but the author juſt mentioned takes notice of one or two particulars that ought not to be omitted: he ſays that when the rein-deer ſheds his horns, and others riſe in their ſtead, they appear at firſt covered with a ſkin, and till they are of a finger's length, are ſo ſoft, that they may be cut with a knife like a ſauſage, and are delicate eating, even when raw. The huntſmen, therefore, when far out in the country, and pinched for want of food, eat them, and find that they ſatisfy both their hunger and thirſt. But when the horn is grown, there breeds within the ſkin a worm, which eats away the root. The ſame gentleman alſo takes notice, that the rein-deer can draw over his eyes a kind of ſkin, through which he can ſee, when otherwiſe in the hard ſnows, he would be obliged to ſhut his eyes entirely: a ſingular inſtance of the wiſdom and benevolence of the Creator, in providing for the wants of each creature according to its deſtined manner of life.

Beſides the bears and wolves, already mentioned, there are here the lynx; vaſt numbers of white, red, and black foxes; and the glutton, which receives its name from its voracious appetite. Thoſe of this country, in their ſhape and ſize, have ſome reſemblance to a long-bodied dog, with thick legs, ſharp claws and teeth; his colour is black, variegated with brown and yellowiſh ſtreaks: he has the boldneſs to attack every beaſt he can poſſibly conquer, and if he finds a carcaſe ſix times as big as himſelf, he will not leave it, while there is any left: when fully gorged, ſays our author, he preſſes and ſqueezes himſelf between two trees that ſtand near together, and thus empties himſelf of what he has not time to digeſt. As his ſkin ſhines like damaſk, and is covered with ſoft hair, it is much valued, and it is therefore well worth the huntſman's while to kill the animal without wounding the ſkin, which is done by ſhooting him with a bow and blunt arrows.

The marten is likewiſe hunted for the ſake of its ſkin; as are alſo the ermine and the ſquirrel, both of which are ſhot with blunt arrows. The ſkin of the ermine is of a beautiful white, and it has a black ſpot on the tail. Theſe little animals run after mice like cats, and drag away what they catch, particularly eggs, which are their greateſt delicacy. Here are alſo otters, caſtors, hedgehogs, and badgers.

Among the mice, ſome are thought poiſonous, and others are remarkable for their being white, and their having red eyes. But the moſt pernicious vermin is a little animal called the læmus or lemming, which is between the ſize of a rat and a mouſe; the tail is ſhort, and turned up at the end, and the legs are alſo ſo ſhort, that they ſcarce keep the belly from the ground. They have very ſoft hair, and are of different colours; particularly black, with yellow and brown in ſtreaks, and ſome in ſpots. About once or twice in every twenty years, ſays our reverend author, they aſſemble from their ſecret abodes in prodigious numbers, like the meſſengers of heaven to puniſh the neighbouring inhabitants. They proceed from Kolen's rock, which divides the Nordland manor from Sweden, and is held to be their peculiar and native place, marching in vaſt multitudes through Nordland and Finmark to the weſtern ocean; and other bodies of them through Swediſh Lapmark to the Sinus Bothnicus, devouring all the graſs and vegetables in their way. They do this in a direct line, and going ſtraight forward, proceed into the rivers or the ſea: thus, if they meet with a boat in any river, they run in at one end, or ſide, and out again at the other, in order to keep their courſe. They carry their young with them on their backs, or in their mouths, and if they meet with peaſants who come to oppoſe them, they will ſtand undaunted, and bark at them like dogs. This evil is, however,

however, of ſhort duration; for on entering the ſea, they ſwim as long as their ſtrength laſts, and then are drowned. If any are ſtopped in their courſe, and unable to reach the ſea, they are killed by the froſts of winter, and if any of theſe eſcape, moſt of them die as ſoon as they eat the new graſs.

With reſpect to the reptiles, toads and ſnakes are only in the ſouthern parts of this country, and theſe ſnakes are leſs poiſonous than in warmer climates. There are lizards here of various colours, as brown, green, and ſtriped; thoſe that are green are found in the fields, and the others in the cracks and holes in the rocks.

There are here moſt of the fowls to be found in the reſt of Europe, and ſome that appear peculiar to this country. Among the former are common poultry, turkies, tame and wild geeſe, peacocks, ducks, and pigeons; nightingales, larks, quails, partridges, ſtarlings, wrens, magpyes, bats, water-wagtails, ſtorks, herons, gulls, owls, ravens, cormorants, falcons, eagles, and many others. Of the latter, there are only two ſpecies, the rock-eagle and the fiſh-eagle; the former is ſomewhat leſs than the other, and ſpotted with grey; it haunts the higheſt places in the country, and frequently kills hares, ſheep, lambs, and the like animals, as well as birds. The farmers here ſay, that he will ſometimes attack a deer, in which caſe he makes uſe of the following ſtratagem: he ſoaks his wings in water, and then covering them with ſand, and flying againſt the deer's face, blinds him for a time, when the pain makes him run about as if mad, and he frequently falls down a rock and breaks his neck, upon which the eagle ſeizes upon him for his prey. There are alſo many accounts of their carrying away young children.

The fiſh-eagle is of a larger ſize, and of a light brown. Though it does not diſlike a dead carcaſe on ſhore, it lives principally on fiſh, which it often takes from the otters, and frequently ſeizes fiſh on the ſurface of the water. When this bird flies out to ſea, in order to ſtrike a fiſh with his talons, he ſometimes lays hold of ſuch as are too ſtrong for him, particularly the fiſh here called the queite, whoſe high and prominent back makes him appear much leſs than he really is: when the eagle ſtrikes his talons into him, he cannot eaſily diſengage them, on account of their crookedneſs and length, in which caſe the fiſh drags him down with him; while the bird, making a miſerable cry, ſtrives to keep himſelf up, and works with his wings ſpread as long as poſſible, though in vain; for at laſt he muſt yield, and fall a prey to thoſe he intended to devour. Our author mentions another inſtance, in order to ſhew that this king of birds, as he is called, extends his attempts beyond his power. Near Bergen, an eagle ſtanding on the bank of a river, ſaw a large ſalmon as it were juſt under him; on which he inſtantly ſtruck one of his talons into the root of an elm near it, and partly hanging over the river, ſtruck the other into the ſalmon, which being large and ſtrong, ſwam away, and ſplit the eagle to his neck.

Among the birds in a manner peculiar to this country is the francolin, an excellent land-bird, which ſerves the Norwegians inſtead of the pheaſant, its fleſh being white, firm, and of a delicious taſte.

The great northern diver is a pretty large ſea bird, bigger than a gooſe. It has a long neck, the upper part of which is black, as well as the beak and feet; but from the breaſt downwards it is white. There are alſo ſome white feathers at the extremity of the wings and tail. The wings are ſo ſhort, that they can hardly raiſe themſelves with them; and the legs ſtand ſo far backward, that they are leſs fit to walk with than to paddle along the water, on which account they are ſeldom ſeen to come aſhore. They are ſaid to lay but two eggs, and that under their wings there are two pretty deep holes big enough to put one's fiſt in. In each of theſe they hide an egg, and hatch the young ones there as perfectly, and with leſs trouble than others do on ſhore.

The Norwegian parrot is a middle-ſized ſea bird ſomewhat larger than a pigeon. Its feathers are black and white, and its beak, which is hooked like that of a parrot, is ſtriped with yellow, red, and black, and ſo ſharp, that when he bites any of the bird-catchers, he takes away a piece of fleſh: his claws are alſo very ſharp, with which, and his beak, he defends himſelf againſt the raven, whom he holds by the throat, and will carry out to ſea, and drown him before he loſes his hold. This bird builds his neſt in a ſlanting hole in the ground, two or three ells deep, and alſo between the clefts of the rocks.

The black cap is almoſt as ſmall as the wren; the body is black and yellow, white under the belly, and the top of the head black. Theſe birds keep near the houſes, and are ſuch lovers of meat, that the farmers can hardly keep them from it, and therefore catch them in a trap like mice. In ſhort, there are ſuch incredible numbers of ſea and land fowl near the rocks on the ſea ſhore, that they ſometimes obſcure the ſight of the heavens for many miles out at ſea, ſo that one would imagine that all the fowls in the univerſe were aſſembled in one flock.

Norway is alſo as plentifully ſupplied with fiſh as any country in the world. There are here whales of ſeveral kinds, purpoſes, ſword-fiſh, and ſharks; ſturgeon, ſalmon, ſalmon-trout, turbot, cod, thornback, rock-fiſh, flying-fiſh, whiting, carp, gurnet, flounders, plaiſe, mackrel, herrings, bream, anchovies, eels, and many others well known in other countries.

Among thoſe which are more uncommon is the fin-fiſh, which is forty feet or more in length; their liver alone yields ſeveral caſks of train-oil. On their backs they have a high round and ſharp bone, with which they tear open the bellies of other fiſh. They are covered with a kind of hair, ſomething like a horſe's mane, and are often ſeen about the boats of the fiſhermen, who are as much afraid of them as of the moſt dangerous ſea monſter.

The ink-fiſh, called by ſome the ſea-gnat, is one of the moſt extraordinary creatures produced in the ocean, and are from nine inches to upwards of two feet in length. The head has two large eyes, and the mouth has ſome reſemblance to a bird's beak; above which there ſtand two long arms or horns, each of which is octangular, and covered with a number of ſmall round balls, ſomewhat longer than a pin's head. At the back of the head are two of theſe horns twice as long as the reſt, and broader towards the end. The body is almoſt round; it reſembles a ſmall bag, and is blunt at both ends. On each ſide of it are two ſkinny membranes, with which the animal can cover itſelf over; and it aſſumes various forms by the motion of its ſkin and arms: but what muſt appear very extraordinary, the fore part of the body is filled with a black fluid, which makes the fiſh appear of a blue colour, though this fluid is of a fine black, and may ſerve for ink to write with. When theſe creatures are in danger, they diſcharge this liquid, which blackening the water all round them, they become inviſible to their purſuers, and thus make their eſcape. Thus this otherwiſe helpleſs animal is provided by the wiſe Creator for its defence. If any of this black fluid happens to drop upon the hand, it burns like a cauſtic.

There are here alſo a vaſt variety of ſhell-fiſh, as lobſters, crabs, craw-fiſh, prawns, ſhrimps, oyſters, muſcles, cockles, ſea-ſnails, ſtar-fiſh, hermit-fiſh, and many others; one of the moſt curious of which is the ſea-urchin, known alſo by the name of the ſea-apple, a name that repreſents the ſize and figure of the thin and tender ſhell that ſurrounds this extraordinary fiſh, which are very common on the coaſt of Norway, where they are ſeen every day. They are of various ſizes, from that of a walnut to the head of a new-born infant; ſome are of the form of a cone, and others are quite round, except the under part, which is pretty flat, and of theſe are the greateſt number. The ſhell is covered with a multitude of ſmall ſharp prickles like ſmall pins, which they probably ſhed once a year, and have new ones. When they are juſt taken out of the ſea, they have a beautiful greeniſh luſtre; but their greateſt beauty appears when they are dried, boiled, and the prickles rubbed off. This conſiſts in certain regular interchangeable ſtripes of a cylindrical form, running from the top to the bottom: ſome are white, others of an orange colour, others of a light red, and others of a deep red; and theſe ſtripes are ſtrewed over with as many little white knobs as there were originally prickles. When this beautiful ſhell is broken, which is

eaſily done, there is found in it a quantity of ſlime and water, with a ſmall fiſh, of a black or dark red colour; and from this little body there runs into all the turnings and windings of the ſhell a great number of fine threads, that ſeem only compoſed of a thicker ſlime, and have a communication with the external prickles; and between theſe is diſpoſed in ſtripes a yellowiſh ſpawn. The fiſh lies ſtretched from the bottom to the top of the ſhell, where there is an almoſt imperceptible opening, through which the excrements paſs. The mouth, which is extremely curious, is formed of five bones, part convex and part concave, all running to a ſmall point, where they join together like the bill of a bird, and have ſome reſemblance to a flower. The ſea-urchin is found in a ſandy bottom, where he rolls himſelf about on his prickles wherever he pleaſes.

SECT. III.

Of the Perſons, Dreſs, Houſes, Food, and Employments of the Norwegians; with a particular Account of the extraordinary Manner in which they catch Fowl on the higheſt Rocks.

THE Norwegians are generally tall of ſtature, well made, and lively; yet thoſe on the coaſt are ſaid to be neither ſo tall nor ſo robuſt as thoſe who inhabit the mountains, but are remarkable for being fatter and having rounder faces. The hair and eyes of the Norwegians are of a lighter colour than thoſe of moſt other nations; and a dark complexion is as rare here, as a fair complexion in Italy. Indeed their eyes are generally blue or of a light grey; and they are in every reſpect a different people from the Laplanders, who lie farther to the north, and are of a ſmaller ſtature, have a flatter viſage, a dark brown complexion, and black hair.

The Norwegians in general are briſk, active, and ſo ingenious, that the peaſants employ neither hatters, ſhoe-makers, weavers, taylors, tanners, carpenters, joiners, or ſmiths: all theſe trades being exerciſed in every farm-houſe, and they think a boy can neither be an uſeful member of ſociety, nor a good man, without becoming maſter of all theſe arts.

The Norwegians, who live in towns, have nothing remarkable in their dreſs; but the peaſants do not trouble themſelves about faſhions. Thoſe termed ſtrile farmers have their breeches and ſtockings of one piece. They have a wide looſe jacket, made of a coarſe woollen cloth, as are alſo their waiſtcoat; and thoſe who are fond of appearing fine, have the ſeams covered with cloth of a different colour. The peaſants of one pariſh are remarkable for wearing white cloaths edged with black: the dreſs of another pariſh is black edged with red, and that of another is all black; others wear black and yellow: and thus the inhabitants of almoſt every pariſh vary in the colour of their cloaths.

They wear a flapped hat, or a little brown, grey, or black cap, made quite round, and the ſeams adorned with black ribbons. They have ſhoes of a particular conſtruction without heels, conſiſting of two pieces, the upper-leather ſitting cloſe to the foot, and the ſole being joined to it by many plaits and folds. In winter, and when they travel, they wear a ſort of half boots that reach up to the calf of the leg, and are laced on one ſide; and when they go on the rocks in the ſnow, they put on ſnow-ſhoes: but as theſe are troubleſome, when they have a great way to travel, they put on ſnow-ſkates, which are about as broad as the foot, but ſix or eight feet long, and pointed before; they are covered underneath with ſeal-ſkin, ſo that the ſmooth grain of the hair turns backwards to the heel. With theſe ſnow-ſkates they ſlide as faſt upon the ſnow as upon the ice, and no horſe can keep pace with them.

The peaſants never wear a neckcloth, or any thing of that kind, except when they are dreſſed; for their neck and breaſt are always open, and they let the ſnow beat into their boſoms: on the contrary, they cover their veins, binding a woollen fillet round their wriſts. About their body they wear a broad leather belt, a dorne with convex braſs plates, to which hangs a braſs chain that holds their large knife, gimblet, and other tackle.

The women at church, and in genteel aſſemblies, are dreſſed in jackets laced cloſe, and have leather girdles, with ſilver ornaments about them. They alſo wear a ſilver chain three or four times round the neck, with a gilt medal hanging at the end of it. Their handkerchiefs and caps are almoſt covered with ſmall ſilver, braſs, and tin plates, buttons, and large rings, ſuch as they wear on their fingers, to which they hang again a parcel of ſmall ones, which make a jingling noiſe when they move. A maiden-bride has her hair platted, and hung as full as poſſible with ſuch kind of trinkets, as alſo her cloaths: for this purpoſe they get all the ornaments they can.

Their houſes are generally built of fir and pine-trees, the whole trunks of which are only chopped even to make them lie cloſe, and then laid one upon another, and faſtened with mortices at the corners. Theſe trunks are left round as they grow, both on the inſide and outſide of the houſe, and are frequently boarded over and painted, eſpecially in the trading towns, which gives them a genteel appearance.

The people in the country villages build their houſes at a diſtance from each other, with their fields and grounds about them. The ſtore-houſe for the proviſions is generally at a diſtance from the dwelling-houſe, for fear of fire, and placed high upon poles, to keep the proviſions dry, and preſerve them from mice and all kinds of vermin. The kitchen alſo ſtands ſeparate, as do the cow-houſes, barns, ſtables, and the like. A farm has generally a mill belonging to it, ſituated by ſome rivulet; beſides a ſmith's forge. Up the country, where timber for building is of little value, there are many farm-houſes as large as the ſeats of noblemen: theſe are frequently two ſtories high, and have a railed balcony in the front, and the additional buildings reſemble a village. The common farm-houſes have, however, only the ground-floor, and no other window but a ſquare hole in the wall, which in ſummer is left open; but in winter, or in wet weather, is filled up with a wooden frame, covered with the inward membrane of ſome animal that is very ſtrong, and as tranſparent as a bladder. This hole, which is as high as poſſible, alſo ſerves to let out the ſmoke, by anſwering the purpoſe of a chimney.

Under the above hole there is generally placed a long thick table, with benches round it; and at the upper end is a high ſeat, which belongs ſolely to the maſter. In the towns theſe houſes are covered with tiles; but in the country the people lay over the boards the ſappy bark of birch trees, which will not decay in many years. They cover this again three or four inches thick with turf, on which graſs or moſs always grows.

The people are remarkable for their civility, and are willing to do any one all the ſervice in their power. Hence a traveller is ſeldom permitted to pay for his lodging; for they think it their duty to treat a ſtranger as well as they can, and think he does them an honour by accepting of their civilities: yet the peaſant never gives his place at the upper end of the table to the greateſt gueſt that ever comes under his roof; for he thinks that place belongs only to himſelf. They keep open-houſe at Chriſtmas for three weeks, during which their tables are ſpread and loaded with the beſt proviſions they can afford. At Chriſtmas-eve their hoſpitality extends to the very birds, for whoſe uſe they hang on a pole at the barn-door an unthreſhed ſheaf of corn, which draws thither the ſparrows and other ſmall birds.

In the trading towns the inhabitants live with reſpect to proviſions much in the ſame manner as the Danes; but the peaſants keep cloſe to the manners of their forefathers. Their oat-cakes are their common bread, but upon particular occaſions, as at weddings, or other entertainments, they have rye bread. However, if grain be ſcarce, which is uſually the caſe after a very ſevere winter, the peaſants have recourſe to what even they eſteem a diſagreeable method of preſerving life, by boiling and drying the bark of the fir-tree, mixing it with a little oatmeal, and making it into a ſort of bread. Even in times of plenty they eat a little of this, in order that when there is a ſcarcity, they may think it the leſs diſagreeable.

The beſt dainties of the Norway peaſants conſiſt in milk, meats, and different ſorts of cheeſe, on which they ſpread butter as on bread. The highland peaſants are ſo fond of angelica, which grows very plentifully in the mountains, that they chew it in a morning dried, and alſo make ſnuff of it.

The mountains furniſh the people with game, and the lakes and rivers with plenty of freſh-water fiſh. They kill cows, ſheep, and goats for their winter ſtock, part of which they pickle and ſmoak, and ſome of it they cut in thin ſlices, ſprinkle it with ſalt, then dry it in the wind, and eat it like hung beef. They are fond of brandy, and of chewing and ſmoaking tobacco.

The peaſants employ themſelves in cutting wood, felling and floating of timber, burning of charcoal, and extracting of tar. Many are alſo employed in the mines, furnaces, and ſtamping mills; and alſo in navigation and fiſhing, beſides hunting and ſhooting; for every body is at liberty to purſue the game, eſpecially in the mountains, and on the heaths and commons, where every peaſant may make uſe of what arms he pleaſes.

SECT. IV.

The Hardineſs of the Norwegians; the Manner in which they carry on their Fiſhing, and their Agriculture; with their aſtoniſhing Methods of catching Fowl.

THE Norwegians are inured to cold and hardſhips from their childhood; for in the latter end of November they run about bare-foot, even upon the ice. The mountaineers who daily go in the woods have frequently their beards full of iſicles, and their boſom full of ſnow. Our author ſays, that in his travels over the higheſt mountains of Norway, which are covered with ſnow, and where horſes are of no ſervice, he has ſeen the peaſants in great numbers do the work of theſe animals, which they ſeem almoſt to equal in ſtrength. When they have been in a profuſe ſweat, he ſaw them throw themſelves every half hour upon the ſnow, for the ſake of its refreſhing coolneſs, and even ſucked it to quench their thirſt. This they undergo without the leaſt apprehenſions of a cold, or a fever, and without murmuring, or betraying the leaſt diſcontent. On the contrary, they go on ſinging merrily, and with incredible chearfulneſs and alacrity undergo the hardeſt labour imaginable for nine hours together.

The ſtrong conſtitutions of the fiſhermen and ſeafaring people of this country are no leſs remarkable. The peaſants of both ſexes aſſemble together in prodigious numbers about the middle of January, to make their winter-harveſt of the rich produce of the ocean. The people of every family at theſe times take with them five or ſix weeks proviſions, which chiefly conſiſt of dried fiſh. They keep out at ſea all day and a great part of the night, by moon-ſhine in open boats; and after that croud together by ſcores into little huts built in the iſlands near the coaſt, where they have hardly room to lay themſelves down in their wet cloaths. Here they repoſe themſelves the remainder of the night, and the next morning return to the ſame laborious employment with as much pleaſure and chearfulneſs as if they were going to a merry-making.

Agriculture in Norway is leſs burthenſome to the former than in other parts; for he does not here toil in the fields of an oppreſſive lord; but the fruits of his labour, as in the Britiſh dominions, are his abſolute and certain property. But, on the other hand, it is in many places attended with great inconvenience and fatigue: the fields conſiſting of little ſpots of ground among the rocks, many of which muſt be dug inſtead of being plowed, and particularly in the dioceſe of Bergen, where the ſoil is leſs fruitful, and affords few places where the plough can be uſed. Inſtead of this they ſometimes uſe a crooked ſtick, with an iron at the end, which yielding eaſier to the ſtones, is not ſo ſubject to break. Nor is the harveſt without its difficulties; the grain, according to the old cuſtom of the peaſants, not being mowed with a ſcythe, except about Chriſtiana, where it is lately come into uſe, but cut with a ſickle; for the corn often grows ſo thick and cloſe, and the ſtalks are ſo apt to bend with the weight of the ears, that the reapers graſp the ſtems with one hand, while they cut them with the other, and then bind them in ſheafs: that they may be thoroughly aired and dried, a great number of poles are ſet up in the fields, and ſix or eight ſheafs hung to each pole. No waggons are uſed in harveſt work, except on the frontiers, where they have been introduced; but inſtead of them the Norway peaſants uſe ſledges, and are prejudiced againſt any other kind of vehicle, even in places where waggons might eaſily travel, though their work would be performed with much greater eaſe and expedition. But in this and every thing elſe they are ſo ſuperſtitiouſly tenacious of the cuſtoms tranſmitted to them by their forefathers, that they will not venture to move a ſtone which their parents had ſuffered to lie.

The catching of birds affords ſome of the inhabitants a very good maintenance: but it is impoſſible to give a juſt idea of the fatigue and danger with which the people ſearch for the birds in the high and ſteep rocks, many of which are above two hundred fathoms perpendicular. Theſe people who are called birdmen have two methods of catching them: they either climb up theſe perpendicular rocks, or are let down from the top by a ſtrong and thick rope. When they climb up they have a large pole of eleven or twelve ells in length, with an iron hook at the end. They who are underneath in a boat, or ſtand on a cliff, faſten this hook to the waiſtband of the man's breeches who climbs, by which means they help him up to the higheſt projection he can reach, and fix his feet upon. They then help up another to the ſame place; and when they are both up, give each his bird-pole, and a long rope which they tie at each end round their waiſts. The one then climbs up as high as he can, and where it is difficult the other, by putting his pole under his breech, puſhes him up, till he gets to a good ſtanding-place. The uppermoſt of the two then helps the other up to him with the rope; and thus they proceed till they get to the part where the birds build, and there they ſearch for them. As they have many dangerous places ſtill to climb, one always ſeeks a convenient ſpot where he can ſtand ſecure by being able to hold himſelf faſt, while the other is climbing about. If the latter ſhould happen to ſlip he is held up by the other, who ſtands firm; and when he has paſſed in ſafety thoſe dangerous places, he fixes himſelf in the ſame manner, that he may enable the other to come ſafe to him; and then they clamber about after birds where they pleaſe. But ſometimes accidents happen; for if one does not ſtand firm, or is too weak to ſupport the other, when he ſlips, they both fall and are killed; and every year ſome periſh in this manner.

On their thus reaching the places that are ſeldom viſited, they find the birds ſo tame, that they may take them with their hands, they being unwilling to leave their young; but where they are wild, they throw a net over them in the rock, and entangle thoſe that are flying, with a net fixed to the end of their poles. Thus they catch a vaſt number of fowls, and the boat keeping underneath them, they throw the dead birds into it, and ſoon fill the veſſel. If the weather continues favourable, and there be a great deal of game, the birdmen ſometimes continue eight days together on the rocks; where they find holes or caverns, in which they can ſecurely take their repoſe. In this caſe they draw up proviſions with lines, and boats are kept coming and going to carry away the game they have caught.

As many of the rocks are ſo ſteep and dangerous, that they cannot poſſibly climb up them, they are then let down from above; when they have a ſtrong rope, eighty or a hundred fathoms long, and about three inches in thickneſs. One end of it the birdman faſtens about his waiſt, and then drawing it between his legs, ſo that he can ſit on it, he is let down with his bird-pole in his hand, by ſix men at the top, who let the rope ſink by degrees, but lay a piece of timber on the edge of the rock, for it to ſlide on, to prevent its being torn to pieces by the ſharp edge of the ſtones. Another line is faſtened round the man's waiſt, which he pulls to give ſigns

when he would have them pull him up, let him lower, or keep him where he is. He is in great danger of the ſtones looſening by the rope, and falling upon him; he therefore wears a thick furred cap well lined, which ſecures him from the blows he may receive from ſmall ſtones; but if large ones fall, he is in the greateſt hazard of loſing his life. Thus do theſe poor men often expoſe themſelves to the moſt imminent danger, merely to get a ſubſiſtence for their families. There are ſome indeed who ſay there is no great hazard in it, after they are accuſtomed to it; but at firſt the rope turns round with them, till their heads are giddy, and they can do nothing to ſave themſelves. Thoſe who have learnt the art make a play of it; they put their feet againſt the rock, throw themſelves ſeveral fathoms out, and puſh themſelves into what place they pleaſe. They even keep themſelves out on the line in the air, and catch with their poles numbers of birds flying out and into their holes. The greateſt art conſiſts in throwing themſelves out, ſo as to ſwing under the projection of a rock, where the birds gather together: here they fix their feet, looſen themſelves from the rope, and faſten it to to a ſtone, to prevent its ſwinging out of their reach. When a man has done this, he climbs about and catches the birds either with his hands or his pole, and when he has killed as many as he thinks proper, he ties them together, faſtens them to the ſmall line, and by a pull gives a ſign for thoſe above to draw them up. In this manner he works all day, and when he wants to go up, he either gives a ſignal to be drawn up, or, with his belt full of birds, works himſelf up with his hands and feet.

In caſe there are not people enough to hold the rope, the birdman fixes a poſt in the ground, faſtens his rope to it, and ſlides down without any help. After which he goes to work as before. In ſome places there are ſteep cliffs of a prodigious ſize lying under the land, and yet above two hundred yards above the water, which are likewiſe very difficult to be got at. Down theſe cliffs they help one another in the above manner, and taking a ſtrong rope with them, faſten it here and there in the cliff where they can, and leave it all the ſummer: upon this they will run up and down, and take the birds at pleaſure.

It is impoſſible to deſcribe how dreadful and dangerous this bird-catching appears to the beholders, from the vaſt height and exceſſive ſteepneſs of the rocks, many of which hang over the ſea. It ſeems impoſſible for men to enter the holes under theſe projections, or to walk a hundred fathoms high on crags of rocks, where they can but juſt fix their toes.

After the birds are brought home, they eat part of them freſh, and part is hung up to dry for the winter ſeaſon. Theſe birds afford the inhabitants a good maintenance, partly from their feathers, which are gathered and ſent to foreign parts, and partly from their fleſh and eggs; ſome ſorts of which are as good as hens eggs, and are ſent to market, though they are of various colours and ſizes.

SECT. V.

Of the Religion and Government of the Norwegians.

LUTHERANISM is the eſtabliſhed and almoſt the only religion in Norway, except in the province of Finmark, where are ſtill no inconſiderable number of pagans, but no hardſhip, expence, or labour is ſpared for their converſion. The firſt meaſures for the reformation of religion in Norway, were taken in the year 1528, and were compleated in 1537. In 1607 a new hierarchy, or church government, was eſtabliſhed: in every ſee there is a biſhop: the biſhop of Chriſtiana is the principal, and takes place of all the reſt. Under the biſhops are the provoſts, the preachers, and the chaplains, or curates, with inferior church officers. A pariſh uſually contains more churches than one; whence the parochial incumbent has often the care of many.

With reſpect to the laws of Norway, king Olave is ſaid to have been the firſt legiſlator of this country, and to have inſtituted a law for the puniſhment of robbery, fraud, and aſſaults. King Chriſtian IV. publiſhed a new body of laws for Norway, which were in force till the reign of Chriſtian V. who cauſed a new digeſt to be drawn up, and theſe are the only laws now obſerved in the kingdom. This law-book was printed in one volume in quarto at Copenhagen in 1687; the ſubſtance of it is taken from that of Denmark, with only a few alterations made neceſſary by the different circumſtances of the two kingdoms.

At preſent the chief officer in Norway is a vice-ſtadtholder, who is preſident of the ſupreme court of judicature at Chriſtiana, which is the general tribunal for all Norway, to which there lies an appeal in all cauſes from the inferior courts of the ſeveral dioceſes, or general governments, in this kingdom; but may, however, be removed to the ſupreme court at Copenhagen.

Each of the four dioceſes, or general governments, into which Norway is divided, has its general governor; and under theſe are the prefects. The office of both is the ſame as in Denmark.

Next to the prefects are the ſecretaries, and the collectors, who levy the king's taxes, and pay them into the hands of the receiver.

Over the nine provincial courts are nine judges: there are alſo inferior judges, each of whom, in conjunction with eight aſſiſtants, has the power of deciding cauſes within his diſtrict. Beſides, in the four chief cities of Norway, Chriſtiana, Chriſtianſand, Bergen, and Drontheim, are preſidents appointed by the king; and under theſe, as in all other towns, are collectors. There are likewiſe collectors of the toll, comptrollers over the farmers of the duties, and commiſſaries of proviſions in this part of his Daniſh majeſty's dominions.

With reſpect to the diviſions of Norway, nature has divided the main land of this kingdom into two parts by the immenſe chain of mountains called Dofrefield and Langfield, which ſeparate the weſtern and northern parts that lie near the ſea, from the ſouthern and eaſtern, or inland parts. Here it muſt be obſerved, that the high lands which lie to the ſouth and eaſt of theſe mountains are called Sondenfield, or South-land; while that lying north of Dofrefield and weſt of Langfield towards the ſea, is called Nordenfields, or North-land.

But, according to the political diviſion of this country, it conſiſts of four general governments; two of which, that is Chriſtiana and Chriſtianſand, lie in the ſouth; and Bergen and Dontheim in the north part of the kingdom. The eccleſiaſtical diviſion into four biſhoprics, is agreeable to the civil, and as the general governments are ſubdivided into prefectures, and diſtricts or fiefs, ſo the biſhoprics are ſub-divided into provoſtſhips and pariſhes.

SECT. VI.

Of the four Governments of Norway, and the principal Places in each; particularly of the Silver-Mines of Kongſberg.

THE government of Chriſtiana, or Aggerhuus, is the largeſt in the ſouth part of the kingdom, and the richeſt in all Norway. Its principal city is Chriſtiana, which is ſaid to be the moſt magnificent city in the kingdom; it is regularly built, is of conſiderable extent, and carries on a great trade. Here the governor and the biſhop of Chriſtiana reſides, and here are held the general and provincial high courts of judicature. It has a work-houſe, and two ſuburbs called Waterland and Peper-Vigen; through the firſt runs a river, which riſes in Maridalen. We have, however, no particular deſcription of the buildings of this city, which is ſituated in fifty-nine degrees fifty minutes north latitude, and in ten degrees fifteen minutes eaſt longitude.

Kongſberg is a flouriſhing mine town in this government, that contains no leſs than ten or eleven thouſand ſouls, among whom are a congregation of Danes and another of Germans. A mint was ſet up in this town ſo early as the year 1686, and in 1689 the mine college was erected. Kongſberg is moſt famous for its ſilver mines, which are the richeſt in all Norway. Theſe were

dif-

diſcovered in 1623, upon which the town was immediately built, and peopled with German miners. In 1751, forty-one ſhafts and twelve veins were wrought in the four reviers of this mine, in which three thouſand five hundred officers, artificers, and labourers are uſually employed. The rich ore in this mine is found only in diſperſed ſtratas and interrupted veins. Even pure ſilver is ſometimes dug out of it; and in 1647 ſome gold was found among the ſilver, of which king Chriſtian IV. cauſed the famous Brillen ducats to be coined, with this legend, VIDE MIRA DOMINI; See the wonderful works of the Lord. In the year 1697, a vein of gold was diſcovered here, of which ducats were coined, which on one ſide had this inſcription, CHRISTIAN V. D. G. REX DAN. NORW. V. G. The legend on the reverſe was from the book of Job: VON MITTERNACHT KOMMT GOLD: that is, Out of the north cometh gold. Kongſberg, December 1, 1697.

Theſe mines are in a mountain between Kongſberg and the river Jordal: but it has been found that the ſilver ore is not, as was as firſt imagined, limitted to that mountain, but extends its veins for ſome miles, throughout the adjacent diſtricts; which is proved by the new mines that are from time to time undertaken in ſeveral places, and moſt of them carried on very proſperouſly. One of the moſt ancient and rich of all the mines, named Old God's Bleſſing, has ſometimes within a week yielded ſeveral hundred pounds weight of rich ore. This mine never fails to fill the beholder with amazement at its aſtoniſhing depth, which is no leſs than an hundred and eighty perpendicular fathoms; and the circumference at the bottom forms a clear of ſome hundreds of fathoms. Here the ſight of thirty or forty piles, burning on all ſides in this gloomy cavern, and continually fed, in order to mollify the ſtone in the proſecution of the mines, ſeems, according to the common idea, an image of hell; and the ſwarms of miners, covered with ſoot, and buſtling about in habits according to their ſeveral employments, may well paſs for ſo many devils; eſpecially when, as a ſignal that a mine is going to be ſprung in this or that courſe, they roar aloud, Berg-livet! Berg-livet! Take care of your lives!

Frederickſhall is a famous frontier town towards Sweden, ſituated in latitude fifty-five degrees, twenty-ſix minutes, at the mouth of the river Tiſtedal, where it diſcharges itſelf into the Spineſund. This town was formerly called Halden, and was a mean place, under the juriſdiction of the magiſtracy of Frederickſtadt; yet it made a very gallant defence againſt the Swedes in 1658 and 1659, by means of a ſmall intrenchment or rampart. It was afterwards ſtrengthened with additional fortifications; and in 1660 ſuſtained a third ſiege from the Swedes; and Charles Guſtavus is by ſome thought to have received here the wound of which he died. Five years after, this town received a charter with the privileges of a city. In 1716 and 1718, the inhabitants again diſtinguiſhed themſelves by the vigorous defence they made againſt the attacks of the Swedes; and here, on the eleventh of December 1718, Charles XII. of Sweden was ſhot in the trenches. King Frederic IV. ordered a pyramid twenty feet high to be erected on the ſpot where that hero fell. Its ſides were decorated with military trophies, the arms of Sweden, and the king's name; and the top was ſurmounted with a gilt crown. On four marble tables at the baſe, were one Latin, and two Daniſh inſcriptions in golden letters. But king Chriſtian VI. in compliment to Sweden, ordered this pyramid to be taken down. The town itſelf is of no great ſtrength; but on a high rock oppoſite to it, ſtands the ſtrong fortreſs of Frederickſtein, and there are other ſmaller forts near it. This city has been ſeveral times deſtroyed by fire.

Frederickſtadt was built in 1567 by Frederic II. who granted it a favourable charter, and removed the provincial court thither. It lies thirty-four miles to the ſouth of Frederickſhall, and is governed by a town magiſtrate, and its chief trade is in timber. Frederickſtadt was regularly fortified in 1655 by Frederick III. and new works have been ſince added to it; ſo that its ſtrength by nature and art, and its convenient ſituation, render it the moſt important fortreſs in Norway.

The general government of Chriſtianſand is ſituated in the moſt ſouthern extremity of Norway, and is bounded on the north by the government of Chriſtiana, and on the eaſt, ſouth, and weſt by the North Sea. This province is fertile in corn, and has ſeveral rivers, one of which is the Mandel, which in one place has a bridge laid over it from one rock to another, thirty-ſix feet above the ſurface of the water. At a ſmall diſtance from this bridge is a cataract, where a very uncommon method of fiſhing is practiſed; the fiſhermen go under the cataract, which forms an arch over their heads, to catch the ſalmon, at the extreme hazard of their lives, in a hole in the rock. This government conſiſts of four prefectures, five diſtricts, and has two provincial courts.

The principal city of this government is Chriſtianſand, which is ſituated on the eaſtern coaſt, in the fifty-ninth degree three minutes north latitude, and is the reſidence of the biſhop and the general governor, where is a cathedral and epiſcopal ſchool. This city was built by Chriſtian IV. between the year 1641 and 1643, and is thus called from its founder, and the great ſande, or ſtrand, on which it is built. It is of a ſquare form, and the ſtreets are broad, regular, and handſome. Its ſituation is very commodious, three ſides of it being ſurrounded either with freſh or ſalt water, and on the fourth it has a communication with fine meadows and the mountains. In 1734 the church, with the greateſt part of the city, was deſtroyed by fire.

The ſmall town of Arndal is remarkable for its ſituation on a rock in the midſt of the river Nid. It has a good wharf, and moſt of the houſes ſtand on the acclivity of the rock, the reſt being built on piles in the water. The ſtreets are only formed of bridges of boats, by means of which the inhabitants go from houſe to houſe. The water is of ſufficient depth for the largeſt ſhips to lie alongſide of the bridges. As the church ſtands high, and almoſt on the ſummit of the rock, there is an aſcent to it from the houſes by a great number of ſteps hewn out of the rock. The inhabitants make a good uſe of the commodious ſituation of this town for trade, by employing many ſhips and dealing largely in timber.

The government of Bergen is from two hundred and forty to three hundred miles in length, and contains only the ſingle prefecture of Bergenhuus, including ſeven diſtricts, and the ſame number of provoſtſhips. This country is very populous, and is remarkable for its having ſeven marble quarries; but produces little corn.

The only city we ſhall deſcribe in this government is that of Bergen, its capital, which has the greateſt trade in all Norway. It is ſituated in the ſixty-firſt degree eleven minutes north latitude, in the midſt of a valley, and built in a ſemicircular form, on the ſides of a bay called by the inhabitants Waag. It is ſo well fortified by nature on the land ſide by lofty mountains, ſeven of which are remarkably high, while the defiles or paſſes between them are quite impracticable to an enemy, and towards the ſea the harbour is well defended by ſeveral fortifications. All the churches, public edifices, and moſt of the houſes along the ſtrand are built with ſtone. This city formerly contained thirty churches and convents; but it has at preſent only four pariſh churches, three of which are Daniſh, and one German, with a church in the large hoſpital of St. Jurgen, and a ſmall chapel in St. James's church-yard. The caſtle of Bergen is a noble ſtructure. The large cathedral ſchool was founded in 1554, by biſhop Petrus, who alſo endowed it, and, by the liberality of king Frederick II. and others, twelve ſcholars are maintained and educated in it. The navigation ſchool founded here, which once flouriſhed greatly, is now fallen to decay. The ſeminarium Fredericianum alſo deſerves notice, it being a noble foundation, where moral and natural philoſophy, the mathematics, hiſtory, with the Latin and French languages, are taught. This city carries on a large trade in all kinds of fiſh, tallow, hides, and timber; and the returns are moſtly made in corn and foreign commodities. The number of its inhabitants are computed at thirty thouſand.

The general government of Drontheim is the moſt northern province in Norway, and the largeſt in extent. It borders on the North Sea, on Sweden, and Swediſh Lapland.

A New & Accurate
MAP OF
DENMARK,
from the Sieur Robert's
ATLAS,
with Improvements.

British Statute Miles.
0 10 20 30 40 50 60 70

SEA
NORTH
SCHAGER or TEGA TRACK
THE SOUND
BALTIC
PART OF GERMANY
PART OF SWEDEN
JUTLAND
NORTH WIBURG
WIBURG
HOLSTEIN
ZEELAND
FUNEN
SCHONEN
BLEKING
I. OF RUGEN
POMERANIA
Lesow I.
Mona I.
Falster I.
Femeren I.
Alsen I.
Lubeck
Hamburg
Elsinore
Helsingborg
Christianopl
Christianstad
Bornholm I.
Stockholm
Upsal
Gothenburg
Wisby
Rostock
Stralsund
Greifswald
Stettin
Colberg
Arhuysen
Aalborg
Aarhuus
Ripen
Sleswick
Flensburg
Kiel
Travemunde
Wismar
Schwerin
Ratzeburg
Lunenburg
Brunswick
Magdeburg
Berlin
Potsdam
Frankfort
Custrin
Stargard
Anclam
Demmin
Tribsees
Barth
Wolgast
Ancram
Hasle
Ronne
Nexoe
Gedser
Summerhausen
Sundhammer
Hanse
Hano
Gottenburg
Uddevalla
Lahrbo
Kongs Hall
Elfsborg
Varnum
Roke
Aasbo
Torup
Tuing
Gazevack
Christianopl
Ahuus
Summerhausen
Sundhammer
Bornholm I.
Mona I.
Falster I.
Femeren I.
Alsen I.
Lubeck
Hamburg

Lapland. A range of iſlands extends from north-eaſt to ſouth-weſt, and between them and the continent runs a large bay called Weſt Fiorden. Among the above iſlands is a remarkable kind of current, or whirlpool, called the Moſkoeſtrom, in the ſixty-eighth degree of latitude, near the iſland of Moſkoe, from which this whirlpool takes its name. Its violence or roarings exceed thoſe of a cataract, being heard at a great diſtance, without any intermiſſion, except for a quarter of an hour at the turn of high and low water, when its impetuoſity ſeems at a ſtand, and fiſhermen venture in: but this motion ſoon returns, and let the ſea be ever ſo calm, gradually increaſes with ſuch a draught and vortex, as abſorb whatever comes within their ſphere of action, keeping it for ſome hours under water, when the fragments, ſhivered by the rocks, appear again. This circumſtance, among others, makes ſeveral authors firmly believe, that here is an abyſs penetrating the globe, and iſſuing in ſome very remote parts; and Kircher is ſo particular as to aſſign the gulph of Bothnia. But the learned biſhop of Pontoppidan obſerves, that, after the moſt exact reſearches, this is but a conjecture without any foundation; it having no other cauſe than the colliſion of the waves riſing and falling at the flux and reflux, againſt a ridge of rocks and ſhelves, which confine the water, ſo that it precipitates like a cataract; and thus the higher the flood riſes, the deeper muſt be the fall, the natural reſult of which is a whirlpool.

Mr. Ramus is of the ſame opinion, and obſerves, that at the time of flood the ſtream runs up the country between the iſlands of Lofoden and Moſkoe, with a boiſterous rapidity; but the roar of its impetuous ebb to the ſea is ſcarce equalled by the loudeſt and moſt dreadful cataracts, the noiſe being heard at ſeveral leagues diſtance. The whirlpool is then of ſuch extent and depth, that if a ſhip comes within its attraction, it is inevitably abſorbed, and daſhed to pieces againſt the rocks at the bottom. But when the ſtream is moſt boiſterous, and its fury heightened by a ſtorm, it is dangerous to come within one Norway, or ſix Engliſh miles of it, boats, ſhips, and yachts, having been carried away, by not guarding againſt it, before they were within its reach. It frequently happens that even whales coming too near the ſtream, are over-powered by its violence; and then it is impoſſible to deſcribe their howlings and bellowings in their fruitleſs ſtruggles to diſengage themſelves. A bear once attemping to ſwim to the iſland of Moſkoe, in order to prey on the ſheep at paſture in the iſland, afforded the like ſpectacle to the people; for the ſtream caught him and bore him down, while he roared terribly ſo as to be heard on ſhore. Even large firs and pine-trees, after being abſorbed by the current, riſe again, with their trunks broken and torn to ſuch a degree, that they ſeem as if covered with briſtles.

The general government of Drontheim contains three prefectures, which are thoſe of Drontheim, Nordland, and Finmark.

The principal city in this province is that of Drontheim, which is in the prefect of the ſame name. It is two hundred and ſixty-one miles north-eaſt of Bergen, in the ſixty-third degree ſixteen minutes north latitude, and in the tenth degree fifty-five minutes eaſt longitude from London. It is ſituated on the river Nid, which almoſt ſurrounds it, and had formerly ten churches and five convents, but at preſent it has only two churches beſides that at the hoſpital. The cathedral, which was a ſuperb edifice built with marble, was all burnt down in 1530, except the choir, which is rather too large for the preſent church, and is ſtill called the cathedral. This city is the reſidence of the general governor and the biſhop. It has a fine cathedral ſchool, a ſeminary of miſſionaries, an orphan houſe, a work-houſe, a houſe of correction, and an hoſpital. A conſiderable trade in timber, fiſh, tallow, and copper, is carried on in this city; which is defended by fort Chriſtianſtein, erected in 1680; it has alſo ſome fortifications on the land-ſide; and the caſtle of Munkholmen, which ſtands on a rock in the harbour of Drontheim, and defends both the city and harbour towards the ſea.

CHAP. VII.

Of DENMARK.

SECT. I.

The Iſlands and Country included under that Name. Their Situation, Climate, and Produce in general.

DENMARK, properly ſo called, conſiſts of two pretty large, and ſeveral ſmall iſlands, together with the peninſula of Jutland. It is remarkable that though all theſe together conſtitute the kingdom of Denmark, not any one of theſe is ſeparately called by that name.

Denmark is ſituated exactly to the north of Germany, and is ſeparated from it by the Baltic, and by the Leven and the Eider, which divide Jutland from Germany; to the weſt, it is waſhed by the North-Sea; to the north, it has the Categate; and to the eaſt, is bounded by the Baltic. Between the continent and the iſlands, Funen and Zealand are the famous ſtreights, called the Sound, which divides Denmark, or, in other words, the iſland of Zealand, from Sweden. The Sound is about a thouſand three hundred and thirty-one fathoms broad, and is the common paſſage out of the North-Sea into the Baltic. This, with the other ſtreights, called the Great-Belt and the Little-Belt, are reckoned part of the king of Denmark's dominions, and all ſhips that paſs that way are obliged to pay a toll, according to the value of the cargoes with which they are laden.

Beſides the places juſt mentioned as conſtituting the kingdom of Denmark, there are many others ſubject to that ſtate, particularly the kingdom of Norway, juſt deſcribed, with the iſlands Faroe, Iceland, and part of Greenland, half of the dutchy of Holſtein, with the counties of Oldenburg and Delmenhorſt in Germany; the citadel of Chriſtianſburg on the coaſt of Guinea; the iſlands of St. Thomas and St. John, with ſome of the Caribbee iſlands, and St. Croix in America; the town of Tranquebar, with its territory, and the iſlands of Nicobar on the coaſt of Coromandel, in the Eaſt-Indies. We are here to conſider only what is properly termed Denmark.

It is difficult to determine the extent of the whole kingdom of Denmark, with any tolerable degree of exactneſs, becauſe its parts are not contiguous to each other; but we ſhall hereafter give the extent of every part ſingly.

The air in North Jutland is pretty cold and piercing; but on the eaſt ſide of South Jutland, and in the iſlands of Funen and Zealand, it is milder and more temperate: however, in the low and marſhy part, and in the iſland of Laaland, the air is thick, moiſt, and unhealthy. The ſhifting of the winds, indeed, while it renders the weather ſomewhat variable, at the ſame time purges the air of fogs and vapours. The weſt wind, which frequently blows in theſe parts, is the moſt violent.

Denmark lies moſtly low and on a level, and, except the tract of land about the middle of Jutland, is very fertile; ſo that the country maintains the inhabitants in plenty, and yields every thing neceſſary for the ſupport of human life: but the inhabitants can better diſ-

penſe with their horned cattle and horſes for exportation, than with their corn. The ſea coaſts, lakes, ponds, rivers, and brooks of this country yield abundance of fiſh. Denmark produces no wine, no metals, and very little ſalt. Moſt of the provinces have wood ſufficient for their neceſſary occaſions; but as this is not the caſe with them all, the Danes are obliged to burn a great deal of turf.

We ſhall give a more particular account of the produce of this kingdom in treating of its ſeveral parts, and ſhall now proceed to the inhabitants, their manners, cuſtoms, and government.

SECT. II.

The Perſons, Dreſs, Manners, and Cuſtoms of the Danes.

THE Danes are generally tall and ſtrong limbed; they have good features, and an agreeable complexion; their hair is fair, and for the moſt part yellow or red; and, as few of them wear wigs, they take a great deal of pains in combing and curling their locks. As red hair is natural to the country, they have not the folly to be aſhamed of it, and therefore do not endeavour to conceal or change the colour. Both the gentlemen and ladies in ſummer dreſs very ſplendidly after the French mode; but in winter, like the reſt of the northern people, they wrap themſelves up in furs or wool. The winter dreſs of the ladies, which is Daniſh, is very convenient and becoming. The burghers, the ſervants, and even the peaſants, are neat in their linen, which they often change, and all who can afford it are fond of making a ſplendid appearance.

The lord Moleſworth ſays, that he never knew a country where the minds of the people are more upon a level; and that as there are none of extraordinary qualifications to be found, who excel in particular arts or ſciences, ſo there are ſeen no enthuſiaſts, madmen, natural fools, or whimſical people; but a certain equality of underſtanding reigning among them, every one plods on in the ordinary beaten track of common ſenſe, without deviating to the right or left. The people in general, however, read and write, and their clergy uſually talk Latin. We cannot ſay how far this nobleman was prejudiced in the account he has given of theſe people; but the encouragement given to learning, and the modern improvements that have been made in Denmark, by the introduction of the arts and ſciences, has rendered his picture extremely unlike the original.

We are informed by that nobleman, that the vices which the gentry are moſt addicted to are gluttony and drunkenneſs. When they ſit down to eat and drink, ſays he, they never know when to riſe; but the debauch ſometimes continues whole days and nights. The firſt thing a friend is preſented with at his entering the houſe, is a dram of brandy; and they no ſooner ſit down to dinner, but all the men and women have a glaſs ſet by their plates; and, on propoſing a health, all take off their glaſſes together, and by that means make quick diſpatch: the women indeed, he ſays, retire ſoon after dinner; but the men ſit till they have loſt that little ſenſe which falls to their ſhare. But after all, there is nothing more unjuſt than theſe national reflections, which have frequently no other foundation than that circle of acquaintance which a ſtranger happens to fall into while he reſides in a country; and indeed where they are juſt at one time they are far from being ſo in another; for cuſtoms like theſe differ greatly within the compaſs of an age.

The liquor drank by people of rank are chiefly rheniſh wine, cherry brandy, and all ſorts of French wine; while the common people drink beer and malt ſpirits. The tables of the great are covered with a variety of diſhes. They have no fallow deer, woodcocks, pheaſants, or rabbits; and red deer being the king's game, are not to be purchaſed: their beef and veal are excellent, as are alſo their bacon and hares. The common people, whether in town or country, generally live upon coarſe rye bread, lean ſalt meat, ſtock-fiſh, roots, and bad cheeſe, ſeldom taſting of freſh-meat, except on ſome extraordinary feſtivals, as on St. Martin's eve, when each family in Denmark never fails to make merry, and to have a roaſted gooſe for ſupper. As to the peaſants, they chiefly live on roots, greens, white meats, and rye bread. Sea fiſh is ſcarce, and not very good; but the river fiſh make amends, here being moſt excellent perch, carp, and craw-fiſh. One cannot expect very extraordinary fruit ſo far to the north; yet the gentry do not want ſuch as are very tolerable; and ſome of the nobility have grapes, melons, peaches, and all ſorts of ſallads very early, and in great perfection.

It is ſaid to be difficult for ſtrangers to find the conveniencies of lodging and boarding in Denmark; for even in Copenhagen there are few lodgings to be let in private houſes, and in the taverns people muſt be content to eat and drink in a public room, into which any other company may enter.

With reſpect to their marriages, they are ſometimes contracted three, four, or more years before the ceremony is performed. The gentry give portions with their daughters; but the burghers and peaſants only give cloaths, houſhold goods, and a great wedding dinner, which are all they part with till their death.

Magnificent burials and monuments are uſual with the nobility, and ſometimes the body of a perſon of quality is kept in a vault, or the chancel of a church, for ſeveral years together, till they have an opportunity of celebrating the funeral with ſufficient ſplendor. The poorer ſort are buried in great thick cheſts, and in the towns there are about a dozen common mourners belonging to each pariſh, who are obliged to carry and attend the people to their graves.

SECT. III.

Of the Language of the Danes; their Skill in the Arts and Sciences; the Manufactures carried on in the Country; their Commerce and trading Companies; with their Coins, Weights, and Meaſures.

THE Daniſh language is only a dialect of the Swediſh and Norwegian; whence the inhabitants of theſe three nations in general underſtand each other, except in a few words and phraſes. The modern Daniſh is a mixture of the antient Gothic, Friſian, and German languages; and, with reſpect to the pronunciation, has ſome affinity with the Engliſh, with which it has many words in common.

The number of learned men in Denmark is ſaid to be now as conſiderable as in any other country in Europe of its extent, for there is ſcarce any branch of literature in which the men of genius of this kingdom have not acquitted themſelves with honour. Beſides the univerſity at Copenhagen, which conſiſts of four colleges, the academy at Soroe, and the ſeminary at Odenſe, there are ſeveral ſchools well endowed in country towns, where the maſters are not only liberally provided for, but the ſcholars are inſtructed and partly maintained gratis. In 1742 a royal academy of ſciences was inſtituted at Copenhagen, with a royal ſociety for the improvement of the northern hiſtory and languages. Societies for the improvement of the uſeful arts and manufactures, and of the ſeveral branches of natural philoſophy, have been inſtituted; and in 1736 the Theatrum Antomico-Chirurgicum and ſeveral libraries were erected. At Copenhagen is alſo an academy for painting, ſculpture, and architecture; and there the polite arts are in high eſteem.

Scarce any manufactures were carried on in Denmark in the laſt century; for they were firſt introduced by Frederick IV. and Chriſtian VI. There are at preſent artiſts of extraordinary ſkill at Copenhagen, and every branch of the mechanic arts is well executed in Denmark. Silks, ſtuffs, and velvets; cloth, cottons, and woollen ſtuffs; gold and ſilver lace, tapeſtry, ſtockings, and hats; with different ſorts of hardware, are alſo made in this kingdom: as are likewiſe porcelain and fire-arms. Here are beſides paper and copper mills, one ſilk and two cotton printing-houſes; with manufactories of ſope, ſtarch, ſteel, glue, ſugar, tobacco, and lacquer. The lace of Tondern, and the gloves of Odenſe and Randers, are allowed to be excellent in their kind. Indeed no manufactures

factures are now permitted to be imported into Denmark; and, ſince the year 1736, the wearing of jewels, gold and ſilver ſtuffs, and foreign lace, has been alſo prohibited. In 1738 a general warehouſe, or magazine, was opened at the exchange, in Copenhagen, to which manufacturers bring all the wares they cannot diſpoſe of in other towns, and are paid ready money for them; and from this warehouſe the goods are delivered out to the retail traders on credit.

Indeed as Denmark enjoys the moſt commodious ſituation for navigation and commerce, it might be made the center of the important trade of the North, and particularly that carried on in the Baltic.

All the commerce of this kingdom was formerly carried on by the Hanſe-towns; but they were afterwards ſupplanted by the Engliſh and Dutch, but chiefly by the latter. The Danes firſt began to carry on their own trade in the reign of Chriſtian III. it was encouraged by Chriſtian IV. and in the reign of Chriſtian V. was carried on in their own bottoms; but Frederick IV. may be called the real founder of the Daniſh commerce, which was ſupported by Chriſtian VI. and Frederick V, by his munificence, endeavoured to carry it to its higheſt pitch. The ſtrict application of the Danes to navigation and commerce partly appears from the ſeveral opulent companies eſtabliſhed at Copenhagen.

The principal of theſe is the royal Aſiatic company, firſt erected in 1616, and confirmed by a royal charter in 1698, which was renewed with proper regulations in 1732 and 1744. This company trades to Tranquebar on the coaſt of Coromandel, where they have a governor, and to Canton in China. They carry on this commerce almoſt entirely with current ſpecie, or bullion; and in return bring chintz, cottons of all ſorts, muſlins, pepper, tea, ſalt petre, &c. For theſe commodities they receive conſiderable ſums of money from foreigners, who take them off their hands, and by this means refund the ſpecie carried out of Denmark. They alſo ſupply their own country with all theſe merchandizes. This company ſends two ſhips annually to Canton, which return richly laden, and two or three more to Tranquebar.

The Weſt India and Guinea company, which was formerly eſtabliſhed by charter, was diſſolved in 1754, and the trade to America laid open to the natives of Denmark, Norway, and Sleſwic; but in 1755 the king eſtabliſhed an African company, with a capital of five hundred actions, every action conſiſting of five hundred rixdollars, which are divided between thirteen adventurers.

There is alſo eſtabliſhed by a royal charter a general trading company, inſtituted in order to carry on ſuch branches of trade as no private adventurers are able to undertake; and at the ſame time to ſerve as a kind of academy for young merchants. This company was incorporated in 1747, and enjoys conſiderable privileges. Its actions are one thouſand, each of which conſiſts of five hundred rixdollars, but only three hundred are paid down; ſo that their fund amounts to no more than three hundred thouſand rixdollars: but the remaining two hundred of every action may be demanded on any emergency. This company carries on a trade to France, Spain, the Mediterranean, the Baltic, and likewiſe to Greenland, by ſending ſhips to the whale fiſhery.

The Iceland and Finmark company, who obtained their laſt charter in 1746, have monopolized the trade to Iceland and Finmark; but that charter is to expire in 1771.

Beſides, other Daniſh adventurers, trade to different ports of Europe; but the imports in Denmark always exceed the exports: however, it is quite the reverſe in the kingdom of Norway.

The Aſſignation-Exchange, or Loan-Bank, was erected at Copenhagen in 1736. The bank-notes are drawn for a hundred, fifty, or ten rixdollars, and paſs through all the king's dominions, and the public offices, as current ſpecie. Great and ſmall ſums, not under a hundred rixdollars, are lent out of this bank at four per cent. on depoſiting a ſufficient pledge. The capital ſtock is no more than five hundred thouſand rixdollars, and though their circulating notes amount to much more, they are in very good credit.

There is alſo an office of inſurance for ſhips at ſea, eſtabliſhed by charter. The number of ſhips that annually enter the port of Copenhagen is very conſiderable; for it appears that above three thouſand ſhips and ſmaller veſſels, laden with all ſorts of merchandize, eſpecially timber, materials for building, and proviſions, were entered at the cuſtom-houſe in the year 1752.

The current coins in Denmark are, a roſe-noble, which is eighteen ſhillings ſterling; a ducat, nine ſhillings; a rixdollar, four ſhillings and ſixpence; a ſlet-dollar, three ſhillings; a rix-mark, about eleven-pence; a ſlet-mark, about nine-pence; and a ſtiver, a penny; beſides theſe there are ſeveral copper coins of ſmall value.

The weights are the great and ſmall hundred, the firſt a hundred and twenty pounds, and the other a hundred and twelve pounds; they have alſo their liſpound, which is as much as our ſtone of fourteen pounds; and their ſhippound, which is twenty liſpounds. A Daniſh ell is about one-third leſs than the Engliſh; and a Daniſh mile almoſt ſix Engliſh miles.

SECT. IV.

Of the Religion and eccleſiaſtical Juriſdiction of Denmark.

THE Danes, in antient times, paid religious worſhip chiefly to the gods Fryer, Thor, Thyr, Odin, and Freya, and in the Daniſh language four days in the week ſtill retain the names of the four laſt imaginary deities; of which Odin was the chief. Several attempts were made at different times, in the middle ages, to convert the Danes to Chriſtianity, and in 882, Ebbo, biſhop of Rheims, preached the goſpel in Denmark. King Harald Klag, who fled for refuge to the emperor Lewis, conſenting to be baptized, was attended back to his kingdom by ſeveral monks, who founded churches in many places in Denmark, particularly at Haddebye, in the dutchy of Sleſwic, where the firſt Daniſh church was erected. But the ſucceeding kings were the inveterate enemies of the Chriſtians, and cruelly perſecuted the new converts; however, after various viciſſitudes of fortune, they at length obtained a free and uninterrupted toleration from king Sweno, about the year 1000.

At length, when Luther began to reſtore the doctrines of the goſpel to their genuine purity, they were favourably received in Denmark by Chriſtian II. The reformation gained ſtill more ground under Frederic I. and at the diet held at Copenhagen in 1537, was made the eſtabliſhed religion; when John Bugenhagen drew up a new body of eccleſiaſtical laws, and made ſeveral other good regulations.

Though the Lutheran religion is eſtabliſhed in this country, other religious ſects, as the Calviniſts, the Jews, and the Papiſts, enjoy the free exerciſe of their religion in Copenhagen, Fredericia, and Fredericſtadt. The Arminians, Mennonites, and Quakers, are alſo tolerated at Fredericſtadt; and on the iſland of Nordſtrand, the Roman-catholics enjoy the public exerciſe of their religion. By the laudable endeavours of the kings of Denmark, the light of the goſpel alſo ſhines in Finmark, Greenland, and among the inhabitants of Malabar, on the coaſt of India; and in 1714, a ſociety for the propagation of the goſpel was inſtituted for that purpoſe.

The chief eccleſiaſtical juriſdiction is under the biſhops, of which there are ſix in Denmark, four in Norway, and two in Iceland. Of theſe the biſhop of Zealand and Chriſtiana have the precedence. The former is alſo third profeſſor of divinity in the univerſity of Copenhagen, and conſequently is obliged to reſide in that city. The title of archbiſhop is aboliſhed in Denmark; and both Sleſwic and Holſtein are under a general ſuperintendant.

The power of the biſhops was formerly very conſiderable in Denmark; for, with the other principal prelates, they formed the third ſtate of the kingdom; but at preſent they enjoy no other power, but what the general ſuperintendants in Germany are inveſted with. They are always appointed by the king, and are obliged, every three years, to viſit the churches and ſchools in their reſ-

reſpective dioceſes; to examine and ordain new preachers; and, together with their provoſts, to hold, at ſtated times, provincial ſynods, where they preſide in conjunction with the governor of the province. Their revenue ariſes from lands, tythes, and what is called the cathedraticum, or a ſmall ſum which they receive from every church in the dioceſe. In every cathedral is a ſmall college, which conſiſts of four or five canons, who meet twice a year in the chapter-houſe, in order to ſit as judges in matrimonial and other cauſes, which were formerly decided by the canon law. There was formerly a divinity lecturer, who read public lectures weekly in every cathedral; but theſe have been laid aſide.

Next to the biſhops are the provoſts, of which there are a hundred and ſixty in the whole kingdom, who annually viſit the preachers and ſchoolmaſters within their juriſdiction; decide diſputes between the preachers and the veſtries, or pariſhes, when they are cognizable by the eccleſiaſtical law; and twice a year appear at the provincial ſynod. The provoſts have annually a rixdollar, or four ſhillings and ſixpence ſterling, from every church in their juriſdiction, and in their viſitations are entertained gratis.

Next to theſe are the preachers, whoſe aſſiſtants are called chaplains. The revenues of the Daniſh clergy, which ariſe partly from tythes and partly from the liberality of their reſpective flocks, are very conſiderable. Confeſſion money is indeed aboliſhed; but inſtead of it, the preachers enjoy the offerings made by their congregations at Chriſtmas, Eaſter, and Whitſuntide. A preacher's widow in Denmark receives half the benefit of the firſt year, and the eighth part of the income every year after, from the ſucceſſor of her deceaſed huſband. In the principal town of every dioceſe is alſo a widow's box, in which every preacher puts a certain ſum, and if his widow ſurvives him, ſhe enjoys an annuity in proportion to what he has contributed.

SECT. V.

A particular Account of the Manner in which the Danes made a voluntary Surrender of their Liberties; with the Privileges enjoyed at preſent by the Nobility, the Burghers, and the Peaſants.

IT will be proper here to give an account of an event which will always be eſteemed one of the moſt extraordinary that has ever been mentioned in hiſtory. Till about the middle of the laſt century, Denmark was governed by a king choſen by the people of all ranks, who in their choice, paid a due regard to the family of the preceding prince, and if they found one of his line properly qualified to enjoy that high honour, they thought it juſt to prefer him before any other, and were pleaſed when they had reaſon to chooſe the eldeſt ſon of their former ſovereign: but if thoſe of the royal family were either deficient in abilities, or had rendered themſelves unworthy by their vices, they choſe ſome other perſon, and ſometimes raiſed a private man to that high dignity.

One of the moſt fundamental parts of the conſtitution was the frequent meetings of the ſtates, in order to regulate every thing relating to the government. In theſe meetings new laws were enacted, and all affairs relating to peace and war, the diſpoſal of great offices, and contracts of marriage for the royal family, were debated. The impoſing of taxes was merely accidental, no money being levied on the people, except to maintain what was eſteemed a neceſſary war, with the advice and conſent of the nation, or now and then by way of free-gift, to add to a daughter's portion. The king's ordinary revenue conſiſted only in the rents of lands and demeſnes, in his herds of cattle, his foreſts, ſervices of tenants in cultivating his ground, &c. for cuſtoms of merchandize were not then known in that part of the world: ſo that he lived like one of our modern noblemen, upon the revenues of his eſtate. It was his buſineſs to ſee juſtice impartially adminiſtered; to watch over the welfare of his people, to command their armies in perſon; to encourage induſtry, arts, and learning; and it was equally his duty and intereſt to keep fair with the nobility and gentry, and to be careful of the plenty and proſperity of the commons.

But in 1660, the three ſtates, that is, the nobility, clergy, and commonalty being aſſembled, in order to pay and diſband the troops which had been employed againſt the Swedes, the nobility endeavoured to lay the whole burden on the commons; while the latter, who had defended their country, their prince, and the nobility themſelves with the utmoſt bravery, inſiſted that the nobles, who enjoyed all the lands, ſhould at leaſt pay their ſhare of the taxes, ſince they had ſuffered leſs in the common calamity, and done leſs to prevent its progreſs.

At this the nobility were enraged, and many bitter replies paſſed on both ſides. At length the principal ſenator ſtanding up, told the preſident of the city, that the commons neither underſtood the privileges of the nobility, nor conſidered that they themſelves were no better than ſlaves. The word ſlaves was followed by a loud murmur from the clergy and burghers: when Nanſon, the preſident of the city of Copenhagen, and ſpeaker of the houſe of commons, obſerving the general indignation it occaſioned, inſtantly aroſe, and ſwearing that the commons were no ſlaves, which the nobility ſhould find to their coſt, walked out, and was followed by the clergy and burghers, who proceeding to the brewers-hall, debated there on the moſt effectual means of humbling the inſupportable pride of the nobility.

The commons and clergy the next morning marched in great order to the council-houſe, where the nobles were aſſembled; and there the preſident Nanſon, in a ſhort ſpeech, obſerved, that they had conſidered the ſtate of the nation, and found that the only way to remedy the diſorders of the ſtate was to add to the power of the king, and render his crown hereditary; in which, if the nobles thought fit to concur, they were ready to accompany them to his majeſty, whom they had informed of their reſolution, and who expected them in the hall of his palace.

The nobles, filled with a general conſternation at the ſuddenneſs of this propoſal, and at the reſolution with which it was made, now endeavoured to ſooth the commons by fair ſpeeches; and urged, that ſo important an affair ſhould be managed with due ſolemnity, and regulated in ſuch a manner as not to have the appearance of a tumult.

To this the preſident replied, that they only wanted to gain time, in order to fruſtrate the intentions of the commons; who came not thither to conſult, but to act. After farther debate, the commons growing impatient, the clergy, with the biſhops at their head, and the burghers headed by their preſident, proceeded, without the nobles, to the palace; and were met by the prime miniſter, who conducted them to the hall of audience, whither the king ſoon came to them.

The biſhop now made a long ſpeech in praiſe of his majeſty, and concluded with offering him an hereditary and abſolute dominion. The king returned them thanks; but obſerved, that the concurrence of the nobles was neceſſary: he aſſured them of his protection, and promiſed to eaſe their grievances.

The nobles were all this while in the greateſt diſtraction; they could come to no reſolution, and broke up in order to attend the funeral of a principal ſenator: but while they were at a magnificent dinner, which was uſually provided on ſuch occaſions, they were told that the city gates were ſhut by the king's orders, and the keys carried to court. They were now filled with the apprehenſions of being all maſſacred, and the dread of loſing their lives took away all thoughts of their liberty: they therefore immediately diſpatched meſſengers both to the court and to the commons, to give notice of their compliance. But the king, being reſolved to purſue the affair to the utmoſt, would not ſuffer the gates to be opened till the whole ceremony of the inauguration was concluded. Three days were employed in preparing for the fatal hour, in which they were to make a formal ſurrender of their liberty. Scaffolds covered with tapeſtry were erected in the ſquare before the caſtle, and orders were given for the burghers and the ſoldiers to appear in arms, under their reſpective officers. In ſhort, on the twenty-

ſeventh of October, in the morning, the king, queen, and royal family being mounted on the theatre erected for that purpoſe, and ſeated in chairs of ſtate under velvet canopies, received publicly the homage of all the ſenators, nobility, clergy, and commons, which were performed on their knees, each taking an oath to promote his majeſty's intereſt in all things, and to ſerve him faithfully as became hereditary ſubjects. One Gerſdorf, a principal ſenator, was the only perſon who had the courage to open his lips in behalf of their expiring liberties, and ſaid, that he hoped and truſted that his majeſty deſigned nothing but the good of his people, and not to govern them after the Turkiſh manner; but wiſhed his ſucceſſors would follow the example his majeſty would undoubtedly ſet them, and make uſe of this unlimitted power for the good, and not for the prejudice of his ſubjects. None of the reſt ſpoke a word, or ſeemed in the leaſt to murmur at what was done. Thoſe who had payed their homage retired to the council-houſe, where the nobility being called over by name, and ordered to ſubſcribe the oath they had taken, they inſtantly obeyed.

Thus in four days time the kingdom of Denmark was changed from a ſtate but little different from that of an ariſtocracy, to that of an unlimited monarchy. We here ſee a houſe of commons ſtimulated by reſentment, and filled with indignation at the inſolence of the nobility, betraying their conſtituents, and inſtead of a noble effort to oblige thoſe nobles to allow them the privileges they had a right to demand, voluntarily giving up for themſelves, their conſtituents, and their poſterity, what they ought to have ſtruggled to preſerve at the hazard of their lives, and of whatever elſe might have been eſteemed valuable; while the only comfort the people had left, was to ſee their former oppreſſors almoſt as much humbled as themſelves. The clergy indeed reaped many advantages from this change; but the citizens of Copenhagen obtained little more in exchange for their liberty, than the inſignificant privilege of wearing ſwords.

The nobles of Denmark are diſtinguiſhed by the appellation of the higher and lower nobility. There never were any dukes in Denmark, beſides the king's ſons, except one nobleman named Knut Pors, who was created duke of Halland by Chriſtopher II. ſo that the rank of higher nobles includes only counts and barons. The counts enjoy certain privileges, and their younger ſons and daughters are not only ſtiled barons and baroneſſes, but enjoy the privileges annexed to that rank. In their counties they have the right of patronage, and of appointing a judge and ſecretary, from whoſe ſentence there lies no appeal, but only to the ſupreme court of judicature. They are allowed three hundred acres of land free from all impoſitions: they bear a coronet over their coat of arms; and all ſuits carried on againſt them muſt commence in the ſupreme court of judicature.

The rights and privileges of the barons is much the ſame with thoſe of the counts. The principal difference is, that the barons enjoy only one hundred acres of land free from tythes and contributions, and are ſomething inferior to the counts in rank and title.

The privileges of the lower nobility, like thoſe of the former, conſiſt in their being cited only before the king's ſupreme court, in all affairs that affect their life and honour, except they have a poſt in the militia by land or by ſea, in which caſe this privilege extends only to the ſuperior officers. No inferior judge can execute a ſentence paſſed upon them, for that muſt be done only by the judge or his commiſſary.

A lord of a manor who, beſides the produce of his manor, together with the mills and tythes, has two hundred acres of land in farm eſtate lying within two miles of his manor, is free from contribution. Lords of a manor have alſo the privilege of appointing a judge and ſecretary; that of hunting and fiſhing; the right of trover, if the proprietor of the goods found does not make his claim within a year and ſix weeks; and the right of patronage or preſentation to their own churches. Theſe are the principal privileges enjoyed by the nobility ſince the kings of Denmark became abſolute; but before that period their power roſe to the higheſt pitch.

The burghers enjoy greater or leſs privileges according to the cities of which they are members. Hence thoſe of Copenhagen enjoy the pre-eminence, and have advantages enjoyed by none of the reſt. The Daniſh peaſants are of different claſſes. Some are poſſeſſed of a ſpot of land, which may be conſidered as their own property, ſince they only make the lord of the manor ſome inconſiderable acknowledgment. Others have only a farm, for which they pay a certain rent in money, cattle, or corn, to the proprietors of their farms, and do inferior ſervices at the manor of their lord; but ſlavery, or a ſtate of vaſſalage, was entirely aboliſhed in Denmark by Frederic IV. in the year 1702, and is only continued in ſome part of the dutchy of Sleſwic.

SECT. VI.

Of the Prerogative, Court, Titles, and Arms of the Kings of Denmark; the Orders of Knighthood; the public Offices and Revenues; with a conciſe Account of the military and naval Force of the Kingdom; the civil Government of the Provinces, and the different Courts of Judicature.

THE king of Denmark, as hath been already obſerved, is an abſolute prince, and conſequently his prerogative is unbounded. He is pleaſed, however, to act by the laws framed by his anceſtors, or by himſelf and council; though he has the power of repealing and altering them as he thinks fit. He is the guardian of all the noble orphans, and none can ſell or alienate their lands, without leave of the crown, the king being entitled to a third part of the purchaſe money upon every ſale.

He has, however, few enſigns of majeſty, except ſuch as are military, as horſe and foot guards, yeomen, and the ſound of drums and trumpets; for the badges of peace, as heralds, maces, the chancellor's purſe, and the ſword of ſtate are here unknown. The officers of the houſhold are the marſhal, who regulates the affairs of the family, and gives notice when dinner or ſupper is ready; the comptroller of the kitchin, who places the diſhes of meat on the table; and the maſter of the horſe, who looks after the king's ſtables and ſtuds of mares. The king ſits down to dinner with his queen, children, relations, and general officers of the army, till the round table be filled; the court-marſhal inviting ſometimes one and ſometimes another to eat with his majeſty, till all have had their turns in that honour. A page in livery ſays grace before and after meat; for no chaplain appears here but in the pulpit. The attendants are one or two gentlemen, and the reſt livery ſervants. The kettle-drums and trumpets, which are ranged before the palace, proclaim aloud the very minute when his majeſty ſits down to table; but the ceremony of the knee is not uſed to the king.

Every winter, the ſnow is no ſooner firm enough to bear, than the Danes take great delight in going in ſledges, the king and court firſt giving the example, and making ſeveral tours about the capital in great pomp, attended by kettle-drums and trumpets; their ſledges are drawn by horſes adorned with rich trappings, and the harneſs full of ſmall bells. After the court has thus opened the way, the burghers and others ride about the ſtreets all night, wrapped up in their fur gowns, with each his female in the ſledge with him.

His Daniſh majeſty's titles at full length are, Frederic V. by the grace of God, king of Denmark and Norway, and of the Goths and Vandals; duke of Sleſwic, Holſtein, Storman, and Ditmarſch; count of Oldenburg, and Delmenhorſt.

The royal arms are parted by the Daneborg croſs into four principal quarters. In the firſt or, three lions paſſant gardant azure, ſurrounded with nine hearts gules, for Denmark. In the ſecond gules, a lion rampant crowned or, holding a Daniſh battle-ax argent, for Norway. In the third azure, three crowns or, the firſt and ſecond for Sweden. In the fourth or, a lion leopardized azure, with nine hearts gules, for antient Gothland. The eſcutcheon quarterly, in the firſt or,

two lions paſſant azure, for the Dutchy of Sleſwic. In the ſecond gules, three nettle-leaves argent, pierced with three nails of the croſs; theſe leaves are charged with a ſmall eſchutcheon argent, for the dutchy of Holſtein. In the third gules, a cygnet argent, gorged with a crown or, for Storman. In the fourth gules, a cavalier armed argent, holding a ſword pommelled or, for Ditmarſch. Upon all an ineſcutcheon in the center party per pale or, two bars gules, for Delmenhorſt; and azure, a croſs pattee or, for Jutland. The ſupporters are two ſavages armed with clubs.

The principal order of knighthood in Denmark is that of the elephant, or the blue ribbon, which ſome authors ſuppoſe to be founded in the twelfth century, by Canute VI. while others ſay, that it was inſtituted about three hundred years ago by Chriſtian I. at his ſon's wedding. Its enſign, or badge, is a white enamelled elephant with a caſtle on its back, appendant to a blue ribbon, worn over the left ſhoulder to the right ſide. Theſe knights wear on the left breaſt a ſilver ſtar of eight rays, with the Daneborg croſs in the middle of it.

The ſecond order of knighthood in this kingdom, is called the Daneborg order, or the white ribbon, which was inſtituted by Waldemar II. The badge is a gold croſs enamelled, and ſet with eleven diamonds. This hangs at a watered white ribbon with a red border, which is worn over the right ſhoulder to the left ſide. Theſe knights wear on the right breaſt a ſilver ſtar of eight rays, in which a croſs is to be ſeen, with the word reſtitutor thus divided, RE-STI-TV-TOR, and the name of CHRISTIAN V. in the middle. Both theſe orders were revived by Chriſtian V. and have their particular ſtatutes, collars, and mottos.

We ſhall now give an account of the offices by which the government is adminiſtered:

I. The privy council, or, as it is called, the ſupreme college, was firſt inſtituted on its preſent footing in the year 1679: this college at preſent conſiſts of four members, and the king, who is preſident. Under this college are the two following chanceries:

1. The Daniſh chancery, which was placed on its preſent footing in 1660, and conſiſts of a prothonotary, a maſter of requeſts, ſeveral ſecretaries, two chancery ſolicitors, notaries, regiſters, &c. To this chancery all petitions for places in the courts of judicature in Denmark and Norway, as alſo for civil and eccleſiaſtical employments, are preſented. The prothonotary, with the principal ſecretaries, and two other perſons, as aſſiſtants, conſtitute a chancery.

2. The German chancery, which was inſtituted in 1688, and conſiſts of a prothonotary, a ſollicitor, and ſeveral ſecretaries. All petitions relating to the affairs of Sleſwic, Holſtein, and Oldenburg are given into this court. It alſo carries on a correſpondence with foreign courts and ambaſſadors; and all treaties and alliances concluded with foreign powers, are diſpatched by this college. The members of the weekly chancery-ſeſſion are the prothonotary, ſome other ſecretaries, and two foreigners, as aſſiſtants.

II. The military chancery for the land ſervice, which conſiſts of a prothonotary, a recorder, or keeper of the archives, a ſollicitor, clerks, curſitors, and notaries. This college has the care of military promotions, and in general, the direction of every thing belonging to the army and to war. But the peculiar military œconomy is committed to the general commiſſion for the land ſervice. Theſe commiſſaries pay, maintain, and recruit the army, fill the magazines, keep the fortifications in repair, and have the care of the artillery. To this college are ſubject all general commiſſaries of war; all officers that have the care of proviſions, arſenals, and materials for building. The magiſtrates, and other civil officers, are under their juriſdiction, as far as they have any concern in the marching and quartering of the army. The money expended by this college, which is immediately under the king's command, is iſſued by the deputies of the finances.

III. The military chancery for the ſea ſervice, conſiſts of a prothonotary and ſollicitor. They order and direct whatever relates to naval promotions, the marine and harbours; but the peculiar management of naval affairs is under the general marine commiſſion, which has been united to the college of admiralty, ever ſince the year 1746. The admiralty college was inſtituted in 1660, and has not only the command of the fleet, but is a ſuperior court of judicature; for all the ſentences paſſed by the inferior court of admiralty come before them. The inferior court of admiralty has power over all civil and military ſubaltern officers in the navy.

IV. The treaſury and the college of the finances, are better regulated than formerly. The firſt was inſtituted by Frederic IV. who aboliſhed the college of treaſurers, and appointed in their room, a ſingle treaſurer and vice-treaſurer. He alſo introduced the college for the finances, which conſiſts of the deputies for the finances, and commiſſioners of the college of the finances. The deputies, in concert with the commiſſioners, direct all affairs relating to the finances; but the deputies alone have the management of the public money, make diſburſements, and ſubſcribe all contracts. The commiſſioners are intruſted with the care of every thing elſe that relates to the revenues, and the impoſts in money and corn; they farm the public revenues; have the inſpection of every thing that may tend to their improvement and augmentation; and ſubſcribe all repreſentations made by the chamber to the king. The chamber of finances has two chanceries: theſe are the Daniſh, or northern, which has a ſecretary and two agents; and the German chancery, which conſiſts of a ſecretary and one agent. The chamber court of judicature has a juſticiary and an agent, who manage the judicial proceedings of the chamber. The correſpondence of the chamber college is carried on, and the accompts of the collectors inſpected and adjuſted, by ſeventeen clerks of the revenues. Theſe clerks have their reſpective departments and offices, of which there are ſeven, and as many clerks, for Denmark; five for Norway; and five for the German dominions.

V. The general college for the improvement of manufactures and commerce, was inſtituted in 1735, and conſiſts of deputies and commiſſioners for the domeſtic and commercial departments, and of a Daniſh and German ſecretary. This college has the direction of every thing that may promote the increaſe of domeſtic trade, manufactures, fiſheries, and all new foundations or eſtabliſhments. By virtue of a royal ordinance, iſſued in 1753, every deputy has his particular department, but is under the controul or check of the general college.

The general eccleſiaſtical college of inſpection was inſtituted in 1737 by Chriſtian VI. and uſually conſiſts of ſix members, three divines, and as many laymen, who are all called general eccleſiaſtical inſpectors. The third lay-inſpector is alſo ſecretary of the college, and has one or two ſecretaries under him. This college has the general direction of all eccleſiaſtical affairs in Denmark and Norway, and its members inſpect into the behaviour of the clergy, and the ſtate of the univerſities and ſchools in their juriſdiction: they likewiſe paſs their cenſure on all theological treaties on religious controverſies. This college is alſo under the king's immediate juriſdiction.

The laſt college is that of the general poſt-office, which has the direction of the poſts in the two kingdoms, audits the accounts of the poſt-maſters, and inſpects into their conduct. This office has its directors, treaſuries, and reviſion chamber. In all towns the couriers for letters go out and come in twice a week. The roads are meaſured all over the kingdom, and at every quarter of a Daniſh mile the ground is a little raiſed, and a ſtone erected upon it.

We now come to the revenues of Denmark, which ariſe from the cuſtoms, particularly thoſe of the Sound, Coldingen, and Norway. A toll in paſſing from the northern ocean into the Baltic, and from the laſt into the northern ocean, is paid in the ſtreights, at Elſinore, Nyburg, and Fredericia, but the principal cuſtom-houſe is at Elſinore. In ſome years, above ſix thouſand ſhips paſs through theſe ſtreights, and conſequently the toll is very conſiderable. This toll is not on an equal footing with reſpect to all nations; for the Hamburghers are obliged to pay more than others for paſſing through the Sound. The Engliſh, Dutch, Swediſh, and French

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ſhips are not ſearched, when they are provided, according to treaties with paſſes: they alſo pay down only one per cent. for ſuch goods as are ſpecified in the tariff, while all other nations are not only ſearched, but are obliged to pay one and a quarter per cent. With reſpect to the Hanſe-towns that lie on the Baltic, there is a great variety in the toll they pay; for almoſt every one of thoſe towns is treated with in particular. The tolls are, in general, either farmed out or collected by officers appointed for that purpoſe, and there are comptrollers appointed by the king over the farmers and officers.

The other revenues ariſe from the exciſe and conſumption.

From the taxes paid by the farming peaſants for freeholds and contributions of proviſions in Norway; from duties on oxen, corn, and bacon in Denmark; and from redeemed eſtates.

From the poll-tax, which, however, is never impoſed, but upon extraordinary occaſions.

From fines, diſpenſations, ſtampt paper, and the poſt-office. The revenues ariſing from the latter are appropriated for penſions, and for carrying on the foreign miſſions.

And laſtly, from the royal tythes, which formerly belonged to the biſhops; but after the reformation were annexed to the crown.

The military forces in the kingdom of Denmark, and the places ſubject to it, conſiſt of the horſe life guards, one regiment of cuiraſſier guards, and one regiment of dragoon guards; nine other regiments of cuiraſſiers, two regiments of foot life-guards, one of which conſiſts entirely of grenadiers; the king's own regiment, the queen's regiment, and the prince-royal's regiment; beſides nine regiments of infantry enliſted, ſeven national regiments of infantry, and a regiment for garriſons. In Norway there are five national regiments of cavalry, two enliſted, and thirteen national regiments of infantry, and the light troops, conſiſting of five or ſix hundred men. An enliſted regiment of cavalry conſiſts of eight, and an enliſted regiment of infantry of twelve companies; but the national regiments are more compleat than the enliſted. The king of Denmark's whole military force amounts to fifty-nine thouſand two hundred and eighty-nine men.

The Danes were antiently very powerful and ſucceſsful at ſea, and in later times, Chriſtian V. and Frederic IV. have performed great exploits with the Daniſh fleet. It at preſent conſiſts of thirty-four ſhips of the line, ſixteen frigates, and a number of gallies, which uſually amount to fifty. Since the year 1755, the ſeamen in conſtant pay conſiſt of four diviſions, each diviſion containing ten companies, with a company of artillery, amounting in all to four thouſand four hundred men: but the number of regiſtered ſeamen, with which the fleet may be manned upon any emergency, is about twenty-four thouſand, which in Denmark are diſtributed in ſix diſtricts, and in as many in Norway, they being under the direction of certain officers appointed for that purpoſe. There is alſo in Denmark a company of ſea cadets inſtituted by Frederic IV. in the year 1701.

The fleet is laid up at Copenhagen, and the naval ſtores, with the materials for ſhip building, are in great plenty, and kept in very regular order. Floating block-houſes are uſed upon occaſion with great ſucceſs in the Baltic.

Juſtice is no where obtained with more expedition than in Denmark. The whole body of their laws is contained in one moderate quarto volume, written in their own language in ſo plain and intelligible a manner, that it ſcarce needs a comment. This excellent work is intitled Codex Chriſtianeus; it was publiſhed in 1683 by Chriſtian V. and is the only law obſerved in Denmark.

Every general government has its general governor, who is always a perſon of diſtinction, and uſually a knight of one of the orders. His power is very great, and extends both to ſpiritual, temporal, and judicial affairs. He has likewiſe authority over the revenues, towns, and country within his juriſdiction. Under the governor are the prefects, who are alſo noblemen, or at leaſt perſons of diſtinction; but they have no power in the towns within their juriſdiction, which extends only to the open country. The civil government in the cities and great towns is lodged in a burgomaſter and council; but in ſmaller towns in a kind of headborough. Many towns have alſo a royal preſident, and ſeveral of them have the privilege of holding courts of juſtice.

Beſides the town courts of judicature, and thoſe held by the nobility in their own manors, there are three other courts, the ting-court, land-court, and the ſupreme tribunal. In the ting-court cauſes are generally firſt brought, both in the towns and in the country; every ſmall diſtrict conſiſting of forty or fifty villages, or hamlets, which have their headborough, a judge, and a ſecretary; to which are added eight peaſants. Theſe courts are held weekly. From this inferior court an appeal lies to the provincial court, or aſſizes, which commonly conſiſts of two judges and a ſecretary, and is held once a month in ſeveral of the principal towns. The other court, from which there lies no appeal, is the ſupreme tribunal at Copenhagen, which is held almoſt all the year round, and is opened by the king in perſon every year, about the beginning of March. This court, where the law is ſilent or doubtful, has a power of determining the affair; and, it is ſaid, that through all theſe courts a ſuit is carried in the ſpace of thirteen months, and the whole expence, notwithſtanding the appeals from one court to another, amounts to no more than ten or twelve pounds ſterling. They have indeed no inns of court, or public ſocieties of lawyers; but every one who pleaſes may take up the profeſſion; yet the fees are ſo low, that there are few advocates: and there is the leſs occaſion for them, as every man is at liberty to manage his own ſuit, and plead his cauſe himſelf. The greateſt expence ariſes from the ſtampt paper, upon which the proceedings are written; and, to prevent this being exceſſive, the clerks, or regiſters, are obliged to bring the whole matter into a certain number of ſheets, as well the allegations and proofs, as the ſentence itſelf, which are all reduced to writing. In the inferior courts the reaſons on which every ſentence is founded are expreſſed, but not in the ſupreme court. The judges of the inferior courts, whoſe ſalaries are very inconſiderable, are not only puniſhed for miſdemeanors committed in the execution of their office, but are obliged to make ſatisfaction to the party injured by an unjuſt ſentence.

Our merchants who have had occaſion to proſecute ſuits in this country, admire the equitableneſs of their laws, and the eaſe with which juſtice is obtained.

The crimes of high treaſon, robbery, and houſe-breaking are ſeldom heard of in Sweden; and ſeditious diſcourſes, and practices are ſtill more uncommon. The puniſhment for capital crimes is beheading, which is uſually done by one ſtroke with a ſword.

In the city of Copenhagen is an officer called the polity-maſter, who takes care that good orders are kept, compoſes differences among the merchants, and ſees that their merchandize is good and ſaleable. He cauſes the ſtreets, bridges, and canals to be cleanſed, kept in good repair, and free from nuſances or obſtructions. He takes care that the city be ſupplied with corn fit for bread at a moderate price; ſeizes prohibited goods, and aſſiſts at the extinguiſhing of fires; for the mob is not ſuffered to ruſh in on theſe occaſions; but have companies like our firemen, whoſe proper buſineſs it is, who are provided with inſtruments for the purpoſe; and no other perſons muſt approach within a certain diſtance of the place. The polity-maſter alſo cauſes people to be apprehended who walk the ſtreets by night, no perſon being allowed to be abroad after beating the tattoo. He likewiſe ſuppreſſes riots and tumults in the ſtreets. The polity-maſter is alſo the general game-keeper, and has the power of ſeizing guns, nets, and veniſon unlawfully taken.

We ſhall conclude this account of the government and adminiſtration of the laws, with obſerving, that the Danes ſeem to be very apprehenſive of the abuſes of apothecaries in ſelling and applying their drugs; for they permit no perſon to exerciſe that profeſſion who is not appointed by the college of phyſicians, and confirmed by the king himſelf. Not long ago there were but two of them allowed in the city of Copenhagen, and one in every other great town, which would doubtleſs be much too few did not ſome of their phyſicians prepare their own medicines. The apothecaries ſhops are viſited by the

the magiſtrates and phyſicians two or three times a year, and the bad or decayed drugs taken and deſtroyed. The prices of all drugs are fixed, from which they durſt not vary. They keep exact books of what they ſell, and to whom, that where an ill accident happens it may be known who has occaſioned it; and for the ſame reaſon they are obliged to file all the preſcriptions that are brought them.

We ſhall now deſcribe the Daniſh iſlands, and, beginning with the eaſt, give a particular account of what is moſt worthy of notice.

SECT. VII.

Of the general Government of Zealand, with a Deſcription of that Iſland, and of the Iſlands Amac, Mona, Bornholm, and other ſmaller Iſlands; with the principal Places in each, particularly of the City of Copenhagen, the King's Palaces, and the moſt remarkable Cities in that Government.

THE kingdom of Denmark is divided into ſeven governments, the moſt eaſterly of which is that of Zealand, which contains ſixteen prefectures, in which are included all the above iſlands, and the moſt conſiderable places belonging to this kingdom.

The iſland of Zealand, in the Daniſh language called Saland, or Sialland, is ſeated at the entrance of the Baltic, and is encompaſſed by the Categate on the north; the ſtreight called the Sound on the eaſt; the Baltic ſea on the ſouth, and the ſtreight called the Great Belt on the weſt. This is the largeſt of all the Daniſh iſlands, it being about ſeventy miles in length, and ſixty-five in its greateſt breadth.

The ſoil of this iſland is tolerably fertile, and produces fine barley, of which malt is made, and a great quantity of the latter is exported from this iſland; it likewiſe yields plentiful crops of fine oats, but the rye is not more than ſufficient for home conſumption. It has fertile meadows of a beautiful verdure, and ſome woods of oak and beach; but in the country lying near Copenhagen, and ſome other parts, no woods are to be ſeen, and the inhabitants are obliged to uſe chiefly turf for their fuel. There are ſeveral lakes in this iſland, ſome of which are pretty large, and well ſtocked with fiſh; and the rivers, which are in every part of Zealand, alſo abound in fiſh. The moſt convenient harbour in the iſland is that of Copenhagen, and next to that the port of Kallundborg. Within the prefecture of Copenhagen is the city of that name, of which we ſhall now give a particular deſcription.

Copenhagen, the capital of the kingdom of Denmark, and the place where the court reſides, is ſituated on the Baltic, in the fifty-fifth degree forty minutes fifty-nine ſeconds north latitude, and in the twelfth degree fifty minutes eaſt longitude, about thirty miles from the Sound, and has a beautiful and commodious harbour. It is in a low and marſhy ſituation; but on the land ſide are ſeveral fine lakes, which furniſh the inhabitants with plenty of freſh water. The adjacent country is very pleaſant, and oppoſite to the city lies the fertile iſland of Amac, which forms the harbour, and which we ſhall deſcribe in its proper place. The city at a diſtance makes a magnificent appearance, and from the weſt gate to the Norway gate in the citadel, extends four thouſand one hundred and forty Zealand ells in length, and from the north gate to the Amac gate it is three thouſand one hundred and twenty ells in breadth; ſo that its circuit muſt be twelve thouſand ſix hundred ells, or ſix miles ſix hundred ells. The Gother-ſtreet, which runs in a ſtraight line acroſs the whole city, dividing the Old from the New Town, is above four thouſand two hundred feet in length. This metropolis contains four royal caſtles, ten pariſh and nine other churches, a conſiderable number of public and private palaces, above four thouſand burghers houſes, ſeveral of which are inhabited by ten or more families, eleven markets and public ſquares, a hundred and eighty-ſix ſtreets, and a hundred thouſand inhabitants.

This city is divided into three principal parts, Old Copenhagen, New Copenhagen, and Chriſtians-hafen. As the two laſt are more modern than the firſt, they are laid out in broad ſtreets that run in a ſtraight line. Moſt of the ſtreets in Old Copenhagen ſince the laſt great fire have been made of a ſufficient breadth; but the old windings could not be entirely avoided. The houſes in the principal ſtreets and ſquares are almoſt entirely built with brick; but in the lanes moſt of the buildings are of timber. However, in general they make a handſome appearance. The city is at the annual expence of ten or twelve thouſand rixdollars in keeping the ſtreets clean, and in the night it is illuminated with lantherns. In ſome parts of the city are deep canals into which large ſhips may enter, and, to the great convenience of the merchants, may lade and unlade cloſe to the warehouſes.

Beſides the above three general diviſions, the city is divided into twelve quarters, and the burghers into as many companies, which have all their particular colours.

The Old Town conſiſts of the following quarters. Firſt, the north quarter, which has the following places of note: the German church, dedicated to St. Peter, which was the principal pariſh church at the time of the reformation; it was afterwards converted into a foundery, but in 1585 was given to the Germans, and in 1618 was again made a pariſh church.

The Walkendorf college in St. Peter's ſtreet was formerly a Carmelite monaſtery; but the lord ſteward, Chriſtopher Walkendorf, converted it into a college for ſixteen ſtudents, each of whom has a yearly penſion of thirty rixdollars.

The ſecond is the weſt quarter, in which are the great Wartow hoſpital, which is an antient foundation; but the edifice is new and ſpacious, and the endowment ſo conſiderable, that it contains at preſent above three hundred beds for the ſick and poor, each of whom hath his lodging gratis, and a weekly allowance of half a rixdollar. Cloſe to the hoſpital ſtands a ſmall commodious and neat church, which is ſo contrived, that the ſick and bedridden may hear divine ſervice and ſermons in their beds.

The city priſon, which has alſo its particular church.

The orphan-houſe, which takes up one entire ſide of the new market, and is a conſiderable ornament to that ſquare. The preſent building was finiſhed in 1734, and contains a hundred poor children, that is ſixty boys and forty girls, who are maintained and educated; but at preſent the number is increaſed to a hundred and eight: it has a particular church, a diſpenſary, a printing-houſe, and a library belonging to the foundation.

The council-houſe is a new ſtructure, and, being detached from the other buildings, ſeparates the Old from the New Market. In the Old Market is a fine fountain, and in the New is a place walled in for the execution of malefactors.

The other places in the weſt quarter worthy of notice are the weſt gate, and the royal palace, ſituated near the citadel of Chriſtianſburg, which in 1743 and 1744 was new fronted in a very elegant manner.

The third is the clothiers quarter, in which are the following places worthy of notice. The collegiate church of St. Mary, in which the biſhops of Denmark and Norway are uſually conſecrated. The tower, which is eſteemed the nobleſt in Copenhagen, ſtands on the higheſt ſpot in the whole city; it is three hundred and eighty feet in length, and has a fine ring of bells. The univerſity, which includes the royal community, or the cloyſter, in which a hundred poor ſtudents had formerly two meals a day; but at preſent they receive a penſion inſtead of proviſions; and in this edifice they hold their daily diſputations. It likewiſe contains the conſiſtory, the auditories, or halls, the rector's houſe, and other buildings. To the univerſity alſo belong four ſpacious colleges, well endowed for the maintenance of the young ſtudents gratis. The Walkendorf college has been already mentioned. The other three are the royal college founded by Chriſtian IV. for a hundred and twenty ſtudents, though no more than a hundred now reſide in it. The Collegium Elerſianum, founded by George Elers, for ſixteen ſtudents.

The

The Borrichian College, or the Collegium Mediceum, is the moſt elegant and beſt endowed of all the private foundations. The learned Olaus Borrichius erected this college in 1689, for ſixteen Daniſh and Norwegian ſtudents. Every ſtudent has apartments gratis for five years, with an annual penſion of ſixty rixdollars. The library and cabinet of curioſities which joined to this college were burnt down in 1728, but have ſince been in ſome meaſure reſtored.

The laſt place we ſhall mention in this quarter is the north gate, which is the moſt elegant ſtructure of the kind belonging to this city, and was erected in 1671.

The fourth diviſion is the freemen's quarter, in which are two churches, and the church of the Holy Ghoſt, or rather of the Holy Gueſts, it deriving its name from a large hoſpital or gueſt houſe that formerly ſtood near it, and was converted by Chriſtian IV. into a houſe of correction. This church was rebuilt after the fire of 1728.

The fifth is named Snarren's quarter.

The ſixth is called Strand quarter, and contains the following places worthy of notice. The magnificent royal palace of Chriſtianſburg, which was enlarged and embelliſhed by Chriſtian III. Chriſtian IV. and Frederick IV. but being very irregularly built, Chriſtian VI. cauſed the whole building, with the adjoining houſes, which had been purchaſed of the burghers, to be pulled down in 1731, and the following year laid the foundation of the preſent ſpacious and magnificent ſtructure, which was finiſhed in 1740. The firſt floor is called the ladies ſtory, becauſe moſt of the ladies and gentlemen in waiting have their apartments there. The royal treaſury and caſh-office are alſo kept here, and the king's court of juſtice and the burghers court are held in other apartments. The office of the general ſuperintendants of the buildings is likewiſe in this ſtory. In the ſecond or royal ſtory the apartments are adorned with the utmoſt magnificence and elegance. The ſupreme court of judicature is likewiſe held in this ſtory. The prince royal's ſtory is thus named from his highneſs and the princeſſes royal having their apartments in it, which are extremely elegant and well contrived. The inſide of the royal chapel is alſo very beautiful and magnificent. The chancery is joined to the palace by a corridore, or covered gallery, and is a ſuperb ſtructure. In the loweſt ſtory, which is vaulted, are kept the archives of the kingdom. In the ſecond is the privy-council-chamber, and alſo the chanceries of Denmark, Norway, and of the German dominions, the military colleges, and the college of the finances. In the third ſtory are the offices belonging to the treaſury, and the rent-chamber.

In this quarter is alſo an edifice in the firſt ſtory of which is the arſenal, and in the ſecond the king's library, which is above two hundred feet long, and contains about ſixty or ſeventy thouſand volumes. In the third ſtory are the royal cabinet of curioſities, the picture-gallery, and the cabinet of medals; and in the fourth ſtory is the cabinet of models.

In the royal cabinet of curioſities, juſt mentioned, are ſeveral large pieces of ſilver ore dug out of the mines of Norway in 1666, one of which weighs five hundred and ſixty pounds, and is valued at five thouſand crowns: another piece is valued at above three thouſand, both being ſuppoſed to contain at leaſt three parts ſilver. They are compoſed of a whitiſh ſtone, the cavities of which ſeem filled with pure virgin ſilver, which in ſome places lies in broad flat plates, and in others like pieces of fine ſilver lace; but what are moſt admired are the threads and branches of ſilver, which ſhoot out an inch or two beyond the ſtone, in form of ſmall ſhrubs or buſhes. Here are likewiſe ſeveral large pieces of amber, ſome weighing forty or fifty ounces. Upon opening the ditches about Copenhagen theſe were found ſticking, like the gum on the plumb trees in our gardens, to the ſides of the old trees that were buried there. Among the artificial curioſities is a piece of ivory, on which is the hiſtory of our Saviour's paſſion beautifully expreſſed in relievo. There is likewiſe a ſmall man of war in ivory, with ſilver guns, which is much admired; as is alſo a watch made of ivory, and a ſkeleton made of the ſame ſubſtance two feet ſix inches high, and ſo nicely formed, that it is ſcarcely to be diſtinguiſhed from a natural one. There are beſides many other curioſities in ivory, ebony, box, amber, and other materials kept for the ſake of the elegance or minuteneſs of the workmanſhip; and, it is ſaid, there is a common cherry-ſtone on the ſurface of which are engraven two hundred and twenty heads, but their ſmallneſs makes them appear imperfect and confuſed.

In this quarter is likewiſe the magazine for proviſions, the poſt-office, and the exchange, which is a grand ſtructure in the Gothic taſte, four hundred and ſix feet in length, and ſixty-ſix in breadth, the greateſt part of which was built in 1624 by Chriſtian IV. The loweſt ſtory is laid out in warehouſes, which are very commodious for the merchants; for on both ſides of this ſtructure are canals where the ſhips may lie cloſe to the warehouſes, and goods be conveniently landed or ſhipped from them. In the ſecond ſtory in the north ſide is the place where the merchants uſually meet. In the middle and down the whole length on both ſides is a range of ſhops; in one wing of the ſouth ſide is the royal bank, and in the other the royal magazine, where moſt of the cloths, ſilks, and ſtuffs made in the city are depoſited, and from thence ſold to merchants and dealers.

The ſeventh is the Roſenburg quarter, in which is a Calviniſt church, a ſmall neat edifice, where the miniſters preach in French and high Dutch; and the Trinity church, generally called the Round church from its round tower: its arched roof, which is pretty high, is ſupported by two rows of very ſlender octangular pillars, which give it the air of a very light building. This edifice ſuffered leſs than the other churches in the great fire in 1728, and was ſoon repaired. The greateſt loſs was the noble collection of books belonging to the univerſity, kept in a large room over the arched roof of the church. However, a new library has been ſince collected, in which are ſeveral valuable manuſcripts relating to the Northern hiſtory. The tower of this church is eſteemed a maſter-piece of its kind, and was deſigned by the celebrated Chriſtian Longomontanus, the aſtronomer. It is round, a hundred and fifteen feet high, and fifty-four feet in thickneſs; flat on the top, and ſurrounded by an iron baluſtrade. The aſcent is ſpiral, and ſo ſpacious and eaſy, that a coach and horſes may go up and down again with eaſe; which experiment was tried by Peter the Great in 1716. This tower was deſigned for an obſervatory, but the curious aſtronomical and mathematical inſtruments, invented by Tycho Brahe, Olaus Romer, and others, which were kept here, were all conſumed by the great fire in 1728; but afterwards Chriſtian VI. procured the moſt curious and valuable mathematical and aſtronomical inſtruments, to ſupply the place of thoſe that were burnt.

The eighth is the manufacturers quarter.

The ninth is the eaſt quarter, in which are the following places of note: the church of St. Nicholas, which, next to St. Mary's, is the largeſt in the city, and the beſt ornamented both within and without; the roof is covered with copper, and it has ſeveral curious monumental inſcriptions.

The Bremer Holms church, alſo called the admiralty church, it being firſt allotted for the uſe of perſons belonging to the navy; but afterwards a large congregation of burghers were added.

The general commiſſion-office is a large ſtructure erected by Frederic IV. in the year 1704. Here the united colleges of the admiralty and general commiſſion meet. Beſides this ſtructure, the following edifices belong to the naval department: the Old or Bremer Holm, and the New Holm, where the naval ſtores are diſtributed: Chriſtianſholm, where is the naval arſenal, which far exceeds that of Venice, and where the royal fleet uſually lies.

The New Town conſiſts of two quarters: the firſt is St. Ann's eaſt quarter, in which are Charlottenburg, a pretty large and regular ſtructure, begun in 1672, and completed in the ſucceeding years. It derives its name from queen Charlotte Amelia, conſort of Chriſtian V. The ſituation of this caſtle or palace is very agreeable, its principal front facing the ſquare called the King's New Market, which is embelliſhed with an equeſtrian ſtatue of Chriſtian V. of lead gilt, placed on an elegant pedeſtal. On the ſides of this fine ſquare are alſo the

great guard-houſe, the foundery, and the Daniſh play-houſe.

There are alſo in this quarter the naval hoſpital, the church belonging to the garriſon: the Frederickſtadt, which is now adorned with ſeveral elegant new palaces: Frederick's church, built in imitation of St. Peter's at Rome: the general hoſpital: the tolbooth, or cuſtom-houſe; and the grand academy of the royal cadets. This laſt ſtructure was built by Frederick IV. for an opera-houſe; but in 1720 he aſſigned it for the land cadets; and, five or ſix years after, removed the company of ſea cadets to this edifice. Each company has its ſeparate apartments and exerciſing-rooms, and is under the inſpection of its proper officer, who likewiſe lives in the academy. Theſe young men are not only ſupplied with lodging, cloathing, fire and candles, and a monthly penſion ſufficient to find them in diet; but are alſo inſtructed at the king's expence in all the ſciences by able maſters appointed for that purpoſe. Theſe two companies are a kind of nurſery for the army and navy.

In St. Anne's weſt quarter is the royal palace called Roſenburg, a ſmall edifice built by Chriſtian IV. in 1604, in the ſemi-gothic taſte; but is a grand ſtructure, adorned with one large and two ſmall towers. It is ſurrounded with a ditch and a kind of fortification, and has its own commanding officer; but the guard is daily relieved from the garriſon of Copenhagen. The adjoining gardens are very extenſive, and embelliſhed with a great number of ornaments. Theſe, in ſummer, ſerve the inhabitants for a public walk, and the royal family ſometimes reſide a few days in this palace. The third ſtory of the palace is ſaid to be the moſt remarkable from its containing a treaſure of ineſtimable value. In the great hall, which is in this ſtory, and takes up the whole extent of the building, are five pieces of painting by the Daniſh artiſt Krogk; twelve valuable pieces of tapeſtry, repreſenting the atchievements of Chriſtian V. and three ſilver lions as large as the life, which at the king's inauguration are placed round the throne. In two cabinets ajoining to the hall are kept the old and new regalia, with other valuable jewels, and a whole ſervice of gold. Another cabinet has a collection of curious and valuable drinking glaſſes, and other glaſs veſſels. The royal throne uſed at the inauguration ſtands in another apartment.

Chriſtianſhafen conſiſts only of one quarter; it is ſituated on the iſland of Amac, and had formerly its own magiſtrates; but is at preſent under the juriſdiction of thoſe of Copenhagen. The moſt remarkable places in this ſuburb are St. Saviour's church, which is eſteemed the moſt magnificent and elegant church at Copenhagen; and has a beautiful ſteeple, that has a ſpiral aſcent on the outſide, by which one may go up to the top. The German, or Frederick's church; the orphan-houſe for the education of two hundred poor boys; the Eaſt India company's houſe; the fine dock-yard, where ſhips of war are refitted; and the gate of Chriſtianſhafen.

Between Copenhagen and this ſuburb is a high pillar erected in the midſt of the water, on which is a ſtatue of a naked woman, with a ſwan on her left ſide that extends its long neck behind her back, and, bringing its head over her right ſhoulder, puts its bill into her mouth. This pillar and ſtatue are conſidered as a ſymbolical repreſentation of the city of Copenhagen: they were, however, found near Calmar, in Sweden, during the war in 1611, and from thence conveyed to this city.

In this city the Calviniſts have a church to themſelves; thoſe of the Romiſh religion frequent the chapels of foreign miniſters of that profeſſion, and the Jews have their ſynagogues.

The magiſtracy of this city is appointed by the king, and conſiſts of a preſident, three burgomaſters, with vice-burgomaſters, and common-council men.

Beſides the ſupreme and other colleges, academies of painting and drawing, the Theatrum Anatomico-Chirurgicum, trading companies, the bank, and the office of inſurance already mentioned in treating of this kingdom in general, they have an inſurance-office for caſh, fire and water-offices, and different manufactures, in which ſilk and woollen ſtuffs, cloths, fine gold linen, and ſilver lace, porcelain, &c. are made.

This city has been frequently viſited by the plague, which ſwept away great numbers of the inhabitants. It has often been beſieged, and in 1658, and 1659, held out againſt the Swedes almoſt two years; and in 1700 was bombarded by the combined fleets of Sweden, England, and Holland. On the twentieth of October, 1728, a fire broke out in the evening in a mean houſe near the weſt gate, which ſpread with ſuch fury, that in forty-eight hours the moſt elegant and greateſt part of the city was reduced to aſhes. Twenty-four ſtreets and ſquares, a thouſand ſix hundred and fifty dwelling-houſes, five churches, the univerſity, with the four colleges belonging to it, the council-houſe, and ſeveral other public buildings, were burnt to the ground. The anniverſary of this dreadful accident is obſerved in a religious manner on the twenty-third of October. The city has, however, been ſince rebuilt with greater elegance and beauty.

As the ſuburb of Chriſtianſhafen is ſeated on the iſland of Amac, it is neceſſary to take ſome notice of that iſland, which is joined to the city, and conſequently to Zealand, by two bridges. That iſland is about nine miles in length, and three in breadth: it is entirely level, and has no woods, except a few thickets. The ſoil is uncommonly rich and fertile, and is therefore called the garden of Copenhagen. A part of it was given in 1516 to ſeveral families, who were invited thither from North Holland by Chriſtian II. at the deſire of Elizabeth his queen, who was a native of the Netherlands, to make butter and cheeſe for the court; and their deſcendants ſtill retain the habit, language, and cuſtoms of their predeceſſors, together with their cleanlineſs and induſtry; for they will not mix with the Danes, but intermarry with each other. This iſland, through the induſtry of theſe laborious people, plentifully ſupplies the markets of Copenhagen with all ſorts of roots and herbs, beſides butter, milk, great quantities of corn, and ſome hay. The whole iſland is divided into two pariſhes, and is peopled by about eight hundred families, many of whom are Danes.

In the neighbourhood of Copenhagen, is a magnificent royal palace, ſituated on a hill. It derives its name from Frederick IV. who was its founder, and has been ſince greatly enlarged by Chriſtian VI. This edifice is very ſpacious; on every ſide it makes a moſt magnificent appearance, and has a fine proſpect. The garden, which lies below the hill, is very extenſive, and contains a great number of pleaſant walks, ſeveral groves, a labyrinth, a theatre, many ſtatues, fountains, and ſummer-houſes; and, in particular, a very fine caſcade juſt fronts the palace. From this edifice is a deſcent into the garden by two flights of broad ſtone ſteps. The menagery in the garden is ſtocked with lions, tigers, and other wild beaſts. From this palace a pleaſant avenue, planted with a double row of trees, extends above half way to Copenhagen.

Jagerſburg is a royal hunting-ſeat, rebuilt by the preſent king; here the officers of the chace reſide. From hence a ſtraight avenue leads to the noble park of Charlottenlund, ſo called from the king's pleaſure-houſe, which ſtands in it.

At about the diſtance of a mile from this park lies that of Jagerſburg, which affords a great deal of game. About the middle of it ſtands a new edifice called the Hermitage, which is thirty ells in length, twenty in breadth, and elegantly adorned both within and without. In the loweſt ſtory is a curious machine, by means of which the victuals, &c. are conveyed to and from the king's table in the ſecond ſtory, when his majeſty dines there.

At the diſtance of about five miles is the caſtle of Hirſchholm, a royal palace, which was antiently a place of conſiderable ſtrength: but nothing now remains of the old caſtle, beſides the name; for it is not only demoliſhed, but the very ſituation of the place has been entirely altered by art. Chriſtian VI. who took poſſeſſion of it as prince royal, cauſed the foundation of a new edifice to be laid on the ſpot where the old caſtle ſtood, and his queen, after his acceſſion to the throne, continued the building, the king having made her a preſent of it. In 1739 it was thought to be finiſhed; though every year ſince, new improvements and embelliſhments have been

continually

continually added. The outside has a very magnificent appearance, nor is it less elegant within. The great hall takes up the height of two stories, and has a noble fountain that throws up a column of water above twenty feet high, which falls down again into a copper bason. The chapel is elegant and well adorned, and the garden very beautiful. At the extremity of it, directly opposite to the palace, is a noble summer-house; and on one side of the garden is an eminence covered with trees, on which stands the Norway-house, which is so called from its being built in the Norwegian taste.

At the distance of about twenty miles from Copenhagen, is the famous castle of Fredericksburg, which is esteemed the most beautiful of any belonging to the king, and is frequently called the Versailles of Denmark. Christian IV. caused the old building to be demolished, and the present magnificent structure to be built by the ablest and most celebrated architects in Europe. It stands in the midst of a lake of fresh water, and consists of three principal parts, each surrounded with water, but joined together by bridges. The first division, to which you arrive by passing over a bridge, resembles a horn-work, the front of which is quite round, and faced with stone. On both sides are several buildings, which serve either as dwelling houses for the officers of the castle, or stables for horses. From hence you pass over a stone bridge to a noble high tower, which stands over the gate that leads into the second court. On each side of this court to the right and left, stands a magnificent building, in one of which are the governor's house, several apartments for the noblemen belonging to the court, and the king's kitchen; and on the other the chief magistrate of the prefecture of Seroe resides. From this second court a fine stone bridge, built over a deep canal, leads to the grand portico of the chief entrance of the castle, which is built with free-stone, and adorned with sculpture and gilding. The principal building consists of a corps-de-logis, and two wings, four stories high, all covered with copper, and adorned with several towers, of which the church tower is the highest. Both the wings are joined to the front by a low building of one story. Upon the first entrance into the inner court, the magnificence of the structure, the beauty of the marble, the elegance of the sculpture, and the richness of the gilding, fill the beholder with astonishment; but what principally strikes the eye is a noble imitation of the ancient architecture, consisting of two grand arcades, one over the other, in the front of the building. These consist of seven arches below, and as many above, built with free-stone, and embellished with statues that stand either in niches or detached from the wall, with many other ornaments. Near one of the wings is a beautiful fountain; and which way soever you turn your eyes, curious sculpture, and a variety of other embellishments, present themselves to view.

The gallery that leads to the hall of audience, is adorned with a fine collection of paintings, most of them brought from Italy; and the hall is hung with the pictures of several of the Danish kings, and of the present royal family as large as the life. Tne exploits of some of these monarchs are also beautifully painted in different parts of the palace, and the great actions of Christian IV. are represented in rich tapestry. In the church belonging to the castle, the eye is in a manner dazzled by the glittering of the gold, silver, and curious marble, with which it is embellished. The altar is of black marble, the front of the table is of silver and ebony, and the pulpit is of the same materials. From the gallery you have a view of the large pictures with which the pilasters between the windows are decorated. In the windows, and on the walls of this church, are the escutcheons of the knights of the Danebrog order. The gallery leads to a spacious place behind the altar, where the royal throne is erected; and on the walls, which are hung with crimson velvet, are seen the arms of all the knights of the order of the elephant. The grand organ in this apartment, is curiously embellished with sculpture and gilding. Formerly a fine organ of silver and ebony likewise stood here. The kings of Denmark are always anointed in this church. In the tower is a fine ring of bells. In short, all the apartments of the castle are very magnificent, especially the knights ball-room, which is over the church in the third story, and has also a noble organ. There is a fine garden behind the palace, and the neighbouring park is interspersed with canals and fish-ponds, and agreeably diversified with a mixture of grass-plats, and little hills and valleys, well stocked with fallow-deer from England.

At the distance of about eighteen miles from Copenhagen, is Elsinore, or Elsineur, a town situated on the Sound, directly opposite to Elsingburg in Sweden, in the fifty-sixth degree eight minutes north latitude, and in the thirteenth degree twenty-three minutes east longitude. This is the richest and most elegant town in Zealand, next to Copenhagen. It has two churches, in one of which, named St. Peter's, the ministers preach in the German language. There is here also a grammar school, in which thirty-three poor scholars are educated and maintained gratis, a good hospital, and the king's custom-house, which is a fine edifice newly built. Elsinore has a considerable trade, and is famous, both on account of its being the place by which the Swedes and Norwegians usually pass into Denmark, and for the toll paid here by every ship that sails through the Sound. On the north side of the city stands the famous and important castle of Cronenburg, which is built with large blocks of hewn stone, in the most durable manner, and is adorned with several turrets and a variety of sculpture. The fortifications of this castle are in excellent order.

Friedensburg is a royal palace, pleasantly situated about nine miles from Cronenburg, in latitude fifty-five degrees thirty-six minutes. Frederic IV. was invited to build this palace by its delightful situation, and as the edifice was compleated in 1720, when the treaty of peace was concluded with Sweden, the king gave it this name, the word *frieden* signifying peace. This prince, being extremely fond of this place, often resides here, and therefore, to render it as agreeable as possible, endeavours to supply by art whatever beauties were denied it by nature. The inner court is a regular octagon, formed by seven wings, one story high, and the main building, which is opposite the principal entrance. In the midst of the court is a fountain adorned with a marble statue of peace, made at Florence. The main building is in the form of a parallelogram, and covered with copper, and in the middle has a spacious, light, and elegant square hall. The other apartments in both stories are nobly furnished. The garden is not very extensive, but is well laid out, and embellished with statues, vases, and other ornaments. It is surrounded with a large wood, that affords plenty of game, and in which several vistas are cut. From the palace is a delightful prospect, the eye commanding almost all the vistas at once, and at the end of them is an extensive lake, in which is a beautiful yacht. Near the palace is also a fine orangery, and an elegant church. In the wood which joins the garden, is a manegery stocked with a variety of beautiful tame and wild fowl.

Roschild, or Roeskild, is an ancient city about a mile from the extremity of a bay called Isefiord, and derives its name from Roe, the eleventh king of Denmark, who was its founder, and the word *kilde*, which signifies a spring; there being several excellent springs on the spot where it stands. This city is situated in the fifty-fifth degree thirty minutes north latitude, and in the twelfth degree fifteen minutes east longitude, and once contained twenty-seven large churches and convents within its walls, and its streets extended to the sea-shore. The kings of Denmark were formerly elected and crowned here, and also made it the place of their residence. But frequent fires, the tyranny of the bishops, and the flourishing state of Copenhagen, have so far reduced this city, that it at present consists of only an inconsiderable number of houses, which are for the most part meanly built. The inhabitants support themselves by trade and industry, but their chief employment is agriculture and the planting of tobacco. The cathedral is a standing monument of the ancient grandeur of this city, though it has been three times consumed by fire; it being adorned with many monuments of the kings and queens of Denmark. A small royal palace was built here in the year 1733 that has a

communication with the church, by means of a covered paſſage.

In the cathedral ſchool, ſix maſters and forty ſcholars are maintained and educated. Here is alſo an hoſpital for ſix poor widows; and in 1699 a convent was founded in this town for twenty-one ladies of quality, and a prioreſs. Each of theſe ladies has an annual penſion of eighty rixdollars, beſides lodging and board. Chriſtian V. alſo endowed this proteſtant convent with five hundred rix-dollars a year. At the other end of the town is a church dedicated to the Virgin Mary, in which, money was formerly coined, and a multitude of relics was preſerved.

The city of Calinburg, or Kallundborg, in the prefecture of the ſame name, is one of the moſt flouriſhing towns in Zealand, and has the beſt harbour in the iſland, except Copenhagen. St. Mary's church, which has four lofty ſpires, makes a good appearance. The inhabitants carry on a conſiderable trade, and a great quantity of malt is annually exported from hence. The paſſage to Barhuus in Jutland is uſually performed in twelve hours; and a certain number of ſmacks ſail twice a week from one town to the other.

The iſland of Samſo, in Latin Samſoa, lies about thirty-eight miles to the north-weſt of Kalinburg, and nineteen from Arhuſe in Jutland, in the fifty-ſixth degree north latitude. It is about fourteen miles long and five broad. It has ſeveral hills and eminences, and the ſoil is for the moſt part fertile, and in particular yields plenty of peas, whence moſt of the inhabitants are in good circumſtances, and carry on a conſiderable trade with their ſmall craft. It conſiſts of five pariſhes, and is ſurrounded with ſeveral very ſmall iſlands and ſandy ſhoals.

Sora is a little noted town, in a pleaſant country, in the prefecture of the ſame name. It is ſituated ten miles to the ſouth of Roſchild; where it is ſurounded by three lakes of freſh water, and theſe are again almoſt encompaſſed with fine woods. This town is remarkable for the royal academy ſituated at the ſouth end of it, to which belong a grand maſter, an inſpector, profeſſors in all the ſciences that relate to civil or political employments, a French maſter, a riding maſter, with proper maſters for fencing, dancing, and drawing. There is alſo a printing-preſs ſet up in this academy. The ſtudents have their apartments in a large and commodious ſtone building.

The iſland of Mona, Moen, or Moon, as it is uſually called in our maps, lies near the coaſt of the ſouth point of Zealand, in the ſtreights called the Wolfsund; it is ſituated in fifty-five degrees twenty-one minutes north latitude, and is nineteen miles in length from eaſt to weſt, and about nine in breadth. The high chalky cliffs towards the Baltic may be ſeen at a great diſtance at ſea, one of which has ſome reſemblance to a throne, and is therefore commonly called the king's chair. Stones of an uncommon figure are in great plenty on this coaſt. The ſoil of the whole iſland is fertile, and yields great plenty of peas. It conſiſts of one prefecture, and contains ſeven rural pariſhes, and the little town of Stege, ſituated in the middle of the iſland.

The iſland of Bornholm, in Latin Bornholmia, or Boringia, is ſituated in the Baltic, in the fifty-fifth degree fifteen minutes north latitude, and in the fifteenth degree ten minutes eaſt longitude, about ſeventy-ſix miles from the extreme point of Zealand, and extends about thirty-three miles in length from north-weſt to ſouth-eaſt, and is nineteen in breadth. The ſoil is fertile, and produces all kinds of grain, particularly oats. Here is alſo good paſturage, and a great quantity of butter is exported from hence; it has alſo quarries of marble and lime-ſtone, and abounds with pit-coal. The coaſt, from its dangerous rocks and ſhoals, is inacceſſible almoſt on every ſide; but where there might be any danger of an enemy's landing great guns are planted. At the peace of Roſchild in 1658, it was ceded to the Swedes; but the inhabitants being treated with great ſeverity by their new maſters, they took up arms the ſame year, and, under the conduct of Jens Koefod, recovered their liberty, after which they delivered up the iſland to the king of Denmark, who, pleaſed with this proceeding, ſent them a letter of thanks, and in a ſecond letter promiſed to take them under his immediate protection; an engagement which the ſucceeding kings have confirmed from time to time, and Bornholm has been ever ſince an hereditary country, belonging to the kings of Denmark. In 1678, five thouſand Swediſh troops were ſtranded on this iſland, in their paſſage from Pomerania to Sweden, when, notwithſtanding their being provided with Daniſh paſſes, thoſe that eſcaped the fury of the waves were made priſoners of war. The inhabitants defend the iſland with their own militia, without any expence to his Daniſh majeſty, and have a governor, deputy-governor, prefect, and other officers. The iſland conſiſts of one prefecture, which contains about a hundred villages, and ſixteen rural churches.

SECT. VIII.

Of the general Government of Funen, including a Deſcription of that Iſland; and of the Iſlands of Lanſeland, Falſter, and Laaland, with the principal Towns in each.

THIS government is the ſecond in order, and includes Funen, Langeland, Falſter, Laaland, and other ſmaller iſlands. It has two governors, under one of whom are Funen and Langeland, and under the other are Falſter and Laaland.

The iſland of Funen, called in Latin Fionia, and by the Danes Fyen, lies between the Great and Little Belt. It is about fifty miles in length, and forty-five in breadth. It received its name from its being a fine country, the whole iſland being fertile and very pleaſant; whence moſt of the noble families of the kingdom reſide there. Indeed, it is not eaſy to find in any other place of ſuch ſmall extent, ſo many noblemen's ſeats as there are in this iſland. The ſoil yields ſuch plentiful crops of grain, that the inhabitants may annually export above a hundred thouſand barrels of rye, barley, oats, and peas, to Norway and Sweden, excluſive of their home conſumption. It alſo produces a vaſt quantity of buck-wheat, which is chiefly cultivated by the inhabitants. They employ a great deal of care in breeding bees, and make a conſiderable quantity of fine mead, which is exported to all parts of the kingdom. The apples that grow in this iſland are alſo much admired, and it likewiſe produces plenty of hops and eſculent herbs; but the ſcarcity of wood obliges the inhabitants chiefly to uſe turf for fuel. There are in this iſland two mountains of conſiderable height, ſeveral freſh water lakes, and rivers that abound with fiſh; but none of them are navigable. In the bays, and all along the coaſts, are taken a great quantity of ſea-fiſh, particularly turbot, cod, herrings, and eels.

The whole iſland is divided into five prefectures, the principal places in which are,

Nyborg, or Niburg, in Latin Neoburgum, a ſtrong town on the Great Belt, and though not very large, has a commodious ſituation, and is well built. The pariſh church and the council houſe are the beſt in the iſland. The harbour is large, but neither ſufficiently deep, nor ſheltered from ſome winds. The town is ſeated in the fifty-fifth degree twenty-ſeven minutes north latitude, and in the tenth degree fifteen minutes eaſt longitude. The inhabitants ſubſiſt partly by accommodating the paſſengers who daily croſs over from hence to Zealand, or return hither from thence, and partly by commerce. The ſhips that paſs through the Great Belt are obliged to pay toll here, for which purpoſe a man of war is always ſtationed in the Belt. This city was firſt built in 1175. All that remains of the royal ancient palace, where Chriſtian II. was born in 1481, and when an infant carried up to the top of it by a monkey, and brought down again without receiving any hurt, is only a large wing, with a flat tower, a little higher than the roof, and at preſent ſerves for a magazine and an arſenal.

Odenſee, in Latin Othinia, is a city of great antiquity, and the capital of the general government; it is pretty large and populous, but the greateſt part of the city is old and decayed; ſome of it is, however, new and well built. It is ſaid to have been erected before the Chriſtian era, and to derive its name from the idol Odin, and not as ſome have imagined from the emperor Otho I. who never

was

was there. It is ſituated in a fine plain, in the fifty-fifth degree twenty-five minutes north latitude, and in the tenth degree thirty minutes eaſt longitude, on a river that yields a variety of fiſh, and about a mile below the town runs into the gulph of Stegeſtrand. The city is about a mile and a half long, and half as broad. It has four churches, among which the cathedral is the moſt remarkable: the inſide has been lately repaired and beautified; but the architecture is old and mean. In the Grey Friars, or Franciſcan church, are interred king John, and Chriſtina his queen, with their ſon Francis, and king Chriſtian II. The table of the altar, which was the gift of the above-mentioned queen, is extremely beautiful. Near this church is a handſome hoſpital, built in the year 1540. The king's palace is neither large, commodious, nor elegant; it being only erected as a lodging for Frederick IV. in his occaſional progreſs through Funen; but there that excellent prince died in 1730. In this city is a college, erected and liberally endowed by Chriſtian IV. and alſo a large cathedral ſchool, conſiſting of ſix claſſes, where all the ſcholars, beſides their education, receive a ſmall penſion, and thirty-ſix of the poorer ſort are boarded and provided with all neceſſaries. The provincial court is held every month in the great hall of the city. The bay lies a little above a mile from the city; the inhabitants brew the beſt beer in Denmark, and carry on ſo conſiderable a trade, as to employ thirty-four large ſhips, beſides above a hundred ſmaller veſſels.

The iſland of Langeland, which is ſituated in the fifty-fifth degree twenty minutes north latitude, and in the tenth degree fifty-four minutes eaſt longitude, is thirty-three miles in length, but ſcarce five in breadth. It is very fertile, and under the ſame general governor as Funen; it contains only the royal prefecture of Tranekiar, which includes the north and ſouth diſtricts, each conſiſting of ſeven churches or pariſhes.

The iſland of Falſter lies at the diſtance of two leagues from Zealand, in fifty-five degrees north latitude, and is about twenty-eight miles in length, but its breadth towards the north end does not exceed fourteen, and towards the ſouthern extremity is but about four miles broad. It is very fertile, and may be called the orchard of Denmark, from its yielding abundance of fruit: all ſorts of game are likewiſe here in great plenty. This iſland is commonly the dowry of the queens of Denmark, and conſiſts of one ſingle prefecture, which contains two diſtricts, in one of which are thirteen rural churches, and in the other fifteen.

The principal town in this iſland is Nicopping, in Latin Nicopia, or Neapolis Danica, ſituated on the ſtreights called Guldborgſund, in the forty-ninth degree fifty-ſix minutes north latitude, and is a pretty large, well built town, one of the moſt ancient in the kingdom; but is not in ſo flouriſhing a condition as formerly, when the queen dowager, and other royal perſonages, conſtantly reſided here. On the land ſide it is fortified by a wall and ditch. It has a free grammar ſchool, and a well endowed hoſpital. The royal palace is a great ornament to the town, and is ſituated very agreeably: the garden is pretty large, and kept in good order. This town carries on a conſiderable trade.

The iſland of Laland or Lolland, called by the Danes Laaland, is ſeparated from Falſter on the eaſt, by the ſtreights called Guldborgſund, and on every other ſide is encompaſſed by the Great Belt and the Baltic. It is nineteen miles diſtant from the iſland of Femeren; is thirty-three miles in length, and about fourteen in breadth, and the moſt fertile ſpot in the Daniſh dominions. This iſland produces plenty of grain, particularly very fine wheat, and excellent peas: it is likewiſe famous for a kind of red fruit called manna, which in its taſte reſembles ſweet almonds, and grows on a ſlender ſtem; it alſo abounds with apples. It has ſome woods, but theſe are more frequent on the eaſt than on the weſt ſide of the iſland. As agriculture turns out greatly to the advantage of the inhabitants, they make little account of grazing. Yet, after all, the country lies low, the ſoil is damp, and the air very unhealthy. The nobility are here, however, very numerous, and have conſiderable eſtates, and very fine ſeats. This iſland, like Falſter, has a particular governor; but in ſpiritual affairs, both are under the biſhop of Funen. It contains three prefectures.

The capital of the iſland is Naſkow, in Latin Naſcovia, which was anciently well fortified; but is now only encompaſſed with a wall. It is of a middling ſize, and handſomely built. The inhabitants are wealthy, and trade in the produce of the country, it having a pretty good harbour. The Jews are allowed the public exerciſe of their religion, and have a ſynagogue here: the town has alſo a grammar ſchool, and an hoſpital.

SECT. IX.

Of Jutland in general; with a particular Account of North Jutland, its ſeveral Governments, and the principal Places contained in each.

WE now come to the peninſula of Jutland, called by the Danes Judland or Jylland, in Latin Jutia, the ancient Cimbrica Cherſoneſus. This large peninſula is bounded by the Baltic on the eaſt; by the North-Sea on the north and weſt; and on the ſouth is ſeparated from Holſtein by the Eider and the Lewen. It is computed to extend, from the river Eider to its northern extremity at Cape Skau, two hundred and forty-ſeven miles in length; and from Bouberg to Naſſet, a hundred and fourteen miles in breadth. It is divided into North and South Jutland, the latter of which is called the dutchy of Sleſwic, of which we ſhall give an account in a ſeparate ſection.

North-Jutland, which is commonly called by the general name of Jutland, is bounded on three ſides by the North-Sea and the Baltic; but on the ſouth is divided from South Jutland, or Sleſwic, by the rivers Kolding and Skotburg. It extends a hundred and eighty miles in length, and from ſeventy-one to ninety-five in breadth, and, of all the territories in Denmark, is the largeſt, and yields the greateſt revenue. Indeed the middle part is moſtly compoſed of heaths and moors, which, however, afford good paſture for oxen, ſheep, and goats; but the other parts, which are of greater extent, are extremely fertile, as appears from the great quantity of all ſorts of grain annually exported to Sweden, Norway, and Holland, and from the great ſums received by the inhabitants for their horſes, oxen, and hogs. Hence Jutland has been frequently called the Land of Bacon and Rye-Bread. Here is alſo great plenty of ſea and freſh water fiſh of all kinds; but the largeſt lakes, in which the moſt fiſh are found, are near the palace of Scanderburg. The chief bays and gulfs are on the eaſt ſide of the peninſula, the principal of which is the gulf Lymfurt, which runs from the Categate, ninety-five miles within land, and gradually widening, forms ſeveral iſlands: it is navigable, and abounds with fiſh; but though it is of ſuch large extent, it is ſeparated from the ſea only by a narrow tract of land. Here are alſo ſeveral other gulfs, which form good harbours. There are a great number of ſmall ſtreams, but the largeſt river is that of Guden, from which Jutland is ſaid to derive its name; it riſing in the government of Arhuſe, and after receiving above forty ſmaller ſtreams, becomes navigable near Randers, and having run a courſe of about a hundred and nineteen miles, falls into the Categate.

Jutland is every where interſperſed with hills, and on the eaſt ſide has fine woods of oak, fir, beach, birch, and other trees; but the weſt ſide being leſs woody, the inhabitants are obliged to uſe turf and heath for fuel. Here is alſo great plenty of all kinds of game. The air is ſomewhat keen and piercing, eſpecially towards the North-Sea.

The Jutlanders are of a robuſt conſtitution and reſolute temper, ſeeming to have raiſed themſelves to a ſtate of freedom ſuperior to that of the other inhabitants of Denmark. Many of the peaſants have freeholds, for which they only pay a ſmall acknowledgment to the lord of the manor.

The Daniſh language is ſpoke with leſs purity and elegance here than in the other provinces, and beſides, the Jutlanders have a particular accent. Fredericia is

the only place where any religion, beſides that of Lutheraniſm, is tolerated.

North Jutland was formerly divided into nine large diſtricts; but this ancient diviſion is now aboliſhed by the royal courts of judicature, and it is at preſent compoſed of four dioceſes, or general governments. Each of theſe has its biſhop and general-governor. They derive their names from four chief cities. We ſhall begin with thoſe that lie moſt to the north.

The general government of Alburg, or Aalborg, comprehends the moſt northern part of Jutland, it being divided from the other provinces by the gulf of Lymfurt, and would be an iſland were it not for the narrow iſthmus between the North-Sea and the gulf of Lymfurt. It extends in length ſomething above eighty-five miles, and its greateſt breadth is nearly as much. Nature has divided this province into four parts, which are ſubdivided into a certain number of prefectures.

Albourg, in Latin Alburgum, the capital of this government, is a large, populous, ancient city, and, next to Copenhagen, the moſt wealthy in the whole kingdom. It ſtands in latitude fifty-ſix degrees thirty-five minutes, in a very low ſituation, and is watered by two rivers called the Eaſt and Weſt River, which run through it. It has two pariſh churches, an hoſpital with a chapel, a cathedral ſchool, and two alms-houſes. An epiſcopal palace was built here by Chriſtian V. and a royal palace ſtands near the water-ſide, where the general governor reſides. Here is alſo an exchange for merchants, and a deep and ſafe harbour, but its mouth is ſomewhat difficult. A great quantity of herrings and grain is exported from hence, as alſo muſkets, piſtols, ſaddles, and gloves, for which the city is famous.

The next general government is that of Wibourg, which is bounded on the north by the gulf of Lymfurt; on the eaſt by the Categate; on the ſouth by the governments of Arhuſe and Ripen; and on the weſt by the government of Ripen alone. It is about forty-ſeven miles in breadth, and fifty-ſeven in length, and is eſteemed the leaſt of the four governments into which North Jutland is divided, it containing only two prefectures, in which are forty-ſeven manors.

The moſt conſiderable place in this government is Wibourg, in Latin Viburgum, the capital of all North Jutland. It ſtands in the fifty-ſixth degree eighteen minutes north latitude, and in the ninth degree twenty minutes eaſt longitude, almoſt in the center of the country, and is ſeated on the lake of Aſmild, which abounds with fiſh. This is one of the moſt ancient cities in the whole kingdom: before the Reformation it contained twelve churches and ſix convents. It is at preſent near two miles and a half round, and includes three pariſh churches, three market-places, ſix gates, and twenty-eight ſtreets and lanes. The governor-general of the province reſides here, and it is a biſhop's ſee. The cathedral was burnt down in the year 1726; but proper meaſures were immediately taken for rebuilding it. The epiſcopal, or cathedral ſchool, has ſix maſters, with handſome ſalaries, and a royal foundation for poor ſcholars. Here is alſo a ſtately edifice, in which the provincial court for all North Jutland is held monthly. In the year 1606, this city was entirely deſtroyed by fire, and in 1726 the largeſt and beſt part of it was a ſecond time burnt; but the damages it then ſuſtained were ſoon repaired.

The general government of Arhuſe, called by the Danes Aarhuus, borders on the gulf of Wibourg, and extends about ſeventy-one miles in length, and from forty to forty-three miles in breadth. This government is, in ſome reſpects, preferable to any other in Jutland, and the extraordinary fertility of the ſoil enables the inhabitants to export annually very large quantities of grain. It is diverſified with many woods, ſeveral lakes abounding with fiſh, and commodious bays; and is watered by ſeveral rivers and brooks. This government is divided into eight prefectures, the principal places in which are,

Arhuſe, Arhuſen, in the Daniſh tongue Aarhuus, the capital of the dioceſe, is ſituated in the fifty-ſixth degree ten minutes north latitude, and lies low in a fine plain between the ſea and a lake, and from the latter a ſtream runs in a pretty wide channel through the city, dividing it in two unequal parts. It is a large, populous, and much-frequented town, that has ſix gates, two churches, a chapel of eaſe, an epiſcopal palace, a cathedral ſchool, and a well-endowed hoſpital. The cathedral is a large ſtructure, a hundred and fifty paces long, ninety-ſix broad, and near forty-five Dutch ells in height. Before the Reformation, here were two monaſteries, and one convent of nuns. The provoſts of the dioceſe hold an aſſembly twice a year in the chapter-houſe. The harbour, which is at the mouth of the abovementioned channel, is ſafe and convenient, but is not very large, and ſometimes has not a proper depth of water; however, the city carries on a conſiderable trade.

Scanderbourg is a very ancient palace, ſituated in a pleaſant country, and ſurrounded on every ſide with woods and water. The kings of Denmark have, ever ſince the Chriſtian religion was introduced into the kingdom, reſided more or leſs in this place. In the reign of Frederic IV. the apartments were rendered more commodious; they were embelliſhed with new ornaments, and near this ſtructure a garden was laid out. On one ſide of this palace is the little town of the ſame name, the inhabitants of which are chiefly employed in agriculture; and in 1751, ſome works were ſet up for refining brown, red, and yellow oker, all which ſpecies of earth are very common in Jutland.

The general government of Ripen is bounded on the north by the gulf of Lymfurt, and by the dioceſes of Wibourg and Arhuſe, with the Little Belt on the eaſt; on the ſouth it joins to the dutchy of Sleſwic, a part of which belongs to it; and on the weſt is waſhed by the North-Sea. It is a hundred and forty-two miles in length, and fifty-ſeven in breadth. This is the moſt extenſive, but neither the moſt fertile nor populous, of the four general governments, into which North Jutland is divided; for it is interſperſed with large barren waſtes: the ſoil is, however, very fertile in ſeveral parts of the government. The ſee of Ripen was founded in 946, by the emperor Otho I. who, after a ſucceſsful war with Harold king of Denmark, prevailed on him to embrace the Chriſtian religion. This province contains four prefectures, the moſt conſiderable places in which are,

Fredericia, or Frederica, in the prefecture of Kolding, the moſt fertile part of the country. This is the only fortified place in all North Jutland. It is a modern town ſituated on the Little Belt, but though it takes up a large compaſs, it is far from being full of buildings and inhabitants. It firſt began to be built in 1651, by Frederic III. but ſcarce were the fortifications finiſhed, and the town properly inhabited, when the Swedes, in 1657, took it by ſtorm, and burnt a great part of it to the ground. Both the fortifications and the town were repaired at the concluſion of the war, and in 1682, Chriſtian V. granted a charter which rendered Fredericia an aſylum for all bankrupts, whether natives or foreigners, and allowed all the Calviniſts, Papiſts, and Jews, who ſettled here, the free exerciſe of their religion. The fortifications of this town are in good condition, but are ſo large in extent, that they would require a numerous garriſon to defend them. Here are two Lutheran churches, in one of which the ſervice is alternately performed in the Daniſh and German languages; a Calviniſt church, a popiſh church, a ſynagogue, a grammar ſchool, and a good arſenal. A conſiderable quantity of tobacco is planted both within and without the walls. Here all veſſels paſſing through the ſtreight called the Little Belt, pay a toll.

Kolding, in Latin Coldinga, a ſmall town on the river Trueth, or Kolding, which here diſcharges itſelf into a bay that runs about five miles from the Little Belt within land, as far as this town. It lies low between two hills, and is one of the oldeſt towns in the country. It has one pariſh church, a rich hoſpital, with a church belonging to it, and a grammar ſchool: but the harbour being choaked up, is a great diſadvantage to its trade. On an eminence to the north-weſt ſtands a caſtle, built in the year 1248, but it was greatly improved by Chriſtian III. Chriſtian IV. and Frederic IV. One of its greateſt ſingularities is the giant's tower, erected by Chriſtian IV. which is flat on the top, with a ſtone baluſtrade, and has at each of the four corners, a ſtatue of ſtone,

ſtone, ſeven feet high. This caſtle has its particular church or chapel. But Kolding is chiefly remarkable for the royal cuſtom-houſe, which ſtands over the water on the bridge, in order to receive toll for all foreign commodities that paſs through it in carriages, and likewiſe for the horſes and oxen that go into the dutchy of Sleſwic. The number of oxen paſſing this way one year with another is computed at twenty thouſand, and two rixdollars are paid for every head.

The city of Ripen, in Latin Ripæ Cimbricæ, the capital of the dioceſe, is ſituated in the fifty-fifth degree thirty-ſix minutes north latitude, and in the ninth degreee ten minutes eaſt longitude, on the banks of the river Nibs-Aa, and, next to Wibourg, is reckoned the moſt antient town in North Jutland. It was formerly one of the moſt celebrated and flouriſhing cities in the North, it having four pariſh churches and five chapels, beſides the cathedral, four convents with their churches, and between ſix and ſeven hundred free burghers. A conſiderable number of ſhips then traded from this port to Norway, England, Holland, and France, and the city had the privilege of coining money; but an end was put to this opulence, partly by ſeveral dreadful conflagrations, and partly by inundations and the ravages of war. The city and ſuburb are ſeparated by the river Nibs-Aa, which entirely ſurrounds the former, and ſometimes lays it under water. Here are two churches, beſides the cathedral, which is dedicated to the Virgin Mary, and ſtands on an eminence. It is a large ſtructure, and contains the monuments of king Erick III. and Chriſtopher I. On one ſide of the choir is the chapter-houſe, in which the conſiſtory is held: here are alſo the effigies of all the biſhops of Ripen ſince the Reformation, the firſt excepted. St. Catharine's church is alſo a large edifice, ſaid to have been built in the thirteenth century by the Dominican monks, whoſe convent was contiguous to it. The grammar-ſchool, which is ſaid to have been founded in the year 1298, is the moſt antient of any in Denmark: it conſiſts of ſix claſſes, has ſeven maſters, and a library erected in 1720. The Dominican convent is converted into a commodious hoſpital, and the old exchange belonging to the merchants into a town-houſe. Here is ſtill a ſmall trade carried on in grain, horned cattle, and horſes; but the ſhallowneſs of the river will admit of only ſmall veſſels coming up to the city, and theſe only at high water.

SECT. X.

Of South Jutland, or the Dutchy of Sleſwic: its Situation, Extent, Rivers, Produce, and Inhabitants: with a Deſcription of the principal Towns in that Dutchy, and of the Iſlands on its Coaſt.

THE dutchy of Sleſwic derives its name from its capital, but is frequently termed in hiſtory South Jutland, particularly by antient writers. Some have erroneouſly annexed it to Holſtein, and deſcribed it as a part of Germany; but Sleſwic is in reality a part of Denmark, and is divided from the dutchy of Holſtein, which bounds it on the ſouth, and conſequently from the German empire, by the Eider and the Lewen; on the eaſt it is bounded by the Baltic and the rivers Kolding and Skotburg, which ſeparate it from North Jutland; while to the weſt it is waſhed by the North Sea. Thus it extends in length from Rendſburg to Koldingen, about eighty-five miles, but its breadth is unequal, it being in ſome places no more than forty, though in its broadeſt part it is about ſixty-ſix miles, including the two ſmall iſlands of Arroe and Helgeland.

There are no high mountains in Sleſwic, but only ſome eminences. The higheſt hills are near the towns of Sleſwic and Apenrade. The chief rivers in this dutchy, moſt of which flow from eaſt to weſt, are the Eider already mentioned, as dividing Denmark from Germany; the Treen, which falls into the Eider near Frederickſtadt; and the Nips-Aa, which runs cloſe by Ripen, with ſeveral ſmaller ſtreams.

Providence has plentifully ſupplied this country with corn, cattle, and fiſh; and ſome parts of the weſt ſide of Sleſwic, lying between the continent and the iſlands, which are overflowed by the tides, afford a great many oyſters.

The inhabitants are a mixture of Danes or Juts, Lower Saxons, and Frieſians; beſides which there are Hollanders ſettled in Frederickſtadt, and Flemings in Nordſtrand: whence in ſome places the Frieſian is the common language, in others the Daniſh, and in others the German.

Lutheraniſm is the prevailing religion in this dutchy, except at Frederickſtadt, where papiſts and Jews, beſides ſeveral ſects, are tolerated; and on the iſland of Nordſtrand the Romans have a popiſh church and a chapel: the Calviniſts are alſo indulged in the exerciſe of their religion in this dutchy, by an edict iſſued in 1734; but they are not very numerous.

The nobility of Sleſwic have the ſame privileges with thoſe of Holſtein, but are not ſubject to the ſame governor; for they acknowledge the king only for their ſovereign, and are under the juriſdiction of the royal provincial court at Gottorp.

The whole dutchy is divided into cities, prefectures, diſtricts, pariſhes, manors, and other ſmaller diviſions. The cities have their particular magiſtrates, who are entirely independant of the prefects. A governor is preſident or chief judge in all the towns of the dutchy.

The taxes in the country are ſometimes levied by the ſtewards or clerks of the prefects, and ſometimes by the magiſtrates of the diſtricts, and by them paid to the king's receiver at Rendſburg. In every prefect there is alſo a ſteward or adminiſtrator, who takes care of the royal revenues, the repairs of the roads, the preſervation of the woods, and the like.

The principal places in the dutchy of Sleſwic are,

Apenrade, or Abenrade, in the prefecture of the ſame name, which is one of the beſt and moſt flouriſhing towns in the country, and is continually improving in beauty and extent. It is ſituated in the fifty-fourth degree fifty-two minutes north latitude, and in the tenth degree ſeven minutes eaſt longitude, at the bottom of a deep open bay, which runs from the Baltic a good way into the land, and is ſurrounded on three ſides with high mountains. It has a ſafe and commodious harbour, but not deep enough for ſhips of burthen to come up cloſe to the bridge. Moſt of the inhabitants, who are famed for ſhip-building, are in good circumſtances; and though the town has frequently ſuffered by fire, they, by their induſtry, have repaired all the damage it has ſuſtained.

In the prefecture of Tundern is the iſland of Sylt, which is nineteen miles in length, but very unequal in its breadth. The ſoil is not fertile, nor does it produce either wood or turf, on which account the inhabitants are obliged to ſupply themſelves with fewel from the continent. They ſubſiſt chiefly by navigation, agriculture, grazing, and knitting; and are ſuch expert ſeamen, that the trading towns are glad to employ them on board their ſhips; but as they are very ſenſible of their abilities, few will ſerve as common ſailors, but expect the pay as maſters or mates. Both ſexes are very tenacious of their antient dreſs. The iſland contains four pariſhes, and had formerly an harbour at the north angle, but it is at preſent quite choaked up with ſand.

The iſlands of Alſen and Arroe contain the prefectures of Sonderburg and Norburg.

The iſland of Alſen is ſituated in the Baltic near the continent, and is ſeparated from it by a narrow ſtreight called Alſenſund. This iſland is about nineteen miles in length, and is about four miles in breadth. It lies under the fifty-fifth degree of north latitude. The ſoil, which is every where very fertile, yields all kinds of grain except wheat, and plenty of fruit. It has alſo ſeveral fine woods that abound with game, and lakes of freſh water, which afford a variety of fiſh. In the prefecture of Sonderbing, in the ſouth part of the iſland, is the town of the ſame name, which is of a middling ſize, and ſtands on the acclivity of a very rugged hill that renders the ſtreets very uneven. This town is lately much improved in its buildings, yet it has but one church, which ſtands on an eminence almoſt without the town; and adjoining to it is an alms-houſe, built out of the ruins of an old convent. The harbour is eſteemed one

of

of the beſt in Denmark, and moſt of the inhabitants are mariners. The king's palace, which ſtands at the entrance of the harbour, is both ſtrong and ſpacious; it is a quadrangular ſtructure, fortified after the antient manner with round baſtions. On the eaſt ſide of this caſtle is a round tower, in the lower part of which king Chriſtian II. was impriſoned for twelve years. This caſtle is the reſidence of the king's prefect, and has a beautiful chapel.

The iſland of Aroe, which is at the diſtance of about three miles from Funen, and about twelve miles to the north-eaſt of Alſen, is about fourteeen miles in length, and about three miles in breadth. It was formerly very woody; but has been entirely cleared, in order to render it fit for tillage. It has no deer, but abounds in hares and wild fowl. It has two good harbours, that in the large bay, at the entrance of which two caſtles formerly ſtood, one on each ſide; and that of the little town of Arroes-Kiopping, which is ſheltered by the little iſland of Deyeroe, that lies oppoſite to the harbour. Here is great plenty of all kinds of vegetables, eſpecially Daniſh cummin, cabbages, and onions. The inhabitants are a mixture of peaſants and ſea-faring people. With reſpect to ſpiritual affairs, this iſland is in the dioceſe of Funen; but, with regard to civil affairs, is included in the dutchy of Sleſwic; and, by virtue of an edict publiſhed in 1750, is under a particular court of judicature.

Flenſburg is in the prefecture of the ſame name on the continent, and is a pretty large well-built town. It has a low ſituation, and is ſurrounded on three ſides by mountains, and on the fourth lies the famous gulph called Flenſburgerwieck, which runs ninety-five miles from the Baltic into the land. The hills on both ſides of the gulph form a ſecure harbour, with a depth of water ſufficient for the largeſt ſhips, which are at preſent unloaded at the quay; but this was formerly done cloſe to the warehouſes. At that time the trade of this town was very conſiderable, but it is at preſent greatly decayed, for the commerce of the Flenſburghers to Norway has been clogged with great difficulties, and that to Copenhagen and other parts of Denmark entirely loſt, they being prohibited from exporting thither any ſilk, cloths, woollen ſtuffs, wines, and brandy. Flenſburg is a long narrow town, extending above four miles in length from the north gate to St. John's gate: it has twelve lanes, beſides the high ſtreet, and ſix gates; and is divided into twenty-two quarters. Moſt of the houſes are ſpacious and ſtrongly built. Here are three German pariſh churches, one Daniſh church, an orphan-houſe, and a good ſchool; alſo an alms-houſe, with a chapel, that was formerly a convent of Grey Friars, and in which fifty poor perſons are comfortably maintained. By the water-ſide is a warehouſe for merchants. The north and ſouth market-places are both ſpacious, and the latter adorned with a fountain. With St. John's gate is a pleaſant ſuburb facing the harbour called St. Jurgen, the greateſt part of which belongs to the alms-houſes.

The caſtle of Gottorp, or Gottorf, ſtands in the midſt of a ſmall lake, and is built in the form of an oblong ſquare. Some derive its name from Gotteſdorf, or God's village, it originally belonging to the biſhops of Sleſwic, and was appropriated to a pious uſe. A rampart encompaſſes the firſt court, and the gate of the caſtle is of a fine blue ſtone as hard as marble. On the north ſide of this ſtructure is a bridge over the lake two hundred paces in length, at the end of which a pleaſant walk, between rows of trees, leads to a fine garden, adorned with caſcades, fountains, and other water-works; particularly in a large baſon is a ſtatue of Hercules combating the hydra, whoſe ſeven heads ſpout water. On the north is a parterre in the form of a creſcent, divided into compartments, and embelliſhed with the buſts of ſeveral kings and princes. Before the houſe is a level piece of ground, about a hundred and fifty paces long, divided into three parts; thoſe on the ſides being two fine parterres, and that in the middle having a large baſon in the center, with fine water-works. From thence you aſcend to different terraces, one above another, ſet round with ſtatues, buſts, and other ornaments. The higheſt terrace exhibits a moſt delightful proſpect of the caſtle, the ſurrounding lake, and a fine country; and, on the other hand, of a noble orangery, and the neighbouring park, which is four or five miles in circuit, and well ſtocked with deer.

Sleſwic, or Schleſwig, in Latin Sleſvicum, is the capital of the dutchy, and is ſuppoſed to derive its name from the Wiecke, or gulph of Schley. It is ſituated in a moſt delightful country, in the fifty-fourth degree fifty-one minutes north latitude, and in the ninth degree fifty minutes eaſt longitude. Its form is very irregular, but has ſome reſemblance to a creſcent, and is about half a Daniſh mile in length. The city is divided into three parts, Old Sleſwic, Lollfuſs, which is a long ſtreet leading from the town to the caſtle of Gottorp juſt deſcribed, and Frederickſburg, formerly called Kratzenberg, which lies at the ſouth extremity of the town. In the Old Town is only one church, which is the cathedral, dedicated to St. Peter. This is a grand ſtructure, that makes a good appearance both within and without. It has however no ſteeple, though a very noble foundation of hewn ſtone has been laid for one. Not far from the cathedral is the orphan-houſe, which was founded in the year 1714; and in the great market-place ſtand the town houſe and the Grey Friars convent. On the north ſide of the city on St. Michael's hill ſtands a church called by the name of that ſaint; and in Frederickſburg is Trinity church. On the eaſt ſide of the city, on the other ſide of the Fiſh-bridge, lies the Holm, as it is called, where ſtands the famous convent of St. John, which was founded for ladies of noble families, and ten nuns, including the abbeſs, now reſide in it. This city has been ſeveral times pillaged, burnt, and razed to the ground; and in 1447 was entirely deſtroyed by fire. It was, however, a flouriſhing town after all theſe misfortunes, till the year 1713, when the ducal court being removed from Sleſwic, it fell to decay; and though the governor and the ſtate officers ſtill reſide there, theſe advantages are not an equivalent for the above loſs; nor is it capable of carrying on any great foreign trade. The mouth of the Sley being choaked up, at preſent many houſes in the city are uninhabited.

Frederickſtadt is not a large, though it is a regular and well-built town, of a ſquare form, ſituated between the rivers Eider and Treen. Its ſtreets are kept very clean, and in ſome of them are planted fine rows of lime trees. Some Dutch Arminians, who quitted Holland immediately after the ſynod of Dort, founded this town, and called their ſettlement by the name of Frederick IV. who was then duke of Sleſwic. Half of the magiſtracy is of the Arminian, and the other half of the Lutheran perſuaſion: the Calviniſts alſo aſſemble in the Arminian church; but the moſt ſubſtantial traders and merchants in this town are Mennonites. Here are alſo ſome Quakers and Jews, who have a ſynagogue in the town. The inhabitants ſubſiſt by ſilk and woollen manufactures, navigation, and commerce. Inſtead of a wall Frederickſtadt is encompaſſed by a moat, with large trees growing on its banks.

The iſland of Femeren, Femern, or Femarn, in Latin Imbria, Fimbria, or Cimbria-parva, lies in the Baltic, near the coaſt of Germany, in the fifty-fourth degree fifty-ſix minutes north latitude, and in the eleventh degree twelve minutes eaſt longitude, and is ſeparated from Holſtein by the narrow ſtreights called Femern-ſound. It is generally computed to be about fifteen miles in length, its breadth is ſomething above ſix miles, and its circumference about forty-eight. The ſoil is in general very fertile, and yields plentiful crops of wheat, barley, and peas; but affords no other game beſides hares. The greateſt inconvenience this iſland labours under is the ſcarcity of ſprings and rivulets; for in dry ſummers the inhabitants are extremely diſtreſſed for want of freſh water. There are about forty villages in this iſland, of which Denſchendorf is of the largeſt extent; but Lemkendorf is the beſt peopled. This iſland has ſuffered extremely by the devaſtations of war, particularly in 1419, when it was ravaged with the moſt inhuman barbarity by king Erick, of Pomerania, and moſt of the inhabitants put to the ſword. Femern at preſent belongs to the king of Denmark; but whether it be comprehended in the dutchy of Sleſwic, or has been always a diſtinct territory, is diſputed.

The

The iſland of Helgeland, alſo called Heiligland, is ſituated in the North Sea, in the fifty-fourth degree twenty-eight minutes latitude, about thirty-ſix miles from the mouth of the Elbe, and at the ſame diſtance from that of the Eider. This iſland has been ſeveral times greatly damaged by being overflowed by the ſea, and even a conſiderable part of it has been long ſwallowed up by the waves; but the laſt inundation, which happened in 1649, left only a ſmall part of the iſland remaining; the baſis of which is a ſolid rock that appears round it, the ſoil being there waſhed away by the ſea. This little ſpot has, however, two diſtricts, the high land and the downs, and each of them its ſub-diviſions. The whole circuit of the high land is about nine hundred and forty rods, and the downs are nearly of the ſame circumference. The ſoil in the high land is red, and rather clayey than ſandy, and from two and a half to four feet in depth; yet its fertility is greater than one would imagine, for it produces barley and oats, though not a ſufficient quantity for the ſubſiſtence of the inhabitants. Here are very few trees, except ſome cherry trees and raſberry buſhes; nor are there many vegetables, for the inhabitants cannot ſpare time to cultivate them, they being very cheaply ſupplied with all kinds of vegetables and fruit from Hamburg and other places. The high lands have paſture ſufficient for no more than about ſixty cows, and as many ſheep on the higheſt part. The Hamburghers have erected a light-houſe, which is ſupplied at their expence with pit-coal; the deſcent is very ſteep, but is made ſo eaſy by about a hundred and eighty ſteps, that a bullock may be driven up and down. The low land is ſecured by a mole, to prevent its being entirely deſtroyed by the ſea. Since the year 1727 the downs have been ſeparated by a channel, which is three quarters of a mile in breadth, and of a ſufficient depth for pretty large veſſels. The Helgelanders are deſcended from the antient Frieſians, and have their particular laws and manners, ſtill retaining their Frieſian names and cuſtoms, and never removing to ſettle in any other country. Their chief food is fiſh, and a kind of gruel thickened with oatmeal; and their conſtant employment at ſea renders them exceeding hardy and intrepid in all weathers. Their number amounts to about two thouſand; while the men are employed at ſea, the women are no leſs diligent and induſtrious on ſhore: for as there is neither plough, carriage, nor horſe on the whole iſland, the women dig the land, and ſow, harrow, reap, threſh the corn, and grind it with hand-mills; and, beſides theſe laborious employments, are indefatigable in performing all other domeſtic buſineſs. The ſpecies of fiſh caught by the inhabitants about this iſland, and diſpoſed of at Hamburgh, Bremen, and other places, are cod, haddock, ling, ſeveral kinds of flat fiſh, mackerel, thornback, whitings, lobſters, &c. and the inhabitants being very ſkilful pilots, are hired to conduct ſhips bound to the Elbe, Weſer, and Eider, for which they are generally well rewarded; but one-tenth of their profit and ſome other duties are payable to the king: this iſland was annexed to the crown of Denmark in the year 1714.

We ſhall now return to the ſouth of Europe, and viſit the countries to the weſt of Poland, and beginning with Hungary and Tranſilvania, &c. ſhall proceed to the German empire.

CHAP. VIII.

Of HUNGARY, including HUNGARY PROPER, TRANSYLVANIA, SCLAVONIA, CROATIA, and DALMATIA.

SECT. I.

Its Names, Boundaries, and Extent. Its Climate, Mountains, Plains, Lakes, Rivers, Minerals, and Foſſils; Plants, and Animals.

HUNGARY, the antient Pannonia, received its preſent name from the Hungarians, a race of the Huns, a Scythian or Tartar nation, who in the ninth century took poſſeſſion of the country; but the Hungarians themſelves call it Magyar Orſzag: the Sclavonians give it the name of Wergierſka; by the Germans it is called Ungern, and Hungerland; and by the Italians Ungharia.

The name of Hungary is uſed both in a limited and extenſive ſenſe. In the former, this country is bounded on the ſouth by Servia and the river Drave, which ſeparates it from Sclavonia; on the eaſt by Walachia and Tranſylvania; on the north by the Carpathian mountains, which ſeparate it from Poland; and on the weſt by Moravia, Auſtria, and Stiria. But in its more extenſive ſenſe it comprehends Sclavonia, Dalmatia, Boſnia, Servia, and Tranſylvania, lying between the forty-fourth degree forty minutes and the forty-ninth degree north latitude, and between the ſixteenth and twenty-fifth degree fifty minutes eaſt longitude from London.

The air of Hungary is very unhealthful, eſpecially to foreigners; which is generally thought to proceed in a great meaſure from the ſudden alteration of the weather; the days being exceſſive hot in ſummer, and the nights intolerably cold; whence it has been called the Churchyard of the Germans, from the great mortality which uſually happens among the German forces when they take the field. The noxious vapours which ariſe from the many ſwamps and moraſſes, are alſo conſidered as another great cauſe of this unhealthfulneſs; but theſe noxious exhalations are leſs common in the mountainous and more barren parts than in the ſouth.

The chief mountains of Hungary are the Crapac, or the Carpathian: theſe at the foot are overgrown with common trees, higher up with very large ones, and at a greater interval, which forms as it were a third region, with bruſh wood: the ſummit is a chaos of frightful crags and precipices, continually covered with ſnow, and lakes of very tranſparent water lying between them.

However, the inner part of the country is far from being mountainous; for the land along the Danube, from Preſburg to Belgrade, is almoſt one continued plain, of near three hundred miles in length: there are beſides many other large and fruitful plains in Hungary, very little of it being taken up with mountains and woods.

Though this country lies at a diſtance from the ſea, it is well watered by lakes and rivers. The moſt conſiderable of the former are the lake Balaton, or Plattenſee, which is about forty miles in length, and lies on the weſt ſide of Hungary, between the Drave and the Danube; and the New Siedlerſee, or Lacus Peiſonius, which is about twenty-eight miles in length.

The principal rivers of Hungary are, firſt, the Danube, which riſing in Swabia, runs eaſtward through Germany, Hungary, and Turky, after receiving ſixty navigable rivers, and above a hundred and twenty in the whole, diſcharges itſelf by ſeveral mouths with ſuch violence into the Black Sea, that both the ſtream and water are perceptible in it for ſeveral miles diſtance.

The Drave, which iſſues out of Stiria, ſeparates Hungary and Sclavonia, and at laſt falls into the Danube, near the tower of Darda.

The Teys, or Tibiſcus, which riſes in the Carpathian mountains, and, while among them, has a rapid and

clear ſtream; but afterwards becomes ſlow and turbid. It receives ſeveral ſmaller rivers, and falls into the Danube at a conſiderable diſtance above Belgrade. No river in Europe equals this in plenty of fiſh.

The Araba, or Raab, which riſing in Stiria, enters the weſt ſide of Hungary, and falls into the Danube near Raab.

The Gran, or Granus, which riſes in the Carpathian mountains, and running to the ſouthward, falls into the Danube near the city of Gran.

The Wag, which alſo riſes in the north of Hungary, and diſcharges itſelf into the Danube a little above Comorra.

Moſt of theſe rivers are well ſtocked with fiſh, which in ſome parts of Hungary are ſo plentiful that they feed their hogs with them, and in other places it is ſaid that a thouſand carps have been bought for the value of a crown.

This country abounds alſo with many ſalutary hot baths, and ſeveral ſprings that have very uncommon qualities; among which is a ſpring of vitriol-water, near Shmolnitz, which in a ſhort time gives the appearance of copper to plates of iron; and there are others of ſo poiſonous a nature, that an animal's drinking of them is followed by immediate death.

With reſpect to the minerals of this country, it is obſervable that pure gold ore is never found in the mines, though they yield gold ore with a mixture of ſilver or lead; and on the other hand, no ſilver is dug up here that does not contain ſome gold. A quintal of the richeſt ore, according to Mr. Keyſler, yields thirty-five ounces of ſilver; but ſome is refined, eſpecially at Cremnitz, that does not yield above two ounces out of a hundred weight, but the ore that yields the leaſt ſilver generally produces the moſt gold. There are alſo mines of copper, vitriol, iron, lead, quickſilver, antimony, cinnabar, yellow orpiment, ſulphur, marcaſite, rock-ſalt, ſalt-petre, magnets, aſbeſtos, and gems, though the latter are very different from the oriental; with alabaſter, and quarries of marble.

The ſouthern part of this country is ſo delightful, that a traveller has ſaid of it, "Out of Hungary there is no "living, or if there be living it is not life."

The level country produces eſculent plants, tobacco, ſaffron, aſparagus, melons, hops, corn, pulſe, millet, delicious wine, and a great variety of fruits.

The animals of Hungary are chiefly fine horſes, moſtly mouſe-coloured, and of which incredible numbers are exported; mules, aſſes, buffaloes, cows, ſheep, goats, ſwine, and many ſpecies of wild beaſts, deer, chamois-goats, wild boars, bears, wolves, and lynxes.

Beſides the ſheep common in moſt countries, Hungary affords a particular ſpecies, that have large twiſted horns, generally about two feet in length. Theſe are kept in ſeparate flocks, and great numbers of them are annually ſent to Vienna.

Among the birds are pheaſants, partridges, woodcocks, &c. The number of the wild fowl is, indeed, incredible; and it is not uncommon, in ſuch flocks, for ſome of them to live to a good old age.

SECT. II.

Of the different Origin of the Inhabitants: their Languages, Perſons, Dreſs, and Manner of Travelling: their Exports, Imports, and Coin.

THE inhabitants are of different origin. The true Hungarians, as we have already intimated, are the deſcendants of that fierce people called by the ſame name, who, by force of arms, ſeated themſelves here in the year 888; and theſe, though more civil than their anceſtors, ſtill ſhew ſome traces of their Scythian extraction. Another part of the inhabitants are of the Sclavonian race, and this includes the Bohemians, Croats, Servians, Raſcians, and Vandals, who inhabit the eaſt and northern parts of Hungary. Theſe, indeed, are found all over the country, and ſeem to have been ſettled here from the remoteſt antiquity. The German nations are the Auſtrians, Stirians, Bavarians, Franks, Swabians, and Saxons, who ſeem to have entered Hungary much about the time when the Saxons ſeated themſelves in Tranſylvania; but war, commerce, and the fruitfulneſs of the country, have drawn hither other Germans, who have conſiderably increaſed ſince Hungary became ſubject to the houſe of Auſtria. The Walachians, who inhabit the country next to Tranſylvania and Walachia, ſeem to be the deſcendants of the Romans that ſettled in Dacia. Among the foreigners are the Greeks, who removed hither for the ſake of a more advantageous commerce; the Jews, who were formerly much more numerous than they are at preſent; the Turks and Zingari, who are a wandering people of very uncertain origin; many of theſe are ſmiths and muſicians. Thus the inhabitants muſt have been anciently of different diſpoſitions, though, by frequent intercourſe, they now reſemble each other. They are, for the moſt part, of a ſanguine choleric temper; the nobility are numerous, and both in their dreſs and tables are fond of pomp and magnificence, yet apply themſelves to learning and rural improvements, but more to war, hunting, and martial exerciſes.

There are four common languages in Hungary; the Hungarian, which is of Scythian origin, without the leaſt affinity to any of the European tongues, and one unvaried dialect. The Hungarians, in writing, uſe the Roman characters; but the German has its different dialects according to the different nations of Germans ſettled here. The Sclavonian, which derives its origin from the Sarmatian, is divided into the Bohemian, Croatian, Vandalian, Raſcian, and Ruſſian dialects. The Walachian tongue is allied to the Italian, and formed by a mixture of Latin and Sclavonic. The Latin is not only ſpoken by the literati and gentry, but alſo by the commonalty. The Zingarians have a ſpeech compoſed of a corruption of the Hungarian, Sclavonic, Walachian, and other languages.

The Hungarians are well proportioned, of a good ſtature, and have tolerable complexions. On their heads they wear fur caps, and they have cloſe-bodied coats girt about them with a ſaſh, over which they wear a kind of cloak or mantle, that comes no lower than the hips, and is ſo contrived as to buckle under one arm, that the right hand may be always at liberty. The colours they moſt affect in their cloaths are red, green, and blue, the latter of which is moſt common. The men ſhave their beards, but leave whiſkers on the upper lip; and beſides a broad ſword, the uſual arms of an Hungarian are, an iron mace with a round head, and a kind of hatchet. The young gentlemen have frequently feathers in their caps.

The Hungarian ladies are much handſomer than thoſe of Auſtria; and the beauties of Vienna chiefly come from this country. They are generally very fair and well ſhaped, and their dreſs extremely becoming. The lady Wortley Montague deſcribes one of theſe ladies, as in a gown of ſcarlet velvet, lined and faced with ſables, and made exact to her ſhape, the ſkirt falling to her feet. The ſleeves are ſtraight to their arms, and the ſtays buttoned before with two rows of little buttons of gold, pearl, or diamonds. On their heads they wear a taſſel of gold, that hangs low on one ſide, lined with ſables, or ſome other fine fur; and their behaviour is extremely polite and agreeable.

The women's dreſs in the mine-towns is not unbecoming; they wear knots of ribbons on their ſhift ſleeves, and others hanging down their backs, but the peaſants and lower ſort of people dreſs very meanly. Among the latter, the men are very fond of wearing a furred mantle, and their dreſs is generally no more than a plain ſheep's ſkin, with a cap and boots of the ſame. Moſt of the women have boots, and many of them a long furred gown: they have a kind of ſhifts of very coarſe linen next their ſkin, with a girdle round it at the waiſt; and their head-dreſs is a piece of white linen with two lappets hanging down behind.

In the towns of Hungary the entertainment travellers meet with is not to be found fault with; but in the country it is frequently ſo bad, that beſides the want of good proviſions, there is ſcarce ſtraw to lie upon; and where beds are to be had, they are ſo ſhort, that one would think

think the Hungarians ſlept in the poſture in which they ride. They generally keep hogs, of which they make bacon, which is the common food of the Hungarian peaſants. The hogs, geeſe, and fowls, live in the ſame apartment with their owners.

As Hungary is plentifully watered with fine rivers, the uſual way of travelling in ſummer is by water; and where they have not this convenience, an open chariot drawn by two, three, or four horſes a-breaſt, carries the traveller with great expedition over this flat country. As the air is extremely cold in winter, notwithſtanding its ſouthern ſituation, travellers in that ſeaſon have a coach fixed upon a ſledge, which is drawn by horſes with great expedition over the ice and ſnow. They have a very fleet breed of horſes for riding, and never dock the tails, which are conſidered as a great ornament. Where the roads lie through the woods, travellers are in danger from the wild beaſts, and eſpecially the wolves, which in ſome places are very numerous.

The moſt common diſtempers in Hungary are the gout, in its ſeveral ſpecies, and the fever; the laſt of which is even called the Hungarian ſickneſs. The firſt ſymptoms of this diſeaſe in Hungary are nodes or tubercles on the hands and arms, which if rubbed in time with vinegar, ſalt, and garlic, till they diſappear, an end is put to the progreſs of the diſeaſe. The plague alſo comes from Turky, and here ſpreads its contagion.

The burghers follow arts, manufactures, and trade, but the laſt is almoſt entirely engroſſed by the Greeks. From Hungary is exported excellent wine, and particularly tokay, ſaffron, oil, metals, minerals, cattle, leather, wool, tallow, and wax; and its imports are ſpices, tin, ſilk, velvets, cloths, and other foreign goods.

The pieces of coin current in Hungary, are, a heller, which in Upper Hungary goes for the ſixth part of a groſch, and in Lower Hungary for the fifth; a groſchel, the fourth part of a groſch; a kreutzer (a German coin) the third part of a groſch, and the ſixtieth of a Spaniſh gulden; the pulgrotz, half a groſch, and the fortieth of a gulden; the ſiebner, worth ſeven kreutzers; a ſiebentehner, worth ſeventeen kreutzers; a half gulden, worth two ſhillings and four-pence, Engliſh; an ungriſch gulden, worth ſeventeen groſchen and a half; a Rheniſh gulden, worth twenty groſchen, which, in Upper Hungary, are worth a hundred and twenty, and in Lower Hungary, a hundred ungriſch; a thaler is equal to two Rheniſh guldens; the ducats are of two ſorts, the Cremnitz ducat is worth four guilders four groſchen, but a Tranſylvanian goes only for three guilders, each guilder worth two ſhillings and four-pence, Engliſh.

SECT. III.

Of the Religion and Learning of the Hungarians.

THE Chriſtian religion was firſt eſtabliſhed in Hungary in the tenth century, when, in the year 969, or 975, Geyſa, prince of the country, was baptized; and this religion made great progreſs under his ſon and ſucceſſor Stephen, whoſe zeal gained him the title of apoſtle and ſaint.

In 1523, the Reformation began by Martin Cyriacus firſt preaching the doctrine of the goſpel in this country; but it had before made its way into Tranſylvania. From that time great numbers of Hungarians went to ſtudy in Germany, and at their return were conſidered as the diſciples of Luther. Soon after the opinions of Zuinglius, in relation to the ſacrament, were made known in Hungary, and a little after the ſentiments of Calvin were embraced by great numbers. But from the time Hungary became ſubject to the houſe of Auſtria, and the Jeſuits got footing in that kingdom, the proteſtants underwent many ſevere trials, eſpecially in the beginning of the ſeventeenth century. Under Ferdinand III. the proteſtants were deprived of ſeveral churches, and of more under the emperor Leopold, in whoſe time it was enacted at the diet of Sopron, or Oldenburg, that the reformed ſhould not poſſeſs more than two churches in each palatinate. Nor could their enemies reſt here till they had driven them out of all the churches that had not been expreſly mentioned in the twenty-ſixth article of the diet of Sopron, and accordingly above three hundred were actually taken from them. The Vandals too had ſix churches, and now are without ſo much as one place where divine worſhip is performed in their own language.

Mr. Keyſler obſerves, that ſix or ſeven thouſand of the inhabitants of Schemnitz, which conſtitute two-thirds of the city, profeſs Lutheraniſm, and yet the magiſtrates are always Romans; but at Cremnitz the magiſtracy is ſhared between the two religions, though no proteſtant is capable of employment in the imperial mines. In Upper Hungary he ſays the Lutherans are very numerous, eſpecially in the country, and yet in ſome places they are forcibly driven into the Romiſh churches like ſo many ſheep; but at Pilſen, which is not far from Schemnitz, the popiſh clergy and the proteſtant inhabitants are ſo conformable, that the prieſts read maſs in the churches belonging to the proteſtants, and theſe in their turn ſing Lutheran hymns in the Romiſh churches.

It is worthy of remark, that the proteſtants have generally more churches allowed them in thoſe countries that remain under the dominion of the Turks, than where they are ſubject to the emperor; for on paying the tribute impoſed on them, every one enjoys his own religion without moleſtation. Though the Romans ſcarcely conſtitute one-fourth of the inhabitants of Hungary in general, and do not pay above one-ſixth part of the taxes, they are inceſſantly contriving to impoſe new grievances on the reſt of their countrymen. The proteſtants are not poſſeſſed of a ſingle printing-preſs, either in Hungary or Tranſylvania; beſides, the importation of Bibles, and all books relating to the doctrinal points of their religion, are ſtrictly prohibited; and before an Hungarian ſtudent is permitted to go to a foreign univerſity, he muſt obtain a licence, or paſſport, from the Imperial governor of the country. Their ſchools are confined to the ſyntax, and no teachers of the ſciences allowed among them; except their being indulged ſince the year 1751 with a college at Oedenburg, and a ſeminary at Eperes.

At the head of the Romiſh church are two archbiſhops and nine biſhops, nominated by the queen, and confirmed by the pope. In Dalmatia, Croatia, and Sclavonia, none but the papiſts are qualified to hold lands. The Raſcians, Ruſſians, and Walachians, profeſs the Greek church, which has been tolerated ſince the year 1690, by the emperor Leopold and other kings. The Baptiſts and Mennoniſts are chiefly ſettled in the neighbourhood of Preſburgh; but the Jews are diſperſed in moſt of the conſiderable towns, though under the burthen of paying double taxes of all kinds.

Learning among the Romans is principally cultivated by the Jeſuits, who in the univerſities of Tirnau, Buda, Raab, and Caſchau, are the profeſſors of divinity, philoſophy, mathematics, rhetoric, and other ſciences, which they alſo teach in ſeveral colleges: but the *patres piarum ſcholarum* only teach polite literature. The Benedictines, Paulines, and other orders of monks apply themſelves after their manner to learning in their ſeveral convents. The Lutherans and Calviniſts, after having laid the foundation of the ſciences in their ſchools, go, if they can obtain a licence for that purpoſe, to the univerſities in Germany, Holland, and Switzerland: but very narrow bounds have been lately preſcribed to their ſtudies. The Chriſtians of the Greek church alſo begin to ſhew a greater inclination to learning than formerly. The law was antiently taught only in private; but at preſent there is a public profeſſor appointed for it in the univerſity of Tirnau, and even a particular college erected for that purpoſe at Erlau.

SECT. IV.

The Hiſtory of the Hungarians; the Manner in which their Kings were crowned; the Arms of Hungary; the States of the Kingdom; the public Offices, Forces, and Courts of Juſtice.

WE ſhall here give a conciſe view of the hiſtory of this country. It appears that its antient weſtern inhabitants were called Pannonians, and the northern Jazygians:

Jazygians: but the Romans, having reduced Pannonia, kept it almoſt four hundred years, till in the fourth century the Vandals drove them out of it, and held it forty years; but in 395, when they advanced towards Gaul, the Goths took poſſeſſion of their ſettlement; but theſe were alſo, in their turn, obliged to reſign their new poſſeſſions to the Huns, who had likewiſe driven them from their antient habitations.

In the year 888, the Huns, under the name of Hungarians, made a ſecond irruption into Pannonia, as auxiliaries to Arnulph emperor of the Weſt, and Leo emperor of the Eaſt, againſt the Bulgarians and Sclavonians, whom they reduced. They had ſeven commanders, and both Germany and Italy afterwards felt the terrible effects of their ferocity; but by degrees their manners became more civilized, eſpecially towards the latter end of the tenth century, when Geyſa, their prince, embraced the Chriſtian religion, and his ſon Stephen, in 997, became the firſt king of Hungary, and, as hath been already obſerved, completed the eſtabliſhment of that religion, annexed Tranſylvania as a province to Hungary, and after his death was canonized. After him followed a ſucceſſion of twenty kings, natives of the country, the laſt of whom was Andrew III. who died in the year 1301. On this followed a ſucceſſion of twelve foreign kings, the laſt of whom, who was Lewis II. fell in an unſucceſsful battle againſt the Turks. The kingdom next devolved to the houſe of Auſtria, under whom aroſe a moſt bloody inteſtine war, which laſted for a long time, in which the country was equally ravaged by the Turks and Auſtrians. In 1687 Hungary became an hereditary kingdom to the archducal houſe of Auſtria; and it was agreed at the diet in 1722, that in caſe of failure of male heirs, the princeſſes ſhould alſo ſucceed. Accordingly the emperor Charles VI. dying in the year 1740, his eldeſt daughter Maria Thereſa aſcended the throne, and was crowned in 1741. Her majeſty is conſort to the preſent emperor Francis Stephen, whom the ſtates of the kingdom, in 1741, alſo inveſted with the joint ſovereignty.

A late author obſerves, that the Hungarians have contended with their princes about their rights and privileges, till the Imperial eagle has decided the controverſy by devouring both, and left them only the ſhadow of their antient conſtitution; and that their ſtates or diet aſſemble like the parliament of France, for form ſake, or rather to record the arbitrary decrees of the emperor, and by ſigning their conſent to them, take off the odium of every deſtructive ſcheme from the court, and place it on themſelves: by which means their chains are probably now ſo firmly riveted, that their ſlavery will be everlaſting, unleſs another family ſhould be elected to the Imperial crown.

At the coronation of the Hungarian kings, the people antiently aſſembled in a plain called Rackes, near Peſt, where the biſhops, the nobility, and the repreſentatives of the ſeveral counties and cities, having unanimouſly approved of the perſon propoſed for their king, who was uſually the next in ſucceſſion; he was conducted to Stuhlwieſſenburg, or Alba Regalis, where he was preſented to the people by the palatine, who demanded three times whether they approved of the new elected king? and they having expreſſed their conſent, he put a drawn ſword into the hand of the new king, who brandiſhed it towards the eaſt, weſt, north, and ſouth. He was then attended to the great church, where the archbiſhop of Gran holding the royal robes in his hand, aſked the people if they were ſatisfied with the king elect, and were willing to become his ſubjects; and receiving an anſwer in the affirmative, he proceeded to perform the uſual rites obſerved at the coronation of their kings; after which the prelates and nobility carried the arms and other relics of king Stephen I. before the new king in a ſplendid proceſſion to the palace. The crown of Stephen is ſtill preſerved at Preſburg with great veneration, and no prince is allowed to be duly crowned with any other: the Hungarians in general believing that the fate of their nation depends on their carefully preſerving it, and therefore in all their calamities they have taken care to convey it to a place of ſafety; nor have the Turks been leſs follicitous to make themſelves maſters of it, from the opinion that the Hungarians would make no ſcruple of paying their allegiance to the grand ſeignior, could he but once cauſe king Stephen's crown to be placed on his head.

The kings of Hungary are by the laws ſtiled catholic and apoſtolic, on account of the zeal which Stephen I. ſhewed in the converſion of the Hungarians. The regalia, which conſiſt of the golden crown, made in the eleventh century, the ſceptre, king Stephen's ſword and mantle, gloves and ſhoes, with the ſilver croſs, the mark of his apoſtolic function, are kept in the caſtle of Preſburg; and in that city is ſtill performed the coronation of the king by the archbiſhop of Gran.

The arms of the kingdom are, a ſhield longitudinally divided; the right field gules, divided by four bars argent. The left quarter is alſo gules, with an archiepiſcopal croſs argent, ſtanding on a triple hill vert.

The ſtates of Hungary are divided into four claſſes.

To the firſt belong the prelates, who direct all religious matters, and precede all other perſons, except the governor of the kingdom, who gives place only to the archbiſhop of Gran. Theſe are the archbiſhops of Gran and Kolocza; the former is primate of Hungary, chief ſecretary and chancellor legate of the papal ſee, and prince of the holy Roman empire. He alone crowns the king or queen, is perpetual count of the Geſpanchaft, or county of Gran, creates even noblemen, and never takes an oath himſelf, but his official ſwears in his ſtead. Under him are the ſix biſhops of Erlau, Nitra, Raab, Vatz, Funfkirchen, and Veſzprim; to whom may alſo be added the Greek biſhops of Buda and Muncatz, who are united to the Roman church. Next to him is the archbiſhop of Kolocza, with the following ſuffragans: the biſhop of Bats, which is however annexed to the archbiſhopric of Great Waradin, Cſanad, Zagrab, Sirmia, Boſnia, Tranſylvania, and Bakow in Walachia. Theſe biſhops have a double character, and all of them, except the biſhop of Bats, are perpetual counts of the counties in which they reſide, and have alſo a ſeat in the diet. Beſides theſe are the abbots, who are ten in number, and nine probſts.

To the ſecond claſs belongs the magnates, or barons, the principal of whom are the great barons of the kingdom, who alſo hold the chief offices: theſe are the palatine, who is the principal, and in many caſes acts as ſovereign; the court judge; the ban or viceroy of Dalmatia, Croatia, and Sclavonia; the governor of Tranſylvania; the treaſurer; the great cup-bearer; the ſteward of the houſhold; the maſter of the horſe; the lord-chamberlain; the captain of the yeomen of the guards; and the grand marſhal of the court. To theſe may be added, the inferior ban, or counts, and barons.

To the third claſs belong the gentry, ſome of whom have noble manors, and others only the privileges of nobles.

To the fourth claſs belong the royal free cities, which are ſummoned to the diet, and are not ſubject to the counts, but hold immediately of the king, and have a council of their own, in which a city judge and burgomaſter uſually preſide.

The diet is ſummoned by writ from the ſovereign every three years, to meet whenever his majeſty's ſervice or the public welfare require it. Accordingly on the day appointed the lords ſpiritual and temporal perſonally appear in the chamber of the magiſtrates; but the towns and gentry ſend two deputies, who meet in the ſtates-chamber. The ſtates lay their repreſentations before the king or queen, who alſo refers to them ſuch articles of public concern as require their aſſent.

The public offices by which the government is adminiſtered are the following:

The Hungary office, which is at Vienna, and has a ſecretary of ſtate at its head. This office expedites the royal edicts in municipal, religious, and judicial affairs for Hungary, and the incorporated kingdoms of Croatia, Dalmatia, and Sclavonia. To this office belong all matters relating to the king, and wholly dependent on his pleaſure. All who ſtand in need of a perſonal audience

dience of the queen, muſt firſt acquaint this office with it. In other reſpects it has very little connection with the kingdom, its principal buſineſs being to execute the ſovereign's pleaſure.

The ſtadtholder's or governors council reſides at Preſburg, and, beſides the governor, who is preſident, conſiſts of twenty-two counſellors, whom the king chooſes at pleaſure from among the prelates, nobility, and gentry. In Hungary and the incorporated countries it ſuperintends the civil concerns of the towns as regulated by the laws of the land. It is ſubject to no other office; but when it has any thing to lay before the king applies immediately to his majeſty.

The royal exchequer is divided into the Hungarian and mine-chambers, and takes care of the royal eſtates, incomes, and dues. This exchequer is held at Preſburg, and has a preſident and eighteen counſellors. Under it is the office at Caſchaw, beſides eight provincial commiſſaries for collecting the contributions. The mine-chamber is held at Cremnitz, and manages all affairs belonging to mines and coinage. It receives orders from the treaſury at Vienna; and under it are the mine-chambers of Schemnitz, Neuſohl in the geſpanſchaft of Zip, and at Konigſberb.

The public revenues conſiſt of contributions, cuſtoms, mines, ſalt-works belonging to the crown royal domains, and eſcheats, which abundantly anſwer the expences of the court and defence of the frontiers.

The kingdom of Hungary can eaſily raiſe an army of a hundred thouſand men, keeping fifty thouſand in pay, and the provinces furniſhing the ſame number. Their horſe are denominated huſſars; theſe are extremely expert horſemen. They uſe very ſhort ſtirrups, and ſitting with their knees high, riſe up when they make a ſtroke with their ſcimitars, to give the greater force to their blows. Their horſes are fleet and well managed, but too ſmall; and in a regular engagement are far inferior to the Engliſh horſe, whoſe weight alone will bear them down.

Their foot are denominated heyducs, or foot huſſars; theſe brandiſhing their naked ſwords, put themſelves into a hundred terrible poſtures, advancing, retreating, turning, and winding about with great activity, ſinging all the while.

Juſtice is adminiſtered in civil affairs in the name of the ſovereign, after the manner preſcribed by the laws and cuſtoms of the kingdom. Suits are carried from the courts of the ſmaller towns, either to the court of the geſpanſchaft, or county, when it is a free town, or to the lord of the manor when it belongs to any particular lordſhip. In the royal free cities the firſt hearing is before the judge of the town, the ſecond before the council, from which there is an appeal to the treaſurer. The mine-court in the free mine towns is diſtinct from the town court, and takes cognizance of only ſuch affairs as relate to the mines: the mine judge preſides, but an appeal lies from him to the commiſſion-court of the mine towns.

Inferior noble courts are held by the lord of the manor in each county for determining cauſes relating to the commonalty, and where noblemen are concerned, by the court judges or judge of the nobles, and the vice-geſpan; but a cauſe may be carried from theſe to the county court, and afterwards to the *Tabula regia* and *ſeptemviralis*. The middle noble court meets at Tirnau, Guntz, Eperies, and Depretzen, and has the trial of all cauſes in which two or more counties are concerned, and may from thence be removed to the *Tabula regia* and *ſeptemviralis*. The upper noble court, which reſides at Peſt, is divided into the *Tabula regia* and the *Tabala ſeptemviralis*, and not only decides cauſes brought hither by appeal, but alſo other important ſuits relating to the nobility. In the firſt preſides the king's repreſentative; in the ſecond the count palatine, or, in his abſence, either the court judge or the treaſurer. The *Tabula ſeptemviralis* is thus called from its formerly conſiſting of ſeven perſons; but Charles VI. made an addition of eight more. It takes cognizance only of ſuch cauſes as are referred to it from the *Tabula regia* examining them, and making the neceſſary amendments.

SECT. V.

Of the Diviſions of Hungary, with a particular Account of Upper Hungary, a Deſcription of a remarkable Cavern, and of the principal Towns of that Diviſion.

HUNGARY Proper is divided into Upper and Lower Hungary; here ſome give the name of Upper Hungary to that part which lies between the Danube and Poland, and call that which lies below the Danube Lower Hungary; while others drawing a line from the county of Lip, to the junction of the Banat of Tameſwaer, and the county of Sirmi, call that part which lies to the eaſt of the line Upper Hungary, and that towards the weſt Lower Hungary. With reſpect to its government by the great juridical courts, it is divided into four large circles, and fifty-two geſpanſchafts, or counties, called by the Hungarians varmegye. Theſe counties are ſmall provinces under counts, viſcounts, and aſſeſſors, who in the name of the ſovereign hold provincial aſſemblies or diets.

We ſhall begin with Upper Hungary, which forms the eaſt part of the kingdom, and borders on Poland, Tranſylvania, and Walachia; conſiſting of two circles, that on this ſide the Teiſſe, and that on the farther ſide of that river. The former of theſe circles contains eleven counties, and is inhabited by Hungarians, Bohemians, Sclavonians, Germans, and Ruſſians.

The county of Sips is almoſt every where woody and mountainous, but is interſperſed, eſpecially towards the middle, with delightful plains, fruitful fields, paſtures, and rivers that abound in fiſh. The Carpathian mountains are here at their greateſt height: here are alſo ſeveral other remarkable mountains, among which are the Ochſenberg and the Konigſberg, or King's mountain, ſo called from king Matthias Corvinus, who in 1474 dined on its ſummit.

From theſe mountains iſſue the following rivers: the Popper, which runs from the lake of the ſame name in the weſtern part of the Carpathian mountains, and runs into the Dunavetz. This laſt river riſes in the northern ſummits of the Carpathian mountains, and at laſt diſcharges itſelf into the Viſtula. The Kundert, or Hernat, ſprings at the foot of Konigſberg, and runs into the Teiſſe. The Golnitz, which has its ſource in the mountain named Ochſenberg, and alſo falls into the former. Beſides theſe there are ſeveral rivers of leſs note.

The air is here cold, but very healthy; and though no wine be produced in this country, it abounds with corn, particularly wheat, barley, and peas; and the inhabitants raiſe flax.

The wild beaſts here are lynxes, bears, wild boars, wolves, foxes, ſtags, hares, chamois, and marmottes.

The inhabitants are not fond of mining, agriculture turning out more to their advantage.

One of the greateſt phænomenons in this circle is a wonderful cavern in a mountain in the neighbourhood of a village named Szelitze. The neighbouring country is hilly, and abounds with woods; and the air is ſharp and cold. The entrance of the above cavern, which fronts the ſouth, is eighteen fathoms high and eight broad, and conſequently wide enough to receive the ſouth wind, which here generally blows with great violence; but the ſubterranean paſſages, which conſiſt entirely of ſolid rock, winding round ſtretch away farther to the ſouth than has been yet diſcovered. As far as people have gone, the height is found to be fifty fathoms, and the breadth twenty-ſix; but the moſt unaccountable ſingularity is, that in the midſt of winter the air is warm in the inſide; and when the heat of the ſun without is ſcarce ſupportable, the cold within is not only very piercing, but ſo intenſe, that the top is covered with icicles of the ſize of a large caſk, which ſpreading into ramifications form very odd figures. When the ſnow melts in ſpring, the inſide of the cave, where its ſurface is expoſed to the ſouth ſun, emits a pellucid water, which immediately congeals as it drops, and thus forms the above icicles; and the very water that drops from them on the ground, which is ſandy, freezes in an inſtant. It is even obſerved,

that the greater the heat is without, the more intenſe is the cold within; ſo that in the dog-days all parts of this cavern are covered with ice, which the inhabitants uſe for cooling their liquors. In autumn, when the nights grow cold, and the heat of the day begins to abate, the ice in the cave begins to diſſolve, ſo that by winter no more ice is ſeen; the cavern then becomes perfectly dry, and has a mild warmth. At this time it is ſurpriſing to ſee the ſwarms of flies and gnats, bats and owls, and even of foxes and hares, that chooſe this for their winter retreat, till the beginning of ſpring, when the cold obliges them to quit their dwelling. Above the cavern the hill riſes to a very great height, and on the ſouthern ſide produces plenty of graſs.

Among the principal towns of this circle are,

Kaſmark, or Keſmark, a royal free town in the county of Sips, not far from the river Popper. It is defended by a wall and towers, and is one of the moſt antient places in Hungary. It has three churches, and at a ſmall diſtance from the town is a proteſtant oratory. It has been frequently taken during the civil wars, and has been ſeveral times burnt to the ground.

Leutſchau, Lotſe, or Lewotſe, is a royal free town, and the capital of the county of Sitz. It ſtands on a hill, and its walls, which are remarkably thick, are ſtrengthened by twelve towers. The church, which is dedicated to St. James, is a fine building. Here is a Jeſuits college, and a ſeminary for noblemen. The inhabitants are moſtly Germans: it has been ſeveral times ſacked, and frequently conſumed by fire.

Tokay, a pretty conſiderable town pleaſantly ſituated near the conflux of the Theis and Bodrug, in the county of Zemplin, and in forty-eight degrees ſixteen minutes north latitude. It had formerly a ſtrong caſtle and a ſeminary; but is moſt remarkable for its excellent wine, which in flavour and ſtrength exceeds all other wine produced in Hungary. The ſpot of land which yields this noble liquor is about ſeven miles in circumference; and, was all of it to be well cultivated, no part of Europe would be without the rich wine of Tokay.

Munkats is an almoſt impregnable caſtle, ſeated on a high and ſteep rock which riſes in a ſpacious plain, its natural ſtrength being increaſed by art and labour. It is the capital of a lordſhip, which formerly bore the title of a dutchy. Beneath it, on the river Latortza, is a town which is the reſidence of a Greek biſhop united to the Roman church, and has a convent of the order of St. Baſil. This famous caſtle ſurrendered to the Imperialiſts in 1688, after a blockade of three years. Count Tekely's lady, who had made this long defence, was carried to Vienna, and great ſums of money were found in the place.

Great Waradin is a metropolitan city in the county of Bihar, ſituated on the river Kows, in the forty-ſixth degree fifty-three minutes north latitude, and is ſurrounded with good fortifications. This place was formerly much celebrated for the relics of the canonized king Ladiſlaus, and is now the reſidence of a biſhop and chapter; and has alſo a college of Jeſuits. The adjoining fortreſs is a regular pentagon, well fortified and defended by a deep and broad moat. The town itſelf is not large, but has three ſuburbs of very conſiderable extent. It was taken by the Turks in 1660, but the Imperialiſts re-took it in 1692.

Temeſwaer is an important and ſtrong town, the capital of a county of the ſame name, ſeated in the forty-fifth degree fifty-four minutes north latitude, and in the twenty-ſecond degree fifteen minutes eaſt longitude. It was formerly eſteemed impregnable, it being ſeated in a moraſs, which renders it inacceſſible, unleſs it be dried up for want of rain. In 1551 the Turks made themſelves maſters of it; however, it was taken from them the very ſame year: but in 1552 it was again inveſted by the Turks, when the Imperial commandant, dreading their cruelty, ſet fire to the place, and then abandoned it; but the Turks, extinguiſhing the flames, took poſſeſſion of the fort, which they kept till the year 1595, when it was taken from them by the Tranſylvanians, who afterwards ſiding with the Turks, the Imperialiſts made themſelves maſters of it in 1603; but in 1614 it was loſt again: however it was taken in 1716 by prince Eugene in a dry ſeaſon, who threw ſeveral thouſand bombs into the place.

SECT. VI.

Of Lower Hungary, with an Account of the principal Places it contains.

LOWER Hungary conſiſts of the two following circles, that beyond the Danube, which ſtretches through the upper region towards the weſtern parts, and from the Danube to the Carpathian mountains; and the circle below the Danube. The former contains fourteen counties, inhabited by Hungarians, Bohemians, Sclavonians, Germans, and in one part by Servians.

In this circle is the county of Preſburg, which lies on the borders of Auſtria, between the Danube and Moravia. It is about ſixty-five miles in length, and forty-three in breadth. Its mountains begin the Carpathian chain. The country about Tirnau is the beſt and moſt fruitful; but the ſoil does not want fertility, though ſcarce a year paſſes in which the grain is not damaged by mildew.

The large rivers in this country are the Danube, Morau, and Wag. The air is healthy, particularly on the mountains, but unwholeſome among the moraſſes near the Danube. The inhabitants are Hungarians, Germans, Bohemians, Sclavonians, Croats, and a great number of Jews. The dignity of palatine was made hereditary in the year 1599, in the houſe of Palfi. The whole province is divided into five diſtricts, called by the Hungarians Proceſſus, and each has a noble judge.

The principal places of Lower Hungary are,

Preſburg, a royal free city, and the capital of the kingdom, ſeated on the Danube at the foot of a mountain, on which ſtands the caſtle; it is pleaſantly ſituated, and enjoys a better air than moſt of the other towns in Hungary. The cathedral, dedicated to St. Martin, is the place where (from the time of Ferdinand I.) the kings of Hungary have been crowned. Here the diets are held, and the treaſury office for Hungary kept. Here are alſo a chapter of fourteen regular canons, a Jeſuits college, with a ſeminary and church, beſides three other convents and churches, a Lutheran church, and a Proteſtant ſchool. This city is of great antiquity, but is ill built, and the houſes of the town, properly ſo called, do not much exceed two hundred, which are encompaſſed by a double wall and moat; but the ſuburbs, which are large and handſome, contain four convents, with their churches, and two hoſpitals. The ſuburb on the ſouth ſide of the city makes a fine appearance, and is famous for the King's hill, on which every new elected king, being ſeated on horſeback, brandiſhes St. Stephen's ſword towards the four cardinal points, to ſhew that he will defend the country againſt all its enemies. It is ſituated in the forty-eighth degree eight minutes, north latitude, and in the ſeventeenth degree thirty-ſix minutes, eaſt longitude. Beſides its frequent ſieges, it has often ſuffered by fire. Preſburg caſtle ſtands on a pleaſant eminence, two hundred paces to the weſt of the city: it is of a quadrangular form, with four towers exactly alike at the corners. As the ſovereign, when here, reſides in this caſtle, there are in ſome of the apartments the hiſtory of Ferdinand II. with inſtances of his virtues, painted by eminent hands. In every one of theſe pieces, which are all on religious ſubjects, is ſeen an exact reſemblance of the emperor's face. The crown, and other regalia of Hungary, are kept in the above towers, but are never ſhewn. In the armoury are ſeveral ancient arms, both offenſive and defenſive, with ſome old machines uſed in aſſaults. The proſpect from the caſtle is extremely delightful, eſpecially over the vaſt plain, towards Lower Hungary and Belgrade. Below the caſtle is a ſmall town, called by the Hungarians Varalja, and by the Germans Schloſsberg, in which are a great many Jews.

The county of Lipto is about thirty-eight miles in length, and about eight broad; it is every where full of moun-

mountains, which are not only ſaid to be higher than the Alps, but alſo to ſurpaſs them in curioſities and ſubjects of admiration. Its rocks are indeed aſtoniſhing, particularly thoſe of Derminfalo, one of which, called Benikova, is perpendicular, and three thouſand paces in height. In theſe rocks are ſeveral vaſt natural caverns, with multitudes of ſtrange figures formed by the petrified water: bones of an uncommon ſize are alſo found here, differently ſhaped, and even larger than thoſe of horned cattle or horſes.

The chief rivers are the Wag and the Biela. There are a multitude of freſh ſprings in this diſtrict, ſome of which are mineral and medicinal; and there are other waters of different kinds that are very remarkable. The exhalations from thoſe of Szentivan and Stamkowan ſuffocate birds in their flight over them. The nature of the country admits of very little tillage, and grazing is alſo inconſiderable, though its cheeſes are very famous. This country abounds greatly in metals, particularly the Botſa mountains, which contain mines of gold and ſilver, ſome of iron, antimony, nitre, and other minerals; but it has no towns worthy of notice.

In the county of Altſohl, which abounds in valuable ores and minerals, is Herrengrund, which has the appearance of a town lying among the tops of mountains; and all its inhabitants are miners. It is famous for its vaſt copper works and its vitriol, by which iron is apparently turned into copper, and ſeveral hundred weight of iron are thus changed every year. The vitriol indeed does not properly transform the iron into copper, but inſinuates into it the copper particles with which it is ſaturated; and this ſeeming tranſmutation requires only a fortnight or three weeks; but if the iron be ſuffered to lie too long in this vitriolic liquor, it becomes at laſt reduced to powder.

In this diſtrict is Neuſohl, a royal free town, and the beſt of the mine towns. It is ſituated on the river Gran, and built pretty much in the Saxon manner. It has ſix churches, a Jeſuits college and ſchool, and has a weekly market. It is famous for the copper ore in the adjacent mountains; but though proviſions here are good and cheap, the ſmelting works give the air an unhealthy taint. Upon a hill on the north ſide of the town is the caſtle, which is a ſtrong place, and has two churches.

In this county is alſo the village of Ribar, celebrated for the warm baths on a hill in its neighbourhood. About ſix hundred paces from it, towards the ſouth, in a fine meadow which makes part of a moſt delightful valley, is an aperture long noted for its noxious effluvia, which ſeem to be ſulphureous, and kill both beaſts and birds. The ſtream guſhes out with great impetuoſity, and yet immediately after is abſorbed in the aperture. Theſe effluvia are however not poiſonous; for the water may be drank, and the dead beaſts and fowls killed by it, ſafely eaten. Not far from this ſtream is a mineral ſpring.

The county of Bars is about thirty-eight miles long, and about twelve broad. Its chief rivers are the Gran, the Nitra, and the Sitva, or Zitawa. Here are the moſt famous hot baths in all Hungary, and rich mines. The country affords good wine, and the level parts grain. Few cattle are bred in the mountains except ſheep. The inhabitants conſiſt of Hungarians, Bohemians, Sclavonians, and Germans.

In this county is Cremnitz, the principal mine town, which is ſituated in the forty-eighth degree fifty-two minutes north latitude, and in the 19th degree twenty-one minutes eaſt longitude from London; lying in a deep valley between high mountains, ſo that it cannot be ſeen till one is juſt upon it. The town of itſelf is an inconſiderable place, though it has two churches, a Franciſcan convent, and a caſtle; for it has not above thirty houſes; but the ſuburbs, which are much larger, conſiſt of nine ſtreets, with a church and an alms-houſe. In this town the king has a revenue office, with a director, receiver, book-keeper, and other officers. Here is a mint, to which all the other mine towns bring their gold and ſilver. It is computed to coin every year about an hundred thouſand ducats. The mine country in its neighbourhood is divided into the After and Fore Mint; the former containing ſeven mines, and the latter two; but all the nine belong to the king. There are alſo mines which belong to the town in general, and to private perſons; but at preſent they are all ſo exhauſted, that the gold obtained from them ſcarce anſwers the expence. On a hill near the town is a caſtle with a church. The unwholſomeneſs of the air and water occaſions a great deal of illneſs among the common people. In the year 1751, the emperor Francis I. went down a very deep ſhaft, in the garb of a miner, and is the only inſtance of a prince taking ſuch pains to gratify his curioſity.

In the county of Hont is Schemnitz, a pretty large and populous town, in a long valley, the houſes of which ſtand ſcattered a conſiderable way up the acclivity on both ſides. The proteſtant inhabitants, who amount to about two-thirds of the town, are between ſix and ſeven thouſand in number. In the largeneſs and number of its mine-works, this town ſurpaſſes all the others in Hungary. It has two caſtles, two churches, two chapels, and a college of Jeſuits, with a royal mine-office; and is the reſidence of a chief commiſſioner. The gold and ſilver mines here ſtill produce a conſiderable quantity of ore, which contains more and better gold than that of Cremnitz. Mr. Keyſler obſerves, that he went down an hundred and fifty fathoms in a ſhaft without the leaſt danger, being buckled up in a kind of leather chair, after which he deſcended about fifteen fathoms deeper, by means of a ladder. He adds, that it would require three or four days to walk through all the paſſages of this mine; that the number of labourers employed in it amount to five or ſix thouſand men, and thoſe without, together with the carpenters, &c. are computed at two thouſand, excluſive of thoſe employed about the carriages. The profits are, however, ſaid to be not near ſo conſiderable as formerly.

In the above mines are alſo found cryſtals, amethyſts, and vitriol naturally cryſtalized. At a ſmall diſtance is a rock, in which is found a red ſubſtance, called cinnabar of ſilver, of which is made a fine vermillion; and near the town is alſo a high perpendicular rock, part of which is of a ſhining blue, with green and yellow ſpots.

The county of Pilis is incorporated with that of Peſt. Amidſt its mountains and woods is a large plain, which lies between the Danube and Theis, but is for the moſt part ſandy and barren. The principal river is the Danube, and the ſmaller are the Galga, Tapjo, Kakos, Vajas, Theis, and Zagyva. In the mountainous parts the winters are cold, and the ſummers temperate; but in the large plains, the winters are ſevere, and the ſummers intolerably hot: the warm days are then ſucceeded by very cold nights: good water is extremely ſcarce; and the gnats are very troubleſome both to man and beaſt. In the mountainous parts is produced an excellent kind of red and white wine; but no corn can be raiſed in the ſandy ſoil. The deſart plains, however, afford good paſturage for cattle, where they wander at large. The whole province is divided into four diſtricts, the principal towns in which are the following:

Peſt, a royal free town in a plain on the Danube, over againſt Buda, to which is a paſſage in ſummer by a bridge of boats. In this city is the ſupreme court of appeal, alſo a large military hoſpital, built with ſtone, two hundred paces ſquare, and three ſtories high; ſix convents, and ſeveral churches. In the years 1526, and 1541, it was taken by the Turks, who held it till 1602, when it was recovered by the Hungarians; but the following year, being abandoned through fear, it once more fell into the hands of the Turks, who in 1684, ſet it on fire, and then marched to Buda; upon this the Imperialiſts took poſſeſſion of the town, but abandoned it again, and did not return till two years after, when the inhabitants were reduced to great diſtreſs.

Vaitz is a populous epiſcopal city, pleaſantly ſituated on the Danube. Beſides the houſes belonging to the biſhop, here are three convents, and a ſeminary. The city chiefly owes its proſperity to its great annual fair, and beaſt market. It has been frequently deſtroyed by fire, and ſeveral times taken by the Turks and Imperialiſts.

Buda is the name both of an old and new city, ſituated in the forty-ſeventh degree forty minutes north latitude,

latitude, and in the nineteenth degree twenty minutes eaſt longitude. Old Buda is ſituated in a plain which extends from the ſuburbs of New Buda to the Pilis mountains and the Danube, and at preſent is a mean place; in which are ſeen the deſolate ruins of the old city, with ſeveral Roman monuments. New Buda was built by Bela IV. and is a royal free town, ſeated on a mountain by the Danube. It was formerly the capital of the kingdom, the reſidence of the king, and the largeſt and fineſt of all the Hungarian towns; but has been much reduced by its being frequently beſieged, taken, and deſtroyed. The principal church is that of the Virgin Mary, near which the Jeſuits have an academical college and ſeminary. The Carmelite nuns of St. Clare have convents here, and the Franciſcans have ſeveral churches. The city is ſurrounded with walls and moats, and is well fortified; near it ſtands a ſtrong caſtle. The palace of the Hungarian kings was reckoned a moſt beautiful building, but it is entirely deſtroyed. It has three ſuburbs; in that called Neuſtiſt is only one church, together with a pillar fifty-two feet high, which in 1690 was dedicated to the Holy Trinity, to commemorate a deliverance from a peſtilence, which ceaſed in 1715. In the ſuburb called the Waſſerſtadt, or Water-Town, which lies on the Danube, are two churches and one convent; and on the hill is Reiſenſtadt, in which is a Ruſſian Greek church. Lady Wortly Montague, who was there in the year 1717, ſays, that without the walls lie a vaſt number of little houſes, or rather huts, called the Raſcian Town, from its being entirely inhabited by that people. The houſes ſtand in rows, and appear at a diſtance like old-faſhioned thatched tents, each conſiſting of one hovel above, and another under-ground. Theſe are their ſummer and winter apartments.

In the ſuburbs of Waſſerſtadt and Reiſenſtadt are five warm baths; the principal of which, called the Emperor's, is built ſomewhat in the manner of the Rotunda at Rome, with a large aperture in the centre of the dome, beſides ſeveral ſmall holes or windows round the cupola for admitting more light. In a large bath in the centre of the other four, both ſexes publickly bathe together, the men wearing only a kind of drawers, and the women what they term a ſore-ſhift; but the common people, for whom one of the other baths is appointed, look upon even this ſlight covering as ſuperfluous. There is alſo a pond of mineral water, which has this ſurpriſing property, that when the water is wholly turned off, the water-ſprings ceaſe flowing, but when the pond is a little above half full, they return again. The wine produced on the neighbouring hills is red, and of a very good ſort. Here are alſo excellent melons, which are ſold for the value of a penny a piece.

Buda was firſt taken by Solyman the Magnificent, in 1526, and loſt the following year to Ferdinand I. king of Bohemia. Solyman regained it by the treachery of the garriſon, and voluntarily gave it up to king John of Hungary; after whoſe death, his ſon being an infant, Ferdinand laid ſiege to it, and the queen-mother was forced to call Solyman to her aid, who indeed raiſed the ſiege, but left a Turkiſh garriſon in the town, and commanded her to remove her court from thence, to which ſhe was forced to ſubmit. It afterwards reſiſted the ſieges laid to it by the marquis of Brandenburg, in the year 1542; by count Schwartzenburg, in 1596; by general Roſworm, in 1602; and by the duke of Lorrain, commander of the emperor's forces, in 1684, to whom it yielded in 1686, after an obſtinate defence; Apti Baſha, the governor, being killed, fighting with the utmoſt bravery in the breach. The loſs of this town was of ſuch importance, and ſo much reſented by the Turks, that it occaſioned their depoſing of their emperor Mahomet IV. the year following.

About a mile and a half below Buda is the iſland of Eſepel, in the midſt of the Danube, and ſurrounded on both ſides by ſmall iſlands, among which the Pheaſant iſland is particularly remarkable, and is a thouſand paces long, and covered with wood. The iſland of Ujvalviſiſche is twenty-ſeven miles in length, and has a ruined church, ſaid to have been built by St. Margaret. This iſland is not very fruitful, but it abounds with game, and has great plenty of hares. Near the iſland of Eſepel a promontory, covered with woods and vines, projects into the river; and in its neighbourhood is a pleaſant and fruitful plain, about five miles in circumference, containing the ſeat of prince Eugene, who often reſided here, and had a breed of Arabian ſheep; and on this plain are ſcattered ſeveral farm houſes.

We now come to the other circle of Lower Hungary, which is that below the Danube, containing twelve counties, and is inhabited by Hungarians, intermixed with Croats, Raſcians, and ſome Sclavonians. The principal places in this circle are,

Œdenburg, Edenburg, or Sopron, a royal free town in the county of the ſame name, and though not very large is well built, populous, and has extenſive ſuburbs. The inhabitants apply themſelves with great induſtry to the cultivation of vineyards, and the wine is accordingly remarkable for its goodneſs. Here is a Jeſuits college, and a Lutheran ſchool. Among the diets which have been held here, that in 1681 is remarkable for the free exerciſe of religion granted to the proteſtants by the emperor Leopold.

Raab, which was made a royal free city ſo lately as the year 1742, is an ancient and ſtrong fortreſs, ſituated in a pleaſant country at the conflux of the Danube, the Raab, and Rabnitz, by which it is encompaſſed. Its houſes are all built with ſtone, the ſtreets are large and ſtraight, and it has a biſhop, a chapter, and an univerſity, the profeſſors in which are Jeſuits. The fortifications of the city and caſtle are chiefly the work of the emperors Ferdinand I. and Maximilian II. and it has always a ſtrong garriſon well provided with military ſtores. In the year 1529 the garriſon, for fear of the Turks, firſt ſet fire to the caſtle, and then abandoned the city. In 1566 it was burnt to the ground. In 1594 it was by agreement delivered up to the Turks, from whom it was afterwards recovered by ſtratagem, by count Adolphus of Swartzenburg. In 1749 the churches and ſchools of the Lutherans and reformed were ſuppreſſed.

The city of Gran, the capital of the county of the ſame name, is ſituated in a delightful country at the conflux of the river Gran with the Danube, in the forty-eighth degree twenty-one minutes north latitude, and in the eighteenth degree forty-ſix minutes eaſt longitude. This city was formerly the reſidence of the primate of Hungary, and had alſo a chapter, which is removed to Tirnau; and the archbiſhop reſides at Preſburg. There is here a Jeſuits college and ſchool. The city of Gran properly conſiſts of a royal free town, the caſtle, which is ſituated on a high rock, and in which is the cathedral; the Waſſerſtadt, which lies on the Danube; with the Raſcian town, Thomeſberg, and Jungerſtadt: all which are fortified ſo as to be a mutual defence to each other. King Stephen was born here in the year 909, and buried in the cathedral built by himſelf. In 1543 the city was for the firſt time taken by the Turks; but in 1596 it was taken from them by the Imperialiſts. On this occaſion Sir Thomas Arundel, of Wardour-caſtle, for his ſignal bravery in ſtorming the water-tower, and pulling down the Turkiſh banner, &c. was created a count of the empire by the emperor Rodolph, and afterwards king James I. made him a baron of England, which honours are ſtill enjoyed by his poſterity. The Turks beſieged it in vain in the year 1604; but the following year they obliged the city to ſurrender, and kept it till 1683, when, after the defeat of their army before Vienna by John Sobieſki, the Imperialiſts once more recovered it, and afterwards defended it againſt the Turks, who laid ſiege to it in 1685, but were entirely defeated by the dukes of Lorrain and Bavaria, and it is ſtill ſubject to the houſe of Auſtria.

Comorra is ſituated in the iſland of Schutt, at the conflux of the Wag and the Danube. In this town is the court-houſe of the county, with a Jeſuits college and ſchool; and near it is an impregnable fortification, ſurrounded on the weſt with deep moats, and on the north and ſouth by the Danube and Wag, which meet to the ſouthward. It was built by Ferdinand I. and it is remarkable that it never fell into the hands of the Turks.

SECT.

SECT. VII.

Of TRANSYLVANIA.

Its Names, Situation, Extent, Climate, Mountains, Rivers, Minerals, Plants, and Animals.

THE country now known by the name of Tranſylvania was a part of the antient Dacia, and derived its preſent name from its lying behind the foreſts with which the Carpathian mountains are ſurrounded; and for the ſame reaſon the Hungarians call it Erdely, which ſignifies a woody mountainous country. The Germans give it the name of Siebenburgen, from ſeven celebrated forts, or caſtles, by which it is defended. Tranſylvania is bounded on the north by Moldavia, Poland, and Hungury; on the eaſt by Moldavia; on the ſouth by Walachia, and the bannat of Temeſwar; and on the weſt by Hungary; extending from forty-five degrees thirty minutes to forty-eight degrees ten minutes north latitude, and from twenty-two to twenty-five degrees eaſt longitude, and is about a hundred and ſeventy miles in length, and a hundred and twenty in breadth.

This country is on all ſides environed with mountains, whence it enjoys temperate air, and ſprings of excellent water; and though it is both mountainous and woody, yet its fields are ſo rich and fertile, that it is deſtitute of none of the neceſſaries, and few of the luxuries of life. The mountains of Tranſylvania run from north to ſouth, branching out likewiſe eaſt and weſt, and terminating in the center of the country in hills, cloathed with vineyards and rich in mines. The former are ſituated in the ſouthern parts of the country; but in ſome places the grapes are prevented from being thoroughly ripened by the northerly blaſts. In ſeveral of the mountains metals and minerals are found, while others yield rock-ſalt. There are here medicinal ſprings, ſome of which are warm, others cold, and others ſulphureous.

The chief rivers are the Samos, the Maros, which traverſes the middle of the country, and the Aluta, which riſes at the foot of the Carpathian mountains, and runs into Walachia.

The minerals of this country are gold, ſilver, copper, iron, quickſilver, cinnabar, ſolar antimony, ſulphur, vitriol, rock-ſalt, ſalt-petre, red oker, and chalk, which are exported from hence to Hungary.

Tranſylvania produces medicinal herbs, grain, pulſe, vines, and ſeveral kinds of fruit-trees, with wood fit for timber. The ſoil is indeed extremely fruitful. The wheat is eſteemed the beſt in Europe, and ſo plentiful, that the peaſants eat no other bread: but their ſoil is leſs fit for barley, and therefore they brew but little beer; this defect, however, is ſupplyed with plenty of good wine, which is little inferior to that of Hungary.

In the meadows and paſtures they feed vaſt herds of large oxen, which are there extremely cheap. They have alſo ſheep, and a good breed of horſes. Their foreſts abound with many kinds of wild beaſts, particularly buffaloes, elks, deer, wild boars, hares, which are much larger, and have a more valuable fur than ours; wild horſes of incredible ſwiftneſs, whoſe manes hang down almoſt to the ground; ſome parts of the country are infeſted with wolves and bears, which in winter do great miſchief among the cattle: there are alſo wild aſſes, lynxes, chamois, martens, ermines, and beavers. The woods afford plenty of bees and honey, with which they make a ſort of mead that is highly valued; the honey being mixed with ſeveral other pleaſant ingredients.

SECT. VIII.

Of the different Nations who inhabit Tranſylvania; their Religion, Learning, Government, Arms, Forces, Revenue, and Adminiſtration of Juſtice.

WITH reſpect to the various nations who inhabit Tranſylvania, theſe are Hungarians, who in their natural genius, underſtanding, diſpoſition, and language, reſemble the natives of the country; the Siculi, a people deſcended from the Scythian Huns, and formerly enjoyed ſome particular privileges on account of their antiquity; but theſe have been gradually aboliſhed: they ſpeak the Hungarian language, but their pronunciation is broad, and they alſo retain ſome old Hun words: the Saxons, who are partly the remains of the Gepidi, and partly the deſcendants of thoſe Saxons who in 1154 entered the country: theſe ſtiffly adhere to their natural diſpoſition and antient cuſtoms, which are widely different from thoſe of the two above-mentioned nations, but reſemble the modern Hungarians, and like them apply themſelves to learning, war, arts, and trade. Their language agrees with that ſpoken in Lower Saxony. Theſe are the principal people of this country, and the reſt, who are eſteemed foreigners, muſt unite with one of the above nations.

Thoſe whom they thus call foreigners are the Germans, who ſpeak the ſame language as the other natives of Germany, but a different one from that of the Saxons: the Walachians, the deſcendants of the antient Roman colonies, who therefore ſtile themſelves Romanius, that is, Romans. Their language conſiſts of a great deal of Latin, corrupted with a mixture of the Sclavonian. Theſe reſemble the Romans in their dreſs and diet, and are fond of the Italian language; the waywodes have their phyſicians and ſecretaries from Italy, and the few who apply themſelves to literature go to the univerſity of Padua. They reſide in the mountainous parts of the country, and wholly apply themſelves to agriculture. From their firſt embracing the Chriſtian religion, they have profeſſed themſelves of the Greek communion; but ſince Tranſylvania became ſubject to the houſe of Auſtria, the Jeſuits have been perpetually endeavouring to unite them to the Romiſh church, under the ambiguous title of the *Græci ritus Uniti*. The qualifications of the Walachian clergy barely conſiſt in their being able to read and ſing; and when any of them would ſhine, he makes a tour to Buchereſt in Walachia, where he learns to be polite, and to ſpeak in an ornamental ſtile; but returns in other reſpects as illiterate as he went. The common people among the Walachians are ſaid to be ſo ignorant, that ſcarce one in twenty of them can repeat the Lord's Prayer. The others are Armenians, who have a particular language, and chiefly apply themſelves to trade, Raſcians, Bulgarians, Greeks, and Jews.

The Hungarians, the Siculi, and a few Saxons, are of the Romiſh church, and have ſome rites and privileges in common with that church in Hungary: theſe are under a biſhop who reſides at Weiſſenburg, and is ſubordinate to the archbiſhop of Colotza. The reformed, who conſiſt of the Hungarians and Siculi, have a ſuperintendant, who by the laws of the kingdom is the ſecond in rank. The proteſtant Lutheran church, which conſiſts of Saxons and a few Hungarians, is divided into nine chapters, and governed by a biſhop. This church, with reſpect to the number of its members, is ſo ſuperior, that there are reckoned twenty-five proteſtants to one catholic. The Socinians, or Unitarians, were formerly the prevailing ſect; but at preſent they are greatly dwindled, though they have ſtill a ſuperintendant. Theſe four churches are eſtabliſhed by the laws of the kingdom. The Greek religion, profeſſed by the Walachians and Greeks, has particular privileges granted by the prince of the country, as well thoſe who are united to the Romiſh church, as thoſe who diſſent from it. Over the former is a biſhop, who has prieſts under him; but the latter is ſubject, in eccleſiaſtical affairs, to the biſhops of Walachia; and under theſe alſo are the Armenians, ſome of whom differ, in point of public worſhip, from the Greeks, while others acknowledge the church of Rome.

With reſpect to the ſtate of learning in this country, the catholics have a college of Jeſuits at Clauſenburg, and ſeveral ſeminaries. The different ſects of proteſtants have likewiſe ſeminaries and ſchools, in which the elements of the ſciences are taught; after which, ſuch ſtudents as are of the reformed religion go to Swiſſerland and Holland, but the Saxons are ſent to ſtudy in Germany.

The government of Tranſylvania is entirely different from that of Hungary, and by the joint conſent of prince and people, is formed into an ariſtocratical government,

which ſince the year 1722 has been hereditary to the princes and princeſſes of the houſe of Auſtria. Formerly the prince of Tranſylvania ſucceeded to the government by a free election; but ſince the above period, by inheritance; and though his power is connected with that of the king of Hungary and the arch-duke of Auſtria, yet his government and privileges differ from both.

The principality of Tranſylvania is governed in the name of prince and nobility, by the diet, the office of ſtate, the royal government, the exchequer, the aſſembly of Hungarian counts, the tribunals of juſtice, and the magiſtrates of the Saxons and Siculi.

The diets meet at Hermanſtadt, by ſummons from the prince, and are divided into the upper and lower table: at the upper table ſits the government, with the prelates, counts, and barons: at the lower, the king's council, with the deputies of the Hungarian counts, the tribunals of the Siculi and royal Saxons; and at each ſits a preſident, who repreſents the ſovereign, and lays the king's intentions and propoſals before the ſtates.

The Tranſylvania office, which draws up and ſends away the prince's orders, is held at Vienna, and, with reſpect to public affairs, has not the leaſt connection either with thoſe of Auſtria or Hungary.

The royal government reſides at Hermanſtadt, and ſuperintends both the temporal and ſpiritual affairs of the principality. At its head is a governor with the counſellors of the three nations, and alſo of the three religions, the Romans, the Calviniſts, and the Lutherans.

The exchequer is divided into the Tranſylvania and mine-office. The former is held at Hermanſtadt, and that of the latter at Abrug-Banya.

The arms of Tranſylvania are divided into three parts, by two indentations diverging downwards. In the firſt are ſeven Hungarian caſtles in a field or; in the ſecond, in a field gules, the eagle of the Siculi; and in the third, the Saxon ſun and moon in a field gules.

Tranſylvania could formerly bring from eighty to ninety thouſand men into the field; but at preſent the whole force of that principality conſiſts of ſix regiments, under a commander in chief, for the defence of the country.

The revenue of Tranſylvania riſes from contributions, cuſtoms, metals, minerals, rock-ſalt, royal domains, eſcheats, and confiſcations, and are levied by the treaſury.

With reſpect to the adminiſtration of juſtice, civil cauſes are tried in the prince's name, in the ſuperior and inferior courts; and each of the three nations has its particular court. In the royal free towns which belong to the Saxons, the cauſes of the burghers are firſt heard before the judge of the town, and afterwards diſcuſſed by the town council, from which there lies an appeal to the meetings of the towns, when they hold the national court; and from this court an appeal lies to the *Tabula regia*. In the Hungarian counties, the cauſes of the gentry are firſt tried by their judge, and then brought before the whole body of the nobility; from whom alſo lies an appeal to the *Tabula regia*. In the courts of the Siculi, who have their peculiar cuſtoms and privileges, cauſes are firſt heard before the king's judge, and in dubious caſes carried up to the king's lieutenant, and from him to the *Tabula regia*. This *Tabula regia*, or royal table, is the chief court of juſtice, and has a preſident with prothonotaries and aſſeſſors; yet even from this board cauſes may be carried up to the government, and from thence removed to the ſovereign.

In affairs relating to the church, there is only one court, which is held at the reſidence of the biſhop of Tranſylvania, from whom appeals lie to the metropolitan, from him to the pope's nuncio, and from thence to the court of Rome.

SECT. IX.

A conciſe Deſcription of the principal Places in Tranſylvania.

THE whole country of Tranſylvania is divided into ſeven Hungarian counties; the territory of the Siculi, which is ſubdivided into ſeven tribunals; and the royal country of the Saxons, which conſiſts of five diſtricts. The principal places in Tranſylvania are,

Clauſenburg, which is ſeated on a plain by the rivulet of Samos, near the foot of a mountain, in the forty-ſeventh degree fourteen minutes north latitude. This is a large populous town, that has many houſes of ſtone, and ſtrong walls fortified with towers. Over the Portina gate is ſtill to be ſeen an inſcription in honour of the emperor Trajan. The Jeſuits have a college here, and the reformed a ſeminary, as have alſo the Socinians, who are very numerous. Till the year 1603, they were in poſſeſſion of the cathedral, which was taken from them, and given to the Jeſuits, whoſe church and college they had pulled down. This town has been ſeveral times beſieged and taken.

Hermanſtadt, by the natives called Zeben, is the capital of Tranſylvania, ſituated in that part called the royal country of the Saxons, in the forty-ſixth degree fifty-one minutes north latitude, and the twenty-fifth degree one minute eaſt longitude. It ſtands in a plain, and is large and well built, and is defended by a double wall and deep moat. This is the principal place of the Saxon colony; and it is governed by the royal chamber, the tribunal of appeals, and the diet; beſides which, the general and royal governor of the Saxon nation reſide here. The air is however unwholſome, and produces the gout; ſo that many of the fineſt buildings are uninhabited. The houſes within the gates are moſtly well built, and covered with ſlates, which in this country is reckoned an extraordinary piece of magnificence. Beſides ſeveral good ſprings in and about the place, the river water is conveyed through every ſtreet by little canals. This city is a granary for the whole principality. Its principal trade conſiſts in cloth and mead, made here in great quantities for exportation into the neighbouring countries. This city had formerly a conſiderable trade with Greece, which they loſt during the wars; but it has greatly declined on account of the perſecution the inhabitants have ſuffered, and the ſeverity of the government.

Weiſſemburg, or Carlſburg, is a ſtrong well built town, ſituated on a riſing ground, from whence, for about two miles round, there is a moſt delightful proſpect of a fruitful country, amidſt corn-fields and eminences covered with vines. It is watered by the gentle ſtreams of the rivers Ompay and Mariſch, and is two miles in length; but was much larger formerly, as appears from its ancient boundaries within the walls, which are ſaid to be twenty miles in compaſs. It was for a long time the metropolis of ancient Dacia, and was called Alba Julia, from Julia Auguſta, the mother of the emperor Marcus Aurelius Antoninus; and is now generally called Carlſburg, in honour of Charles VI. by whom it was conſiderably improved. It had formerly a magnificent palace, which is now gone to decay, and has at preſent a biſhop and a college of Jeſuits.

The laſt place we ſhall mention in Tranſylvania is Cronſtadt, which is next in rank to Hermanſtadt, both with reſpect to its appearance, the number of its inhabitants, and its trade. It is ſeated among pleaſant mountains, and is fortified with walls, towers, and moats. None reſide in the town itſelf beſide Germans, but in its three large ſuburbs are Hungarians, Saxons, Bulgarians, and Siculi.

SECT. X.

Of SCLAVONIA.

The Extent, Climate, Rivers, different Inhabitants, Languages, Government, Adminiſtration of Juſtice, both in Sclavonia and Croatia. The Diviſions of Sclavonia, and its principal Towns.

WE ſhall now treat of the country by ſome authors called Hungarian Illyricum, which extends from the Danube to the Adriatic Sea, between the rivers Drave, Save, and Unna, and comprehends Sclavonia, Croatia, and Dalmatia.

The country which lies between the Drave and Adriatic enjoys a mild and temperate air, and a fruitful ſoil; but

but the maritime places are not eſteemed healthy. It produces all the neceſſaries and conveniencies of life, particularly corn, wine, and oil; and beſides the rivers already mentioned, has the Culpa, which riſes in Croatia, and falls into the Save; the Kerka, which together with the ſmall rivers of Dalmatia, diſcharge themſelves into the Adriatic ſea.

The inhabitants are of Sclavonian extraction; and according to the different provinces, are divided into different people, among which are Hungarians, Germans, Venetians, and Turks. The principal nations are the Sclavonians, who make as it were one people with the Servians and Raſcians, which, with a mixture of Germans and Sclavonians, inhabit Sclavonia: the Croats, who dwell in Croatia and Sclavonia, and are intermixed with colonies from Germany and Walachia: the Dalmatians, among whom are the Uſcocs and the Morlachians. They have likewiſe Venetian, Turkiſh, and Albanian colonies among them.

With reſpect to the languages of theſe different people, the Croatians and Raſcians ſpeak German and Hungarian; the Dalmatians, Italian and Turkiſh; the Walachians who have ſettled in theſe countries retain their own language.

The only religion tolerated here is the Romiſh, which is under the government of three archbiſhops and twenty biſhops. Theſe nations, however, concern themſelves little about ſtudy; yet Zagrad has an academy; and among the Croats and Raſcians are many perſons of an excellent genius, who entertain a paſſion for literature, which they endeavour to promote.

The government of Sclavonia and Croatia is connected with that of Hungary and Stiria, being hereditary in the archducal houſe of Auſtria. Croatian Hungary is under the juriſdiction of the ban or viceroy of Croatia, Sclavonia, and Dalmatia, who governs by the laws of Hungary, and the provincial acts of Illyricum. Croatian Stiria has a governor both in Stiria, military Croatia, and on the coaſt of the Adriatic.

The prelates, nobility, gentry, and royal Caſtellans, enjoy the ſame privileges as the Hungarians. At the diets, which conſiſt of the four orders of the province, all deliberations run in the name of the ſovereign; and beſides, the ſtates of Illyria appear at the Hungarian diets by their repreſentatives.

The adminiſtration of juſtice in Sclavonia and the bannat of Croatia is the ſame as in Hungary; the free towns having inferior courts, from whence cauſes may be removed to the royal treaſury. The other towns have alſo their inferior courts, from whence there lies an appeal to the bannat court, which is thus named from the ban, or prorex, who preſides in it; and this at certain times hears cauſes brought from the counties, and holds conſultations on other important matters; but ſometimes, when the cauſes require a farther inſpection, the litigants are diſmiſſed to the *Tabula regalis* at Peſt, from whence they may proceed to that of the *Septemviralis*.

The public revenue ariſes from contributions, cuſtoms, tillage, graziery, and trade. The military force of the Hungarian Illyrians perhaps never appeared to greater advantage than in the war which preceded the laſt, when no leſs than fifty thouſand men were brought into the field from Croatia alone.

We ſhall now proceed to give a conciſe account of Sclavonia.

Sclavonia is ſituated between the Drave and the Save, extending eaſtward to the Danube, and being bounded on the weſtward by Carniola. It obtained the name of Sclavonia in the middle ages, from the neighbouring Slavi or Slavina. The inhabitants are Servians or Raſcians, Croats, and Walachians, with ſome German and Hungarian colonies. This country is divided into the bannat and generalſhip of Sclavonia, the former of which is ſubdivided into three counties, the principal towns in which are,

Eſſeck, the capital of the county of Verowitz, is ſeated on the river Drave near the Danube, and is moſt remarkable for the large wooden bridge which is here erected over the Danube and the neighbouring moraſſes, and extends in length about five miles; it was built in 1566, by Solyman, emperor of the Turks, who conſtantly employed twenty thouſand men in this work till it was compleated. In the year 1529 Eſſeck was taken by the Turks, and in 1664 the Imperialiſts burnt this bridge; but it was ſoon rebuilt by the Turks. The Hungarians afterwards burnt the bridge a ſecond time, and in vain attempted to take the town; but after the battle of Mohatz, the Turks voluntarily evacuated it. This city is ſituated in the forty-fifth degree fifty-one minutes north latitude, and in the nineteenth degree ten minutes eaſt longitude.

Carlowitz, a military town, the reſidence of the Greek biſhop of Sclavonia, and famous for its red wine, and for the peace concluded there with the Turks in 1699.

Peterwaradin is a town ſituated on the Danube, oppoſite Belgrade, ſix miles to the ſouth-eaſt of Carlowitz. It is ſtrongly fortified, and is the frontier town of the Imperialiſts. The Turks made themſelves maſters of it in the year 1526; but quitted it in 1687, when the Hungarians took poſſeſſion of it. But it is chiefly remarkable for the glorious victory obtained near it over the Turks in the year 1716, by prince Eugene.

SECT. XI.

Of CROATIA.

Its Situation, Extent, Inhabitants, and principal Places.

THIS country, which is called by the Hungarians Horwath Orſzag, is bounded on the eaſt by Sclavonia and Bothnia, on the north and weſt by Stiria and Carniola, and on the ſouth by Turkiſh Croatia and Dalmatia. The Croatians are of a good ſtature, and make brave and hardy ſoldiers. They derive their origin from the Slavi. In the middle ages they had ſovereigns of their own, who ſtiled themſelves kings of Croatia and Dalmatia; but were for ſome time ſubject to the emperors of the Eaſt. In the eleventh century Croatia and Dalmatia devolved to the kings of Hungary, to whom they have ever ſince continued in ſubjection, though not without frequent attempts to recover their independency.

The Croats, of all the Illyrian nations, have the greateſt affinity in their language to that of the Poles.

Croatia, which is about eighty miles either way, is divided into two parts; that within and that beyond the Save; and is inhabited by Croats, a few Raſcians, Greeks, and Walachians.

The chief towns in Auſtrian Croatia are,

Little Waradin, a royal free town on the river Drave, ſtrengthened with a caſtle and bulwark; it ſtands in a large plain. Between this town and a high mountain is a warm bath, formerly called Thermæ Conſtantinianæ.

Kreutz, a royal free town, that is fortified, and has many privileges.

Iwanitz, a ſtrong fortreſs on the river Koros, where the kings of Sclavonia formerly reſided.

Zagrab, or Agran, a royal free city, ſeated on the Save. It is the capital of Croatia, and has a biſhop and chapter.

Beſides a conſiderable number of other towns, of which we know little more than their names.

Turkiſh Croatia lies on the other ſide of the Unna, and as we have already given an account of it in treating of Turky in Europe, we ſhall now paſs on to Dalmatia.

SECT. XII.

Of the Kingdom of DALMATIA.

Its Name and Hiſtory. The Climate and Face of the Country. A particular Account of the Uſcocs and Morlachians; with a Deſcription of the principal Places in Hungarian and Venetian Dalmatia; alſo a conciſe Account of the Republic of Raguſa and its Capital.

DALMATIA obtained its name from its antient capital Delmium, or Delminium, which was taken and deſtroyed by the Romans, who brought this country under their yoke; but Dalmatia ſhook it off no leſs than five times.

On

On the diviſion of the provinces between Auguſtus and the ſenate, Dalmatia fell to the latter, as one of the proconſular provinces; but they voluntarily ceded it to the emperor, and at the demiſe of Conſtantine the Great it was reckoned among the weſtern parts of Illyricum. It ſuffered extremely by the inroads of the northern barbarians, and was reduced by the Goths in their way to Italy. Afterwards Juſtinian, emperor of the Eaſt, conquered not only Dalmatia, but Italy; but in the year 1548 the Sclavi entered the country, and about the end of the reign of Heraclius eſtabliſhed themſelves there. Dalmatia had then its particular kings, of which Zlodomia, or Zaromyr, dying without iſſue, left the kingdom to his conſort, who bequeathed it to her brother St. Ladiſlaus, king of Hungary, and it has been ever ſince dependent upon that crown; but the Venetians are maſters of the maritime parts. In the wars which the kings of Hungary had with the Venetians and Dalmatians, they were for ſome time ſucceſsful; yet in the fifteenth century the Venetians reduced the whole kingdom of Dalmatia, but the Turks have ſince diſpoſſeſſed them of a conſiderable part, and at preſent the Hungarians, Venetians, Turks, and Raguſans, ſhare it among them.

The Dalmatians have the Sclavonian language and cuſtoms, and profeſs the Romiſh religion.

The air of Dalmatia is pure and temperate. The country is as it were ſtrewed with fertile mountains that produce olives, vines, myrtles, and a great variety of palatable and wholeſome vegetables; and have alſo in their bowels treaſures of gold and ſilver ore. This country has alſo many fertile plains, are watered by rivers that have a ſhort courſe, though they are moſtly navigable; and theſe plains feed many herds of horned cattle, and large flocks of ſheep.

Before we give a deſcription of the ſeveral parts of Hungarian Dalmatia, which lies in the upper part of the Adriatic Sea, it is neceſſary to give ſome account of the Uſcocs and Morlachians. The Uſcocs are a people who, galled by oppreſſion, eſcaped out of Dalmatia, whence they obtained the name of Uſcocs, from the word Scoco, which ſignifies a deſerter: they are alſo called ſpringers, or leapers, from the agility with which they leap, rather than walk, along this rugged and mountainous country. Their chief ſettlement was at Cliſſa; but the Turks taking that place in 1537 they retreated to Zengh, which was granted them by the emperor Ferdinand; but in 1616 they were ordered, on account of their robberies, and other acts of violence, to remove and ſettle at a place appointed for them in a mountain of Carniola, four German miles in length, and two in breadth. In the center of this mountain ſtands Sichelberg caſtle, to the governor of which all the Uſcocs are ſubject. Some of them live in ſcattered houſes, and others in large villages. They are a rough, ſavage, people, large-bodied, intrepid, and given to rapine, though their only viſible employment is grazing. They uſe the Walachian language, and in their religion come neareſt to the Greek church; but ſome are Roman catholics. They have an archbiſhop, biſhops, popes, or prieſts, and coluges, or monks; their prieſts are not prohibited marriage, but the wife muſt be of a good family, and at her deceaſe they are not to marry again. Their children are not baptized till they are adults; and none among them go to confeſſion under thirty years of age.

Morlachia extends from the juriſdiction of Zengh, near St. George, to the county of Zara; or, according to others, from Vinodok to Novigrad; it being fifteen German miles in length and five or ſix in breadth, and full of high mountains. The inhabitants are a branch of the Walachians, and are very ſwarthy; but are a large, ſtrong, robuſt people, inured to toil and hardſhips from their living amidſt barren mountains. Their chief employment is attending cattle, and the greateſt part of them are of the Greek religion. Some of them at preſent are under the protection of Hungary, and others are dependent on the Venetians. There is hardly a place of any ſtrength in Dalmatia that is not governed by theſe people. Hungarian Dalmatia conſiſts of five diſtricts, moſt of which are under the generalſhip of Carlſtadt, in which the moſt remarkable places are the following:

Zengh, Segnia, or Senia, a royal free town, fortified both by art and nature, is ſeated near the ſea in a bleak mountainous and barren ſoil. The biſhop of this place is a ſuffragan to the archbiſhop of Spalatro. Here are twelve churches and two convents. The governor reſides in the old palace called the royal caſtle, and in the upper fort, which ſtands on a riſing ground fronting the town, lives the deputy-governor. Near this place dwell the Uſcocs.

Ottoſchatz, a frontier fortification in the river Gatzka, which abounds with fiſh; that part of the fortreſs where the governor and the greateſt part of the garriſon reſide, is ſurrounded with a wall and ſome towers; while the reſt of the buildings, which are but mean, are erected on piles in the water, whence one neighbour cannot viſit another without a boat.

We have already given a deſcription of Turkiſh Dalmatia in treating of Turky in Europe, and ſhall now therefore proceed to that part of the country called Venetian Dalmatia, and the republic of Raguſa.

Venetian Dalmatia is ſituated to the ſouth-eaſt of the country laſt deſcribed, on the borders of the Adriatic Sea, and abounds in caſtles and fortified places, though but few of them are of modern ſtructure. The principal places in this country are,

Zara, the capital of Venetian Dalmatia, is ſituated in the country of the ſame name, in the forty-fourth degree twenty-two minutes north latitude, and is ſurrounded on all ſides by the ſea; but has a communication with the continent by means of a draw-bridge, which is defended by a fort. This is eſteemed one of the beſt fortifications in Dalmatia, and is thought to be almoſt impregnable. The citadel is ſeparated from the town by a very deep ditch hewn out of the rock, and in the caſtle reſides the governor, or proveditor of Dalmatia, whoſe office is only triennial. The harbour, which lies to the north, is capacious, ſafe, and well guarded; and the rain is careſully preſerved in ciſterns to ſupply the want of freſh water. It is the ſee of an archbiſhop, and St. Simeon is patron of the city; and in the cathedral, which is dedicated to him, they pretend to ſhew his body depoſited in a coffin covered with a cryſtal lid. There are very fine paintings in the churches done by the beſt maſters; and near the church called by the Greeks St. Helia are two handſome fluted columns of the Corinthian order, ſuppoſed to have been part of the temple of Juno. This city was formerly more conſiderable than it is at preſent, the walls being but two miles in compaſs, and the number of the inhabitants not exceeding ſix thouſand.

Tenen, a fortified town on the extremities of Boſnia and Dalmatia, is ſeated on a hill, and, though not large, is eſteemed of importance from its elevated ſituation. It is encompaſſed with two very broad and deep natural moats, formed by the rivers Kerka and Botiſniza, which precipitate themſelves at a ſmall diſtance from the hills. This city, which, in the thirteenth and fourteenth centuries, was the capital of a country, is the ſee of a biſhop. In the year 1522 it was taken by the Turks. In 1649 it was recovered by the Venetians, and for the moſt part demoliſhed; but it was afterwards rebuilt by the Turks, and again taken from them by the Venetians.

Trau, or Tragurium, a town on a peninſula, but ſeparated from the continent by a canal. It is divided into the Old and New Town, the former of which has a ſingle, and the latter a double wall. Its three towers are alſo a good defence. Nothing can be pleaſanter than its ſituation; for the north ſide is covered with beautiful gardens, and on the iſland of Bua it has fine ſuburbs, that have a communication with the town by means of a ſtone bridge, and is joined to the continent by three of wood. It is the reſidence of a Venetian proveditor, who bears the title of count, and alſo of a biſhop, ſuffragan to the archbiſhop of Spalatro. The harbour, which is formed by a bay, has depth of water ſufficient for the largeſt ſhips which ride there, ſheltered by two capes.

Spalatro, the capital of Venetian Dalmatia, is ſeated on a peninſula fortified with good baſtions of free-ſtone, but theſe works are commanded by the neighbouring mountains. This city is the ſee of an archbiſhop, who is primate of all Dalmatia and Croatia. It is alſo the ſtaple

where

where all merchandize paſſing from Turky to Italy muſt be tranſacted. Near its harbour, which is very large and deep, is erected a large lazaretto for performing quarentine. Among the Roman antiquities to be ſeen here are the noble remains of Diocleſian's palace, on which the city itſelf is built, and its walls make two-thirds of thoſe of Spalatro. It is in the forty-third degree fifty-three minutes north latitude. This city has been poſſeſſed by the Venetians ever ſince the year 1420.

Caſtel Nuovo, the beſt fortification in all Dalmatia, was antiently called Neocaſtro, and was built by a king of Boſnia in 1373, on a high rock adjoining to the ſea. It is better fortified by nature than by art, it being an irregular quadrangle, ſecured towards the ſea by ſhelves and inacceſſible rocks. In the upper town is the caſtle of Sulimanega, and the fortified town of Haſtavich; but its beſt fortification is the capital of Cornigrad, which ſtands about ſix hundred and fifty paces north of the town. It was taken by the Venetians, and is now a place of conſiderable trade.

Within this province are alſo ſeveral iſlands, as, 1. Oſero, or Oſoro. 2. Cherſo, which has a communication with the former by means of a bridge. It is a woody tract, and breeds great numbers of cattle. It has a pretty populous town of the ſame name, that has a convenient harbour. 3. Vegia, or Veglia, is ſeparated from the continent by a narrow channel, and has a town of the ſame name, which has a harbour and caſtle, in which reſides the Venetian count or governor. 4. Arbe, which abounds with figs and the ſmaller kinds of cattle, and produces moſt delicious wine. Its capital is an epiſcopal city. 5. Great Iſole, which contains ſeveral towns and caſtles. 6. Mortara, or Mortero, which has a deep and ſecure harbour between two iſlands. It is celebrated for its wine, and its abounding alſo in olives and melons. The town of the ſame name is ſeated in a valley between two hills of various culture. 7. Leſina, ſaid to be the celebrated iſle of Pharos, is rocky, but produces figs; bread and wine are very cheap, and from hence all Italy and Greece are ſupplied with ſardines. The town of the ſame name, though ſmall, is well fortified. 8. Corzola-nigra, the antient Corcyra, abounds with timber of all kinds. In the city of the ſame name, which is the only one in the iſland, reſide the governor and a biſhop. It is fortified with ſtrong walls and towers, has a fine harbour, and produces plenty of wine. The Turks, attempting to make a deſcent here, were, in the year 1507, repulſed by the women, who behaved with heroic reſolution, when their daſtardly huſbands had, through fear, deſerted the city, and fled up into the country. Beſides theſe there are ſeveral other iſlands.

We now come to Raguſan Dalmatia, which lies to the ſouth-eaſt of the former, and is about fifty-five miles in length, and twenty in breadth. Raguſa is an ariſtocratical ſtate, formed nearly after the model of that of Venice. The government is in the hands of the nobility; and the chief of the republic, who is ſtiled rector, is changed every month, and elected by ſcrutiny, or lot. During his adminiſtration he lives in the palace, wears a ducal habit, compoſed of a long ſilk robe with white ſleeves, and his ſalary is five ducats a month; but if he be one of the pregadi, and aſſiſts at appeals, he receives a ducat a day. Next to him is the council of ten. In the great council all noblemen above twenty years of age are admitted, and in this council are choſen the perſons who conſtitute the board of the pregadi, who ſuperintend all civil and military affairs, diſpoſe of all employments, and receive and ſend envoys. Theſe continue a year in their office. The little council conſiſts of thirty nobles, who take care of the polity, trade, and revenues of the ſtate, and decide appeals of ſmall value. Five proveditors confirm, by a majority of votes, the proceedings of the adminiſtration.

Civil cauſes, and particularly thoſe relating to debts, are firſt heard before ſix conſuls, or ſenators, from whom there lies an appeal to the college of thirty, and from them again, in particular caſes, to the council. In criminal cauſes ſpecial judges are appointed. There are likewiſe three commiſſioners for the woollen trade; a board of health, conſiſting of five nobles, who endeavour to preſerve the city from all contagious diſeaſes; and four patrons of eminence manage the taxes, exciſe, and mint.

As the Raguſans are unable to protect themſelves, they make uſe of their wealth to procure them protectors, the chief of whom is the grand ſeignior. They are ſaid to pay tribute to the Turks out of fear; to the Venetians out of hatred; to the pope, emperor, Spain, and Naples, out of reſpect and political views. The tribute to the Porte, with the expences of the annual embaſſy, amounts to about twenty thouſand zequins, worth about nine ſhillings and two-pence each. The Turks are indeed of great ſervice to them, by bringing thither all kinds of neceſſaries, eſpecially fire-arms and military ſtores; and the Raguſans keep ſo watchful an eye over their freedom, that the gates of Raguſa, their capital, are allowed to be open only a few hours in the day.

They profeſs the Romiſh religion; but the Greeks, Armenians, and Turks are tolerated. The language chiefly in uſe among the Raguſans is the Sclavonian, but the greateſt part of them alſo ſpeak the Italian. Almoſt all the citizens are traders, and this place is diſtinguiſhed by the fineneſs of its manufactures. As its territory is but ſmall, it has but few places of note worthy of a particular deſcription, beſides its capital.

The city of Raguſa was built a conſiderable time before the birth of our Saviour, and was antiently called Epidaurus. It at length became a Roman colony, and in the third century was demoliſhed by the Scythians. It ſtands in the peninſula of Sabioncello in the gulph of Venice, in the forty-ſecond degree forty-eight minutes north latitude, and in the eighteenth degree forty minutes eaſt longitude from London. Though it is not large it is well-built, and has ſome beautiful edifices. This city, which is the ſee of an archbiſhop, is defended by ſtrong bulwarks, and the fortreſs of St. Nicholas ſecures its harbour againſt any hoſtile attempts. Its port, which is called Santa Croie, or the Holy Croſs, is ſecured on one ſide by the little rocky iſland of Chiroma, which lies in the ſea about half a mile diſtant, and the headland of the peninſula on the other: the latter is well fortified, and were the former ſo it would be impregnable. The city is ſurrounded with large ſuburbs, and has a garriſon of about two hundred men; the burghers alſo keeping a conſtant guard.

The city of Gravoſa is alſo ſituated on the peninſula of Sabioncello, and has the beſt harbour on all the coaſt. The entrance to it is very commodious, broad, deep, and well ſecured. It is ornamented with raviſhing proſpects of the adjacent mountains, which are covered with fine vineyards, gardens, and ſummer-houſes, to which the Raguſans retire for the ſake of pleaſure.

There are alſo five ſmall iſlands ſubject to the Raguſans, the principal of which is Melida, which ſome learned men ſuppoſe to be the iſland of Melita upon which St. Paul was ſhipwrecked; but this is not probable. It is about twenty-five miles in length, and abounds in oranges, citrons, wine, and fiſh. It has a ſmall town of the ſame name, together with ſix villages and fine paſtures.

CHAP. IX.

Of the GERMAN EMPIRE.

SECT. I.

Of GERMANY *in general.*

Its Names, Situation, Extent, Climate, Mountains, Rivers, Woods, Fruit, Corn, and other Vegetables; Beaſts, Birds, and Fiſhes; with the Produce of the Mineral Kingdom.

GERMANY, which is called by the French Allemagne, and by the natives themſelves Deutſchland, is bounded by France, the Netherlands, and the German ſea on the weſt; by South Jutland and the Baltic on the north; by Poliſh Pruſſia, Poland, and Hungary on the eaſt; and by the gulph of Venice, the dominions of the ſtate of Venice and Swiſſerland on the ſouth; extending from the forty-fifth degree four minutes to the fifty-fourth degree forty minutes north latitude, and from the ſixth degree to the nineteenth degree forty-five minutes eaſt longitude; and accordingly its greateſt extent from north to ſouth is ſix hundred and forty Engliſh miles in length, and five hundred and fifty in breadth.

Though Germany in general may be ſaid to enjoy a temperate air, yet with reſpect to its purity, warmth, and healthfulneſs, it is very different; both from the ſoutherly or northerly ſituation of the places of the country, from the proximity and diſtance of the ſea, and from the difference of the ſoil. Thus the level parts enjoy a different air from the mountains, and the places where the ſoil is deep, moiſt, and marſhy is different from the more elevated, dry, and ſandy. Hence the produce of the trees, fields, and gardens ripen in different parts at different times.

Germany has many mountains, for Bohemia is principally environed with them; it is ſeparated from Sileſia by thoſe called the Rieſengebirge, and a ſtill more conſiderable range of mountains parts Sileſia and Moravia. In the very heart of Sileſia are alſo many large mountains, and the countries in the circle of Auſtria are moſtly mountainous. The Upper Palatinate has likewiſe many mountainous and hilly tracts, and the biſhopric of Saltſburg is alſo very mountainous. Franconia, both within the country and on its borders, has a conſiderable number of mountains; and in Swabia are large ranges of them, with many ſingle ones. The Upper and Lower Rhine are alſo mountainous, and particularly the electorate of Cologn. In the circle of Weſtphalia are ſome mountainous tracts, and in Lower Saxony the Hartz are famous. In Upper Saxony are likewiſe many mountainous tracts; but the higheſt mountains in Germany do not exceed four thouſand five hundred feet in height.

In ſeveral of the mountains are remarkable caverns and natural grottos, of which we ſhall give a deſcription in their place.

The principal rivers in Germany are the Danube, the Rhine, the Mayne, the Elbe, the Oder, and the Weſer.

This country was antiently very woody, and is ſtill in general well provided with uſeful woods; but theſe are daily growing thinner, and in many parts timber is wanted for building and fewel. The German woods yield oak, beech, pine, white and red fir, limes, alder, aſh, black poplar, larch, plane trees, cheſnut trees, and olive trees; and for the cultivation of ſilk a great number of white mulberry trees are planted.

Germany is provided with all the neceſſaries and conveniencies of life; its ſoil indeed is not every where fertile, but the barrenneſs of one place is made up by the fruitfulneſs of another. Agriculture is here daily improving, and the lands are rendered more fertile, rich, and beautiful. It yields plenty of all kinds of grain, as common wheat, Turky wheat, rye, ſpelt, barley, oats, peas, beans, vetches, lentils, chiches, millet, and buckwheat, of which it is able to export a vaſt quantity: manna is alſo found there. The Germans likewiſe cultivate hops, aniſe, cummin, flax, hemp, tobacco, madder, woad, ſaffron, and baſtard ſaffron, with truffles, potatoes, and a variety of excellent pot-herbs, ſallads, and roots. They have likewiſe all ſorts of common, French, and Italian fruits, as apples, pears, cherries, plumbs, cheſnuts, almonds, olives, medlars, figs, peaches, apricots, oranges, lemons, citrons, grapes, nuts, filberts, walnuts, &c.

With reſpect to the cattle of Germany, there is a prodigious number of horſes, cows, ſheep, goats, and ſwine; the marſh lands in the dutchy of Holſtein, Eaſt Frieſland, and Bremen afford cheeſe and butter in the greateſt plenty. The wild beaſts are deer, roes, boars, hares, and rabbets; in ſome places are alſo bears, wolves, lynxes, foxes, wild cats, badgers, martens, wild goats, and chamois.

Of tame fowl they have plenty of poultry, turkies, pigeons, geeſe, and ducks; and of thoſe that are wild, ſwans, buſtards, pheaſants, woodcocks, partridges, grouſe, ſnipes, larks, fieldfares, ortolans, quails, wild-geeſe, wild-ducks, the ſpoonbill, and ſtork; alſo the falcon, heron, hawk, &c.

The numerous rivers, brooks, lakes, and ponds in Germany afford ſturgeon, ſalmon, pike, carp, trout, lampreys, eel-pouts, eels, pearch, roach, barbel, ſhads, and on the ſea-coaſt are a great variety of ſea-fiſh.

Of the mineral kingdom, here are many ſpecies of marble, ſome of one colour, and others variegated; alabaſter, free-ſtone, many ſpecies of agate, cornelian, chalcedony, onyx, jaſper; with various ſpecies of cryſtals and precious ſtones, as rubies, ſapphires, topazes, emeralds, chryſolites, amethyſts, granates, hyacinths, turquoiſes, and carbuncles. Here are likewiſe vitriol, allum, ſalt-petre, ſal-gem, and ſpring ſalt, petroleum, coals, black amber, ſulphur, quickſilver, and alſo virgin ſilver, arſenic, cobolt, antimony, biſmuth, calamy, and mock-lead; and of metals, gold, ſilver, copper, and iron.

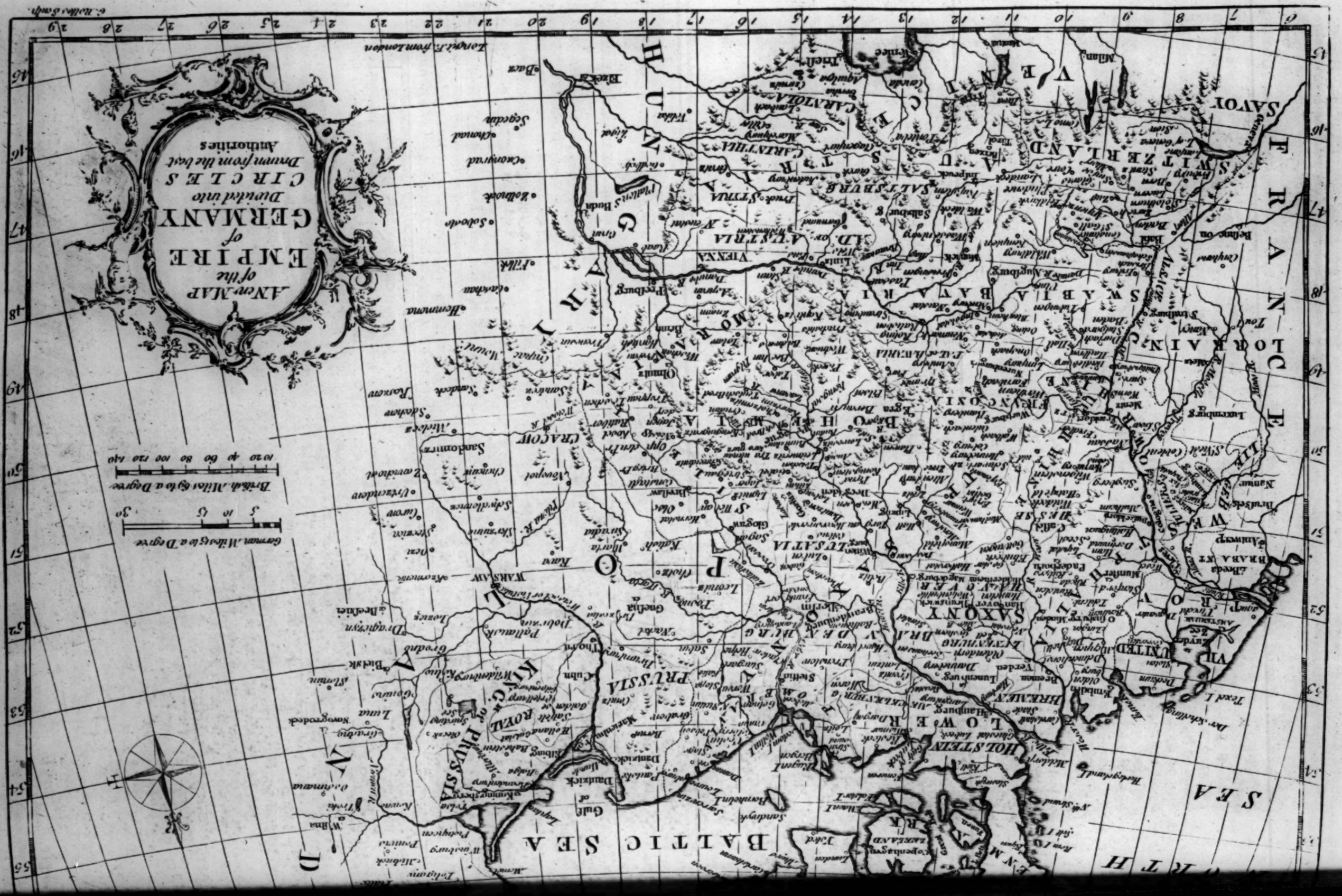
SECT. II.

The Perſons and Manners of the Germans in general. Their Skill in the Polite Arts, Manufactures, Commerce and Coins.

THE Germans are generally tall and well made, and it is eaſy to obſerve amongſt them a remarkable difference with reſpect to their character, temper, and manner of life, which is an evident proof of their conſiſting of ſeveral diſtinct nations. They are, however, in general, very remarkable for their honeſty and fairneſs in their dealings. Both the ancient and the preſent Germans have been long diſtinguiſhed for their hoſpitality. Julius Cæſar obſerves, that in his time their houſes were open to all men, who were welcome to ſuch entertainment as they found provided. That they eſteemed it a piece of injuſtice to affront a traveller, and thought it a neceſſary act of religion to protect thoſe who came under their roof. The preſent Germans have not degenerated from their anceſtors, and a ſtranger is ſure to be every where well entertained. The courage and bravery both of the ancient and preſent Germans were never diſputed. The Germans have alſo the honour of having almoſt all the kingdoms in Europe owe to German blood their crowned heads, particularly Great-Britain and Ireland, Denmark, and Norway, Sweden, Poland, Hungary, Pruſſia, Bohemia, and Ruſſia.

With reſpect to learning, the Germans are not inferior to any other nations; for not only their natural fondneſs for imitation, but the variety of governments,

A New MAP of the EMPIRE of GERMANY Divided into CIRCLES Drawn from the best Authorities



their mutual emulation, and the freedom proteſtants enjoy of writing according to their own judgment, have procured the greateſt improvement in the ſciences. The pleaſure they take in reading is ſo great, and general, particularly among the proteſtants, that it is thought unbecoming even the female ſex, and perſons of any rank, not to be converſant with books. Nor is there any place in the world where more books are written and printed; and though this gives riſe to many mean performances, they have a great number of very excellent works; and there are at preſent many German authors juſtly eſteemed for their genius and abilities.

As to the vices of the Germans, they have been cenſured for their drunkenneſs; but they do not ſeem to be more guilty of this vice than their northern neighbours, or indeed than the Engliſh: that there are perſons of high rank there, as well as country ſquires among us, who will inſiſt upon bumpers going round, and will glory in drinking deeper than their companions, cannot be diſputed; but this is far from being a national vice; and both there and in Great-Britain it is leſs common than formerly.

Their drink is beer and wine, as with us; but they have the latter upon much eaſier terms; for they have not only Moſelle, Rheniſh, and other wines of their own growth; but thoſe of Hungary, France, and Italy, which lie contiguous to them, where the beſt wines are produced.

Their ordinary food is beef, mutton, fowls, &c. as among us, which are generally more thoroughly boiled and roaſted than in England. They have alſo one diſh, which was eſteemed a dainty by the ancient Romans, as it is by them, and that is ſnails, which are dreſſed in various manners, and eaten at the tables of the quality as a great rarity: they are fed for this purpoſe, ſo as to grow to an extraordinary ſize; and there is ſcarce a nobleman's garden that has not a place ſet apart for breeding and fattening them.

Among the other peculiarities, inſtead of the chearful fire-ſide, which enlivens our winter evenings, they heat their rooms with ſtoves. And they not only ſleep on a feather-bed as we do, but, inſtead of blankets, have a light feather-bed covering too; which is placed upon the upper ſheet, and is covered with a counterpane.

Among the diverſions practiſed by the great, is hunting the wild boar, and, in winter, riding through the ſtreets on the ſnow, in ſledges drawn by horſes richly accoutred, and adorned with bells and feathers.

In Germany are thirty-ſix univerſities, ſeventeen of which belong to the proteſtants, and the ſame number to the Roman Catholics; with two other mixed ones, thoſe of Erfurth and Heidelberg. They have alſo a number of academies for the ſciences, and many colleges and ſchools. The Germans have particularly diſtinguiſhed themſelves by their knowledge in the civil law, natural hiſtory, and the various branches of philoſophy.

The French had formerly the reputation of excelling all other nations in the polite arts; but at preſent they are nearly equalled by the Germans.

In the polite arts, they excel in muſic, and boaſt the works of Teleman, Handel, Graun, Bach, and Haſſe. Some of their poets have excelled moſt of the European nations in the ſublimity of their thoughts, and the mingled ſtrength and ſweetneſs of their language. With reſpect to painting, they claim the firſt place after the Italians, and juſtly boaſt their Peter Paul Rubens, John Calker, and ſeveral others. The firſt copper plates appeared in Germany; Albert Durer alſo etched in copper before the Italians; and metzotinto was diſcovered by Von Sichem, an Heſſian lieutenant, in 1648, but others ſay by prince Rupert: wooden cuts were alſo the invention of a German. The firſt diſcovery of the art of printing cannot with juſtice be refuſed the Germans; and Berthold Schwartz, in the thirteenth century, diſcovered at Cologn how gunpowder might be made ſerviceable in the art of war.

With reſpect to mechanics and manufactures, the Germans at preſent make velvets, beautiful ſilks, rich ſtuffs, and half ſilks, with a variety of woollen ſtuffs, and all manner of cloths, ribbons, lace, very large quantities of linen, fuſtian, embroidered work, fine hats, and tapeſtry; they alſo print cotton in a beautiful manner, make Spaniſh rough and ſmooth leather; and are well ſkilled in the art of dying. They work all ſorts of metals for ornaments, veſſels, tools, wire, &c. in the beſt manner; and Augſburg in particular is famous for its performances in ſilver. They are well ſkilled in the working of braſs and arms. They make glaſs, and beautiful mirrors of all ſizes; fine works in lacquer, and a variety of porcelain, among which the Miſnian is ſaid to be the fineſt in the world. In ſhort, Nurenburg is famous for a variety of ingenious works in wood, ivory, metal, ſtone, glaſs, &c. which are exported to all parts of the earth.

With reſpect to commerce, Germany enjoys every advantage; for it not only borders on the German ocean, the Baltic, and the gulf of Venice, but is watered by many navigable rivers; and being ſituated in the heart of Europe, can commodiouſly export the ſuperfluity of its home commodities and manufactures, and receive thoſe of foreign countries.

About the middle of the thirteenth century, many towns in Germany, as well as in other countries lying on the German ocean and the Baltic, entered into a mutual league with each other for the promotion of trade and navigation, and were thence called Hanſe towns. Though their trade fell to decay in the fifteenth century, and the name of the league in that time ceaſed, yet the trading towns of Hamburg, Lubec, and Bremen, are ſtill called Hanſe-Towns, and have a league actually ſubſiſting between them, under the name of which they conclude treaties of commerce with foreign powers. Hamburg is the moſt important trading town in all Germany, and is chiefly indebted to navigation for its fame, as being the moſt reſorted to by the Engliſh and Dutch of all the towns in Germany. The other principal trading towns are Francfort on the Mayne, Leipſic, Nurenburg, Augſburg, Vienna, Fiume, and Trieſte, which laſt is a free port. Several towns have likewiſe the privilege of holding fairs; of theſe, Francfort on the Mayne has the greateſt, and the next to it is Leipſic. The other fairs are kept at Francfort on the Oder, Naumburg, Brunſwic, and Mentz.

The goods exported from Germany into the neighbouring and remote countries are corn, wine, particularly the Rheniſh and Moſelle, tobacco, horſes, lean cattle, butter, cheeſe, honey, ſyrup, linen, woollen ſtuffs, yarn, ribbons, ſilk and cotton ſtuffs, wool, Nurenburg wares, wood of various ſorts, particularly timber fit for ſhip-building, iron plates and ſtoves, cannon, ball, bombs, granades, tin-plates, ſteel-work, copper, braſs wire, porcelain, earthen ware, mirrors, glaſſes, beer, Brunſwic mum, hogs briſtles, tartar, ſmalt, zaffer, Pruſſian blue, printers ink, and many other articles.

With reſpect to the coins in Germany, it is proper to obſerve, that the emperor, with the electors, the chief part of the princes of the empire, ſeveral prelates, abbeſſes, counts, barons, ſome of the gentry, and the imperial cities, enjoy the privilege of coining money; but with this diſtinction, that ſome are entitled to coin only ſmall money, others to coin alſo a larger ſpecies, and that either of ſilver alone, or of gold alſo. Yet many ſtates of the empire, in order to ſave expences, ſeldom make uſe of this privilege. One or two days are appointed every year in each circle to be held by the mint maſters for the examination of the coin; and the emperor has engaged that they ſhall be regularly held in every circle. All the money in the empire ought likewiſe to be coined of the ſame ſtandard, and to be of one weight and intrinſic value: at preſent, by virtue of a reſolution of the diet of 1737, this ſtandard ought to be that of Leipſic; but neither this, nor the other regulations of the empire, with reſpect to coinage, have been able to prevent its debaſement.

In Hamburgh and Lubec they reckon by marks, ſhillings, and pfennings: one mark, which is one ſhilling and ſix pence ſterling, makes ſixteen ſhillings, one ſhilling twelve pfennings; but this pfenning is no real coin; forty-eight ſhillings, or three marks, make one rix-dollar. The current heavy money of this country is gene-

rally

rally twenty-five *per cent.* better than the light current coin of Germany.

In Bremen they reckon by rixdollars, grots, and ſchwars: one rixdollar worth four ſhillings and ſixpence makes one and a half double, and three ſingle Bremen marks, ſeventy-two grots, or three hundred and ſixty ſchwars.

In Leipſic, and in all the electoral countries of Saxony, as alſo at Naumburg, Berlin, Magdeburg, and Francfort on the Oder, they reckon by rixdollars, gut-groſchen and pfennings; that is, one rixdollar, which is there an imaginary coin, contains one imperial florin and a half, or twenty four gut-groſchen; and one gut-groſchen twelve pfennings. An imperial florin contains ſixteen gut-groſchen; a one third piece, eight groſchen; and one ſixth piece, four gut-groſchen.

At Francfort on the Mayne they reckon in rixdollars, kreutzers, and pfennings: one rixdollar makes one florin and a half, four head-pieces and a half, twenty-two batzes and a half, thirty imperial groſches, and forty-five albuſes, or white pfennings.

At Nurenburg, Augſburg, Vienna, Prague, &c. they reckon by imperial guldens, or florins, kreutzers, and pfennings: one imperial florin, or two-third piece, makes fifteen batzes, ſixty kreutzers, twenty imperial groſches, or two hundred and forty pfennings.

In Breſlau, and all Sileſia, they reckon by rixdollars, ſilver groſchen, and pfennings: one rix-dollar contains thirty imperial or ſilver groſches or bohms, forty-five white groſches, ninety kreutzers, an hundred and twenty groſches, an hundred and eighty dreyers, and three hundred and ſixty pfennings.

In Brunſwic, and many other places in Lower Saxony, as alſo in the whole circle of Weſtphalia, they reckon by rixdollars, marien-groſchen, and alſo by gut-groſchen and pfennings: one rixdollar makes twenty-four gut-groſchen, thirty-ſix marien-groſchen, or two hundred eighty-eight pfennings; one marien-groſche contains two mattiers, or eight pfennings.

At Cologn on the Rhine, they reckon by rixdollars, albuſes, and hellers; as alſo in eſſes, and pfennings Flemiſh: one rixdollar current makes one imperial florin and a half, four head-pieces and a half, forty-eight Brabant ſtyvers, fifty-eight and a half Cleve ſtyvers, ſeventy-eight albuſes, and an hundred and ſeventeen ſetmanger.

It is obſervable, that the rixdollar which at Hamburg, Altena, Lubec, Bremen, &c. is worth four ſhillings and ſixpence, goes in moſt parts of Germany for no more than three ſhillings and ſixpence.

SECT. III.

An Abſtract of the ancient and modern Hiſtory of the Germans.

THE Germans were, in the early ages of the world, divided into many petty nations and principalities, ſome governed by kings whoſe power was limited, and othere were abſolute; ſome of their princes were elective, and others hereditary; and ſome ariſtocratical and democratical governments were alſo found among them. Many of theſe ſtates and kingdoms frequently united under one head or general, both in their offenſive and defenſive wars.

This was the ſtate of the Germans before they were conquered by the Romans. At that time the children went naked, and the men hung the ſkin of ſome wild beaſt upon their ſhoulders, faſtening it with a thong; and perſons of the beſt quality wore only a little woollen mantle or a coat without ſleeves. Their uſual bed was the ground, a little ſtraw, or the ſkins of wolves or bears. Their food was bread, fleſh-meat, butter, and fruit, as at preſent, and their drink water, milk, and beer; for in thoſe early ages they were ſtrangers to the uſe of wine. They were uſually very merry at their entertainments, ſitting in a ſemi-circle, with the maſter of the family in the middle, and the reſt on the right and left, according to their quality; but to theſe feaſts no women were admitted, nor a ſon under twenty years of age.

They expreſſed an extraordinary regard for morality, and were very ſtrict in divine worſhip, chooſing their prieſts out of the nobility, who were not entirely ignorant of moral philoſophy and phyſics, and were uſually called to councils of ſtate. Women were likewiſe admitted to the prieſtly office, and both the one and the other were treated with the moſt profound reſpect by the laity. The doctrine of tranſmigration then prevailed in Germany; they believed that departed ſouls, when they had left theſe bodies, animated other creatures; and, according as they behaved in this life, were happy or miſerable. Cluverius obſerves, that they worſhipped the ſun with ſuch devotion, that they ſeemed to acknowledge that planet as the ſupreme God, and to it dedicated the firſt day of the week. They alſo worſhipped Woden, or Godan, after whom the fourth day of the week was called Wedneſday. It is ſaid that this word Godan becoming afterwards contracted into God, the Germans and Engliſh gave that name to the Deity. They alſo worſhipped the god Faranes, the ſame with the Daniſh Thor, the Thunderer, from whom our Thurſday has its name. The goddeſs Freia, or Venus, gave her name to Friday; and Tuiſco, the ſame with Mars, gave name to Tueſday.

Like the antient Britons they performed their ſacrifices in groves, the oak being uſually choſen for an altar; and, inſtead of a temple, they erected an arbour made of the boughs of the oak and beech. The prieſts, as well as the ſacrifice, were always crowned with wreaths of oak, or of ſome other ſacred tree. They ſacrificed not only beaſts, but men; and theſe human ſacrifices were taken from among their ſlaves or malefactors. Their belief that their ſouls ſhould animate other bodies after death, it is ſaid made them fearleſs of danger, and upon extraordinary occaſions they made no ſcruple of diſpatching themſelves into the other world. They burnt their dead bodies, and having gathered up the bones and aſhes of the funeral pile, buried them together; and at the funerals of the great were tiltings and ſongs, ſung in memory of their heroic actions.

Theſe were the manners of the Germans before they were ſubdued by the Romans, who met with ſuch reſiſtence, that they were contented with making the Rhine and the Danube the boundaries of their conqueſts; and accordingly built fortreſſes, and planted garriſons on the banks of both thoſe rivers, to prevent the incurſions of what they termed the barbarous nations: but within about a hundred years after Conſtantine the Great, the Franks, Burgundians, Alemans, and other German nations broke through thoſe boundaries, paſſed the Rhine, and diſpoſſeſſed the Romans of all Gaul, Rhætia, and Noricum, which they ſhared among them; but the Franks prevailing over the reſt, at length eſtabliſhed their empire over all Modern Germany, France, and Italy, under the conduct of Charlemagn, or Charles the Great.

The conquered German nations had at firſt hereditary dukes of their own, and were governed by their own laws; but Charles put an end to the former, and governed the countries by counts and royal miſſionaries. However, the antient diets were ſtill retained. In the year 800, Charles revived and conferred the dignity of Roman emperor upon himſelf and family: but his ſon Lewis divided the empire among his ſons; upon which great troubles aroſe, which, in 843, were adjuſted by an accommodation; by which Lewis the German obtained all Germany as far as the Rhine, with the three towns of Spires, Worms, and Mentz; and thus Germany became an independent kingdom. In 870, Lewis reduced half of the Lotharingian kingdom under his ſubjection, and his ſon Lewis, the younger, nine years after reduced the other.

Lewis the Younger ſharing his paternal kingdom with both his brothers, Carlman became king of Bavaria, Lewis of Eaſt Franconia, and Charles the Fat of Alemannia; the laſt ſurviving his brothers, not only inherited their kingdoms, but obtained the imperial dignity, together with all Italy and France: yet governed in ſo weak a manner, that in 887 he was depoſed by the German ſtates, who conſtituted Arnulph, Carlman's natural ſon, king of Germany. This prince beat the Normans, who had made great devaſtations in Germany; and, by the

the aſſiſtance of the Huns, ſubdued the Bohemians. But afterwards, by the death of his ſon Lewis the Child, his family became extinct. Germany was at that time an hereditary kingdom, but the power of its monarchs was limited by the diets. The ſeveral territories belonging to it were governed under the king by counts, among whom the margraves defended the borders againſt hoſtile attacks.

The German ſtates now raiſed a Frankiſh lord, named Conrad, to the throne, he being deſcended from the daughter of Lewis the Firſt. Conrad was ſucceeded by his enemy Henry duke of Saxony, whom on his death-bed he recommended to the ſtates

In Henry II. the male race of the Saxon kings and emperors ended in 1024, during which time Germany continued an hereditary kingdom. The ſtates afterwards aſſembling at Tribus in the open fields on the banks of the Rhine, elected Conrad II. for their king, who being alſo acknowledged by the ſtates of Italy, he likewiſe obtained the imperial dignity. By means of his ſon he annexed the kingdom of Burgundy to the empire, rendered Poland ſubject to his dominion, and in a treaty with Denmark appointed the Eider as the boundary of the German empire.

Henry III. depoſed three popes who had ſet up againſt each other, appointing a fourth in their ſtead; ſince which time the vacancy of the papal chair has always been intimated to the emperor, who ſends a perſon to Rome to deſire that a new pope may be elected.

Henry IV. his ſon, was, however, put under the ban by the pope, on which he was depoſed by the ſtates.

Henry V. ſucceeded his father, but was obliged to renounce all pretenſions to the inveſtiture of biſhoprics, which had been claimed by his anceſtors; and in him became extinct the male line of the Frankiſh emperors.

Upon this the pope cauſed Lotharius, duke of Saxony, to be elected; but he was not acknowledged by all Germany for their ſovereign, till after a ten years war. After him Conrad of Hohenſtanſen ſucceeded to the crown. The emperor Frederic I. effectually exerciſed his ſovereignty over the ſee of Rome, by virtue of his coronation at Arles, reſerving alſo his dominion over that kingdom, and obliging Poland to pay him tribute, and take an oath of allegiance. Henry VI. attempted in vain to render the crown hereditary in his family. Philip, the brother of Henry, ſucceeded him; but refuſing to acknowledge the pope's ſupremacy, was excommunicated, and Otho, duke of Brunſwic, ſet up againſt him by the pope and the electors. The whole empire was engaged in this diſpute in a bloody war, till Philip being treacherouſly aſſaſſinated in his bed, Otho became poſſeſſed of the whole empire; but he had not reigned four years, before he was depoſed by the pope and the electors, and Frederic, king of Sicily, advanced to the imperial dignity.

Frederic II. whom hiſtorians extol for his learning, wiſdom, and reſolution, was five times excommunicated by three popes; but prevailed ſo far againſt pope Gregory IX. as to depoſe him from the papal chair. Theſe continual conteſts between him and the popes gave riſe to the two famous factions of the Guelphs and Gibellines; the former adhering to the papal ſee, and the latter to the emperors. Frederic having reigned thirty-eight years, died, or, as ſome ſay, was poiſoned, in Italy; after which the empire remained in great confuſion for upwards of twenty years, there being no leſs than ſix competitors for the imperial dignity.

Germany began to recover from its diſtracted ſtate in 1273, when count Rodolphus of Hapſburg was advanced to the imperial dignity, the other electors leaving the choice to the palſgrave Lewis; and from him the houſe of Auſtria ſprung.

Count Adolphus of Naſſau was alſo, by virtue of a compromiſe, created emperor by the elector of Mentz; but he ſo diſguſted the electors of the empire, that they made choice of Albert the ſon of Rodolphus for their ſovereign, who defeated Adolphus in a pitched battle, and ſlew him with his own hand. Albert's coronation was confirmed by the pope; but he was afterwards murdered by his nephew and three aſſaſſins.

On the death of Albert, in 1308, Henry, count of Lutzelburg, was created emperor: he was famed for his wiſdom, temper, and courage; but was poiſoned by a Franciſcan friar with the conſecrated elements. The emperor no ſooner perceived what was done, than he generouſly adviſed the villain to make his eſcape; but neglecting to perform it, he was taken and flayed alive.

Ludowic, or Lewis of Bavaria, after an interregnum of ſome years, was choſen emperor, by a majority of the electors, in 1318; but Frederic, duke of Auſtria, ſon of the late emperor, was ſet up by a contrary faction. Frederic's forces were defeated, and Lewis remained ſole emperor. After his death Charles IV. was unanimouſly elected emperor, and diſtinguiſhed himſelf by drawing up the golden bull, or thoſe regulations for the election of an emperor, which are ſtill obſerved. Charles lived to ſee his ſon Wenzel, or Wenceſlaus, elected king of the Romans. This prince, who was the fourth ſon of Charles, at his father's deſire, ſucceeded to the empire; but, being diſſolute and cruel, was depoſed, after he had reigned twenty-two years.

Charles was ſucceeded by three other princes, whoſe reigns were ſhort; and at length, in 1411, Sigiſmund was unanimouſly choſen emperor, who, in 1414, proclaimed a general council to be held at Conſtance, in which three popes were depoſed, and a new one ſet up. At this council thoſe reformers John Huſs and Jerom of Prague were condemned and burnt, though this emperor had granted them a paſſport, and was engaged in honour and conſcience for their ſafe return to their country; which ſo exaſperated the Huſſites of Bohemia, that they raiſed a formidable army, and, under the conduct of Ziſca, their general, defeated his forces in fourteen battles. Frederic, duke of Auſtria, ſon-in-law to the emperor Sigiſmund, was choſen emperor upon the death of his father, and reigned fifty-three years. His ſon Maximilian was choſen king of the Romans during his father's life-time, and afterwards obtained from the pope the imperial crown; and during his reign the empire was divided into ten circles.

Charles V. ſurnamed the Great, ſon to Philip king of Spain, and grand-ſon to Maximilian, was elected emperor in 1519. He procured Luther's doctrine to be condemned, and in his reign the diſciples of that great reformer obtained the name of Proteſtants, from their proteſting againſt a decree of the imperial diet in favour of the Catholics. He is ſaid to have been victorious in ſeventy battles: he had the pope and French king priſoners at the ſame time, and carried his arms into Africa, where he conquered the kingdom of Tunis. He drove the Turks from the ſiege of Vienna, made war on the proteſtant princes, and took the elector of Saxony and the prince of Heſſe priſoners; but, after a reign of thirty-eight years, he reſigned his empire to his brother Ferdinand, and retired into a convent in Spain.

Ferdinand I. diſtinguiſhed himſelf by eſtabliſhing the aulic council of the empire: he was a peaceful prince, and uſed to aſſign a part of the day to hear the complaints of his people. Maximilian II. and his ſon Rodolphus II. were both elected king of the Romans, but the latter could not be prevailed upon to allow a ſucceſſor to be choſen in his life-time. He was ſucceeded by his brother Matthias, in whoſe capitulation it was for the firſt time inſerted, that the electors for the future ſhould be entitled to elect a king of the Romans even againſt the will of his father.

In the reign of Ferdinand II. broke out the thirty years war, in which he endeavoured to deſtroy the Proteſtants, and which was put an end to by his ſon Ferdinand III. in the year 1648, by the peace of Weſtphalia, by which the Proteſtants were ſecured in their religious and civil privileges. This emperor conferred on duke Erneſt Auguſtus of Brunſwic Lunenburg the ninth electoral dignity, and was ſucceeded by his ſon Joſeph, king of the Romans. This laſt was followed by his brother Charles VI. who in the year 1713 publiſhed the ordinance called the pragmatic ſanction, to ſecure his hereditary dominions in his family, and died in 1740, without male heirs. In 1742 Charles VII. of Bavaria was choſen emperor, by the ſuſpenſion of the vote of Bohemia; but, after an un-

happy reign, in which he was continually at war, he died in 1745, and was ſucceeded by Francis I. grand duke of Tuſcany, and duke of Lorrain, who had married the queen of Bohemia, the daughter of Charles VI.

SECT. IV.

Of the Election and Coronation of the Emperor; his Power, and the Power and Privileges of the States of the Empire and the Diet.

THE empire is elective, and every new king of the Romans is obliged ſolemnly to renounce all attempts of rendering it hereditary in his family. The laws of the empire make no limitation with reſpect to religion, nation, ſtate, or age. The choice is ſettled by the majority of the electors, and declared by the elector of Mentz, within a month after an account is received of the former emperor's death, by means of envoys and public reſcripts to each elector. The ceremony of election is performed at Frankfort on the Mayne; where the electors appear, either in perſon, or ſend two or three envoys, who muſt be provided with ſufficient powers. After ſettling the deliberations, as well relating to the capitulation of election, as to other matters propoſed by the ſtates, foreign envoys, and others, all the foreigners who do not belong to the retinue of the electors, or their envoys, are ordered to leave the town before the day of election; after which all the electors preſent, with the firſt envoys of ſuch as are abſent, march in their electoral habits in proceſſion on horſeback, the three eccleſiaſtical electors wearing ſcarlet robes, with caps lined with ermine, and the robes of the ſecular electors of crimſon velvet lined alſo with ermine, each with his hereditary marſhal carrying a ſword in a ſcabbard before him; but this honour is not paid to the deputies of the abſent electors. In this manner they proceed from the council-houſe to St. Bartholomew's church, where alighting at the gate, they go to their reſpective ſeats in the choir, followed by ſeveral princes and counts of the empire, the ſeveral ſword-bearers ſtanding before their reſpective electors, with their ſwords drawn and laid on their ſhoulders. The ſervice begins with Veni Creator, and the Proteſtant electors withdraw till maſs is over; after which they return, and they all ſolemnly take an oath before the altar, to elect the fitteſt perſon to be emperor, and then ſhut themſelves up in the chapel of election, which is a ſmall vaulted gallery, to which there is an entrance from the choir. When they have once more ſworn to ſtand to a plurality of votes, theſe votes are collected by the elector of Mentz, according to the rank of the electors; and then the elector of Mentz is aſked by the elector of Saxony for his vote. Whoever has above half the voices of the college is elected, and an elector may even vote for himſelf.

The election being over, the perſon elected, or his proxy, muſt immediately ſwear and ſubſcribe to the capitulation of election, which being done, he receives the congratulations of the electors, and the choice is made public in the church. If the elected king of the Romans be not preſent in perſon, he muſt give a counter-bond that he will maintain the capitulation of election, and, before his coronation, muſt ſwear to it in perſon; and, till this is done, he cannot aſſume the government, but muſt leave it to the vicars of the empire. An authentic copy of the capitulation of election, ſubſcribed by the perſon elected, or his envoy, and confirmed by his ſeal, is delivered to each of the electors; and, on the other hand, the electoral college cauſes to be delivered to the perſon elected an inſtrument of his election, which, when he is abſent, is carried to him by a prince, with a writing of notification. Upon this he appoints a day for his coronation, which ought to be performed at Aix la Chapelle, but at preſent is always held in the town of election.

Part of the jewels of the empire are kept at Aix, and part at Nurenburg. Moſt of them belonged to Charlemagne, and are ſolemnly delivered up at the place of coronation. Excluſive of ſeveral kinds of veſtments, there are the crown and ſceptre, with two rings, one imperial monde, two broad ſwords, one ſmall one, a book of the goſpels, &c.

At the coronation the temporal electors, or their ambaſſadors, attend the perſon elected from his palace to the church, in the following order; the elector Palatine with the crown, the elector of Bavaria with the monde, or globe, and the elector of Brandenburg with the ſceptre, march firſt, abreaſt; the elector of Saxony carries the ſword, and the elector of Hanover the ſtandard. At the door of the church he is received by the three eccleſiaſtical electors in their robes, who attend him to the altar; and having taken a general oath as a ruler, and alſo promiſed due veneration to the pope and the church, the archbiſhop who officiates, anoints his head, and between his ſhoulders, his neck, breaſt, and right arm; then being clothed in the ancient imperial robes, he is brought to another altar, and once more ſworn; he is then crowned, and afterwards conducted to the throne, where the archbiſhop bids him receive and keep the pledge which was deſigned for him by Providence. Te Deum is then ſung, and the trumpets and other muſic proclaim the general joy. After which he dubs ſome knights, is made a canon of the collegiate church of St. Mary at Aix la Chapelle, and is then conducted on foot, in ſolemn proceſſion, to the council-houſe to a table, at which the hereditary officers attend.

Till the reign of Charles V. the emperors ſuffered themſelves to be crowned at Rome by the pope, and then ſtiled themſelves Roman emperors. The emperor, immediately on his entering on the government, ſhews his veneration to the pope by an embaſſy. The title of king of Italy and Lombardy, if we except twenty-one fiefs of the empire, that lie in the eccleſiaſtical ſtate, is merely titular.

The emperor's title runs thus, "F. by the grace of "God elected a Roman emperor, and at all times aug-"menter of the empire of Germany." Next follow the titles of the hereditary imperial dominions. The ſtates of the empire give the emperor the title of moſt illuſtrious, moſt powerful, and moſt invincible Roman emperor; but the laſt is omitted by the electors.

The arms of the emperor and empire are a black ſpread eagle with two heads, hovering with expanded wings in a field of gold, and over the head of the eagle is ſeen the imperial crown. To theſe are annexed the arms of the ſeveral hereditary countries.

The prerogatives of the emperor conſiſt partly in his being looked upon by all other crowned heads and ſtates in Europe as the firſt European potentate, and conſequently has precedence given him and his ambaſſadors. With reſpect to the German empire, he is its ſupreme head, and as ſuch enjoys many privileges. Yet his power in the adminiſtration of the German empire is limited both by the capitulation of the election, the other laws of the empire, by treaties, and by the cuſtoms of the empire. Thoſe privileges which he has the right of exerciſing without the advice of the ſtates, are called his *reſervata*; but his greateſt power does not conſiſt in theſe, which are far from being repugnant to the liberties of the ſtates of the empire.

His rights, with reſpect to eccleſiaſtical affairs, conſiſt in little more than confirming eccleſiaſtical elections, and ſending commiſſaries to the elections of archbiſhops, biſhops, and abbots, that they may be performed in due order; but the commiſſary is never perſonally preſent at theſe elections.

With reſpect to temporal affairs, the emperor has the right of beſtowing perſonal dignities; as for inſtance, the creating of noblemen, as lords, barons, counts, who enjoy the dignity of princes, and of knights and gentry; as alſo that of raiſing countries and territories to a higher rank; of beſtowing coats of arms, as alſo the enlarging, improving, and altering them. He has the power of eſtabliſhing univerſities, and enabling them to confer academical degrees; of granting a right of holding fairs and markets, and of erecting any place into a ſanctuary. He has likewiſe the power of beſtowing letters of reſpite, of ſecuring a debtor againſt his creditor, and of conferring majority on minors. He can put children who are born out of wedlock upon the footing of ſuch as are legitimate; can confirm the contracts and ſtipulations of the members of the empire; and ſo far remit the oaths extorted from them, that they may com-

commence an action at law againſt another, on account of the very thing for which the oath was adminiſtered.

The emperor, however, has no right, without the conſent of the collective ſtates of the empire, to put one of thoſe ſtates under the ban; to exclude a ſtate of the empire from a ſeat and voice in its colleges; to interfere in the laws of the empire; to conclude treaties in affairs relating to the empire; to involve it in a war; to raiſe levies; or to conclude a peace in which the empire is concerned; to appoint taxes in it; to regulate the coinage; to build forts in the empire; or to determine religious diſputes.

The ſucceſſor in the adminiſtration is frequently choſen by the electors during the life of the emperor, and the perſon ſo choſen ſtiled King of the Romans. He is elected and crowned in the very ſame manner as the emperor; and though he has properly no kingdom, is actually a crowned head; is ſaluted with the title of Majeſty, and enjoys the title of Perpetual Augmenter of the empire, and king of Germany. He bears a ſpread eagle with one head, in his arms, and takes precedence before all other kings of Chriſtendom.

With reſpect to the emperor's court and chancery, he has for his aſſiſtants the arch-offices of the empire, which are filled by electors.

Of the nine electors, three are ſpiritual, and the reſt temporal; of the former is the elector of Mentz, who is arch-chancellor of the holy Roman empire, and director of the electoral college: this prince, beſides the offices he enjoys at the coronation, as already mentioned, has the general direction, and is not to be controuled by the emperor; he lays before that body the grievances of the ſeparate ſtates. Before him, or his envoys, all thoſe of the ſtates of the empire, as well as of foreign powers, legitimate themſelves. He nominates the vice-chancellor of the empire, who muſt take an oath to him as well as the emperor. He likewiſe appoints all officers for the chancery of the empire, and has ſupreme juriſdiction over them, and alſo the inſpection of the archives of the empire.

The elector of Treves, who is the ſecond ſpiritual elector, is the arch-chancellor of the holy Roman empire in Gaul and the kingdom of Arles, but this is at preſent no more than a mere title. He has the firſt voice at the election of a king of the Romans, and conſtantly precedes the elector of Cologn.

The elector of Cologn is arch-chancellor of the holy Roman empire in Italy, and has a ſecond voice at the election of a king of the Romans. When the emperor is crowned at Aix-la-Chapelle, and in the archbiſhopric of Cologn, he has the right of performing the coronation alone; but if it happen in a third place, that is neither in his archbiſhopric, nor in that of Mentz, he exchanges therein with the elector of Mentz.

The temporal electors are the following: The king of Bohemia, the elector of Bavaria, the elector of Saxony, the elector of Brandenburg, the elector Palatine, and the elector of Hanover.

The king and elector of Bohemia is arch-cup-bearer of the holy Roman empire, and as ſuch, preſents to the emperor the chalice, filled with wine and water, and hands the firſt liquor to the table in a ſilver cup, which weighs twelve marks, or about ninety-ſix ounces Engliſh, which afterwards, together with the horſe, becomes the property of his vicar. His other prerogatives are, his preceding all other temporal electors, walking in proceſſion immediately after the emperor, followed by the empreſs, and the electors of Mentz and Cologn; and in the electoral college he has a third voice.

The elector of Bavaria is arch-ſewer of the holy Roman empire. At the coronation he carries the monde before the emperor, ranks next to Bohemia, and at the imperial coronation places four ſilver diſhes, weighing twelve marks, on the imperial table, and ſerves up the firſt courſe.

The elector of Saxony is arch-marſhal of the holy Roman empire. At the diets, and on other ſolemn occaſions, he carries the ſword of ſtate before the emperor, and at the coronation rides into a heap of oats, and fills a ſilver meaſure with them. At the diets he appoints quarters for the electors, or their envoys; and during the holding of the diets, has juriſdiction over all electoral, and other officers of the empire.

The elector of Brandenburg is arch-chamberlain of the empire, and carries the ſcepter before the emperor, and preſents him with water in a ſilver baſon, for him to waſh his hands.

The elector Palatine has the office of arch-treaſurer, and throughout all Germany is protector of the order of St. John; he can alſo raiſe nobles and gentlemen to the degree of counts.

The elector of Bavaria being put under the ban of the empire, and the Palatine obtaining the office of arch-ſewer, the elector of Brunſwic Lunenburg alſo obtained the office of arch-treaſurer, a title which he ſtill bears, till another ſuitable office be found him. He enjoys the alternate ſucceſſion of the biſhopric of Oſnaburg, with ſome other rights and privileges; and his electoral juriſdiction extends both to the territories of Hanover and Zell. Indeed, the emperor Leopold raiſed the illuſtrious houſe of Hanover, on account of the extraordinary ſervices both he and the empire had received from it, to the electoral dignity, ſo early as the year 1692; but thoſe electors obtained neither a ſeat nor a voice in the electoral college till the year 1708.

After theſe follow in rank the princes of the empire, who are partly ſpiritual, and partly temporal; partly old, and partly new; or firſt raiſed to that dignity ſince the reign of Ferdinand II. The ſpiritual princes are either archbiſhops, biſhops, or princely abbots; and to them likewiſe belong the Teutonic maſters, together with the maſterſhip of the order of St. John. Among the temporal princes is an arch-duke, and the reſt are either dukes, palſgraves, margraves, landgraves, burgraves, princes, or princely counts. In the college, or council of the princes of the empire, are three benches: on what is called the ſpiritual bench, ſit the ſpiritual princes, with the arch-duke of Auſtria, and that of Burgundy, but in ſuch a manner that Auſtria daily exchanges the firſt place with Saltzburg: on the temporal bench ſit the other temporal princes; and on the croſs bench the biſhops of Lubec and Oſnaburg, when the latter happens to be a Lutheran.

The diet of the empire is an aſſembly of the emperor, and of all the ſtates, or their envoys and plenipotentiaries, in order to conſult and take reſolutions in ſuch affairs as concern the whole German empire. The diet is ſummoned by the emperor, who, after conſulting with the electors, appoints the time and place where it ſhall meet, which muſt be within the German dominions. The ſummons conſiſts of printed patents ſubſcribed by the emperor, and ſent in the form of a letter to each ſtate of the empire, briefly declaring the occaſion of their meeting, and the moſt important matters to be tranſacted. The emperor either aſſiſts at it in perſon, or has a principal commiſſary, who is generally an old imperial aulic counſellor, and a perſon of learning raiſed to the dignity of a baron.

The reſpective ſtates may either appear themſelves, or by their envoys, or charge another ſtate, or its envoys, with their voice. On the ſide of the ſtates the elector of Mentz, or his envoys, has the general direction; and theſe envoys ſhew their credentials to the elector of Mentz, or his envoys, and to the imperial principal commiſſary.

The ſtates of the empire, in their conſultations, divide into three colleges, the electoral, the princely, and the college of the imperial cities; each of the two firſt, which are called the higher colleges of the empire, has a principal and by-chamber of its own; but all the three colleges meet to hear the imperial propoſals, and at the exchanging of the concluſions of both the higher colleges againſt the imperial cities, in the hall of correlatives.

It ought not to be omitted, that the eccleſiaſtical and ſecular princes of the empire, and all prelates who have princely dignities annexed to their functions, with the maſter of the Teutonic order, have each one ſingle voice; but the reſt, who have no temporal principality, give their voices by companies, of which kind are the two benches of the Rhine and Swabia. The repreſentatives,

of

or the deputies of the imperial cities, form the laſt and third rank of members in the diet, and are alſo divided into the Rheniſh and Swabian benches. On the firſt ſit the repreſentatives of Lubec, the free cities upon the Rhine, which amount to fifteen; and on the other the repreſentatives of the thirty-ſeven free cities in Swabia and Franconia. The repreſentatives of the city where the diet is held ſit at a table by themſelves, and take an account of the voices of the other deputies, which are regiſtered by the two regiſters of Ulm and Spire, one of them repreſenting the cities in the circle of the Rhine, and the other the cities in the circle of Swabia.

In each college the reſolutions are formed by a majority of voices; but when affairs relating to religion are diſcuſſed, or where all the Catholics are of one opinion, and all the Proteſtants of another, it does not turn on a majority of voices.

If the three colleges be unanimous, a judgment of the empire is formed for the uſe of the emperor, or his principal commiſſary; but if only two of the colleges are unanimous, their reſolution, with the particular concluſion of the third, is delivered into the imperial commiſſion. When the emperor approves either of the judgment of the empire, or the concluſion of two colleges, an obligatory concluſion of the empire ariſes out of it, and it is immediately put into execution.

SECT. V.

Of the Forces, Taxes, Courts of Juſtice, and Laws of the Empire.

TAXES and other impoſts can no otherwiſe be laid on the empire in general by the emperor, than with the advice, privity, and conſent of the electors, princes, and ſtates, at the general diets. Theſe taxes are partly ordinary, and partly extraordinary: the former, which are ſtyled the chamber-terms, are what each ſtate of the empire is annually to contribute for maintaining the chamber-judicatory of the emperor and empire; and the proportion paid by each ſtate is expreſſed in the matricula of the chamber. But theſe chamber-terms are ſo ill paid, that in 1753 the empire was indebted to the chamber-judicature ſix hundred and fifty-four thouſand and thirteen rixdollars. Indeed many complaints have been made, that the matricula is imperfect, and the ſtates not proportionably rated.

The extraordinary taxes are ſuch as are frequently granted, in caſe of neceſſity, by the ſtates, for the ſupport of the emperor, or the army of the empire; for the maintenance or building of its forts; and for a war, particularly againſt the Turks. Theſe are granted according to what is called in Germany Roman months; a denomination which took its riſe from this circumſtance: in antient times the emperors, in order to receive the papal coronation, took a journey to Rome, and the German ſtates of the empire were bound to eſcort them with a certain number of horſe and foot for ſix months, at their own expence; or to pay twelve florins monthly for a horſeman, and four for a footman; which money obtained the name of Roman months. This foot, or ſtandard, was afterwards retained, and the rate of each ſtate, either in men or money, is ſettled in what is termed the matricula of the empire. A Roman month ought to bring in fifty-eight thouſand two hundred and eighty florins.

The emperor is not to commence a war of the empire, without the conſent of the electors, princes, and ſtates, obtained in an open diet. But when the empire reſolves upon a war, the generality of the empire, with the field-marſhal at the head, and alſo the directors and counſellors of the military council, are to be nominated by the emperor and the whole body of the ſtates; and thoſe to an equal number of both religions, who, together with the whole army, are ſubject to the emperor and empire. The war muſt alſo be carried on agreeably to the ordinances of the empire; and the oldeſt field-marſhal, without diſtinction of religion, muſt command the army. But at preſent no directors of the military council are any longer called in, and the war is generally managed by the emperor and his aulic military council.

With reſpect to the forces which the ſeveral princes of the empire are able to maintain and pay, the following calculation has been made:

The elector of Mentz can maintain	6000
The elector of Triers	6000
The elector of Cologn	6000
The biſhop of Munſter	8000
The biſhop of Liege	8000
The archbiſhop of Saltzburg	8000
The biſhop of Wirtzburg	2000
The biſhop of Bamburg	5000
The biſhop of Paderborn	3000
The biſhop of Oſnaburg	2500
The abbot of Fulda	6000
The other biſhoprics of the empire	6000
The abbies and provoſtſhips of the empire	8000
Total of the eccleſiaſtical princes	74,500
The emperor for Hungary	30,000
For Bohemia, Sileſia, and Moravia	30,000
For Auſtria, and his other dominions	30,000
The king of Pruſſia, as elector of Brandenburg	40,000
The elector of Saxony	25,000
The elector Palatine	15,000
The duke of Wirtemburg	15,000
The Landgrave of Heſſe Caſſel	15,000
The prince of Baden	10,000
The elector of Hanover	30,000
The duke of Holſtein	12,000
The duke of Mecklenburg	15,000
The princes of Anhalt	6000
The prince of Lawenburg	6000
The elector of Bavaria	30,000
The dukes of Saxony	10,000
The princes of Naſſau	10,000
The other princes and imperial towns	50,000
The ſecular princes	379,000
The eccleſiaſtical princes	74,500
	453,500

But of the body of men which the empire unanimouſly agree to ſend, and promiſe to ſupply, one-half ſeldom actually appear in the field.

With reſpect to the courts of juſtice, the principal is the imperial aulic council, which is held at the imperial court, and ſolely depends on the emperor, who is ſupreme head and judge, to whom in all matters of importance a judgment is exhibited by the imperial aulic council. This judicatory conſiſts of a preſident, the imperial aulic vice-chancellor, a vice-preſident, and a number of imperial aulic counſellors, ſix of whom are always to be Lutherans; beſides theſe are two ſecretaries, and a fiſcal of the empire. To this claſs alſo belong the agents of the imperial aulic council, who give in the writings, urge the reſolutions, &c.

The imperial and chamber judicatory of the empire, which is filled by the emperor and ſtates of the empire at the ſame time, but maintained only by the latter, is at preſent held in the imperial city of Wetzlar. This judicatory conſiſts of a chamber judge, two preſidents of the chamber judicatory, one of whom is a Roman, and the other a Lutheran; as alſo of ſeventeen aſſeſſors, eight of whom are Lutheran, and nine catholic. To this court alſo belong a general and advocate fiſcal, with thirty procurators, and a number of advocates. The chamber judicatory has alſo a chancery of its own, and a treaſury, and has the direction of the chamber-terms of payment.

The other judicatories are called peculiar or lower, and to theſe belong the imperial land judicatory in Upper and Lower Swabia, held in the three imperial cities of Ravenſburg, Wangen, and Iſny, and in the borough of Altdorf, together with the imperial land judicatory of the burgraviate of Nurenburg, which belongs to the margrave of Brandenburg, and is held at Anſpach, and many others, particularly the imperial aulic judicatory of Rotweil, which ſolely depends on the emperor, and is the principal of the lower judicatories of the empire.

The

The civil law is generally obſerved in all courts of the empire, and to this are added ſome decrees, to which an equal regard is paid; as firſt, the golden bull, already mentioned, which has only about twenty-four leaves, and was publiſhed by Charles IV. with the approbation of moſt of the princes, counts, barons, and other ſtates of the empire, and contains all the fundamental laws relating to the election of the emperor, and the privileges of the electors: the ſeal annexed to this decree being of gold, it obtained the name of the Golden Bull, or edict, and is eſteemed irrevocable. Another conſiderable part of the municipal laws of the empire is the *Capitulatio Cæſarea*, which is a collection of forty or fifty articles between the electors and the emperor; who, at his coronation, ſwears to maintain the privileges of the electors, princes, and other ſubjects of the empire; that he will not alienate or diminiſh the revenues of the crown, or bring foreign troops into the empire, without the conſent of the ſtates. The third kind of laws by which the Germans are governed are, the acts of their general diets. Theſe laws indeed relate chiefly to the great, whoſe privileges they aſcertain and ſecure; but every diſtinct ſtate is governed by its prince or ſovereign, either according to a ſet of laws formed by him or his anceſtors, or his arbitrary pleaſure.

SECT. VI.

Of the State of Religion in Germany.

THE Germans became acquainted with ſome principles of the Chriſtian religion, towards the cloſe of the ſeventh century, by the Iriſh biſhop Kilian, Suidbert and Ewald, who were Engliſhmen, and Rupretcht, of Worms, who ſettled at Saltzburg; and in the eighth century, Winifred, of England, preaching among the Thuringians, Heſſians, and Saxons, was ordained biſhop of the Germans beyond the Rhine, by the name of Bonifacius; he was afterwards made archbiſhop of Germany, when, under the ſpecious pretence of propagating the doctrines of Chriſtianity, he exerted himſelf with great zeal in promoting obedience to the church of Rome, and even employed the ſecular power againſt ſuch biſhops and prieſts as refuſed to ſubmit to the Romiſh yoke and ceremonies of worſhip. Charlemagne propagated Chriſtianity among the Saxons by fire and ſword; and ſome time after, the Bohemians and Moravians were alſo brought to embrace the Chriſtian religion.

The reformation began in Germany about the year 1517; for the archbiſhop of Mentz being unable to pay the large ſums the pope expected from him, procured leave of his holineſs to ſell his pardons and indulgencies in all the great towns of Germany. Dr. Martin Luther hearing of this, proteſted againſt the proceeding, and openly diſputed at Wittemberg and Leipſic againſt thoſe who aſſerted the power of the pope to grant pardons and indulgences, notwithſtanding his being threatened with excommunication, and with being condemned as an heretic; but the elector of Saxony approving of his doctrines, he boldly propagated them in other parts of Germany, where the dukes of Brunſwic and Lunenburg, Wirtemburg, Mecklenburg, Pomerania, the marquis of Brandenburg, the landgrave of Heſſe, and the inhabitants of moſt of the imperial cities, became his diſciples, and, in 1529, proteſted againſt the concluſion of the diet at Spire, by which all innovations in religion, till the decree of a future council ſhould be obtained, were declared unlawful; and from this proteſt they received the name of Proteſtants; and from their confeſſion of faith, which the following year they ſolemnly delivered to the diet at Augſburg, they obtained the name of Adherers to the Augſburg Confeſſion. They took no part in the council of Trent; but the year before, that is in 1537, at an aſſembly at Smalkald, they ſet forth the ſubſtance of their doctrine in certain articles, in order to deliver them to the aſſembled biſhops. Afterwards refuſing to recede from the opinions they had profeſſed, the emperor Charles V. endeavoured to reduce them by force; but after a long war, which broke out in the year 1546, he granted them a toleration at Paſſau in 1552, which was afterwards confirmed to them at Augſburg in 1555, during the receſs of the diet of the empire. By this peace, all the adherents to the Augſburg confeſſion were confirmed in their full religious liberty, till a final agreement concerning both religions ſhould be brought about, and in caſe that could not be effected, for ever. To the maintaining of this important law of the empire, the emperors and popiſh powers have frequently bound themſelves by new obligations; and the former in particular have always confirmed it by oath in their capitulation of election; and the doubts that aroſe upon it were removed in the year 1648, by the treaty of Weſtphalia.

By virtue of this renewed and confirmed religious peace, no other religion, but that of the Roman, Lutheran, and reformed, is to be tolerated in the empire; yet there are ſects that adhere to neither of theſe three religions, and yet in ſome places enjoy the free exerciſe of their own. The determination whether a perſon be a member of this or that church, belongs only to that very church; and each ſovereign, or lord, is bound to allow his own vaſſals and ſubjects who are of another religion, not only the public and private exerciſe of theirs, but every thing belonging to it, as churches, ſchools, ſpiritualities, incomes, conſiſtories, &c. in the ſame manner as they ſtood on the firſt of January, 1624: but in a country where there are ſubjects who adhere to one religion, which in that year was neither publickly nor privately obſerved, it lies in the ſovereign's breaſt whether he ſhall ſuffer them in his country or not. If he enters into a ſtipulation with them, and promiſes them a toleration, it muſt be maintained, not only by him, but by his ſucceſſors; for the rights of ſuch ſubjects muſt not be infringed. But if he will grant no toleration, he muſt allow thoſe who at the time of the treaty of Weſtphalia were already ſettled in his country, five years at leaſt; and thoſe who afterwards came to ſettle therein, or have made any change in their religion, at leaſt three years. However, theſe regulations have in later times been repeatedly infringed.

Each proteſtant ſtate may make what regulations and changes it pleaſes within its own juriſdiction in matters relating to the churches or ſchools. Hence the external forms differ greatly in the proteſtant countries of the empire. The ſovereign commonly decides all important affairs, ſettles and eſtabliſhes, removes, promotes, caſhiers, or otherwiſe puniſhes ſuch as ſerve either in the church or ſchools: he forms eccleſiaſtical regulations, appoints feaſts and faſts, and erects colleges, which in his name ſuperintend the other affairs of the church. Conſiſtories are alſo generally appointed by the proteſtant ſtates, which for the moſt part conſiſt of lay and eccleſiaſtical counſellors; but in ſome places more, and in others fewer things fall under their notice. In many places alſo peculiar ſynods and a church council are held. Thoſe that ſerve the church and ſchools are either appointed by the ſovereign of the country, or the conſiſtory, the elders of the church, or its members. Theſe alſo appoint inſpectors, provoſts, or ſuperintendents; and general ſuperintendents are frequently placed over theſe.

The power of the proteſtant ſtates over their catholic ſubjects is the ſame with that which the catholic ſtates have over their proteſtant ſubjects. In favour too of thoſe, who in the year 1624 enjoyed the public exerciſe of their religion, it is provided, that the catholic biſhops in whoſe diſtrict they belong, ſhall retain the ſame ſpiritual juriſdiction over them as far as in that period: conſequently, ſuch as were merely tolerated out of grace or favour, are alſo wholly left in this particular to the ſupreme juriſdiction of the lord of the country; but with this limitation, that he can require nothing of them which is contrary to the principles of their church. On the other hand, no cloiſter ſituated in the territory of any proteſtant ſuperior, or lord, muſt be converted into any other order, unleſs the former order be wholly extinct; and even in that caſe, the cloiſter is to be ſupplied only with ſuch regulars as had a being as an order, prior to the religious diſſentions.

In ſhort, the proteſtant body has mutually agreed, that whenever, for the future, a Lutheran lord of a country

ſhall turn to the reformed or Calviniſt church, or obtain a country annexed to it, and *vice verſa*, in that caſe he ſhall leave his ſubjects the free exerciſe of their religion, their whole form of church and ſchool diſcipline, and all their other privileges. But if a church ſhall of itſelf turn to that of the lord of the country, the public exerciſe of religion ſhall be permitted the people; but at their own expence, and without prejudice to the others. The conſiſtorial counſellor, ſuperintendents of divinity and philoſophy are to be of the religion that prevailed in the country at the concluſion of the treaty of Weſtphalia.

SECT. VII.

Of the Circles into which the German Empire is divided, and the Italian Fiefs ſubject to the Emperor and the Empire.

GERMANY is divided into ten circles, in order to promote and maintain the internal peace and ſecurity of the empire, and the better to repel hoſtile violence; this is alſo done for the better examination and diſpoſal of whatever regards the public welfare; for the more juſt diviſion and collection of the aids granted by the empire, either in men or money; and for preventing and remedying the diſorders in the taxes, coinage, &c. The circles have, however, no particular regulations with reſpect to precedence, but are very differently ranked in the ordinances and acts of the empire. But if we conſider the rank of the aſſeſſors of the chamber-judiciary, and the regulations ſtipulated between ſome of them, they will appear in the following order, viz. the Auſtrian, the Burgundian, the Electoral Rheniſh, the Franconian, the Swabian, the Upper Rheniſh, the Lower Rheniſh Weſtphalian, the Upper and Lower Saxon. But this diviſion of the circles is imperfect, it not including all the dominions of the German empire; for Bohemia, Moravia, the Luſatias, and the Sileſias, are not comprized within them; nor was a ſufficient regard paid to the ſituation of the countries; for a part of the territories belonging to the Auſtrian circle lies ſcattered over all Swabia, and ſome countries of the Upper Rheniſh lie alſo therein, though they might with more propriety be added to the circle of Swabia.

With reſpect to religion, the circles are divided into thoſe that are entirely popiſh, as the Auſtrian and Burgundian; into ſuch as are wholly proteſtant, which are thoſe of Upper and Lower Saxony; and into the mixed, to which all the others belong.

The French wars have frequently occaſioned an aſſociation of the four circles that lie neareſt the Rhine, for their common defence, as well as that of the empire.

It will be proper juſt to mention here the fiefs belonging to the emperor and the empire in Italy, which the emperor in the laſt capitulation of election promiſed to preſerve. Theſe fiefs are at the imperial court divided,

1. Into thoſe of Lombardy, of which there are thirteen; and among them the dutchies of Milan, Mantua, and Montferrat; together with all the principalities of the houſe of Gonzaga, and the principality of Mirandola.

2. The Ligurian, of which there are nineteen, the chief of which are poſſeſſed by the princes of Dòria.

3. The Bononian, of which there are twenty, among which are the dukes of Modena and Ferrara, with the princes Spinola, Dòria, &c.

4. The Tuſcan, of which there are ten, and among them are the grand dutchy of Tuſcany or Florence, Piombino, Soramo, Comacchio, &c.

5. The Tirniſani, of which there eleven, and among them the princes of Maſſa, Malaſpina, &c.

We ſhall defer giving any account of theſe princes till we come to treat of Italy, to which they properly belong; and ſhall now proceed to the circles and other diviſions of Germany; beginning with Auſtria, which is bounded on the ſouth and eaſt by the countries we have juſt laid before our readers, and deſerves to be firſt mentioned on account of its containing the capital of the whole German empire.

SECT. VIII.

Of AUSTRIA.

Its Situation, Climate, Rivers, Mountains, Produce, and Face of the Country. Its Royal Towns, the Language ſpoke by the People, and its Government. With a conciſe Account of the Sciences, Arts, Manufactures, and Trade.

THE circle of Auſtria borders to the north on Moravia, Bohemia, and the circle of Bavaria; to the eaſt on Croatia and Hungary; to the ſouth on Croatia, the Adriatic Sea, and the territory of the Republic of Venice; and to the weſt on Swiſſerland. The countries diſtinguiſhed by Hither Auſtria are ſcattered in and about Swabia, and all the territories within this circle amount to about two thouſand and twenty-five German ſquare miles; ſo that this appears to be the largeſt of them all. It takes its name from the archdutchy of Auſtria, which conſtitutes the principal part of the circle, and alſo contains the provinces of Auſtria Proper, Stiria, Carinthia, Carniola, Tyrol, Trent, and Brixen.

The archdutchy of Auſtria is in general divided into two parts of very different extent. The larger tract, called Lower Auſtria, forms the eaſterly part of the country, and the ſmaller one, named Upper Auſtria, conſtitutes the weſterly.

The air of Lower Auſtria would be very unhealthy, was it not purified by ſtrong gales of wind. It is principally level, and the higheſt and moſt numerous mountains it contains are towards Stiria.

The country is fertile, and yields ſuch plenty of corn, that the inhabitants are able to diſpoſe of conſiderable quantities to their neighbours. In a few places they alſo cultivate muſtard, calamous, ſaffron, and, particularly towards Hungary, an excellent ſort of wine. The breed of cattle is good, and it has alſo a variety of game. At St. Annaberg, near the borders of Stiria, is a rich ſilver mine, which was firſt worked in the year 1754. It is remarkable that they have found in it a new ſpecies of ſilver ore, which is of an alcaline kind. Allum is alſo prepared here in plenty.

At Baden are ſome celebrated hot-baths. The Danube traverſes Auſtria from eaſt to weſt, and receives all the great and ſmall rivers of this country. The former of theſe are the Morawa, or March, which receives the Teya, and divides a part of this country from Hungary; the Leitha, which alſo forms the limits of Hungary; with the rivers Traſen, Erlebach, Ips, Kamp, &c. which all riſe in this country, and produce great variety of fiſh.

Upper Auſtria is mountainous, particularly towards Stiria and Bohemia, in which countries ſeveral tracts lie uncultivated; but the reſt of the country is fruitful. Towards Stiria the mountains are high, but the other parts abound in low hills. The ſoil of Upper Auſtria, from its many ſprings, is wet, and the air all the year round moiſt and cool, which ſeems partly owing to the ſaline earth it contains, but chiefly to the ſituation of the country; for as it lies on the ſhady ſide of the mountains of Auſtria Proper, and of the ſtill larger and higher ones of Upper Stiria and Saltzburg, the warm ſoutherly and weſterly winds are precluded.

Upper Auſtria is uncommonly fertile in muſhrooms, and the inhabitants plant a vaſt number of fruit-trees. As there are here no vineyards, the inhabitants plentifully ſupply themſelves with cyder and perry. This is alſo the firſt beer country on proceeding from Lower Auſtria towards the Danube; but as it has not a ſufficiency of corn, that defect is ſupplied by Lower Auſtria. The breed of cattle here is pretty good; the woods and foreſts are numerous, and abound in all ſorts of game.

Near Munden is a conſiderable mine of ſalt, out of which both the cryſtal and variegated ſort is dug; but the latter is little eſteemed. In theſe parts too freſh water is conveyed into the ſalt-works, or pits, which, after it has impregnated itſelf with alcaline particles, is extracted by machines, and conducted through canals for ſeveral miles in order for boiling. There are ſome other ſalt-works and ſome ſaline ſprings, and others that have a petrifying

A New MAP of the CIRCLE of AUSTRIA; from the best Authorities.

British Miles 69 to a Degree
5 10 20 30 40 50 60

BOHEMIA
MORAVIA
ELECTORATE OF BAVARIA
SWABIA
ARCHDUCHY OF AUSTRIA
DUCHY OF STIRIA
DUCHY OF CARINTHIA
DUCHY OF CARNIOLA
CROATIA
SCLAVONIA
HUNGARY
COUNTY OF TIROL
BISHOP of BRIXEN
BISHOP of TRENT
VENICE
GULF OF VENICE
MORLACHIA
PART OF ITALY
Alps Mount

Deckendorf, Landau, Passau, Inn R., Wichstein, Linz, Lust, Burgberg, Basenpach, Greyn, Vienna, Danube R., Haimburg, Neustadt, Edenburg, Mistzon, Enns, Lambach, Irndorf, Kloibendorf, Scheibs, Kulr, Sittberg, Hall, Waidorf, Lunts, Annaberg, Hohenberg, Gloguitz, Morunschlag, Sietas, Weyer, Steinbach, Spital, Strobele, Lichtel, Unken, Rosenheim, Trainstein, Salt Sburg, Unbach, Schernstein, Pirn, Marienfel, Wurtzach, Wangen, Kempten, Murnau, Waldek, Lec R., Kufstein, Waltering, Rotenburg, Rosenheim, Bregentz, Mittenwald, Rauris, Hall, Inn R., Inspruck, Zell, Volach, Dolach, Spital, Alylastis, S. Leonhart, Greiffen, S. Paul, Waldsbach, Weisneck, Love, Kirment, Betznau, Peterspurg, Loisum, Landeck, Brutz, Inn Raleh, Altenburg, Tirol, Spital, Meran, Montani, Glurns, Munster, Lienz, Clas, Mole, Coire, Alps Mount, Borino, Pieve, Spaier, Premion, Tassio, Seregnan, Trent, Tar, Bole, Rocca, Schio, Stoc, Bergamo, Brescia, Verona, Adige R., Porto, Rovigo, Padua, Vicenza, Brenta R., Piave R., Tolmeno, Belluno, Prades, Prax, Innichen, Brixen, Brunek, Mauls, Bruneck, Mauth, Trilliach, Dolsach, Dobiach, Friesach, Rotastain, Neuhaus, St. Joannis, Matrey, Drauburg, Villach, Tarvis, Osach, Udine, Concordia, Trevigio, Piave R., Tagliamento R., Idria, Adava, Goritia, Vipao, Gradisca, Aquileia, Rocca, Profeccio, Trieste, Fenstritz, Cairnis, Alpen, Tarnica, Lads, Costel, Meting, Farovarsko, Rubschino, Varlouski, Polan, Pisano, Raspo, Columne, Sclin, Neuburg, Crainburg, Oberburg, Radmansdorf, Kostenbock, Popetsch, Lisonzo, Tag, Trewn, Rudolfswert, Ruin, Agram, Sau R., Cilley, Mansburg, Tabor, Bellovar, Warasdin, Canischa, Marchburg, Mur R., Kapernack, Fisirits, Pettau, Schaus, Areifels, Oswald, Limburg, Marckk, Weisneck, Frauheim, Waitz, Furstenfelt, Graetz, Judenburg, Knittenfeld, Schiefling, Myur R., Leoben, Secau, Eysenartz, Proneberg, Waldbach, Freiburg, Brück, Krieglach, Alt Gues, Scheuern, Tieger Berg, Mariazel, Leoben, Pfandorf, Judenburg, Wolfsberg, Voitsberg, Gurck, Zeltweg, Knittelfeld, Stain, Traunstain, Spitz, Loiba, Madern, Tulln, Nussdorf, Hegnit, Stokeraw, S. Polten, Pira, Molck, S. Andrew, Pree, Buckendorf, Neulengbach, Achsen, Gros, Alland, Hohenberg, Lilienfelt, Ens R., Steyr R., Wels, Lintz, Basenpach, Greyn, Neustat, Pechlern, Enns, Irndorf, Kloibendorf, Scheibs, Kulr, Sittberg, Hall, Waidorf, Lunts, Annaberg, Hohenberg, Gloguitz, Morunschlag, Sietas, Weyer, Steinbach, Spital, Strobele, Lichtel, Unken, Rosenheim, Trainstein, Salt Sburg, Unbach, Schernstein, Pirn, Marienfel, Wurtzach, Wangen, Kempten, Murnau, Waldek, Lec R., Kufstein, Waltering, Rotenburg, Rosenheim, Bregentz, Mittenwald, Rauris, Hall, Inn R., Inspruck, Zell, Volach, Dolach, Spital, Alylastis, S. Leonhart, Greiffen, S. 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Polten, Pira, Molck, S. Andrew, Pree, Buckendorf, Neulengbach, Achsen, Gros, Alland, Hohenberg, Lilienfelt, Ens R., Steyr R., Wels

Long.d W. from London

10 11 12 13 14 15 16 17 18
49 48 47 46

G. Roffes Sculp.

VI

petrifying quality, and yet afford the beſt water for drinking of any in the country.

Here are ſeveral lakes and ſmall rivers, which yield many ſorts of fiſh; and alſo two medicinal baths.

There are fifteen royal towns in Lower Auſtria, with eighteen others belonging to particular lords; as alſo market-towns, and many common boroughs, religious foundations, and cloiſters, which enjoy both a ſeat and voice with the country; and likewiſe other cloiſters, citadels, and noblemen's ſeats.

In Upper Auſtria are ſeven royal towns, with five belonging to particular lords, eighty-one market-towns, many common boroughs, thirteen religious foundations, which enjoy both a ſeat and voice with the country, two knights commanderies, two colleges, one Jeſuits college, ſeventy other cloiſters, and two hundred and ſeventeen citadels and noblemen's ſeats.

The Auſtrian-German dialect, which is very different from the High Dutch, or proper German, is ſpoken from the Adriatic Sea to the north-north-weſt, and weſterly as far as Sileſia, Saxony, Franconia, Swabia, and Swiſſerland. It alſo extends to the eaſt and ſouth-eaſt, through Hungary and the Sclavonian territories; yet there is an obſervable difference in the pronunciation, and in a few particular words uſed in certain parts of this large tract of country.

The ſtates of Auſtria conſiſt of the prelates, including biſhops, abbots, and provoſts; of the lords, under which claſs are reckoned princes, counts, and barons; of the knights; and laſtly, of the towns and markets. The land-marſhal is here always elected from among the lords; but the deputy land-marſhal out of the order of knights.

The aſſemblies of the ſtates are either general land-diets, or ban-diets; the latter of which are divided into the greater and leſſer ban. Theſe aſſemblies are appointed by the ſuperior, and the buſineſs is laid before them either by the aulic counſellor, or by the archducal deputy; but the deliberations are carried on before the land-marſhal. In theſe aſſemblies they treat of contributions, taxes, military affairs, &c. The land-diet of Lower Auſtria is held at Vienna, and that of the Upper at Lintz.

The biſhopric of Vienna was immediately ſubject to the ſee of Rome, though the archduke has long had the right of nominating a biſhop. In 1722, at the ſolicitation of the emperor Charles VI. it was raiſed by the pope to a metropolitan church and archbiſhopric. The archbiſhop is a prince of the holy Roman empire, and has the biſhop of Newſtadt, near Vienna, for his ſuffragan, but is ſubject to the ſupremacy of the archducal houſe of Auſtria.

The ſciences in this country are in an improving condition, for there is an univerſity at Vienna, and academies of painting, ſculpture, and architecture. Manufactures are much improved; for in this country are thoſe of ſilk, gold and ſilver lace, woollen and linen cloths, ſtuffs, ſtockings, porcelain, mirrors, plate, braſs, and other articles. The importation of foreign manufactures is either prohibited, or under great reſtrictions. The trade of Auſtria gradually increaſes, and there are chiefly exported from thence ſaffron, wine, allum, and gunpowder.

SECT. IX.

The Diviſions of Lower Auſtria, and a particular Deſcription of the City of Vienna, and the Manners of its Inhabitants.

LOWER Auſtria, which is alſo termed the Country below the Ens, is divided into four circles, over each of which is appointed a circle-captain. Of theſe circles, two lie on the ſouth, and two on the north ſide of the Danube; the former from their ſituation, with reſpect to the foreſt of Vienna, are called the circles below and above the foreſt of Vienna; but the latter, from their ſituation with reſpect to Manhartſberg, the circles below and above the Manhartſberg.

We ſhall begin with giving a deſcription of the principal places in what is called the circle below the foreſt of Vienna, the ſeat of the emperor, and the capital of the German empire.

The celebrated city of Vienna, called by the Germans Wien, by the Turks Beez, and by the Poles Wieden, is ſituated in the forty-eighth degree twenty minutes north latitude, and in the ſixteenth degree twenty minutes eaſt longitude, on a branch of the Danube, which ſeparates the ſuburbs of Leopoldſtadt from the town, and receives the little river Wien, which paſſes through it between the city and ſuburbs. It ſtands in a pleaſant ſituation; for to the north and eaſt the country is entirely level, but to the ſouth and weſt are ſeen a range of mountains thick planted with vines and trees; and the Danube, which is there very wide, divides itſelf into ſeveral arms that form ſo many iſlands ſtocked with wood. This city has always been the reſidence of the emperors of the houſe of Auſtria.

Vienna indeed is but of ſmall extent, it being poſſible to walk round it on the glacis within the ſpace of an hour. Its ſituation is capable of rendering it pretty ſtrong, and it is actually well fortified; for it has a ſtrong rampart defended by eleven ſtout baſtions, and ten ravelins very broad and deep, with lined ditches, and the neceſſary out-works. The many churches and extenſive cloiſters the city contains, which have generally gardens and walks near them, take up almoſt one-ſixth part of the whole city, whence the ſtreets, which are narrow and crooked, are about eighty, and the houſes are computed at no more than about twelve hundred and thirty; but theſe are from four to even ſeven ſtories high, and are in general well built of ſtone, and provided with large convenient cellars; and among them are many magnificent palaces, which have noble fronts, though the narrowneſs of the ſtreets will not admit their being ſeen.

The lady Wortley Montague obſerves, with reſpect to the height of theſe buildings, that the town being too little for the number of people that deſire to live in it, the builders ſeem to have contrived to repair that misfortune, by clapping one town on the top of another; and adds, You may eaſily imagine, that the ſtreets being ſo narrow the rooms are extremely dark, and, what is ſtill a more intolerable inconvenience, no houſe has ſo few as five or ſix families in it. The apartments of the greateſt ladies, and even of the miniſters of ſtate, are divided but by a partition from that of a taylor or ſhoemaker. Thoſe who have houſes of their own let out the part they do not uſe to whoever will take them; and thus the great ſtairs, which are all of ſtone, are as common and as dirty as the ſtreet. It is true, when once you have travelled through them, nothing can be more ſurpriſingly magnificent than the apartments. They are commonly a *ſuite* of eight or ten large rooms all inlaid, the doors and windows richly carved and gilt, and the furniture ſuch as is ſeldom ſeen in the palaces of ſovereign princes in other countries. The apartments are adorned with hangings of the fineſt Bruſſels tapeſtry, prodigious large looking-glaſſes in ſilver frames, fine Japan tables, beds, chairs, canopies, and window-curtains of the richeſt Genoa damaſk, or velvet almoſt covered with gold lace or embroidery. The rooms are alſo adorned with pictures, vaſt jars of Japan porcelain, and large luſtres of rock-cryſtal.

The city is divided into four quarters, the Schotten, Wubmer, Stuben, and Carinthian. There are fifteen principal ſquares, the moſt remarkable of which are the ſix following: the Hof is the largeſt of them all, and, beſides a ſtone fountain, has a magnificent monument of gilt metal, which the emperor Ferdinand III. cauſed to be erected in the year 1647, in memory of the immaculate conception of the Virgin Mary; but this pillar was removed in 1667, by the emperor Leopold, and another of braſs erected in its place. The image of the Virgin Mary on this pillar is a maſter-piece, and is of braſs gilt. This pillar has a pompous Latin inſcription, compoſed by the emperor himſelf; the letters are of gold, and ſet in a braſs plate. The New-market, in which is a fine fountain. The Graben, in which, beſides two beautiful fountains, ſtands the marble Trinity pillar, which is ſixty-ſix feet high; this is an admirable piece of architecture built with ſtone, on which is alſo a Latin inſcription by the emperor Leopold its founder. Formerly it was

uſual

uſual for people, by way of amuſement, to ſit round theſe pillars; which often produced many pleaſant incidents. But a company, among which were ſeveral counteſſes, having given too much wine to a ſoldier on guard at the Virgin Mary's pillar, ſuch a diſturbance enſued as cauſed theſe aſſemblies to be forbidden; and at preſent people only kneel round the pillars. In the High-market ſtands Joſeph's metal pillar, which was erected in the year 1732.

The principal church in this city is the metropolitan church of St. Stephen, a very dark Gothic ſtructure of free-ſtone, adorned on the outſide with ſculpture repreſenting ſaints, beaſts, flowers, pyramids, &c. The roof is covered with glazed tiles of various colours. The higheſt tower is four hundred and ſixty, or according to others, only four hundred and forty-ſeven Auſtrian feet and a half high. It is built of large blocks of free-ſtone, faſtened together with iron braces, and is the ſtrongeſt ſteeple in Europe. It has a great bell hanging in it, upwards of ten feet in height, and thirty-two feet two inches in circumference, weighing, excluſive of the clapper, ſeventeen tons and a half. The clapper, which is eleven feet and a half long, weighs thirteen hundred and twenty-eight pounds. It was caſt by order of the emperor Joſeph out of the Turkiſh field-pieces taken in ſeveral battles. In the inſide of this church is a coſtly high altar, with many relics and curioſities, and a magnificent marble monument of the emperor Ferdinand III.

In Vienna are reckoned four pariſh churches, with ten other churches ſerved by particular eccleſiaſtics, ſixteen cloiſter churches, and eighteen cloiſters; among theſe are three colleges of Jeſuits, a college of regular canons, of Auguſtins, of St. Dorothea, a Capuchine convent, a Minorite convent, and the cloiſter of bare-footed Auguſtins, who have the imperial Aulic church, in which is kept, in ſilver repoſitories, the hearts of the high perſonages of the archducal houſe. This church belongs to the court, and you aſcend to it up a pair of ſtairs out of the palace. Ferdinand III. had a chapel built here to St. Apollonia, the patroneſs of the teeth, in conſequence of a vow he had made when his ſon prince Leopold cut his teeth. The tooth of St. Apollonia ſhewn here is likewiſe adored and kiſſed by the vulgar, who imagine the touch of it a cure for the tooth-ach.

Among the charitable foundations is the burghers hoſpital, in which three thouſand perſons are maintained.

The imperial muſeum is in the caſtle, and has an aſtoniſhing variety of curioſities in gold, ſilver, ivory, and mother of pearl, mathematical inſtruments of exquiſite workmanſhip, excellent pictures, antique intaglios, vaſes of agate, jaſper, cryſtal, garnet, emerald, and jewels of ineſtimable value. Among the curioſities is ſeriouſly ſhewn a dæmon, or familiar ſpirit, which being conjured out of a demoniac, was confined in a glaſs: but this is really nothing more than ſome dark-coloured moſs, or ſomething of that kind, which has ſome diſtant reſemblance of a little man, and is naturally incloſed within a triangular piece of cryſtal.

The imperial library is a very handſome edifice, adorned with good paintings, ſculpture, and a ſuperb gallery: with reſpect to the number and importance of the manuſcripts and printed books, it may vie with the Vatican and royal French libraries, and, with reſpect to printed books, exceeds them.

The land-houſe of the ſtates of Lower Auſtria and the town-houſe are fine modern ſtructures. The riding-houſe and the chancery of the empire are noble buildings in the modern taſte. The other public buildings here are the imperial arſenal, the burghers arſenal, the imperial arſenal near the new gate, in which is every thing neceſſary for the equipment of the ſhips uſed on the Danube, and the opera-houſe, which is a magnificent ſtructure.

The univerſity is ſaid to conſiſt of four nations; theſe are the Auſtrian, Rheniſh, Hungarian, and Saxon. An academy of painting, ſculpture, and architecture, was founded here in 1705. The Thereſian college, which was founded by the empreſs queen Maria Thereſa, is a well inſtituted riding academy, the members of which are all uniformly dreſſed, and each of them pays for his board, lodging, waſhing, ſchool-books, and other neceſſaries eight hundred florins yearly, and another hundred for riding. The Savoy Lichtenſtein riding academy was founded by Maria Thereſa, dutcheſs of Savoy, who was born princeſs of Lichtenſtein.

Among the palaces of Vienna is that of prince Eugene, which conſiſts of four ſtories, the third of which is the moſt magnificent; but the apartments and ſtair-caſe are ſomewhat darkened by the houſes on the other ſide of the ſtreet. In the front are three doors opening into ſo many balconies, and in every ſtory are ſeventeen windows. The roof is flat, in the Italian taſte, and adorned with eighteen large ſtatues. In one of the antichambers are fine paintings, repreſenting the battles of Hochſtet, Zenta, and four others; but the piece which firſt ſtrikes the eye, is the relief of the city of Turin. Among the beautiful tapeſtry, that repreſenting a ſhipwreck is particularly admired. Some of the apartments are hung with crimſon velvet, eſpecially that in which the late prince Eugene gave audience to the Turkiſh ambaſſador, under a canopy, and in a chair of ſtate. The ſtove in this room is made of braſs, and repreſents Hercules vanquiſhing the hydra. In another apartment is a book-caſe and a deſk covered entirely with tortoiſeſhell Nothing can be more beautiful than the looking-glaſs chamber; and indeed every part of this ſuperb palace is embelliſhed with exquiſite pictures, glaſſes of all kinds, and fine chimney-pieces. The library contains fourteen thouſand volumes, which are moſtly folios, and being bound in red Turky gilt, make a fine appearance. In this library is alſo a planetarium, in which Mr. Rowley, an Engliſhman, has accurately repreſented the revolutions of the heavenly bodies according to the Copernican ſyſtem.

The prince of Lichtenſtein has three palaces in Vienna; but that in the Herron ſtreet is the moſt magnificent. The front is adorned with columns and ſtatues; and the palace is furniſhed in the Italian taſte, with ſculptures, paintings, and antiques. Among the paintings are ſeveral pieces by Rubens; particularly ſix capital pieces repreſenting the hiſtory of Alexander the Great, valued at about twenty-four thouſand dollars; Herodias with John the Baptiſt's head by Raphael: the building of the tower of Babel on vellum, and the overthrow of Pharaoh with his army in the Red Sea, painted on marble, are very curious. The ſaloon is elegant and lofty; the vaulted roof was painted by Belucci, who alſo painted the cieling of the firſt and ſecond ſtories on canvas.

The ſuburbs are much larger than the city itſelf, which they encompaſs, but are removed to the diſtance of five or ſix hundred paces from the works of the fort. The line which encloſes them, and extends on both ſides to Leopoldſtadt, was in the year 1704 thrown up againſt the Hungarian rebels, and afterwards lined with bricks; the gates and entries to it being always kept by regular guards; of theſe Leopoldſtadt is the principal, and lies next the city on an iſland of the Danube; it was formerly called the Jews Town, but in the year 1670, the emperor Leopold driving that people from hence, it took its name from him. It contains one pariſh church, two monaſteries, the old imperial Favourita, a citadel, which in the year 1683 was almoſt deſtroyed by the Turks, and only a ſmall part of it is repaired. There are here alſo many fine houſes and gardens.

Oppoſite to it on the other ſide of the Danube lie the large ſuburbs of Roſſau, which contains ſome fine churches, palaces, houſes, and gardens. The nobleſt of theſe palaces is that of prince Lichtenſtein, which is extremely magnificent. The great ſtair-caſe conſiſts of two flights, and every ſtep coſt ſixty guilders, each being a ſingle block of red marble, ſeven paces in length, and in the two flights are a hundred and eight of theſe ſteps. Though the Italian palaces greatly ſurpaſs all others in the beauty and magnificence of the ſtair-caſes, yet Italy affords very few that equals this. The ſaloon, which is very ſuperb, was painted by Pozzo, and is adorned with four beautiful ſtone ſtatues, ſo finely encruſted with plaſter, that they have the appearance of alabaſter. Two of the apartments are entirely painted by Franceſchini di Bologna; and in every part of this noble palace, the eye is entertained with pieces of painting by celebrated artiſts.

The

The walks, parterres, water-works, and ſtatues, render the garden a moſt delightful place. It contains a great number of uncommon vegetables, and at the ends affords a very fine view of the country.

In the ſuburbs of Waringergeſſen is nothing worthy of notice.

In that called the Alſtergaſſe is the hoſpital of invalids, with the peſt-houſe, the great hoſpital, the Lower Auſtrian provincial academy, and count Paar's riding-ſchool.

The populous ſuburbs of St. Ulrich is ſubject to the juriſdiction of the Benedictine Scots abbey in Vienna, and contains one pariſh church, a Capuchin monaſtery, and upwards of a hundred gardens.

In the ſuburbs called the Leimgrube is one church, one cloiſter containing a church, a military academy founded by Maria Thereſa, the empreſs queen, and the imperial ſtables, which are equalled by few buildings of the kind, though the ſtalls in them are too narrow.

The ſuburbs called the Wien, from the little river of the ſame name which runs through it.

Gaudendorf, which belongs to the provoſt of St. Dorothea in Vienna, contains one convent of Dominicans, and a ſmall church.

The Wieden is pretty extenſive, and, beſides a cloiſter and the church of St. Charles Boromaus, contains the new imperial favorita, a ſummer reſidence, though but meanly built.

The Rennweg is remarkable for its churches, convents, palaces, and noble houſes. The cloiſter of the female Salerians, or Engliſh nuns, is pretty large, and has a ſmall but coſtly church. Theſe nuns are obliged to bring up and inſtruct young ladies. The palace of prince Schwartzenberg is extremely magnificent; the ſaloons, ſtair-caſes, marble tables, looking-glaſſes, porcelain vaſes, paintings, beds, and other rich furniture, make this one of the fineſt palaces near Vienna. The trees in the large orangery in the garden, inſtead of being planted in pots or tubs, ſtand in the ground, and in winter are ſheltered by little ſheds, which on occaſion may be warmed. The walks, groves, and water-works are extremely beautiful; and the laſt are ſupplied by means of an hydraulic engine worked by fire.

Adjoining to the above palace is that of prince Eugene, one of the fineſt buildings about Vienna. It has eleven rooms in a direct line in the front and the towers at the angles, and ſeven rooms in the wings. In the room adjoining to the prince's bed-chamber are ſeveral exquiſite pieces of painting in miniature, and in the next apartment is a chandelier of rock-cryſtal valued at twenty thouſand guldens, each gulden equal to two ſhillings and four-pence. Here is alſo a Dutch piece of painting of great value, repreſenting an old woman on her death-bed, with her daughter on her knee taking her leave of her, while her maid is ſtirring a medicine, and the phyſician looking into an urinal. In the chapel is a fine picture of the reſurrection of our Saviour. The large ſaloon is an oblong octagon, the cieling of which is finely painted in freſco, and it yields a very fine proſpect over the gardens towards the city. Among the excellent paintings in the other apartments are a beautiful piece repreſenting Adam and Eve as big as the life, a woman embracing a youth in a bath, Endymion and Diana, and a copy of Ruben's three Graces, which is much eſteemed. The gardens lie on a ſlope, and on that account make its elegant water-works appear to advantage. In that part of the garden on the left called Paradiſe, is a ſpacious aviary made of curious wire-work, and alſo beautiful walks and gilt ſummer-houſes. On one ſide of this palace the prince has a view from his apartment of eight ſmall courts, embelliſhed with fountains and rows of cheſnut trees, among which are to be ſeen a conſiderable number of exotic animals.

The ſuburb called the Landſtraſze lies directly oppoſite on the other ſide of the Danube, and contains a fine cloiſter of hermits of the order of St. Auguſtin, who here wear white ermine; alſo a couple of chapels, a ſeminary of Jeſuits, an hoſpital, and ſeveral fine houſes.

The Prater, or imperial park, is a pretty large iſland planted with wood, and has ſome fine walks, to which the people in ſpring reſort for taking the air.

The inhabitants of the city and ſuburbs amount to about a hundred and eighty or two hundred thouſand. The country about Vienna is fertile, and produces good graſs.

The fineſt of all the imperial pleaſure-houſes is Schonbrun, which lies at the diſtance of a league from Vienna; it was begun by the emperor Joſeph, who did not live to finiſh it. The pleaſant ſituation of this place is, however, attended with one inconvenience, which is, that the little river Wien croſſes the road ſeveral times between it and Vienna; and as it is ſubject to ſudden floods, it frequently happens, that a perſon who goes to Schonbrun at noon without the leaſt danger, in the evening finds his return rendered impracticable by the ſwelling of the river.

It will be proper before we take leave of Vienna, to give ſome account of the inhabitants of this celebrated city. The Proteſtants have the public exerciſe of their religion allowed them at the houſes of the Swediſh, Daniſh, and Dutch ambaſſadors; but in the ſtreets they muſt take care not to come in the way of a proceſſion of the Hoſt, the ignorant multitude frequently handling very roughly thoſe who make a conſcience of kneeling as it paſſes by.

The pride of rank is an eternal ſubject of quarrels among the great, for none of them will, upon any condition, deſiſt from their pretenſions where they imagine their rank is concerned. The lady Wortley Montague obſerves, that they are never lively but upon points of ceremony, and mentions two coaches, which meeting in a narrow ſtreet at night, when the ladies in them not being able to adjuſt the ceremonial of who ſhould go back, ſat there with equal gallantry till two in the morning, when the emperor ſending his guards they were both taken out exactly at the ſame moment, and carried away in chairs. The men are not leſs touched with this point of honour, and not only ſcorn to marry, but to make love to any woman of a family leſs illuſtrious than their own.

As the houſes of the great are richly furniſhed, the good taſte and magnificence of their tables are anſwerable to that of their furniture. They have frequently fifty diſhes of meat, all ſerved in ſilver, and well dreſſed, with a deſſert proportionable ſerved in the fineſt china. But what appears moſt ſurpriſing is the variety and richneſs of their wines. It is uſual to lay a liſt of their names upon the plates of the gueſts along with their napkins, and there are ſometimes eighteen different ſorts, all exquiſite in their kind.

Mr. Keyſler ſays, that when the empreſs amuſes herſelf in the evening with playing at cards, her company are the ladies of the privy-counſellors or lords of the bed-chamber, according to their ſeniority. She uſually plays at a gulden, or two ſhillings and four-pence a fiſh.

Among the diverſions of the imperial court, thoſe of the carnival muſt not be omitted; though the ſtrictneſs of the ceremonial checks the liberty allowed at other courts in the carnival maſquerades, no ladies but thoſe who have acceſs to the empreſs's chamber are admitted at court on thoſe occaſions. The emperor generally dances ſeveral times with the empreſs and archdutcheſſes, but the empreſs dances with the emperor only. In the country-dances their imperial majeſties are ſpectators, but the archdutcheſſes mingle with the company.

On the ſaint's day of the name of any of the royal family operas are exhibited, each of which is ſaid to coſt about ſixty thouſand guldens; for the magnificence of the theatre, the ſplendor of the decorations, the richneſs of the habits, and the performance in the orcheſtra, ſurpaſs any thing of the kind in Europe. Theſe days are called days of gala; and the ladies of quality, whenever they have a mind to diſplay the magnificence of their apartments, or oblige a friend by complimenting them on the day of their ſaint, declare, that on ſuch a day will be their gala. All the friends or relations of the lady whoſe ſaint it is, are obliged to appear in their beſt cloaths and all their jewels. The miſtreſs of the houſe takes no particular notice of any body, nor returns any body's viſit. The company are ſplendidly entertained, and afterwards divided into ſeveral parties at cards, or converſation, all games of hazard being forbidden.

The opera is here performed at court; and as the noble lady with whoſe obſervations we have in ſeveral parts embelliſhed this work has fully deſcribed them, we ſhall give a particular account of this and other diverſions from her letters. This lady, on viſiting one of theſe operas, ſays, "The ſtage was built over a very large canal, and "at the beginning of the ſecond act divided into two "parts, diſcovering the water; on which there immediately came, from different parts, two fleets of little "gilded veſſels, that gave the repreſentation of a naval "fight. It is not eaſy to imagine the beauty of this "ſcene, and all the reſt were perfectly fine in their kind. "The ſtory of the opera was the enchantment of Alcina, "which gives opportunities for a great variety of machines and changes of the ſcenes, which are performed "with ſurpriſing ſwiftneſs. The theatre is ſo large that "it is hard to carry the eye to the end of it, and the "habits in the utmoſt magnificence, to the number of "a hundred and eight. No houſe could hold ſuch large "decorations; but the ladies all ſitting in the open air, "expoſes them to great inconveniences; for there is but "one canopy for the imperial family, and the firſt night "it was repreſented, a ſhower of rain happening, the "opera was broke off, and the company crowded away "in ſuch confuſion, that I was almoſt ſqueezed to "death.

"But if their operas are thus delightful, their comedies are, in as high a degree, ridiculous. They have "but one play-houſe, where I had the curioſity to go "to a German comedy, and was very glad it happened "to be the ſtory of Amphitrion. As that ſubject has "been already handled by a Latin, French, and Engliſh "poet, I was curious to ſee what an Auſtrian author "would make of it. I underſtand enough of that language to comprehend the greateſt part of it; and, beſides, I took with me a lady that had the goodneſs to "explain to me every word. The way is to take a box, "which holds four, for yourſelf and company. The "fixed price is a gold ducat. I thought the houſe very "low and dark; but I confeſs the comedy admirably "recompenſed that defect. I never laughed ſo much in "my life. It begun with Jupiter's falling in love out "of a peep-hole in the clouds, and ended with the birth "of Hercules. But what was moſt pleaſant was, the "uſe Jupiter made of his metamorphoſis; for you no "ſooner ſaw him under the figure of Amphitrion, but "inſtead of flying to Alcmena with the raptures Mr. "Dryden puts into his mouth, he ſends for Amphitrion's taylor, and cheats him of a laced coat, and his "banker of a bag of money, a Jew of a diamond ring, "and beſpeaks a great ſupper in his name; and the "greateſt part of the comedy turns upon poor Amphitrion's being tormented by theſe people for their debts. "Mercury uſes Soſia in the ſame manner. But I could "not eaſily pardon the liberty the poet has taken of "larding his play, not only with indecent expreſſions, but ſuch groſs words as I do not think our mob "would ſuffer from a mountebank. Beſides, the two "Soſias very fairly let down their breeches in the direct "view of the boxes, which were full of people of the "firſt rank, that ſeemed very well pleaſed with their entertainment, and aſſured me this was a celebrated "piece."

It ought, however, to be added, in juſtice to the Germans, that ſince the time this lady wrote, they have greatly improved in the arts, and that their poetry, which even at the beginning of the preſent century was very rude, and in its infancy, is now much improved, and they have dramatic pieces that would do honour to any nation.

The above ingenious lady deſcribes another common amuſement of the court, which will farther ſerve to characterize the taſte of the great in this metropolis. The empreſs was ſeated on a little throne at the end of a fine alley in her garden, and on each ſide of her were ranged two parties of her ladies of quality, headed by two young archdutcheſſes, all dreſſed in their hair full of jewels, with fine light guns in their hands; and at proper diſtances were placed three oval pictures, which were the marks to be ſhot at. The firſt was that of a Cupid filling a bumper of Burgundy, and the motto, "It is eaſy to be valiant here." The ſecond, Fortune holding a garland in her hand, with the motto, "For her whom Fortune "favours." The third was a ſword with a laurel wreath on the point, the motto, "Here is no ſhame to the "vanquiſhed." Near the empreſs was a gilded trophy wreathed with flowers, formed of little crooks, on which hung rich Turkiſh handkerchiefs, tippets, ribbons, laces, &c. for the ſmall prizes. The empreſs gave the firſt with her own hand, which was a fine ruby ring ſet round with diamonds in a gold ſnuff-box. There was for the ſecond a little Cupid ſet with brilliants; and beſides theſe a ſet of fine china for the tea-table, japanned trunks, fans, and many other things of the like nature. All the men of quality at Vienna were ſpectators, but the ladies alone had permiſſion to ſhoot, and the archdutcheſs Amelia carried off the firſt prize.

SECT. X.

A conciſe Deſcription of the other principal Places in the Dutchy of Auſtria.

ANOTHER of the emperor's pleaſure-houſes is Laxenburg, which is ſituated about two German miles from Vienna, in a pleaſant little wood, and near it is a pretty well inhabited village and park. The extenſive circumjacent plain affords very great conveniences for the baiting of herons, which is ſaid to be performed here in ſpring-time by the imperial family.

In the neghbourhood of Vienna is Baden, which is much frequented for its warm baths, aſſemblies, and other diverſions. Both ſexes bathe here without diſtinction in the ſame bath, and at the ſame time. The bathing cloaths are made to cover the whole body, and thoſe of the women have lead at the bottom of them to keep them down. There are ſeats within the baths for the convenience of ſitting in the water, which can be raiſed or lowered at pleaſure. The company walk up and down in the bath converſing together, and the ladies are ſometimes treated with ſweetmeats. There are particular doors and ſtairs leading into the ſeparate ſtove-rooms out of the bath, where the different ſexes dreſs and undreſs apart. Some of theſe baths are within and others without it, and in moſt of them the water is extremely clear. The principal is called the Women's bath, and next to that the Duke's and Anthony's baths. There is alſo one appropriated to the uſe of the poor. The ſulphureous effluvia ariſing from the baths tinge moſt kind of metals with yellow; and a ſilver cup, after being ſome time uſed for drinking the water, contracts a ſort of gilding. Theſe baths are chiefly recommended to patients afflicted with the gout, lameneſs, pains in the joints, and any arthritic diſorders. Barren women often reſort thither and find relief; but whether this proceeds from the virtue of the water, or that of the company, we ſhall not determine. Before the principal church in this town is a fine pillar dedicated to the Holy Trinity.

Neuſtadt is a pleaſant and well built town on the Leitha: it is well fortified, and contains ſome broad even ſtreets, with ſome fine ſquares ornamented with pillars in honour of the Virgin Mary. Theſe kind of pillars have a fine effect in a city; and, though ſeldom ſeen in other popiſh countries, are very frequent in the Auſtrian territories. The palace here has been allotted for the new erected military academy, and is now inhabited by the young gentlemen, who are here inſtructed by officers appointed for that purpoſe in all parts of the art of war, and by others in the mathematics and polite literature. There is alſo here a college of Jeſuits. Out of the fine earth near this place is made a very beautiful ſort of porcelain.

The moſt conſiderable places in Upper Auſtria, which is divided into four quarters, are the following:

Lintz, the capital of Upper Auſtria, ſtands in an agreeable ſituation on the river Danube, in the forty-eighth degree twenty-one minutes north latitude, and the fourteenth degree twelve minutes eaſt longitude. It is well built and populous, and has ſome fine ſuburbs. The old town conſiſts almoſt entirely of one ſingle ſtreet, and includes in it the citadel, which is ſeated on an eminence that affords a fine open proſpect. In this citadel are the courts of juſtice for Upper Auſtria; and in the

town

town are a houſe belonging to the ſtates, a pariſh church, a conſiderable college of Jeſuits, the academy, and a fine church endowed by the emperor Ferdinand II. with four cloiſters of monks, and two of nuns, a commandery belonging to the Teutonic order, and ſome manufacturies. This town carries on a conſiderable trade.

Steyr is a town ſituated on a river of the ſame name, near the place where it falls into the Ens. It conſiſts of three parts; the town with its ſuburbs, and the villages of Ens and Steyr, both which have a communication with the former by means of bridges. It has a citadel, which ſtands on a point of a ſteep rock within the walls, and within the town are alſo one pariſh church, one college of Jeſuits, together with a cloiſter of Dominicans and another of nuns, as alſo an hoſpital. Without the town is a convent of capuchins, and all theſe religious houſes have churches. Moſt of the inhabitants work in ſteel and iron. This place was formerly the capital of a county, and belonged to Stiria; but it has been ſeparated from thence, and added to the country above the Ens.

SECT. XI.

Of the Dutchy of STIRIA.

Its Situation, Mountains, and Face of the Country; its Produce, Rivers, &c.

STIRIA, or Steyermark, in the circle of Auſtria, is bounded by the dutchy of Auſtria on the north; by Hungary on the eaſt; by Carniola on the ſouth; and by Carinthia and Saltzburg on the weſt. The northerly part is called the Upper Steyermark, and the ſoutherly the Under.

Upper Steyermark contains many high and ſteep mountains, among which the Grimming is the higheſt in the country; but by the diligence of the inhabitants this dutchy is pretty well cultivated, ſo that in many places the higheſt tops of the mountains are inhabited.

The people who dwell in theſe parts in winter, when great quantities of ſnow fall, are blocked up for ſeveral months, and as it were rendered captives. Indeed they are ſo habituated to the cold, that they ſeldom come down from theſe eminences. It is aſtoniſhing that they are able to ſucceed ſo well with the plough on theſe mountains, and that the eminences themſelves are ſo fertile.

The inhabitants cultivate a fine ſort of wheat, which is ſufficient not only to ſupply their neceſſities, but in ſome meaſure alſo for ſale. They have fruit, large herds of cattle, chamois goats, and wild fowl. The brooks and lakes, many of which lie between the high rocks, are rich in fiſh. In ſome places are ſmall vales, and the inhabitants take advantage of every ſpot of earth.

The mountains contain ſilver, lead, copper, and particularly iron. The Stirian ſteel is reckoned the beſt in Europe. The foreſts, with which the ridges of the mountains are covered, yield a ſufficient quantity of wood for the uſe of the ſmelting huts. In theſe mountains are likewiſe hot baths and medicinal ſprings.

The principal rivers which run through this country are the Muehr and Ens, both of which ariſe in the biſhopric of Saltzburg.

Lower Steyermark has fewer mountains and more plains. The hills produce a fine wine, and the plains which are alſo fruitful, have hot baths and medicinal ſprings. In the quarter of Cilli, as in Carniola and Italy, dormice are caught in plenty, and eaten.

The language of the Stirians is very rough. They ſpeak the Wendiſh tongue, which is in uſe among the common people for ſeveral miles round Gratz; but thoſe who are raiſed only a ſmall degree above the vulgar ſpeak not only Wendiſh, but German and Italian, and the principal inhabitants ſpeak alſo French.

In the whole dutchy are twenty boroughs, near one hundred market towns, and about five hundred citadels, many of which ſtand on the higheſt ſummits of the rocks. The highways, notwithſtanding the country is mountainous, have been put into excellent condition.

The principal place in Lower Stiria is the city of Gratz, the capital of the whole dutchy, which is ſeated on the river Muehr, in the forty-ſeventh degree twenty-two minutes north latitude, and the ſixteenth degree ten minutes eaſt longitude. It has ſuburbs on each ſide the river, which exceed the town in bigneſs, to which they are joined by a bridge. The city is well fortified, and contains ſome fine ſtreets and houſes. The caſtle ſtands on a high hill, and here is a good armoury and magazine, conſtantly well furniſhed. The Jeſuits have a fine church, and a chapel detached from it, where the architecture and ſculpture are well worth ſeeing. Over the entrance of this chapel is a Latin inſcription to this purpoſe, "The imperial mauſoleum of Ferdinand II. "emperor of Rome, ſacred to St. Catharine virgin and "martyr." On the roof is repreſented the life of the emperor Leopold in ſeveral emblematical paintings, and on the tower is an obſervatory well furniſhed with mathematical inſtruments. The other public buildings are the Jeſuits college, the univerſity, the pariſh church, the ſovereign's hoſpital, the fine Trinity pillar of gilt braſs in the market-place, the ſovereign's fort, in which the privy council, the government, the chamber for the Inner Auſtrian countries, and the military council, are kept; and in this fort is alſo the arſenal; the land-houſe, in which the land-diets are held; the arſenal of the land ſtates, and the council houſe. There are alſo in the city eight cloiſters, with their churches. In the Dominican convent is a piece of painting repreſenting Catharine of Sienna exchanging her heart for that of Chriſt, and at ſome diſtance on the right hand, is the portrait of St. Alan, a Dominican monk, who was a native of England. An inſcription underneath ſays, that the bleſſed Virgin was ſo pleaſed with his love to her, that in the preſence of the Son of God, an infinite number of angels, and bleſſed ſpirits, ſhe was eſpouſed to St. Alan; gave him with her virgin mouth a kiſs of everlaſting peace, refreſhed him with the milk of her moſt chaſte breaſt, and preſented him with a ring in token of the marriage. However, ſome of the more ſenſible Romaniſts have openly expreſſed their abhorrence of ſuch impious fictions.

In each of the ſuburbs that lie on the weſt ſide of the Muehr, is a church with a cloiſter; but in the large ſuburbs on the other ſide of the river, are ſeveral churches and convents. In the midſt of a plain about a mile from the city, is a round hill, on which are erected nine chapels in commemoration of Chriſt's paſſion. In one of theſe chapels the whole crucifix is covered with pearls; but the ſculpture of all of them is very coarſe, and ſometimes ridiculous. Beſides, the holy ſepulchre, which is ſaid to be conſtructed after the manner of that of Jeruſalem, here is alſo a ſcala ſanta, or holy ſtairs, by aſcending which every Friday, and on the days of the invention and elevation of the croſs, people may gain forty days indulgence.

About the diſtance of four miles from the above mount, to which is given the name of Calvary, is the ſeat of count Adam. The gardens, paintings, and water-works, are greatly admired by the country people, though they contain nothing very extraordinary.

The principal places in Upper Stiria are,

Judenburg, its capital, which is ſeated on the high bank of the Muehr, and commands a proſpect into a plain ſurrounded with high mountains that are continually covered with ſnow. This place contains a royal fort, a pariſh church, a cloiſter of Minorites, in which is a church, and a college of Jeſuits, and without the town is a convent of nuns.

Leuben was formerly the capital of the county, and contains a college of Jeſuits, and a Dominican convent, both of which have churches, and without the walls are two pariſh churches, one of which is in the ſuburbs, on the other ſide of the Muehr, in which is alſo a convent of Dominicans. A great trade in iron is carried on here.

SECT. XII.

Of the Dutchy of CARINTHIA.

Its Situation, Rivers, Mountains, and principal Places.

THE dutchy of Carinthia, in the circle of Auſtria, is bounded on the eaſt by Stiria; on the north by Stiria and the archbiſhopric of Saltzburg; on the ſouth by

by Carniola, and the Republic of Venice; and on the weſt by Tyrol.

This country is woody and mountainous; the higheſt of the mountains are called St. Ulrich, St. Helena, St. Veit, and St. Laurence. Several of the mountains of this country yield good iron, and ſome of them lead. There are many fertile dales, which produce wheat and other grain, yet the country cannot produce corn ſufficient for the inhabitants.

This country has alſo a great number of lakes, brooks, and rivers. The largeſt river is the Dran, which iſſues out of Tyrol, and traverſing Carinthia from eaſt to weſt, receives all the other rivers and brooks of the country.

The only religion profeſſed here is that of the Romiſh church, though there were formerly many profeſſors of the Lutheran religion, and the youth are inſtructed in the Jeſuits college at Clagenfurt. In this dutchy are eleven boroughs, and twenty-one market towns. The principal manufactures are thoſe of iron and ſteel, which are worked in various ways, and afterwards exported. The dutchy is governed by a land captain, and annually contributes ſix millions thirty-ſeven thouſand ſix hundred ninety-five florins to the ſupport of the military ſtate of the houſe of Auſtria.

The principal towns in this dutchy are,

Clagenfurt, the capital of the dutchy, which is ſituated near the river Glan, in the forty-ſeventh degree ten minutes north latitude, and the fourteenth degree twenty minutes eaſt longitude, and is alſo joined by means of a canal with the Wordtſee. It is well built, and ſurrounded with a wall ſaid to be broad enough for five coaches to drive a-breaſt. It contains ſix churches, a college of Jeſuits, an academy, two convents of monks and one of nuns, and a provincial-houſe. It is adorned with two marble pillars, one conſecrated to the Holy Trinity, the other to the Virgin, and an equeſtrian ſtatue of the emperor Leopold. In the year 1600 Martin, biſhop of Seckau, came to this town, accompanied by four hundred ſoldiers, in order to burn the Lutheran books and aboliſh that religion. In 1636, and 1723, the town was almoſt entirely conſumed by fire.

Freiſach, the oldeſt town in Carinthia, is ſituated on the rivulet of Metnitz, and belongs to the archbiſhop of Saltzburg.

It contains a citadel and two cloiſters, and without the town ſtands the citadel of Geyerſberg, where the archiepiſcopal vicar reſides.

SECT. XIII.

Of the Dutchy of CARNIOLA.

Its Situation, Extent, Mountains, Roads, and Produce; the Hardineſs of the People, their Languages, Religion, Arms, and Exports; with the principal Places in this Country: among which is a particular Account of the Lake of Cirknitz, ſome remarkable Caverns, and Mines of Quickſilver.

CARNIOLA, which is alſo included in the circle of Auſtria, is bounded on the north by Carinthia and Stiria; on the eaſt by Liburnia, Dalmatia, and Croatia; on the ſouth by that part of Iſtria poſſeſſed by the republic of Venice, and by a part of the Adriatic Sea; and on the weſt by Friuli, the country of Gortz, and a part of the Adriatic; extending in its greateſt length a hundred and forty-two miles from eaſt to weſt, and a hundred and eighteen from north to ſouth.

This dutchy is for the moſt part mountainous, and ſome of the mountains are quite naked, while others are covered with wood; ſome of them are uninhabited, and many of their ſummits are continually covered with ſnow.

In winter, when the ſnow lies deep on the ground, ſome of the peaſants make uſe of ſmall baſkets, which they bind to their feet; and others have a kind of ſnow-ſkates made of thin narrow boards, like thoſe uſed by the Laplanders, by the help of which, and a ſtout ſtaff or pole, they deſcend from the mountains with great ſpeed. One of the moſt remarkable of theſe mountains is the Lobel, called by the Carinthians Lybel: it is high, rocky, and ſteep; and therefore the road winds round it, in a ſerpentine form, for near five miles. This road is pretty well paved, and near the top a paſſage has been hewn through the rock about a hundred and fifty geometrical paces in length, twelve feet high, and nine broad; and this ſeparates Carniola from Carinthia. The proſpect from this mountain is uncommonly fine.

It is remarkable that the roads through Carniola and Stiria, though the country be ſo very mountainous, are extremely good. The making of theſe roads at firſt was very burthenſome to the ſubjects; but as they are now completed, the expence of keeping them in order is not very great. Firſt all the ſtones were made uſe of to raiſe it to a proper height. On each ſide is a ditch ſecured with large ſtones well compacted, and the road between theſe ditches conſiſts of a ſtratum of flint-ſtones beaten ſmall. This is covered with ſand mixed with a kind of clay, which makes the road very ſmooth and hard, like a threſhing-floor. The greateſt care is taken to repair theſe roads; and the labourers who have good wages for that purpoſe, have their dwellings along the ſide of the roads, that they may be at hand to keep them in good order.

In Carniola are medicinal ſprings and hot baths: it alſo contains ſeveral lakes, and ſome rivers, the principal of which is the Sau, into which the other rivers diſcharge themſelves; it is navigable, and its ſtream uncommonly rapid; it flows into Hungary, and diſcharges itſelf into the Danube.

Though this country is moſtly mountainous, yet it contains many fruitful valleys and fields, which not only yield good paſturage, but every year produce a double crop; for when wheat, rye, barley, peas, beans, and lentils are cut down, they ſow buck-wheat. This dutchy alſo produces excellent fruit, which becomes early ripe, and of which the inhabitants make cyder and perry: large cheſnuts and walnuts are here very plentiful, and in ſome parts are olives, citrons, oranges, lemons, pomegranates, figs, and grapes, of which an exquiſite white and red wine are made.

The bowels of the earth yield all ſorts of minerals and metals, as copper, iron, and lead; and the marble of this country is very beautiful: but ſalt is wanting, and the people are obliged to purchaſe it at the magazines provided by the ſovereign.

There are here horſes and horned cattle in great plenty, and the people furniſh themſelves with all ſorts of veniſon and fowl, and with many kinds of fiſh.

This country is more populous than one would imagine; for it contains twenty-one boroughs, thirty-five markets, and, according to Valvaſor, upwards of four thouſand villages. The common people are extremely hardy, for they go bare-foot in winter through the ſnow, and the men always with open breaſts. At night they ſleep without bed or bolſter on a hard bench, and their food is always mean. The common people are of Sclavonian extraction; but the principal nobility are for the moſt part deſcended from the Germans.

The two principal languages in Carniola are the Sclavonic and the German; in the latter of which all letters are written, judicial matters carried on, and all writings made.

The Chriſtian religion was gradually received here about the latter end of the eighth century. The Lutheran doctrine alſo gained a conſiderable footing in the ſixteenth century; but was afterwards aboliſhed, and all the inhabitants at preſent profeſs the popiſh religion, except the Walachians and Uſcocs, who adhere to the Greek religion, and ſtile themſelves Old Believers. In Carniola are three biſhoprics, that of Laubach, to which belong a number of pariſhes in Carniola, twenty-one pariſhes in Stiria, and ſixteen in Carinthia; the other biſhoprics are thoſe of Biben and Trieſt. In this dutchy there are computed to be a hundred and thirty-four pariſhes, and twenty-four religious houſes.

The arms of this dutchy are an eagle crowned, on whoſe breaſt and expanded wings is a diced creſcent.

From Carniola are exported into other countries horned cattle, ſheep, cheeſe, white and red wine, quickſilver, iron, ſteel, oil of olives, linen, a kind of woollen ſtuff, Spaniſh leather, which is prepared in plenty in Upper Carniola,

Carniola, honey, timber for ſhip-building, and many ſorts of wooden-ware, as boxes, diſhes, trenchers, ſpoons, ſieves, &c.

Carniola annually contributes to the houſe of Auſtria three hundred and ſixty-three thouſand one hundred and ſeventy one florins fifty-ſix kruitzers. This dutchy is divided into Upper, Lower, Middle, and Inner Carniola.

Upper Carniola, commonly called Gorenſka Stran, enjoys a wholeſome air and freſh ſprings. The vineyards here are but few. Iron is found in the greateſt plenty, and there are profitable iron-works in many parts of the country. The lake of Feldes is near five miles long, and above two broad; it is uncommonly deep, but in its middle riſes a round mountain, on which ſtands a ſmall church, and at its foot is a fine ſpring. The lake of Wocheiner ariſes out of a copious ſpring that rolls from a very high rock into the dale of Wocheiner, which is about three miles long and a mile broad, and out of it runs a river called the Wocheiner Sau, which, after a courſe of nineteen miles, diſcharges itſelf into the Sau. Both in the lake and river are excellent trout.

In this dutchy are the following remarkable places:

Laubatcht, or Laybach, the principal town in Carniola, is ſituated on a navigable river of the ſame name, by which it is ſo divided, that it lies partly in Upper and partly in Lower Carniola. That part which forms the latter, and is ſituated on the other ſide of the river, is the largeſt and fineſt. The royal citadel here ſtands on an eminence covered with trees and beautifully cultivated, and at its foot is that part of the city in which are the market, the town-houſe, the cathedral, and epiſcopal palace. The cathedral is finely painted, and under the cupola are four ſtatues of its antient biſhops. In the Auguſtins church, behind the high altar, is a *Caſa Santa*, in imitation of that at Loretto. The Urſuline nuns have a very beautiful light church, and that of St. Peter is one of the fineſt in the city.

At the Jeſuits church is a ſuperb altar of marble, adorned with four ſtatues that are worth ſeeing: their library is well contrived, and thoſe fathers have ſpacious wine-vaults capable of containing three thouſand pipes, which is the leſs ſurpriſing, as moſt of the rents of their eſtates are paid in wine. The whole town contains three ſuburbs, in one of which live the butchers, in the ſecond are chiefly fiſhermen, and the third is principally inhabited by mariners. Theſe ſuburbs contain five churches, four cloiſters, and a commandery of the knights of Malta. The ſtreets are narrow; and, beſides the above buildings, the council-houſe, and the royal provincial and city arſenal, are worthy of notice. The biſhop is immediately under the pope, and bears the title of a prince of the holy Roman empire. This place carries on a conſiderable trade.

Lower Carniola, more uſually called Dalenſka Stran, contains many fruitful valleys, and produces red and white wine. In many places there are here no ſprings, and particularly the fertile bottom of Temnitz labours under a total want of ſprings and running water; whence the inhabitants, when they have been long without rain, are obliged to fetch water at five or ſix miles diſtance. Among the caverns or grottos in this part of Carniola, that near Lueg is worthy of notice. The entrance of this cavern extends a conſiderable length under the rocks, and within it are ſeen many icicles equal in whiteneſs to ſnow itſelf.

One of the principal towns in this diſtrict is Rudolphſwerth, or Neuſtadtlein, a royal town ſeated on an eminence on the river Gurk, and founded by the archduke Rodolph IV. in 1365, whence it received its name. It has a collegiate church, to which belong four others in the town, fourteen in the country, and five pariſhes in Stiria. It has a monaſtery of Franciſcan friars, and another of Capuchins. The many incurſions of the Turks into the territory belonging to this town, together with fires and peſtilence, have reduced it from its former flouriſhing ſtate.

The next diviſion is Middle Carniola, to which belongs a tract called Dry Carniola, which is between four and five German miles in extent; and if we include in it the bottom of Temnitz, which belongs to Lower Carniola, and is alſo deſtitute of water, it is between ſix and ſeven in compaſs: yet this tract of land, though almoſt every where mountainous and ſtony, is covered with great and ſmall villages, and in ſome parts of it the inhabitants produce good wine. The celebrated lake of Cirknitz in this part is very remarkable; it takes its name from the neighbouring market-town, and is encompaſſed with wild, rough, and ſtony mountains; but round it alſo lie two inhabited citadels, nine villages, and twenty churches.

This lake is one German mile in length from north to ſouth, half a German mile in breadth, and from one, to two, three, and four fathoms in depth, the pits excepted, ſome of which are many fathoms deep. In it lie three beautiful iſlands covered with trees: theſe iſlands are called Vornec, Velha Goriza, and Mala Goriza. A peninſula alſo runs into this lake, and is ſeparated from the iſland of Vornec by a canal. In the lake are many holes or pits with long ditches like canals, and eight brooks diſcharge themſelves into it.

It is a common ſaying, that in this lake a perſon may ſow and reap, hunt and fiſh, within the ſpace of a year; but this is the leaſt remarkable circumſtance in it, and no more than what may be ſaid of almoſt any other ſpot that is overflowed in winter or ſpring. The moſt wonderful circumſtance is its ebbing and flowing. The former always happens in a long drought, when it runs off through eighteen holes at the bottom, which form ſo many eddies or whirlpools. Valvaſor mentions a ſingular method of fiſhing in one of theſe holes called Ribeſcajama, and ſays, that when the water is entirely run off into its ſubterraneous reſervoirs, the peaſants venture with lights into that cavity, which is in a hard rock, three or four fathoms under ground, to a ſolid bottom; whence the water running through ſmall holes, as through a ſieve, the fiſhes are left behind, caught, as it were, in a net provided by nature.

At the firſt appearance of its ebbing a bell is rung at Cirknitz, upon which all the peaſants in the neighbouring villages, with the utmoſt diligence, prepare for fiſhing; for the greateſt part of the fiſh generally go off at the beginning of the ebb, and ſeldom ſtay till the water is conſiderably decreaſed. Above a hundred peaſants never fail to exert themſelves on this occaſion, and both the men and women promiſcuouſly run into the lake ſtripped quite naked, though both the magiſtrates and clergy have uſed their utmoſt endeavours to ſuppreſs this indecent cuſtom, particularly on account of the young lay-brothers of a neighbouring convent, who have the privilege of fiſhing there; and, notwithſtanding the prohibitions of the fathers, leave the convent in order to ſee this uncommon ſpectacle. The peaſants, however, are not obſerved to be guilty of more lewdneſs at theſe times than at others, when they are cloathed. At theſe ebbings an incredible number of pike, trout, tench, eels, carp, pearch, &c. are caught in the lake; and what are not conſumed, or diſpoſed of while freſh, are dried by the fire.

Though every part of the lake is left dry, except two or three pools, yet Mr. Keyſler ſays, immediately upon the return of the water, it abounds in fiſh as much as it did before; and the fiſhes that return with the water are of a very large ſize, particularly pikes weighing fifty or ſixty pounds. It is alſo remarkable, that when it begins to rain hard, three of the cavities ſpout up water to the height of two or three fathoms, and if the rain continues, and is accompanied with violent thunder, the water bubbles out of all the holes through which it had been abſorbed, two of them excepted, and the whole lake is again filled with water in twenty-four, and often in eighteen hours. Sometimes not only fiſh, but live ducks, with graſs and fiſh in their ſtomachs, have emerged out of theſe cavities.

In a rock on one ſide of the lake, but conſiderably higher than its ſurface, are two caverns, at ſome diſtance from each other; and when it thunders the water guſhes out of both, with great noiſe and impetuoſity: if this happens in autumn, they alſo eject a great many ducks, which are blind, but very fat, and of a black colour; and though they are at firſt almoſt bare of feathers, in a fortnight's time, or at fartheſt before the end of October,

they are entirely fledged, recover their ſight, and fly away. Each of theſe caverns is ſix feet high, and as many broad; and when the water guſhes out of them, it is in a large column of the ſame dimenſions, and in a continual ſtream. There is a large paſſage in each of theſe caves, where a man may walk upright for a conſiderable way; but it is ſaid that no perſon has ever yet ventured into them, to ſearch into the nature of the inner caves and reſervoir to which theſe apertures lead; for there is no certainty but that in an inſtant he may be ſurprized by the water ruſhing upon him, with the force and rapidity of a fire-engine.

When the lake ebbs early in the year, within twenty days time graſs grows upon it, which is mowed down, and the bottom afterwards ſown with millet: but if the water does not run off early nothing can be ſown, and if it ſoon returns, as it ſometimes does, the ſeed is loſt: otherwiſe after the millet harveſt all manner of game is hunted and ſhot in it.

In Middle Carniola are ſeveral little royal towns, and ſome market towns; but none that deſerve a particular deſcription.

We now come to Inner Carniola, a diviſion which is for the moſt part mountainous and full of ſmall eminences. Little corn is cultivated here; but it produces a great deal of very good wine, which is commonly called Italian, and is exported to very diſtant countries; but in many places the inhabitants labour under great want of freſh water.

The moſt remarkable places in this diviſion are the following:

Adlſberg, or Adlerſberg, in the Sclavonian language called Poſtoina, a well-built market-town, ſituated at the foot of a high rocky mountain, on which ſtands a citadel.

About half way up the acclivity of this mountain is the entrance into a large cavern that is divided into a great number of ſubterraneous paſſages. The eye is here delighted with viewing a vaſt number of ſparry icicles, formed on the arched roof of this vaſt cavern, by the exſudations of a lapideous or petrifying fluid, which form the moſt beautiful decorations. The ſides are covered with all kinds of figures formed by the ſame exſudations, to which the imagination of the ſpectator gives various forms never intended by nature; ſo that it is not at all ſtrange that ſome people ſhould make out dragons, heads of horſes, tygers, and other animals. Several pillars, which are to be ſeen on each ſide, proceed from the droppings of the petrifying fluid from the top, which form a kind of ſparry pillar on the bottom of the cave: this gradually increaſes, till it at laſt joins the icicle at the top, by meeting it about half way, and thus a complete pillar is formed. If a perſon's curioſity will carry him ſo far, he may rove about two German miles in the ſubterraneous paſſages of this cavern.

It is remarkable that the river Poig, which riſes in the above mountain, about four Engliſh miles from Adlerſberg, runs again to it with an inverted courſe, loſes itſelf near the entrance of the cavern, and falls a great depth into the rock, as is evident from its roaring noiſe, and the ſound cauſed by flinging a ſtone into the hole. The ſame river appears again near Planina; but ſoon after a ſecond time loſes itſelf in a rock, and at length emerges a third time, when it aſſumes the name of the Laubach.

Tybein or Duin, which ſtands on an eminence on the Adriatic, has a ſmall harbour, a cloiſter, and a citadel. At a ſmall diſtance is dug a very beautiful black marble, and in the rocks on the ſea is found on breaking off a piece of them, a living ſnail about the thickneſs of a man's fiſt, and eatable. The ſtone in which theſe ſnails are incloſed, contains many ſmall apertures.

Lueg, a citadel ſeated on the center of a high rocky mountain that riſes perpendicularly. This large building ſtands in a hole in the rock in ſuch a manner that no rain falls on it; but it has a roof to defend it againſt the water which trickles down from the rocks. From this citadel there is no other proſpect than that of the heavens. One half of the fore tower alone projects: it is extremely damp, and in ſummer cool.

About two German miles from Adlerſberg is a remarkable cavern, named St. Magdalen's cave. The way to it being covered with ſtones and buſhes, is extremely troubleſome; but the great fatigue in going is overpaid by the ſatisfaction of ſeeing ſuch an extraordinary cavern. You firſt deſcend into a kind of hole, where the earth ſeems to be fallen in for ten paces before you reach the entrance, which reſembles a fiſſure in a huge rock cauſed by an earthquake. Here the torches are always lighted to conduct travellers; for the cave is extremely dark. This wonderful cavern ſeems as if divided into ſeveral large halls, and other apartments. The vaſt number of pillars by which it is ornamented by nature, give it a ſuperb appearance, and are extremely beautiful; for they are as white as ſnow, and have a kind of tranſparent luſtre, not unlike that of white ſugar candy. The bottom is of the ſame materials, ſo that a perſon may imagine he is walking among the ruins of ſome ſtately palace, amidſt noble pillars and columns, partly mutilated and partly entire. From the top, ſparry icicles are ſeen every where ſuſpended, in ſome places reſembling wax tapers, which from their radiant whiteneſs appear extremely beautiful. All the inconvenience here ariſes from the inequality of the bottom, which may make the ſpectator ſtumble, while he is viewing the beauties above and around him.

Idra, or Ydra, is a ſmall town, ſeated in a deep valley, amidſt high mountains on the river of the ſame name, and at the bottom of a deſcent ſo ſteep, that it is very difficult and ſometimes dangerous, to ride to it. The town conſiſts of about two hundred and ſeventy ſcattered houſes, and a citadel; but the number of the inhabitants is ſaid to amount to about two thouſand.

This town is famous for its quickſilver mines, which were firſt diſcovered in the year 1497. Before that time, ſays Mr. Keyſler, this part of the country was only inhabited by a few coopers, and other artificers in wood, with which this country abounds. But one evening a cooper having placed a new tub under a dropping ſpring, in order to try if it would hold water, when he came in the morning to take the tub away, found it ſo heavy, that he could hardly move it. At firſt the ſuperſtitious notions that are apt to poſſeſs the minds of the ignorant, made him begin to ſuſpect that his tub was bewitched; but at laſt perceiving a ſhining fluid at the bottom, and not knowing what to make of it, he went to Laubatch, where he ſhewed it to an apothecary, who being an artful man, diſmiſſed him with a ſmall gratuity, and bid him bring him ſome more of the ſame ſtuff whenever he could meet with it. This the poor cooper frequently did, being highly pleaſed with his good luck; till the affair being at laſt made public, ſeveral perſons formed themſelves into a ſociety, in order to ſearch farther into the quickſilver mine. In their poſſeſſion it continued till Charles duke of Auſtria, perceiving the great importance of ſuch a work, gave them a ſum of money, as a compenſation for the expences they had been at, and took it into his own hands.

The ſubterraneous paſſages of the mine are ſo extenſive, that it would take up ſeveral hours to go through them. The greateſt perpendicular height, computing from the entrance of the ſhaft, is eight hundred and forty feet; but as they advance horizontally under a high mountain, the depth would be much greater, if it was meaſured from the ſurface of the hill. One way of deſcending down the ſhafts is by a bucket; but as the entrance is narrow, the bucket is liable to ſtrike againſt the ſides, or to be ſtopped by ſomething in the way, ſo that it may be eaſily overſet. The other way of going down is ſafer; this is deſcending by a great number of ladders, placed obliquely in a kind of zig-zag; but as the ladders are wet and narrow, a perſon muſt be very cautious how he ſteps, to prevent his falling. As you deſcend there are reſting places in ſome parts, that are very welcome to the weary traveller. In ſome of the ſubterranean paſſages the heat is ſo intenſe, as to throw a man into a perfect ſweat; and formerly in ſome of theſe ſhafts the air was extremely confined, ſo that ſeveral miners have been ſuffocated by a kind of igneous vapour called the damp; but by ſinking the main ſhaft deeper,

deeper, this has been prevented. Near the main ſhaft is a large wheel, and an hydraulic machine, by which all the water is raiſed out of the bottom of the mine.

Virgin mercury is that which is prepared by nature, and is found in ſome of the ores of this mine, in a multitude of little drops of pure quickſilver. This is alſo to be met with in a kind of clay, and ſometimes flows down the paſſages or fiſſures of the mine in a ſmall continued ſtream, ſo that a man has frequently gathered in ſix hours above thirty-ſix pounds of virgin mercury, which bears a higher price than common quickſilver. The reſt is extracted from cinnabar, (which is the ore of quickſilver) by the force of fire.

Every common miner receives the value of three ſhillings and ſix-pence a week; but many of them are afflicted with a nervous diſorder, accompanied with violent tremblings, ſudden convulſive motions of the hands and legs, and frightful diſtortions of the face. Thoſe are moſt ſubject to theſe diſorders who work in the places where virgin mercury is found, which in a ſurpriſing manner inſinuates itſelf into their bodies; ſo that when they go into a warm bath, or are put into a profuſe ſweat by ſteam, drops of pure mercury have been known to iſſue through the pores from all parts of the body. Theſe mines are often infeſted with rats and mice, which feed on the crumbs of bread, &c. dropped by the miners at their meals. But this plague ſeldom laſts long; for even they are ſeized with the like convulſive diſorders as the men, which ſoon kills them. It is eſteemed a neceſſary precaution for every perſon to eat before he deſcends into theſe ſubterraneous regions.

All the adjacent country is very woody; but that the woods may not be deſtroyed, great quantities of fuel for the ſmelting furnaces are annually brought down the river Idra, or Idriźza, from ſome foreſts that lie about five or ſix miles diſtant. Beſides this river, here is a canal about two miles in length, ſupplied with water by ſeveral ſtreams iſſuing from perennial ſprings, in order to put in motion the machines belonging to the mines.

The next town we ſhall mention is that of Fiume, or St. Veit, which is ſituated on a bay of the Adriatic Sea, called the gulph of Carnero. It is ſeated in a valley, and is famous for good wine, figs, and other fruit. It is populous, and contains an arſenal, a cathedral, and a Jeſuits college; with two convents within the town, and one without it near the ſea. The harbour is formed by the river Finmara, and from thence large quantities of goods are exported, a conſiderable part of which come from Hungary, on which account an expenſive highway has been made from this place to Carlſtadt in Croatia. It is ſeparated from the dutchy of Carniola, and under the government of a captain, who reſides at the citadel. The gulph of Carnero abounds in fiſh, among which is a ſort called gatto, which grows to a conſiderable ſize, and of its ſkin is made a kind of ſhagreen, uſed for the caſes of watches, caſkets, teleſcopes, and the like.

Trieſte is pleaſantly ſituated on a hill, and forms a ſemicircle, which is encompaſſed with vineyards. The town is but ſmall; however on the ſouth-weſt ſide, where formerly were ſalt-pits, a beautiful ſuburb has been erected. The caſtle, which ſtands on an eminence, is ſurrounded with a ditch, and the fortifications have been conſiderably improved. The Jeſuits church is a handſome ſtructure, but has neither good paintings, nor any other ornaments worthy of notice. In the church near the caſtle are two chapels, adorned with a great deal of old moſaic work. The ſtreets of the town are narrow and uneven, except in the market-place, where there is a very convenient walk. The inhabitants of Trieſte are accuſed of being lazy and proud, of never applying themſelves to any uſeful employment, and of being ſo malicious, as to moleſt and injure ſtrangers to the utmoſt of their power. This town, which ſtands on the borders of Italy, is ſituated in the forty-ſixth degree ten minutes north latitude, and in the fourteenth degree twelve minutes eaſt longitude, only fifty-eight miles to the north-eaſt of Venice.

SECT. XIV.

Of the County of TIROL.

Its Extent, Situation, Mountains, Rivers; with a particular Deſcription of the Channel of the Inn, and the Face of the Country. The Appearance of the Peaſants; and a Deſcription of the principal Places in Tirol.

THE next diviſion of Auſtria is that of the county of Tirol, which is one hundred and fifty miles in length, and one hundred and twenty in breadth; and is bounded on the north by Bavaria; on the eaſt by Carinthia and the archbiſhopric of Saltzburg; on the ſouth, by part of the territory of Venice; and on the weſt, by Swiſſerland, and the country of the Griſons.

The paſſes into this country, where all travellers are obliged to take paſſports, are entirely ſurrounded by a continued chain of mountains, ſo that at a diſtance you are often at a loſs to diſtinguiſh the paſſage; and when after many windings, you come to an opening, you find it ſecured by ſtrong forts. It is ſaid that ſeven thouſand men could defend the whole country againſt the attempts of any number of men. In ſeveral parts, particularly before noon, not only light miſts, but heavy clouds, are ſeen reſting in the middle of a mountain; higher up it is quite clear, till at the ſummit, it is again inveloped in clouds; "a ſight, ſays Mr. Keyſler, "which ſometimes gave me an idea of mount Sinai, at "the promulgation of the law."

But though the mountains of Tirol have their tops conſtantly covered with ſnow, they are very fertile, and have not only the fineſt woods, abounding in a variety of game, but alſo large corn-fields; and where the mountains are barren, there are generally either mines or quarries of excellent marble of all colours. On the eminences grow all ſorts of the fine fruits that Italy affords, and alſo woods of cheſnut trees. The country likewiſe yields flax, and produces excellent wine. There are found in this country granates, rubies, amethyſts, emeralds, agates, cornelians, chalcedonies, and a ſpecies of cryſtal ſo hard as to be uſed inſtead of diamonds for cutting glaſs. It has in ſome places profitable ſalt-pits, and in others mines of copper, ſilver, lead, allum, and vitriol. Hence it is one of the moſt profitable parts of the territories of the emperor; and it was not without reaſon that Maximilian I. uſed to ſay, "Tirol is like "a peaſant's coat, very coarſe, indeed, but alſo very "warm."

It produces a good breed of horned cattle and horſes, and among the wild beaſts are the chamois and wild goats. The chamois, or ſhamoy, goat is properly a native of Tirol, as well as of the principality of Saltzburg. The huntſmen have ſharp crooked pieces of iron on their ſhoes, and ſometimes faſtened to their hands, for the better purſuing this ſwift footed animal among the rocks and mountains.

The principal rivers in this country are the Inn, which receives a number of leſſer ſtreams, and entering Bavaria falls into the Danube. The ingenious Mr. Addiſon ſays, "It was the pleaſanteſt voyage in the world to follow "the windings of this river, through the variety of "pleaſing ſcenes to which its courſe naturally lead us. "We had ſometimes on each ſide a vaſt extent of naked "rocks and mountains, broken into a thouſand irregular "ſteeps and precipices. At other places we beheld a "long foreſt ſo thick ſet together that it was impoſſible "to diſcover any of the ſoil they grew upon, and riſing "up ſo regularly one above another, as to give us the "view of a whole wood. The time of the year that had "given the leaves of the trees ſo many different colours, "compleated the beauty of the proſpect."

The other rivers of Tirol are the Etſch, which alſo riſes in this country, and traverſing the biſhopric of Trent, and the territory of the republic of Venice, at length falls into the Adriatic ſea. The Lech which riſes here, and after paſſing through Tirol, forms the limits between the circles of Swabia and Bavaria, and at length falls into the Danube.

In

In this country are twelve towns and ten villages that have markets. The common people live chiefly by working in the mines and ſalt-works.

The meaner ſort of peaſants make ſo wretched an appearance, that one would almoſt take them for gypſies: both the men and women wear hats of all colours. Their farm-houſes, barns, and ſtables are alſo very mean, when compared with thoſe of other countries, and are only covered with boards placed almoſt horizontally, on which are laid heavy ſtones to ſecure them from being blown off.

The inhabitants have, however, many particular privileges above thoſe of the other hereditary dominions of the houſe of Auſtria: for being naturally well fortified by their mountains, and bordering upon many different governments, as the Bavarians, Swiſs, Venetians, Griſons, &c. were they treated with ſeverity, they might be tempted to ſet up for a republic, or at leaſt throw themſelves under the milder government of ſome of their neighbours. The country is, however, poor, though the emperor draws conſiderable ſums out of its mines of ſalt and metal; and theſe mines fill the country with greater numbers of people than it would be able to ſupport without the importation of foreign corn.

The arms of this country are an eagle gules in a field argent.

Tirol is governed by three councils, which are held at Inſpruck, one of which ſits upon life and death, the other regulates the taxes, and the third manages the affairs of juſtice: but as theſe courts are guided by the orders they receive from Vienna, there are in many caſes appeals from them to the emperor. It contributes yearly a hundred thouſand florins towards the military ſtate of the houſe of Auſtria.

The principal places it contains are,

Inſpruck, the capital of the whole country, which is a handſome city, formerly the reſidence of the archdukes of Auſtria, who are counts of Tirol. It is ſeated on the river Inn, within the forty-ſeventh degree thirty-eight minutes latitude, and the eleventh degree thirty-nine minutes eaſt longitude, and ſtands in a fertile plain environed with mountains. Though Inſpruck be ſmall, it is a fine city with well paved ſtreets, and ſtately flat-roofed palaces, after the Italian taſte. Here are no leſs than twelve churches, including thoſe in eight convents, and the two ſuburbs, which are much larger than the city itſelf, and are finely built. The city is adorned with curious fountains, ſpacious market-places, and the caſtle, or palace; but is of ſmall extent within the walls. The great hall of the palace is a very noble room, the walls being painted in freſco repreſenting the labours of Hercules, many of which make a very fine appearance, tho' great part of the work has been cracked by the earthquakes, which are very frequent in this country. The famous golden roof in the palace conſiſts of copper-plates richly gilt, at the expence of two hundred thouſand dollars. Near this palace is another of wood, to which it was uſual for the court to retire at the firſt ſhock of an earthquake. In one of the rooms of the palace, which is hung with the pictures of illuſtrious perſons, they ſhew the portrait of Mary queen of Scots, who was beheaded in the reign of queen Elizabeth. The gardens are very large, and in the middle of them is a beautiful equeſtrian ſtatue in braſs of the archduke Leopold, and near it twelve figures of water nymphs and river gods, well caſt and as big as the life. Covered galleries lead from the palace to five different churches, and a very long one reaches to the church belonging to the Capuchin convent, where the duke of Lorrain uſed frequently to aſſiſt at their midnight devotions. In this convent are ſhewn the apartments of Maximilian, archduke and count of Tirol, who, while he kept the government in his hands, lived in this convent with all the rigour and auſterity of a Capuchin. His room of audience and anti-chamber are little ſquare wainſcotted rooms, faced with a kind of fret-work, that gives them the appearance of little hollow caverns hewn out of a rock.

The church belonging to the Franciſcan convent was erected by Ferdinand I. and is a kind of attempt at modern architecture. But though the architect has ſhewn his diſlike of the Gothic taſte, it is eaſily ſeen that in that age the people, at leaſt in this country, were not arrived at the true knowledge of that ſimplicity obſerved by the Greeks and Romans. The portal, for inſtance, conſiſts of a compoſite order unknown to the antients; for though the ornaments are taken from them, the volutes of the Ionic, the foliage of the Corinthian, and the uovali of the Doric order, are mixed without any regularity in the ſame capital. The vault of the church is incumbered with many little pieces of ſculpture; and tho' it is ſupported with ſingle columns, inſtead of the cluſters of little pillars found in Gothic cathedrals, theſe columns are of no regular order, and are at leaſt twice too long for their diameter. In the middle of it is the monument of the emperor Maximilian I. which was erected by his grandſon Ferdinand I. but the body of the emperor lies elſewhere. On the top of this monument is the figure of Maximilian kneeling, in braſs, ſurrounded with four other ſmaller metal figures repreſenting the virtues, and on the monument itſelf is a beautiful baſſo relievo of white marble, repreſenting the exploits of that prince in twenty-four ſquare pannels of ſculpture. In the middle paſſage of the church are twenty-eight brazen ſtatues ranged in two rows, and larger than the life, repreſenting the regal and princely perſonages, male and female; in particular thoſe of the houſe of Auſtria, and on the cornice of the vaulted paſſage, which ſeparates the choir from the nave of the church, ſtand twenty-three ſmall ſtatues of braſs.

Among the other churches is a little Notre Dame, which is handſomely deſigned and covered with a cupola. This church was built by the contributions of the whole country, and was deſigned as an expreſſion of gratitude to the Virgin Mary, for having defended the country of Tirol againſt the victorious arms of Guſtavus Adolphus, who was unable to enter this part of the empire, after his having over-run moſt of the reſt.

The regency and provincial houſes here are fine ſtructures. In the ſuburbs is an arſenal; there is alſo an univerſity, a cloiſter of Capuchins, and two monaſteries.

At a league's diſtance is the town of Hall, which is a pretty place ſeated on the river Inn, and contains a mint that is worked by water, a pariſh church, a college of Jeſuits, a Franciſcan cloiſter, and a royal foundation for ladies. But this town is moſt famous for its ſalt-works. In the neighbourhood of this town are vaſt mountains of rock-ſalt, where four or five hundred men are conſtantly employed; and as ſoon as they have hewn down a ſufficient quantity of the rock, which in colour reſembles allum, and is extremely ſolid, they let in their ſprings and reſervoirs among their works, where the water diſſolves the particles of ſalt mixed with the ſtone, and is conveyed from thence through long troughs and wooden canals to Hall, where it is received in vaſt ciſterns, and from time to time boiled off. The ſalt-works of this town have great convenience for fewel, which is brought down to them by the river Inn; and, during its courſe through Tirol, is generally encloſed between a double range of mountains, moſt of which are covered with fir-trees. Great numbers of peaſants are employed in felling the largeſt of theſe trees, which, after they have barked and cut into ſhape, are tumbled down from the mountains into the river, which carries them off to the ſalt-works: vaſt quantities of them are likewiſe taken up at Inſpruck for the uſe of the convents and the public offices, who are allowed a certain portion of them by the emperor, and the reſt paſs on to Hall. Several hundred loads of this timber are generally on float; for they begin to cut twenty leagues up the river above Hall; and other rivers that flow into the Inn bring in their contributions. The above ſalt-works, with the mint eſtabliſhed at the ſame place, have rendered Hall almoſt as populous as Inſpruck. This mint is deſigned to work part of the metals obtained in the neighbouring mountains, where ſeven thouſand men are ſaid to be conſtantly employed in the mines.

Schwatz is a very conſiderable market-town, ſituated in the juriſdiction of the ſame name; it ſtands on the Inn, and exceeds moſt towns in the country in beauty. Near it is a mine-work of ſilver and copper, in which a thou-

a thouſand men are employed. This mine was diſcovered in 1448, and was formerly much richer than it is at preſent.

In this province is the paſs of Koſel, in Italian Covelo, which lies on the borders of the territory of the republic of Venice. In it is a high and ſteep rock, which riſes fifty fathoms like a wall, and in the middle of it is a cavity which contains a ſpring, on which a caſtle or fort has been erected. It has a ſmall garriſon, which muſt be wound up and let down by ropes. Below it is a narrow paſs, in which two carriages can ſcarce go abreaſt; and on the oppoſite ſide is the ſteep ſhore of the river Brent. At the beginning of this paſs is a bulwark, or baſtion, the guard of which is let down from the caſtle. Hard by is the village of Primolano, about a gun-ſhot from which is a lazaretto, where travellers in the time of the plague perform quarantine. This place lies quite loneſome, between mountains and cliffs of an uncommon height.

The next town we ſhall mention is that of Meran, which is ſituated on the river Paſſer in the moſt fertile part of the diſtrict of Etſch, and contains ſix churches and cloiſters. It was formerly the capital of the country, and even ſtill, on public occaſions, takes precedency of all the towns. Near it antiently ſtood a town, which in the middle age was quite overwhelmed by the fall of a mountain.

Bozen, by the Italians called Bolzano, is ſituated in a pleaſant valley twenty-five miles to the north of Trent, and ſtands on the river Eyſock. This city contains ſeveral religious houſes, and the monaſteries of the Franciſcans and Dominicans have churches. The moſt remarkable thing in the great church is a round hole in the roof three feet in diameter, ſurrounded with a garland of ribbons of different colours, with large wafers appendent to them; and Mr. Miſſon was told, that a ſacred opera being acted in that church on Aſcenſion-day, the perſon who repreſented Chriſt was taken up to heaven through this hole. This church has a high ſteeple, adorned with three ſtories of baluſtrades of very good workmanſhip. The houſes are all plaiſtered over, and a rivulet of ſpring-water runs through all the ſtreets, which are generally ſtraight and broad; but the town has no walls, nor any defence, except a large ſtream at its entrance, over which there is a bridge. It is a place of good trade, eſpecially at its four annual fairs, that laſt each a fortnight, and to which great numbers of merchants come from all parts of Germany, Swiſſerland, and Italy; on which account great privileges have been granted to the city. During theſe fairs the merchants are allowed magiſtrates and judges of their own, diſtinct from thoſe of the town, and none are permitted to trade without being entered in the judges books, and a certificate of the entry under the ſeal of the corporation.

The neighbourhood of this place, and indeed the whole valley of Bolzano, is full of villages, and vineyards planted in the form of arbours, with the branches of the vines tied to wooden frames; props not being uſed in this country. Their white wines are generally of a very agreeable tartneſs; but they muſt be drank the very year of their growth, or elſe they grow luſcious, and then turn crabbed. At certain diſtances in this valley are little ſtraw huts, each raiſed upon three trunks of trees or poles, from whence they ſhoot the bears that come from the mountains to eat the grapes.

SECT. XV.

Of the Biſhoprics of TRENT *and* BRIXEN.

Their Situation, Extent, and Produce; with a particular Account of Trent and Brixen, the capital Cities of this Country.

THE temporal juriſdiction of the biſhop of Trent is ſituated in the county of Tirol, and the biſhop enjoys, as an immediate prince of the empire, a ſeat at the diets: it is ſituated among the Alps, in the ſouth part of Tirol, to the north-weſt of the dominions of Venice, and to the eaſt of thoſe of the Griſons. It is near ſixty miles in length from eaſt to weſt, and forty, where broadeſt, from north to ſouth.

The river Adige runs through the country from north to ſouth, and receives ſeveral ſmaller rivers that riſe in the mountains on each ſide. The ſoil produces a good wine that is of a pale red, with oil, fruit, and paſture; but not much corn. The common languages of the people are the German and Italian.

The city of Trent, the capital of this biſhopric, ſtands on the river Adige, in the forty-ſixth degree north latitude, and the eleventh degree twenty-nine minutes eaſt longitude. It is ſuppoſed to have received its Latin name Tridentum from three ſharp peaks or rocks of the Alps, which reſemble three teeth, and hang over the city. It is built on a flat rock of a kind of red and white marble, which alſo furniſhes the materials for their houſes; but is ſubject to dangerous inundations, not only from the overflowing of the river, but from the brooks of Levis and Ferſena, which ſometimes precipitate themſelves from the adjacent mountains, and force great rocks along with them even into the town.

The city is encompaſſed with ſteep impaſſable hills, except the Tirol road on the north, and that to Verona on the ſouth. The ſun-beams darted from theſe flinty rocks, render the heat as intolerable as the ſnow on their tops makes the air cold in winter; but in ſpring and autumn the air is temperate. The town is ſmall, but pretty populous, and defended by an old caſtle. The ſtreets are broad and well paved, and have many ſtately palaces, beautiful churches, and religious houſes. The cathedral dedicated to St. Vigil is a fine piece of Gothic architecture, ſupported by marble pillars of an extraordinary height and thickneſs; but the inſide is too dark. It has a chapel, in which nothing is to be ſeen but marble and ſculpture, and is ſaid to have coſt a hundred thouſand crowns. In one of the chapels of this cathedral is ſhewn a crucifix as big as the life; and they gravely aſſert, that it bowed its head at the time of the council's being ſworn and proclaimed under it, to ſhew its approbation of the veracity of their decrees.

The church of St. Mary Major is noted for the famous council of Trent, held there from the fourth of January, 1545, till 1563, the repreſentation of which is finely painted on the walls. The church is alſo famous for an organ, which is ſaid to imitate all ſorts of inſtruments and the ſinging of birds, with the cries of ſeveral beaſts, and the ſound of drums and trumpets ſo naturally, that it is hard to diſtinguiſh them.

We now come to the biſhopric of Brixen, which is by the Matricula placed in the circle of Auſtria, and, as it forms a part of the Tiroleſe, is ſubject to the houſe of Auſtria. This country is bounded by Saltzburg and part of Carinthia on the eaſt, by Trent and the dominions of Venice on the ſouth, and joins the Tirol on the north and eaſt, extending about forty-five miles in length, and thirty in breadth.

The city of Brixen is ſituated on the river Eyſock, at the foot of Mount Brenner, in the forty-ſixth degree thirty-eight minutes north latitude, and the eleventh degree forty-nine minutes eaſt longitude, in a fine country abounding in vineyards, that yield excellent red wine. It is adorned with ſpacious ſquares, a very handſome palace, a town-houſe, a cathedral, two churches which join to each other, and two convents. It has alſo a caſtle ſeated on an eminence. It is a populous town much frequented on account of the mineral ſprings in its neighbourhood. The houſes are well-built, and are almoſt all of the ſame ſize: they are adorned with porticos, and curiouſly painted on the outſide; but their ſhops are kept in vaults, which run from one ſide of the ſtreet to the other. The biſhop's palace, which forms one ſide of a fine ſquare over-againſt the two churches, is encompaſſed with a ditch, and defended at the entrance by four braſs cannon.

The country between this city and Bolzano is extremely populous, and ſo well manured, that the ſteepeſt mountains are cultivated. The men of Brixen are reckoned more genteel and civilized, and the women handſomer, than in any other part of Tirol. The Virgin Mary and St. Chriſtopher being the principal objects of

the people's devotion, the roads are full of little chapels of the Virgin, and St. Chriſtopher is painted on all their houſes. This city has its own magiſtrates, who are two burgomaſters and twelve council.

We ſhall defer treating of that part of Swabia ſubject to the houſe of Auſtria, till we come to the circle of Swabia.

CHAP. X.

Of the Kingdom of BOHEMIA, including MORAVIA.

SECT. I.

Its Name and Situation; the Face of the Country of Bohemia; its Minerals and Foſſils, Vegetables and Animals; its Rivers and Highways, Towns and Villages. Of the Inhabitants, the Hardſhips under which they labour, their Language, Religion, and Government.

SOME authors include under the name of Bohemia in general the kingdom of Bohemia, Moravia, Sileſia, and Luſatia, which lie together in the form of a lozenge, between Auſtria on the ſouth, Brandenburgh on the north, the palatinate of Bavaria, with part of Saxony, on the weſt, and Poland on the eaſt, extending in its greateſt length and breadth two hundred and ſeventy-ſix miles from north to ſouth, and two hundred and ſixty from eaſt to weſt.

But however convenient it may be for geographical writers thus to claſs countries that have little or no relation to each other, it can only ſerve to miſlead the mind and confound our ideas; for neither Sileſia nor Luſatia can properly be conſidered as provinces of Bohemia; the greateſt part of the former being ſubject to the king of Pruſſia, and the latter divided between the elector of Saxony, the king of Pruſſia, and ſeveral other princes. We ſhall therefore confine this account of Bohemia to the kingdom of that name, including Moravia; but ſhall treat of each ſeparately, beginning with the former.

Bohemia, in German Boiherheim, Boiheim, and corruptly Bohmen, that is the abode of the Boii, obtained its name from the Boii, its antient inhabitants, who were a tribe of the Celtæ, that retired into the Hercynian foreſt, which extends through this country, rather than ſubmit to the Roman yoke, and is bounded to the north by Miſnia, Luſatia, and Sileſia; to the eaſt by Moravia, Sileſia, and the county of Glatz; to the ſouth by Bavaria and Auſtria; and to the weſt by Bavaria and Franconia.

It is on all ſides encompaſſed with high mountains and thick extenſive woods, yet the country lies high, tho' it is for the moſt part level, and enjoys a warm, pleaſant, and wholeſome air; a ſoil in ſome places fat, and in others ſandy. In the bowels of the earth are found iſinglaſs, coal, allum, ſulphur, and ſealed-earth: there are here ſome mines of ſilver, tin, copper, lead, quick-ſilver, and iron; ſalt-petre is alſo found here, and all kinds of marble are dug in Bohemia. Among the precious ſtones are a kind of diamond which have a beautiful luſtre, but want a proper hardneſs, which is alſo the caſe with the rubies and cryſolites found in this country; here are likewiſe emeralds, granates, ſapphires, topazes, amethyſts, hyacinths, berils, carbuncles, jaſper, chalcedonies, turquoiſes, and cornelians.

Bohemia is very fertile in corn, conſiderable quantities of which are exported, particularly buck-wheat and millet. It alſo abounds in garden and orchard fruits, and produces excellent red wines, with ſaffron, ginger, and calamus. It likewiſe yields good paſture, which feed numerous droves of cattle, and has excellent chaces. Among the wild beaſts are lynxes, bears, wolves, foxes, martens, badgers, beavers, and otters; and there are here plenty of wild fowl.

With reſpect to the principal rivers of the country, the Elbe riſes in Bohemia, and becomes navigable at Leutmeritz: at Melmic it receives the Moldaw, and near Leutmeritz the Egra.

Ten principal highways, leading from Prague through the whole country, are made in a direct line, and in many places ſecured by maſonry, the hollow parts being filled up, and on both ſides deep trenches are cut for carrying off the water. This uſeful labour coſt ſome millions of florins.

Bohemia was formerly well ſupplied with towns, boroughs, villages, caſtles, and men; but it at preſent appears extremely deſolate when compared with its former ſtate. During the inteſtine religious wars, and the ſucceeding eruptions of the Swedes, moſt of the towns, caſtles, and villages, were laid waſte; ſo that at preſent it contains only one hundred and five great and ſmall towns. Theſe are Prague, the capital, with thirty-one royal towns, nine royal dowry or jointure ones, two common mine towns, three royal mine towns, twelve exempted mine towns, and forty-ſeven baron towns, with not much above ſix thouſand villages.

The number of inhabitants is likewiſe conſiderably decreaſed: according to Balbin, there is not the tenth part of the people by which it was formerly inhabited, and Modern Bohemia is ſcarce the ſhadow of what it was antiently. In 1622, and the three or four ſucceeding years, thirty thouſand families quitted this country, not to mention women, children, handicraftſmen, and the greateſt part of the nobility, who alſo retired; whence an attentive traveller finds the towns, boroughs, villages, and highways of this country extremely deſolate.

The peaſants here are bondmen to their lords, and the hard yoke by which they are galled, appears to be the cauſe both of their ſtiff-neckedneſs and of their indolence; the latter being very obſervable by the wretched condition of their villages. In 1679, the heavy bondage they laboured under induced a great part of them to take arms, but for this they were wholly ſtripped of the ſmall remains of liberty they enjoyed.

The owners of free eſtates are but few in number. The landed eſtates belong to the prelates, lords, knights, and towns. The prelates here are the archbiſhop of Prague, with the biſhops of Leutmeritz and Konigingratz, the canons and capitulars of the metropolitan church of St. Vitus in the citadel of Prague, with many others. The lords conſiſt of princes, counts, and barons.

The Bohemian language is a dialect of the Sclavonic, but is harſher than that of the neighbouring people who ſpeak that language.

The Bohemians are ſuppoſed to have embraced the Chriſtian religion ſo early as the ſixth century; but it is more certain that they were inſtructed in it by the Greek brethren Methodius and Cyril, about the middle of the ninth century; hence the Greek religion and cuſtoms were in uſe among them till the Romiſh method of worſhip was introduced by Boleſlaus the Good. In the fifteenth century John Militz preached againſt the pope and the abuſes of the clergy; Matthias Janow trod in his ſteps, and was followed by John Huſs, Jerome of Prague, and Jacob Von Miſa, who in the fourteenth, and more particularly in the fifteenth century, oppoſed many doctrines of the popiſh church. This brought Huſs and Jerome to the ſtake, and put their adherents, moſt of whom were Bohemians, under the ban; upon which

account

An Accurate Map of the KINGDOM of BOHEMIA Drawn from the best Authorities.

English Miles 69 to a Degree.
German Miles 15 to a Degree.

SAXONY
UPPER
LUSATIA
SILESIA
FRANCONIA
BAVARIA
MORAVIA
AUSTRIA

DRESDEN · Elb R. · Pirna · Glashutte · Theut · Konigstein · Schitkenau · Eiridland · Gabel · Nanarau · Pultanitz · Wrtki · Rohonetz · Gilenitz · Leitmeritz · Leipe · Austa · Hradist · Skal · Troiky · Wlcsli · Risenburg · Reinetz · Kouberstein · Bismarn · Hauska · Lisbon · Bunzel · Nalbranitz · Konigingrats · Jarmeritz · Prebochof · Wostrie · Kolyanitz · Dubrauitz · Schnita · Lititz · Austy · Orlitz · Krutich · Hohenmauth · Leutomysel · Politzka · Marsetz · Lemberg · Chrudim · Caurzim · Caslaw · Czaslau · Kolin · Prag R. · Brandeis · Castolitz · Radonitz · Kolodieg · Jesenitz · Hradist · Brzesnitz · Zebrad · Beraun · Rakonitz · Schlan · Laun · Saatz · Elnbogen · Eger · Falkena · Wolfsgrun · Tirschowitz · Santau · Straibra · Pilsen · Wolfsberg · Stod · Stanken · Teynitz · Klattau · Grunberg · Budzanitz · Brannitz · Mirowitz · Orlitz · Zwickow · Pisek · Wodnany · Wolin · Tabor · Bechin · Wimpung · Slabata · Trachatitz · Schenow · Horitz · Krumlaw · Wilhartitz · Zelnow · Swetla · Swina · Frauau · Budweis · Bistnitz · Wessely · Hawings · Waldmanschlag · Waldmanschlag · Waldmanschlag

account they were so irritated, that they raised a bloody war, which continued for many years. They pitched their camp on a mountain for the security of themselves and their religious assemblies, which gave occasion to their being called Taborites; Tabor in the Bohemian tongue signifying a camp. A part of the people, who were principally desirous of participating in the cup at the Lord's Supper, obtained the name of Calixtines, and after the death of Ziska, their general, a part called themselves Orphans. The Calixtines, in the year 1433, obtained the use of the cup, which was permitted to every one; but in other respects they complied with the church of Rome. The Taborites, on the contrary, could neither be brought over by allurements, threatenings, nor persecutions, to the Romish church; but improving their doctrines and church discipline, and laying aside war and disputes, called themselves the Bohemian Brethren; but, in 1547, the greatest part of them being banished, retired to Poland and Prussia. In the sixteenth century the opinions of Luther spread in Bohemia, and the greatest part of the Calixtines embraced that religion. In 1575 Maximilian II. allowed every one full liberty of conscience, which was granted in stronger terms in 1609, by Rodolphus II. when they were not only permitted the free exercise of their religion, but the use of the university of Prague. These privileges were confirmed by Matthias I. in 1611, and Ferdinand II. was admitted to the throne only upon condition of his confirming them by oath; but in 1617 he entered into an agreement with Philip III. king of Spain, without the consent of the states, that he, with all his descendants, after the extinction of the male archducal stock of Austria, should possess the hereditary succession in Bohemia. This terrified the Lutheran Bohemians, who had besides so many complaints to prefer, that their deputies, in 1618, obtaining no favourable answer to their representations in the royal chancery at Prague, they, in the heat of their passion, threw two of the royal counsellors, with a secretary, out of the window, as betrayers of their country; and no regard being paid to their complaints, they created the palsgrave Frederic king, and took up arms in their own defence. Hence arose a dreadful war, which ended very unhappily both with respect to the new king and the protestant Bohemians; for in 1627 they were deprived of all their rights and privileges; and those who would not submit to the Romish church, were compelled to quit the country. From that time the church of Rome became the only prevailing religion in Bohemia; and though the Jews at Prague are indulged in the exercise of theirs, the few Lutherans were afterwards obliged to conceal themselves as much as possible.

The archbishop of Prague is legate of the see of Rome, a prince of the Roman empire, primate of the kingdom, and standing chancellor of the university of Prague, and has for his suffragans the bishops of Leutmeritz and Konigingratz. The archiepiscopal consistory has the supreme jurisdiction over the clergy, and from it lies an appeal, either to the king or the pope.

Learning is at a low ebb in this kingdom; nor do the Bohemians apply themselves much to the fine arts. They, however, make good cloth, fine potters work, good blades for swords and knives, fine paper and glass.

With respect to commerce, they export a considerable quantity of corn and malt into Saxony and Bavaria. Hops and the Spaw waters of Egra are also plentifully exported from this kingdom, and likewise paper, pottery, and beautiful glass; but their commerce is in general inconsiderable.

With regard to the government, Bohemia is at present an hereditary kingdom, but was formerly elective, though the states usually kept to the family of the deceased king. Ferdinand I. in 1547, declared the kingdom hereditary by a conclusion of the diet, and it fully became so in 1620, from which time the states have had nothing to do with respect to the right of succession.

We have already observed, in treating of Germany in general, that the king of Bohemia is arch-cup-bearer to the holy Roman empire, but he does not add that office to his other titles. He has for hereditary cup-bearer of the empire the counts of Althan, who therefore bear a cup in their arms. On the death of the emperor Charles VI. great debates arose concerning the person who at the election of a new king of the Romans, should represent the electoral voice of Bohemia. Queen Maria Theresa had conferred the sovereignty on her consort the great duke of Tuscany; but by a majority of votes in the electoral college, it was determined that the voice of Bohemia should remain dormant for that time. But after the death of Charles VII. the envoys of election of the queen of Bohemia were admitted to the choice of a new king of the Romans.

The arms of Bohemia are a lion argent, with a double tail, in a field gules.

The supreme officers of the empire are the supreme burgrave, land-steward, land-marshal, land-chamberlain, land-judge, aulic feudal-judge, president of appeals, chamber president, and supreme land register. The hereditary officers are principally the four following, the supreme hereditary marshal, the sewer, the cup-bearer, and the steward.

The aulic chancery of Bohemia, which constantly follows the court, was united in 1749, with that of the Austrian at Vienna, and the government of Prague is abolished; there are, however, several courts of judicature held there. The circles and towns in Bohemia have also their peculiar judicatories, and the lords their hereditary and feudal ones.

According to the new regulation, with respect to the military state of the Austrian hereditary countries, the annual contribution of the kingdom of Bohemia amounts to five millions two hundred and seventy thousand four hundred eighty-eight florins, forty-four kruitzers.

The kingdom of Bohemia is divided into twelve circles, and the territory of Egra, but does not contain many towns so considerable as to deserve a particular description; we shall therefore begin with the capital of the kingdom.

SECT. II.

A Description of the City of Prague, with a concise Account of the Inhabitants of that Metropolis.

THIS city is seated almost in the middle of Bohemia, in the fiftieth degree five minutes north latitude, and the fourteenth degree forty minutes east longitude. It extends on both sides the Moldaw, which is here about eight hundred paces broad; but shallow, and not navigable. The stone bridge which joins the two parts of the city on the opposite banks of the river, was erected by Charles IV. in the year 1357, and exceeds in length those of Dresden and Ratisbon, it being one thousand seven hundred and seventy feet long: its breadth amounts to thirty-five feet; three carriages may pass upon it abreast, and it has a strong tower at each end. It is raised on sixteen piers, and adorned on the sides with twenty-eight statues of saints. The crucifix with the two female statues that stand under it, and that of St. John of Nepomuck, are of metal; but the others are of stone. This Nepomuck, king Wenzel caused to be thrown from the bridge into the river, and drowned in 1683; but in the year 1729, he was not only ranked among the saints, but adored with such veneration, that almost all the other saints are on his account forgotten in Bohemia.

The fortifications of the city are pretty strong. The houses are built entirely of stone, and for the most part consist of three stories. The streets are broader than those of Vienna; but it has not so many magnificent palaces. It is computed to contain ninety-two churches and chapels, with about forty cloisters. The town, considering its extent, is not sufficiently populous, it containing only about seventy thousand Christians, and between twelve and thirteen thousand Jews. Nor is its commerce very considerable; for exclusive of the arts and handicraft trades, its principal means of subsistence is drawn from the brewing of beer. It comprehends three towns, the Old, the New, and the Little Town.

In Old Prague the Jesuits have a magnificent college, which is one of the largest belonging to their order, except that of Goa. It is called *Collegium Clementinum*, from

from St. Clement's church which joins to it, and two hundred and ten prieſts of that order conſtantly reſide there. They have alſo another college in the New City, and in the Little City, they have a college, and two ſeminaries. Their ſchools are very full, and the number of ſtudents in the twelve claſſes of the Clementine college amounts to no leſs than eighteen hundred. The library of the Clementine college is worth obſerving, being very light and lofty, and adorned with galleries. The mathematical cabinet built here has a moving armillary ſphere, according to Tycho Brahe's ſyſtem, and a large ſextant made by that celebrated mathematician. In the tower of the Clementine college is an obſervatory, from which there is a fine proſpect of the city. On the top of this tower is a ſtatue of Atlas, ſupporting an armillary ſphere.

In the church near the Trinhoff is the monument of Tycho Brahe, over which is his uſual motto in large characters, ESSE POTIVS QUAM HABERI. That is, "To be rather than ſeem to be;" and underneath a long inſcription mentioning his various diſcoveries. Under this, Tycho Brahe is repreſented in baſſo relievo dreſſed in armour, with a long ſword by his ſide, a band and whiſkers: he leans with his right hand on a celeſtial ſphere, placed over his coat of arms, and on his left is his helmet.

The church of the croſs near the Jeſuit's college in the old city is an elegant piece of architecture, adorned with fine marble columns, and beautiful paintings. On the church, which ſtands in Charles's ſquare, is a *ſcala ſanta*, built of Bohemian marble. The high altar is embelliſhed with ſculpture in wood, which is well executed; but the walls of the church are entirely covered with votive pieces, ſome of which are wretched daubings deſigned for pictures, others filthy rags, coats, &c. which give the church a very diſguſtful appearance.

The cathedral, which is dedicated to St. Vitus, and ſtands on the caſtle hill, is very rich in plate, altar furniture, and relics: among other valuable ornaments is a crucifix of Hungarian virgin gold, that weighs ten thouſand ducats. Some have repreſented St. Wenceſlaus's chapel in this ſtructure, as if the walls were entirely covered with jaſper, amethyſts, and cornelian; every thing indeed is there very rich, but falls ſhort of this exaggerated account. Indeed, a conſiderable part of the wall is covered with theſe gems, ſome of which are as big as a man's fiſt; but irregularly ſet without any order; and as for the embelliſhments of gold, and the like, their value is much more owing to the metal, than the ſkill of the artificer.

Upon a fountain within the area of the citadel is a braſs ſtatue of St. George, caſt in the year 1373, and making allowance for the age in which it was produced, it may be reckoned a very good one. The proſpect from the royal apartments is quite charming, and the hall where the emperor entertains the nobility well contrived, and very ſplendid.

Facing the Capuchin church is an edifice, built in the imitation of the *caſa ſanta* at Loretto, the walls of which are like that, black and ſmoaky within; but on the baſſo relievos on the outſide, there is a very great difference, theſe being only of plaiſter, and thoſe of the holy houſe at Loretto of marble, and the workmanſhip is as far inferior to the latter as the materials. The treaſure collected in this chapel is very extraordinary. Among other valuable offerings are the following: a pyx ſet with pearls of the ſize of an acorn, one of which in the middle is ſhaped like a heart, and is of the ſize of a middling walnut, another is enriched with ſix thouſand ſix hundred ſixty-ſix diamonds, repreſenting the ſun. The ſize of the diamonds gradually decreaſes, and they are curiouſly arranged, in order to form the ſolar rays, which terminate in a point, conſiſting of one ſingle ſtone. It coſt two hundred thouſand guldens, and the artiſt who made it, and was employed ten years before it was compleated, was rewarded with ten thouſand.

In the middle of the horſe-market, which is a large ſquare, is an equeſtrian ſtatue of king Wenceſlaus, and on one ſide of the area, before count Czernini's palace, is a ſtone pillar in memory of Drahomira, a pagan dutcheſs of Bohemia, the mother of St. Wenceſlaus, whom the earth ſwallowed up on this ſpot, in the year 939.

A white tower in this city ſerves for a ſtate priſon, and it is ſaid there was formerly in one of the rooms a curious machine, made in the ſhape of a woman, which when any delinquent was brought near it, would embrace him, and with its arms inſtantly break his back and ribs; but no ſuch thing is now to be ſeen.

Prague has been frequently beſieged, and obliged to ſurrender; particularly in the year 1631, it was taken by the Saxons, and in 1741, by the elector of Bavaria. In 1742, the Auſtrian forces inveſted the city, in which were about twenty thouſand French, commanded by the marſhals Broglio and Belleiſle, who ſuffered greatly by famine; but defended themſelves with great bravery, and at length found means to make their eſcape. In the year 1744, the Pruſſians made themſelves maſters of this capital, after cannonading it ſeven days; but quitted it the ſame year.

The inhabitants of Prague are poor, and their ſhops but meanly furniſhed. The people of quality, who cannot eaſily bear the expence of Vienna, chuſe to reſide here, where they have aſſemblies, muſic, and all other diverſions, except thoſe of a court; proviſions are extremely cheap, and they have plenty of the moſt excellent fowl. The women of quality now dreſs pretty much in the French mode; but thoſe of the Jews have a diſtinct habit. The wives of the wealthy citizens wear fur caps and long cloaks, ſome of them ſatin lined with taffety, and petticoats of the ſame; but ſhort, on account of the dirtineſs of the ſtreets.

SECT. III.

The other principal Towns in Bohemia.

IT has been already intimated, that war and perſecution have rendered the kingdom of Bohemia extremely deſart, in compariſon with what it was formerly, and therefore, though there are many towns and villages, there are few worthy of notice. The country is, however, divided into twelve circles, ſome of the principal places in which are the following.

Pfaundorf is the firſt town in Bohemia on the ſide next Vienna. At Deutſchbrod the baggage of travellers is ſearched by the Bohemian cuſtom-houſe officers. In the road from hence to the pretty town of Jenkow, you have a delightful proſpect of a fine level country on each ſide, which is interſperſed with above fifty little villages and ſmall towns. Dzaſlow, which is ſix miles farther on this road, is alſo a very pretty town, and has a large ſquare market-place.

Melnic, a ſmall royal jointure town, is ſeated on an eminence in the circle of Bunzlau, near the conflux of the Elbe and Moldau; it has a collegiate church, and is defended by a caſtle.

Konigingratz, a royal jointure town in the circle of the ſame name, is ſeated on the Elbe, and is a biſhop's ſee, ſuffragan to the archbiſhop of Prague. The town is pretty large, and has a college of Jeſuits, and a commandery belonging to the knights of the Teutonic order. It has been ſeveral times beſieged and taken.

Pardubice, a royal town in the circle of Chrudim, is fortified, and its citadel is a fine ſtructure. The town is well built, and the inhabitants make excellent blades for ſwords and knives. This town has the privilege of holding fairs.

Crumau, or Crumlow, a well built fortified town, ſeated on the river Moldau. It has a beautiful citadel and college of Jeſuits. This town, with the ſeigniory annexed to it, bears the title of a dutchy.

Elnbogen, a royal borough, ſeated together with its citadel, on a high and ſteep rock, by which it is alſo environed. The river Eger, which ruſhes by the left ſide of this rock, here forms a curve reſembling an elbow; and hence the town receives its name. The way which leads to it is very narrow, but it has ſometimes been beſieged and taken.

Five miles to the eaſt of Elnbogen is Carlſbadt, or Charles's Bath, which is famous for its medicinal wa-

ters, of which there are two ſorts, that differ both in heat and ſtrength, and are diſtinguiſhed by the names of the Sproudel and the Muhl bath, the firſt of which are boiling hot, and the latter little more than luke-warm. They are both bathed in and drank, and on ſeveral occaſions at one and the ſame time. They were firſt diſcovered in the year 1370, and take their name from the emperor Charles IV. They are recommended for many diſeaſes, particularly the gravel and barrenneſs in women. Several eminent phyſicians have wrote upon them, and on the manner in which they ought to be uſed. The method of drinking them is very diſagreeable; for let the weather be ever ſo hot, the patient is obliged to be ſhut up in a room heated with a ſtove, and to drink two or three large pots of water hotter than thoſe of the king or queen's bath in Somerſetſhire, and to walk about while the ſweat trickles down in drops. For this reaſon, people ſeldom ſtir out till three or four hours after they have drank the waters; and the reſt of the day it is abſolutely neceſſary to walk about, to prevent ſleeping, which after dinner is dangerous: yet the walks are narrow, and afford no proſpect but of barren rocks, except only one ſquare place planted with rows of lime-trees, oppoſite to which is a great houſe, which has fine rooms, in which thoſe who drink the waters play, dance, or walk from five to eight o'clock, the hour of ſupper. Theſe baths are frequented by abundance of foreigners, and particularly the nobility and gentry of Auſtria, as well as thoſe of Bohemia; but whoever would be well accommodated, muſt bring his own bed, wine, and cook with him.

The town itſelf is divided into two parts by the river Tappel, which runs through it; but it is a dirty place, chiefly inhabited by artificers in iron, whoſe works are very neat, and extremely cheap.

Carlſtein is a celebrated citadel that ſtands on a mountain about fifteen miles diſtant from Prague. It is ſtrong both by art and nature, and was built by Charles IV. to be the depoſitory of the regalia of the kingdom. In it is a well two hundred and forty-four feet deep. It was beſieged by the Huſſites in the year 1422, from the twenty-eighth of May to the eleventh of November, but without ſucceſs.

Leutomeritz is a conſiderable town on the Elbe, thirty-five miles to the north-weſt of Prague, and is a biſhop's ſee ſuffragan to the archbiſhopric of Prague. It was garriſoned with French forces by the late emperor Charles VII. but was taken by the troops of the queen of Hungary in 1742.

The laſt town we ſhall mention in Bohemia is that of Egra, or Eger, the principal place in a territory of the ſame name It is a beautiful and well fortified town, ſituated on the riger Eger: it has a college of Jeſuits, and three cloiſters. This town retains its antient rights and privileges, and particularly that of coining money, which, however, paſſes only within its own diſtrict. From the judicial ſentences of the town-council an appeal lies only to the king. Egra has been frequently beſieged and taken: in the year 1742 the French made themſelves maſters of it, and kept it till the next year, when, after a long blockade, they were obliged to ſurrender. In the town are a number of ingenious artiſts, and its mineral waters are very famous.

Upon the roads in this country the traveller ſeldom fails of meeting with good proviſions in the inns, as ducks, capons, pheaſants, partridges, and hares; but the lodging is far from being anſwerable to the other entertainment, it being generally only ſome clean ſtraw ſpread on the floor, with a bolſter or pillow for the head. In the houſes of the peaſants there is a place walled in behind the ſtove, to which they aſcend by a few narrow ſtone ſteps, as into a cock-loft, and in this warm apartment ſleep away the cold winter nights very comfortably.

SECT. IV.

Of the Marquiſate of MORAVIA.

Its Situation, Extent, the Face of the Country, its Climate, Produce, and Rivers: the Manufactures and Religion of the Inhabitants; with the principal Places in this Marquiſate.

THE marquiſate of Moravia is bounded on the north by Glatz and Sileſia, on the eaſt by Sileſia and Hungary, on the ſouth by Auſtria, and on the weſt by Bohemia; and receives its name from the river Morava, or March. It is a hundred and twenty-eight miles in length from eaſt to weſt; and where broadeſt, about ninety-two from north to ſouth. Towards Hungary, Sileſia, and Bohemia, it is partly ſurrounded by mountains, and partly by woods. Above half of this country is mountainous and woody, and in the level tracts are many moraſſes, bogs, and lakes, where the water is unwholeſome.

The air on the mountains is rough and ſo cold, that in many places the inhabitants uſe a ſtove for the greateſt part of the whole ſummer. However, more corn grows here than is conſumed by the inhabitants; here is alſo plenty of flax and hemp, nor are fruit-trees and garden-plants wanted. It likewiſe produces good ſaffron, and ſome white and red wine, particularly in thoſe tracts that border on Auſtria and Hungary. Their paſture is good and feeds great numbers of cattle, and the extenſive foreſts afford great plenty of veniſon, wolves, bears, and a ſpecies of leopards of the ſize of dogs; there are alſo ſome beavers. Theſe foreſts likewiſe afford the inhabitants an opportunity of procuring a great deal of honey and wax by the breeding of bees.

In this country are quarries of marble amethyſts, a kind of baſtard diamonds, and other minerals; as alſo allum and mines of iron. This country likewiſe produces ſulphur, ſaltpetre, and vitriol: here are wholeſome mineral waters, and ſome acid ſprings.

The Oder riſes in the circle of Olmutz, in this country. The river March, or Mora, or in Latin Morava, riſes in the county of Glatz, and running from north to ſouth, at length forms the limits between Hungary and Auſtria; but this river is not navigable. Theſe and other ſmaller ſtreams, as well as the lakes, yield various kinds of fiſh.

The ſciences at preſent begin to flouriſh here. The principal commodities of the country are the cloth manufactory, iron-works, and glaſs-houſes; the making of paper, gunpowder, &c. but the commerce of the inhabitants is very inconſiderable.

Chriſtianity was ſettled here ſo early as in the eighth century; but in the fifteenth this country bore a conſiderable part in the commotions of the Huſſites in Bohemia, and many embraced their opinions and called themſelves Moravian Brethren; but in the ſixteenth century moſt of them were obliged to fly. There are here at preſent not only ſome of them, but a few Lutherans and Calviniſts, who make an external profeſſion of conformity with the Romiſh church, though they privately hold ſeparate aſſemblies, and, as opportunity offers, frequently fly to Proteſtant countries. Of late a new ſpirit of reformation appeared among the former, and a great number of converts, headed by a late count of Zinzendorf, have not only ſettled in England and ſeveral parts of Europe, but have removed for the ſake of liberty to the Britiſh American plantations.

The whole marquiſate is ſubject to the eccleſiaſtical juriſdiction of the biſhop of Olmutz, who ſtiles himſelf duke and prince of the holy Roman empire, and count of the royal Bohemian chapel, having formerly had a voice at the diets of the empire. He is at preſent immediately under the pope, and the epiſcopal conſiſtory, which is the only eccleſiaſtical judicatory in all Moravia, enjoys the ſupreme juriſdiction over eccleſiaſtical perſons.

Moravia contributes towards the maintenance of the military ſtate of the Auſtrian hereditary countries, the annual ſum of one million eight hundred and fifty-ſix thouſand four hundred and ninety florins.

The whole marquiſate is divided into ſix circles, each of which has its circle-captain, whoſe authority extends to the quartering, marching, and maintenance of the ſoldiers.

The principal towns in Moravia are,

Olmutz, the capital of the marquiſate and of the circle of the ſame name, and the reſidence of the biſhop, whoſe caſtle is a place of conſiderable ſtrength, it being wholly ſurrounded by the river March. This town is populous and well built; it contains twenty-ſix churches, among which the cathedral church of St. Wenzel is worthy of notice, with five chapels, ſeven monaſteries, and two nunneries, one college of Jeſuits, an univerſity, a riding-academy, ſeveral hoſpitals, and an orphan-houſe. The city has been frequently beſieged, and in 1741 was blocked up for ſome months by the Pruſſians.

Kremſier, a well built walled town, ſeated on the river March, and belonging to the biſhop of Olmutz. It has a collegiate church dedicated to St. Moritz, a college, ſeveral cloiſters, and a mint. The large and beautiful palace in which the biſhop uſually reſided was burnt down in the year 1752, together with the archives, the ſuburbs, and fifty-five burghers houſes.

Brunn, or Brinn, is a royal borough in the circle of the ſame name. The town is not very large, but is well built, populous, and well fortified. It has the greateſt trade of any place in Moravia, and is the ſeat of the royal courts of juſtice and the diets. The biſhop has a palace here, and within the town is alſo a college of Jeſuits; ſix cloiſters, among which is that of the Auguſtin hermits near St. Thomas's church, which is particularly famous for an image of the Virgin Mary, which they pretend was made by St. Luke. This place has ſometimes been beſieged and blocked up, but never yet taken.

Znain, or Znogma, a royal borough, ſituated in a pleaſant ſpot near the river Teya; it is well built, and has a citadel, four cloiſters, and a college of Jeſuits. There are many vineyards in its neighbourhood that afford a palatable wine. It has been ſeveral times taken and retaken during the civil wars of Germany.

Iglau is a pretty large well built and populous town in the circle of the ſame name, ſeated on the river Iglau. It contains a college of Jeſuits, with a Dominican and Franciſcan monaſtery, and carries on a trade in beer and coarſe woollen cloth. It has frequently been beſieged and taken, and in the ſixteenth century was the firſt of all the royal boroughs that embraced the opinions of Luther.

CHAP. XI.

Of the Dutchy of SILESIA and the County of GLATZ.

SECT. I.

Its Situation, Extent, Mountains, Climate, Foſſils and Minerals, Vegetables, Animals, and Rivers.

SILESIA is bounded on the eaſt by Poland, on which ſide the country is wholly level and open; to the ſouthward it is ſeparated from Hungary by a chain of mountains and a wild thicket, in ſome parts a German mile broad, and in others more or leſs: this thicket properly belongs neither to Sileſia nor Hungary, though both countries have frequently attempted to make it their own; but it ſtill remains a natural and impenetrable barrier both to Sileſia and Hungary. Towards the weſt Sileſia joins Moravia, Bohemia, Luſatia, and the county of Glatz. From the two firſt it is ſeparated by a chain of mountains, but towards Luſatia it is level and open. To the northward it borders on Brandenburg, on which ſide it is likewiſe level and open.

It extends in length from the north-weſt to the ſouth-eaſt about two hundred and twenty-eight miles, and about a hundred where broadeſt; but it is much contracted at both ends.

Sileſia is encompaſſed on the weſt and ſouth by a chain of mountains, which, with reſpect to their height and extent, are ſome of the moſt remarkable in Europe, and is called by different names in the different countries by which it extends. In theſe mountains, and all over that part of Upper Sileſia that lies towards Moravia and Hungary, the winter ſets in earlier, is much more ſevere, and of longer continuance than in the plains. At the time when the country at the foot of theſe mountains is covered with ice and ſnow, the trees at Breſlau are in full verdure.

The inhabitants of the mountains are not only confined to their houſes by the ſnow, but like the Laplanders and people of Carniola, they uſe a kind of ſkates, by the help of which they paſs over the ſnow with amazing ſwiftneſs.

In the mountains are found agate, jaſper, and even amethyſts of an uncommon hardneſs and beauty, and alſo cryſtals. They afford quarries of ſtone, and in ſome parts is pit-coal, while others afford turf for fuel. There are ſome mines of ſilver; vitriol is found in ſeveral places, and in others are mines of copper, lead, and iron.

The ſandy parts of the country in the principality of Glogau, and beyond the Oder towards Poland, with the mountains tract, which is of conſiderable extent, produce little corn; but this deficiency is compenſated by the fertility of the other and larger part of Sileſia, which affords plenty of wheat, rye, barley, and oats, and alſo Turkey wheat, ſpelt, buck-wheat, millet, linſeed, peas and beans. Several parts of the country produce excellent culinary vegetables, and afford plenty of fine fruit; even ſuch ſpots as are unfit for tillage, either make good paſture grounds, or are covered with wood; ſo that there is ſcarce any part of Sileſia that can be ſaid to be entirely uſeleſs and barren. Here is abundance of flax, and ſome hemp; but not ſo much of the latter as is ſpun, conſiderable quantities being imported from Hungary and Poland. The country produces plenty of hops, and madder is cultivated with ſuch ſucceſs, as to form one of their moſt conſiderable exports: there is alſo great plenty of a yellow dye, and likewiſe plantations of tobacco; but the ſaffron of this country is not very good.

In the mountains, and in Upper Sileſia, pitch, tar, and reſin are made from the pine, fir, and beech, and the larch tree yields turpentine. From theſe reſinous trees, the inhabitants among the mountains make a kind of lamp-black.

Their breeding of horned cattle extends no farther than is juſt neceſſary for the plough, and a ſufficiency of milk, butter, and cheeſe; and their oxen are ſtill fewer in number, on which account the markets are principally ſupplied from Hungary and Poland. The moſt famous of theſe ox markets are thoſe of Brieg, Breſlau, and Schweidnitz, where formerly at the annual fair, it was not uncommon to ſee ten, twelve, or fifteen thouſand head of Hungarian and Poliſh cattle, and ſometimes more. There are here bred many fine ſtout horſes; but not enough to ſupply the country, great numbers being bought at Francfort fair, and brought likewiſe from Lithuania. The inhabitants of the hilly country keep goats, and eſtimate the profit of two good ones to be equal to that of a cow; a great deal of cheeſe being made of their milk. The breeding of ſheep is alſo very profitable, on account of the excellency of their wool. Theſe ſheep are ſheared twice a year; but the ſummer wool is reckoned preferable to that of winter, though ſomewhat lighter. As to veniſon and game, ſome parts enjoy a tolerable plenty, while in others they are ſcarce.

The wild beaſts of this country that are only valued for their ſkins are lynxes, which frequent none but the mountainous parts, foxes, weazels, otters, and beavers, but in no great number.

The

A New MAP of the DUTCHY of SILESIA, Drawn from the best Authorities.

BRANDENBURG

KINGDOM OF POLAND

KINGDOM OF BOHEMIA

MARQUISAT OF MORAVIA

AUSTRIAN SILESIA

HUNGARY

Frankfort on Oder · Reipuig · Zibrigen · Plauthnitz · Oder R. · Crossen · Zullichau · Konton · Guben · Neuburg · Lippen · Crumberg · Saabor · Bobersberg · Wartemberg · Schlan · Linden · Carolath · Beuthen · Pforten · Somerfeld · Christiadt · Namberg · Freystat · Forste · Triebel · Neustadt · Sagan · Quaritz · Glogaw · Rottlau · Benthen · Muska · Triebus · Sprottau · Zirkau · Prinkenau · Weissig · Polkowitz · Strinau · Kosel · Hama · Sprottlehen · Luben · Rothenburg · Sygersdorf · Naumburg · Lignitz · Goldberg · Gorlitz · Lauban · Kahna · Loewenberg · Zobten · Seydenburg · Lahn · Reichenwald · Leipe · Striegau · Zittau · Tunsberg · Eichberg · Wolmsdorf · Reichenau · Herrnsdorf · Schmidberg · Schweidnitz · Gabel · Waldenberg · Ayscha · Leypa · Oppau · Schomberg · Tannhausen · Gierstorf · Frankenstein · Grunsdorf · Neu Rode · Munsterberg · Jung Buntzel · Gitschen · Konigshof · Winschelberg · Homersdorf · Starwitz · Neisse · Lewin · Glatz · Laromirz · Neustad · Ringersdorf · Landek · Johansberg · Neustadt · Habelschwert · Bilendorf · Nimburg · New Bienow · Konigingratz · Bohm Brod · Kolin · Elbe R. · Pardubitz · Kauraim · Kuttenberg · Czaslau · Chrudim · Landscron · Schomberg · Hohenstadt · Politska · Triban · Zittau · Olmutz · Weiskirchen · Mesritsch · Hoff · Jagendorf · Wagendorf · Hausa · Sandhubel · Bielau · Lambke · Riegersdorf · Prolintz · Militsch · Sakran · Lobschutz · Bladen · Ratibor · Janowitz · Kosterwitz · Benescha · Troppaw · Gratz · Oder R. · Morawia · Hallendorf · Wostitz · Tescheu · Pritlak · Jablunka · Caserne · Wisternitz · Kurnick · Kussi · Opatinca · Wanson · Gratz · Wolstein · Komanit · Kemblau · Privement · Storchnest · Reisen · Kirchen · Costin · Krabia · Kobielin · Ranik · Jutrosin · Siradia · Falezow · Militsch Bar · Trachenberg · Postel · Fostenberg · Winzig · Pranchitz · Wolhaw · Stadt Lemberg · Auras · Trebnitz · Oelse · Kapsdorf · Bernstadt · Wartenberg · Bar · Warstad · Bralin · Boleslaw · Reichthal · Pitschen · Nainslau · Tolm · Worda R. · Kapsdorf · Zobten · Neumarkt · Krintsch · Tissa · Woltdorf · Barchwitz · Jauer · Peikerwitz · Reben · Lorzendorf · BRESLAW · Domsel · Ohlau · Debern · Bunkwitz · Oranburg · Cohle · Laschin · Neu Fahrwert · Strinatitz · Rosenberg · Alt Kraupitz · Sitsch · Briog · Popelau · Brennin · Winzin · Fronau · Krippis · Grotkau · Dambrau · Oppeln · Schendrina · Strailkowitz · Lublinitz · Koltschen · Gr. Strelitz · Kadan · Bremit · Gr. Zaglitz · Kalinasser · Oder R. · Oh. Glogau · Kosel · Brauna · Peterswalde · Schlos Oder · Pilchowitz · Nicolau · Stitin · Zissek · Ribnik · Pless · Baron · Siande · Zeltzago · Bitlitz · Brenina · Jablunka · Ostin · Tissaw · Strailkowitz · Lublinitz · Kalinasser · Oder R. · Oh. Glogau · Kosel · Militsch · Sakran · Lobschutz · Pilchowitz · Bladen · Ratibor · Janowitz · Kosterwitz · Benescha · Troppaw · Gratz · Oder R. · Morawia · Hallendorf · Wostitz · Tescheu · Pritlak · Jablunka · Caserne · Wisternitz · Mesritsch · Weiskirchen · N. Titschen · Olmutz · Hoff · Jagendorf · Wagendorf · Hausa · Sandhubel · Bielau · Lambke · Riegersdorf · Prolintz · Militsch · Sakran · Lobschut

The breeding of bees in this country is not ſo conſiderable as to anſwer the conſumption of honey and wax, on which account great quantities of both are imported from Poland; but their culture of ſilk is in a fair way of being carried to its utmoſt extent.

With reſpect to fiſh, in the Oder are caught ſturgeon and ſalmon, the former of which are ſometimes of prodigious ſize, ſkate, lampreys, &c. The other rivers, and eſpecially the lakes and ponds, abound with various kinds of fiſh, as pike, carp, trout, mullets, &c.

As to the rivers of Sileſia, the Oder has its ſource in Moravia; but is not of any conſiderable ſize till it reaches Sileſia, which it traverſes nearly from end to end, and at Ratibor it becomes navigable. Its banks are generally low and ſandy; ſo that it frequently overflows them to the great detriment of the adjacent country. Into it run all the leſſer ſtreams, as the Oſter, the Elſe, the Neiſs, the Ohlau, the Stober, &c. The Viſtula and Elbe have their ſource in this dutchy, the former iſſuing from three ſprings ſituated among the lofty mountains in the principality of Teſhen, on the frontiers of Poland. The ſource of the Elbe, though generally placed in Bohemia, lies in the Giant's mountain, in the principality of Jauer.

SECT. II.

The Number, Language, and Religion of the People. Their Learning, Manufactures, and Commerce.

THE number of people in Sileſia exceeds a million and a half; theſe are chiefly compoſed of Germans, Poles, and Moravians. With reſpect to the language, German is ſpoken by moſt of the inhabitants, though in Upper Sileſia, and beyond the Oder, the Sclavonic is very common, and in ſome places bears a nearer affinity to the Poliſh, and in others to the Moraviah.

The inhabitants are of different religious ſects. His majeſty king Frederic II. at the peace of Berlin in 1742, promiſed that the popiſh religion ſhould be tolerated, though without detriment to the freedom of conſcience of the proteſtant inhabitants, or to his own prerogative as ſovereign. This promiſe has accordingly taken place, and all parties enjoy a perfect liberty of conſcience. The greateſt number of papiſts are in the dioceſe of Breſlau. This dioceſe is divided into four archdeaconries, namely, thoſe of Breſlau, Glogau, Oppelen, and Lignitz, which, excluſive of the cathedral of Breſlau, comprehend under them ſeven collegiate churches, with ſeventy-ſeven archpreſbyteries, ſixteen priories, five hundred ſeventy-ſix pariſhes, and eighty-ſix convents; that is, ſixty-eight of monks, and eighteen of nuns; but ſeveral of theſe are exempt from the biſhop's juriſdiction. All eccleſiaſtical benefices here, not excepting the ſee of Breſlau, are in the king of Pruſſia's gift.

The reformation in Sileſia began to be introduced by the principality of Lignitz, in 1522, under the auſpices of Frederic II. duke of that principality, and ſoon extended from thence into the principality of Brieg. The city of Breſlau, which had before ſequeſtered ſome lands belonging to monaſteries towards charitable uſes, likewiſe embraced Lutheraniſm; and its example was followed by the city of Schweidnitz, and ſeveral other places, till by degrees the reformation became propagated all over Sileſia.

In 1609, the emperor Rodolphus II. granted to the princes, ſtates, and vaſſals who had embraced Lutheraniſm, both in Upper and Lower Sileſia, the free exerciſe of their religion; confirmed them in the poſſeſſion of their churches, ſchools, and conſiſtories, and permitted them to build others: but, on that emperor's deceaſe, violent meaſures were uſed to bring back the Lutherans to popery. The treaty of Prague in 1635, ſeemed to promiſe them quiet and ſafety; but theſe bleſſings were of ſhort duration; however, it was ſtipulated by the peace of Weſtphalia in 1648, that the princes of Sileſia, profeſſing the Augſburg confeſſion, ſhould continue poſſeſſed of their former privileges, and the free exerciſe of their religion, in the ſame manner as before the war. His imperial majeſty by that peace permitted the counts, barons, gentlemen, and vaſſals of Upper Sileſia profeſſing the Augſburg confeſſion, to perform divine worſhip in the neighbouring places, and the proteſtants of Schweidnitz, Jauer, and Glogau, were allowed to build three churches. The Lutherans, however, not only loſt the above-mentioned duchies, and the city of Breſlau, with their churches, excepting only the three they had been allowed to build; but their oppreſſions were ſoon renewed, and too many were prevailed on by perſecution to embrace popery. This fell heavieſt on the Lutherans in Upper Sileſia, who had many German miles to go to the neareſt Lutheran church, and in ſome places above eighty Engliſh miles. However, by the protection of Charles XII. the religious ſtate of the Lutherans in Sileſia was much amended; for that monarch, in a convention concluded between him and the emperor Joſeph, in 1707, obtained for them, beſides other religious liberties, licence to build ſix new churches, and the reſtitution of one hundred and eighteen more, which had been taken from them; by which means they became poſſeſſed of three hundred twenty-five churches, to which one was afterwards added under the emperor Charles VI. Theſe benefits were conferred by an act of ſtate at Breſlau in 1709; but they coſt the Lutherans four millions eighty-ſeven thouſand florins, partly as a loan to the emperor, and partly as a free gift. At length, under the government of the king of Pruſſia, they were granted a perfect liberty of conſcience, with permiſſion to build new churches under the title of houſes of prayer, which have increaſed to the number of two hundred and thirty. But when the benefices are in the hands of the popiſh clergy, the Lutherans pay ſurplice fees to the incumbents, though the miniſterial functions are performed by miniſters of their own ſect. On the other hand, in Lignitz, the papiſts pay the pariſh dues to the Lutheran miniſters, as the eſtabliſhed incumbents.

The Calviniſts had alſo formerly the free exerciſe of their religion, and were poſſeſſed of churches in different parts of the country; but the papiſts gradually ejected them. After the convention in 1707, in which no expreſs mention was made of them, they petitioned for the reſtitution of their churches; but though they did not want mediators, this proved ineffectual. Frederic II. has, however, granted them the privilege of public worſhip at Breſlau, and many other places.

The Huſſites have alſo ſome congregations in Sileſia, and ſome of theſe being Lutherans, and others Calviniſts, each ſect has its diſtinct paſtor. The Hernhuthers, or Moravian brethren, obtained a grant in 1742, from king Frederic II. to ſettle in Sileſia, with entire freedom of conſcience, and public worſhip. Their miniſters in ſpiritual and eccleſiaſtical affairs acknowledge no conſiſtory, as being under the king's immediate protection, and in religious matters ſubject only to their biſhop. At Breſlau is likewiſe a Greek church, and the Jews are permitted their ſynagogues.

Sileſia has ever been famous for producing men of learning, of whom ſome have eminently diſtinguiſhed themſelves. At preſent all kinds of learning are greatly encouraged, eſpecially among the Lutherans.

The principal manufactures in Sileſia are of flax, thread, twine, linen and damaſk. The printing of linen in water and oil colours, is in ſome places carried to great perfection; beſides which, canvas and buckrams of ſeveral kinds are made of thread and worſted. The plain ſtriped and flowered veils, with a mixture of red Turkiſh thread, are made in this country of ſuch fineneſs, as to ſell for four florins and upwards a German ell. Lace is alſo made here of tolerable fineneſs, and more paper is made in Sileſia than can be uſed by the inhabitants. Strong woollen cloths are made in many places. Here are likewiſe manufactures of linſey woolſey ſerge, druggets, plain and figured fuſtians, pluſh, callimancoes, and all other ſtuffs; as alſo cottons, ginghams, ſtockings and hats. The dreſſing of leather is likewiſe well underſtood. There are many glaſs-houſes, and in no country is glaſs more exquiſitely poliſhed and cut. In Sileſia are alſo a great number of powder-mills, iron-mills, and manufactures of that metal.

The principal exports of this dutchy are thread, yarn, linen, veils, wool, woollen cloths and ſtuffs, paper, madder, and mill-ſtones. The Sileſian merchants likewiſe deal largely in wax, honey, hides, leather, and furs, which are for the moſt part brought from Poland, Hungary, and Ruſſia.

On the other hand, they import horſes, oxen, Poliſh wheat, and rock-ſalt, with wines, chiefly from Hungary, Auſtria, the countries about the Rhine, and France; ſpices, drugs, ſeveral manufactures, and other commodities are alſo imported. Since Sileſia has fallen under the dominion of Pruſſia, ſeveral excellent regulations have been made, by which commerce has been conſiderably improved.

SECT. III.

A conciſe View of the Manner in which the greateſt Part of Sileſia became ſubject to the King of Pruſſia. Its Arms and Government.

WITH reſpect to the hiſtory of Sileſia, it ſeems only neceſſary to obſerve here, that the death of the emperor Charles VI. in 1740, produced great changes in that dutchy; Frederic II. king of Pruſſia, laying claim to the following diſtricts: firſt, to the principality of Jagerndorf, which in 1524 was purchaſed with the approbation of Lewis king of Bohemia and Hungary by George margrave of Brandenburg, from the houſe of Schellenberg, and bequeathed by him to his ſon George Frederic, from whom, by agreement, it devolved to Joachim Frederic, elector of Brandenburg, who left it to his ſon John George, whom the emperor Ferdinand II. put under the ban of the empire, in 1623, by which he loſt the principality of Jagerndorf, which the emperor conferred on the prince of Lichtenſtein. Indeed the elector Frederic William, in 1686, renounced his claim to it, in conſideration of his enjoying the circle of Schwibus; but this, in 1695, his ſon Frederic reſtored to the houſe of Auſtria, in lieu of the ſum of two hundred and fifty thouſand florins: but king Frederic II. maintained by ſeveral arguments, that theſe ceſſions were invalid. Secondly, to the principalities of Lignitz, Brieg, and Wolau, by virtue of a compact of inheritance entered into, in 1537, between Frederic, duke of Lignitz and Brieg, and Joachim II. elector of Brandenburg, by which the former was impowered to ſeize it by virtue of the privileges granted the kings of Bohemia in ſeveral diſtant periods, notwithſtanding the emperor Ferdinand I. in 1546, had declared ſuch compact of inheritance void.

Theſe principalities had therefore been unjuſtly withheld from the electoral houſe of Brandenburg, ever ſince the failure of the dukes of Lignitz. The above claims were ſo effectually ſupported by the march of an army into Sileſia, that Maria Thereſa, queen of Hungary and Bohemia, for ever ceded to the king of Pruſſia and his heirs and ſucceſſors, the countries of Upper and Lower Sileſia, together with the diſtrict of Katſcher, formerly belonging to Moravia, as alſo the county of Glatz, reſerving however to herſelf ſome parts of Upper Sileſia. On the other hand, the king of Pruſſia for himſelf and ſucceſſors renounced all demands on the queen of Hungary, and took on himſelf the diſcharge of the Sileſian debt due to the ſubjects of Great Britain, Holland, and the ſtates of Brabant. The ſame year the limits between Pruſſian and Auſtrian Sileſia were ſettled and diſtinguiſhed by fixing up a hundred and thirty-eight pillars, with plates of lead affixed to them.

This peace was, however, interrupted by a new war, which broke out in 1744; but was terminated by the treaty of Dreſden on the twenty-fifth of December, 1745, wherein thoſe of Breſlau and Berlin, with the convention of 1742, were renewed and ratified. The year 1756 produced the third Sileſian war, in which the king of Pruſſia, aſſiſted by Great Britain, oppoſed the whole power of the houſe of Auſtria, aſſiſted by France and Ruſſia; and, after giving amazing proofs of his courage and conduct in defeating the numerous armies of his powerful enemies, brought them to conclude a peace in 1763.

The king of Pruſſia ſtiles himſelf ſovereign and ſupreme duke of Sileſia; and by the treaty of Berlin the queen of Hungary and Bohemia has alſo retained to herſelf and heirs the title of ſovereign dutcheſs of Sileſia.

The arms of this dutchy are or, an eagle crowned, ſable, with a creſcent argent on its breaſt, the ends of which are ſometimes in the form of an acorn, and ſometimes reſemble little croſſes.

Sileſia was never immediately connected with the government of the empire; for it never was an imperial fief, nor obtained a ſeat or vote in the diet; and as it has never been ſubject to the ſupreme tribunals of the empire, the imperial laws are there of no force. While Sileſia was annexed to the crown of Bohemia, the commiſſioners of the ſovereign uſed to lay before the diets of the princes and ſtates demands of pecuniary ſupplies, which were taken into conſideration, and the reſolution of the diet made known to the commiſſioners, and to all the principalities and towns, by their reſpective deputies: upon which meetings were held in each principality to deliberate on the means of raiſing the quota each ſeparate principality was to pay towards the ſum agreed to at the general diet; and this, one year with another, amounted to at leaſt two millions twenty thouſand florins. The collectors of the princes and ſtates remitted the proportions paid by each principality to the general ſubſidy-office at Breſlau, which was dependent on thoſe princes, and paid the money ſo received to the ſovereign's treaſury or war-office, or to the treaſurer of the houſhold.

This method of taxation, together with the ſubſidy-office, and the diets, were, however, abrogated by king Frederic II. and two war and domain treaſuries are erected at Breſlau and Glogau, for the management of the ſeveral branches of the public revenue. The exciſe is on the ſame footing with that in the more ancient dominions of Pruſſia, and is limited to the walled towns; but the contributions of the open towns, villages, and ſeats, are fixed, and continue at the ſame height both in peace and war. Every principality, and every circle into which it is divided, receives notice of its annual and monthly contingents payable to the contribution. The two war and domain-offices, each of which has its preſident, directors, counſellors, and other officers, ſuperintend the contributions; cauſe them to be duly received and accounted for by the office of the receiver-general, and in the particular receivers offices of the principalities; take care that ſuch regularity be obſerved, as that the contributional and ſubſidial aſſeſſments may be laid and reviſed in the ſame preciſe manner; and that the ſeveral ſums notified for collection, and duly paid every month into the offices of the provincial receivers, be from thence remitted to the receiver-general's offices at Breſlau and Glogau.

Lower Sileſia annually pays one million one hundred eighty-one thouſand and forty-four rixdollars, according to fixed and invariable regulations; but we have no exact account of the amount of the contributions in Upper Sileſia. It is, however, generally ſuppoſed, that all Pruſſian Sileſia, in conjunction with the county of Glatz, the produce of the domains, regalia, exciſe, contributions, ſalt-works, the duty on ſtamped paper, which is much eaſier now than formerly, and the rights of the ſovereignty all included, bring in annually above four millions of rixdollars. As to that part of Sileſia which belongs to the houſe of Auſtria, it was in 1743 obliged to raiſe a hundred and eighty-ſix thouſand rixdollars.

With reſpect to the laws and courts of juſtice, it is proper to obſerve, that the king of Pruſſia, in his part of Sileſia, has erected three ſupreme courts, which are thoſe of Breſlau, Glogau, and Brieg, each of which has a particular diſtrict. They take cognizance of all civil and criminal cauſes, hear appeals from the inferior courts, and from the judgments of the magiſtrates of particular towns.

The principal rules of proceeding in theſe courts, are contained in the *Codex Fredericianus*, the royal ordinances and reſcripts, and Brachvogel's Collection of the imperial pragmatic ſanctions; beſides which there are certain particular

particular conſtitutions in every principality and lordſhip, and even in every town.

The princes, ſtates, and the city of Breſlau, have their own regencies and courts, both in civil and penal cauſes, from which an appeal lies to the above ſupreme courts. The deputies of the princes and ſtates aſſemble twice a year at Breſlau, and, together with the ſupreme court of that city, decide all conteſts that have ariſen among the princes and ſtates concerning a principality, ſtate, or any tract of land belonging to them; but a party who thinks himſelf aggrieved may apply to the king in perſon. The princes when ſued on account of the rights and properties of others, or in diſputes between themſelves and their vaſſals, muſt ſtand trial before the ſupreme court. As to the inferior lordſhips, and other country corporations, with the upper and lower courts, they are held without any moleſtation, except that in capital or penal caſes, they require the royal confirmation.

The Lutheran churches and ſchools are under the inſpection of the upper-conſiſtories at Breſlau, Glogau, and Brieg, with right of appeal to the tribunal at Berlin. The members of theſe conſiſtories are the preſidents and counſellors of the above ſupreme court, with an eccleſiaſtic to each; but the principality of Oels and the city of Breſlau have their own diſtinct conſiſtories: but church affairs among the papiſts are cognizable by the biſhop's court at Breſlau; from whence alſo appeals lie to the tribunal of Berlin.

Sileſia is divided into Upper and Lower; and, according to Mr. Buſching, contains, excluſive of the county of Glatz, a hundred and ſixty-nine cities, and four hundred and ſeventy-ſix villages. We ſhall begin with Lower Sileſia, the greateſt part of which is ſubject to the king of Pruſſia, and contains thirteen principalities.

SECT. IV.

Of the principality of Breſlau, with a particular Deſcription of its Capital.

THE principality of Breſlau, or Breſlaw, excluſive of the circle of Namſlau, which, though belonging to it, lies ſeparate, is bounded on the north by the principalities of Oels and Wolau, on the weſtward by thoſe of Lignitz and Schweidnitz, on the ſouthward by the principalities of Schweidnitz and Brieg, and on the eaſtward by Brieg and Oels.

This principality is every where flat and level, and the parts near the Oder and other rivers either ſandy or ſwampy. It is, however, an excellent corn country, and not deſtitute of rich paſtures, the Namſlau circle alone excepted; but this abounds in timber and wood for fuel, which are ſo ſcarce in the other circles, that the country people uſe ſtraw, with the ſtalks of thiſtles and burdoc, as alſo thoſe of ſun-flowers and potatoes, and in many places willows are planted merely for burning.

In moſt parts they have good cattle and ſheep, and particularly cows of a very extraordinary ſize. The neighbourhood of Breſlau produces great quantities of madder, and the rivers are well ſupplied with fiſh. The roads, however, are very bad, and, where the ſoil is black, are ſcarce paſſable in wet weather, and for want of timber and quarries of ſtone cannot be repaired without great difficulty and expence. The city of Breſlau, in order to facilitate its intercourſe with other places, has cauſed ditches to be dug along the ſides of the roads, and the roads themſelves to be paved with ſtones; a work of ſeveral years labour. Some of theſe ditches are not leſs than a mile in length, and the keeping them in repair is an annual charge of ſome thouſands of dollars.

The principality of Breſlau is divided into four circles; of theſe the circle of Breſlau contains nine cities and two market-towns; and if the villages are not very large the deficiency is made up by the great number of them, they being every where placed within cannon-ſhot of each other.

The city of Breſlau, or Breſlaw, the capital of this circle, and of the whole dutchy of Sileſia, is ſituated on the Oder, which on the north ſide runs cloſe by the walls, and in that part receives the Ohlau, after its winding courſe through Old Breſlau. The preſent old city was formerly encompaſſed by this laſt river, as with a moat, all without the Ohlau to the walls of the city being additions made by the emperor Charles IV. The ſeveral parts comprehended under the name of Breſlau are collectively of great extent; for, including the ſuburbs, the whole circumference is not leſs than nine Engliſh miles. The fortifications of the city are of no great importance. It has ſeveral large and regular ſquares; the main ſtreets are broad, and, beſides many noble edifices, it contains a number of very elegant houſes and other private buildings. The part called the Dominſel, though lying without the circuit of the town, is defended by low walls ſtrengthened with baſtions, and in it ſtands the cathedral of St. John, which in 1759, together with the deanery, was deſtroyed by fire. In the ſame part is alſo the biſhop's library, which forms a particular building; the abbey of the Holy Croſs; three or four ſmall churches; the biſhop's palace, which is a very ſpacious ſtructure; the dwellings of the prebends, ſome of which have very beautiful gardens; and the electoral hoſpital for poor children of both ſexes.

In the ſuburb called the Sandinſel, which lies before the Sand gate, is St. Mary's church, a very beautiful building; a ſplendid convent, with a large library, belonging to the regular Auguſtin canons; St. James's church, which belongs to an Auguſtin nunnery; and St. Ann's, belonging to the canons of St. Mary. Near the Sand gate is the monaſtery of St. Vincent, and adjoining to it the magnificent nunnery of St. Clare. Near theſe fine ſtructures is the beautiful abbey of St. Matthias, with a pariſh church, and a valuable collection of books belonging to the prebends of the Red Star; and in the ſame ſtreet is St. Agnes's church and an Urſeline nunnery. The Jeſuits college, with its ſplendid church, ſtands on the ſite of the caſtle, which was once the reſidence of the dukes of Breſlau; but the emperor Leopold gave it to the Jeſuits.

The other popiſh churches and convents in the city are, the Franciſcan, dedicated to St. Anthony, to which is alſo annexed a regular built church; St. Hedwiga's, which belongs to a Capuchin convent that ſtands behind it; St. Dorothy's, which is in the poſſeſſion of the Minorites; the parochial church of the Holy Corps, belonging to the Johannites commandery, which faces it; the parochial church of St. Adelbert; the beautiful chapel of St. Ceſlaus; St. Joſeph's, which belongs to another Dominican convent; with the nunnery of St. Catharine. To theſe are to be added, the manſion-houſe of the ſiſters of St. Elizabeth; St. Nickel's church before St. Nickel's gate; St. Maurice's without the Ohlau gate; the ſmall hoſpital church of St. Lazarus; with the church and convent of the Good Men.

The churches belonging to the Lutherans are St. Elizabeth's, which is the principal, and St. Mary Magdalen's, both in the Old Town, and containing valuable libraries; St. Bernardine's in the New Town has alſo a good collection of books; St. Barbara's church is appointed to the uſe of the garriſon. There are alſo three hoſpital churches, and that of St. Chriſtopher's. The Lutheran ſervice is likewiſe performed in a large hall belonging to the houſe of correction. Without the town the Lutherans are poſſeſſed of the church of St. Salvator, which ſerves for the ſoldiery who are quartered without the city, and another church dedicated to the eleven thouſand virgins, without the Oder gate.

The Calviniſts aſſemble in a building on the other ſide the Oder, which was once the general tax-office. The Greek Chriſtians, moſt of whom are Armenians, have a church here, and the Jews their ſynagogues.

The popiſh univerſity, which is under the care of the Jeſuits, is a noble ſtructure. The Lutherans at St. Elizabeth's, and St. Mary Magdalen's, have two flouriſhing academies, each under the direction of eleven profeſſors, with a grammar-ſchool at St. Bernardine's in the New Town. The exchange is a very elegant ſtructure.

The city, beſides a governor, and ſeveral courts of juſtice, has a court of exchequer, a war and domain-office, with thoſe for ſalt, cuſtoms, exciſe, and trade; a college of phyſicians, a mint, &c. Frederic II. granted Breſlau the third place in rank among his capital cities,

that is, to be next to Berlin and Konigſberg. The magiſtracy and conſiſtory are both compoſed of Lutherans. This city is at preſent the center of all the trade in Sileſia, and its inhabitants carry on ſeveral manufactures. It became ſubject to the Pruſſian government in 1741, and in 1757 a ſmall Pruſſian army, commanded by Auguſtus William duke of Brunſwic Bevern, fortified themſelves in this neighbourhood; and, being attacked on the twenty-ſecond of November by a conſiderable body of the Auſtrian forces, made a moſt vigorous defence till the evening; but in the night quitted their camp, and croſſing the Oder, the city ſurrendered to the Auſtrians. However, on the twentieth of December it was retaken by the king of Pruſſia, and the Auſtrian garriſon, which amounted to near one thouſand eight hundred men, made priſoners of war. In the laſt ſiege ſeveral of its churches were damaged, and St. Mary Magdalen's library demoliſhed by the falling of a bomb. The greateſt part likewiſe of the ſuburbs ſuffered extremely, and that part without the Sand gate was entirely burnt down.

SECT. V.

Of the Principalities of Brieg, Schweidnitz, and Jauer; with the principal Places contained in each.

WE now come to the principality of Brieg, which is on all ſides ſurrounded by thoſe of Oels, Breſlau, Schweidnitz, Munſterberg, Neiſs, and Oppeln, except a detached piece which borders on Poland. This is one of the largeſt principalities in all Sileſia, and alſo one of the moſt fertile in grain.

This principality is divided into ſix circles, which contain nine cities and two market towns. The principal place in this principality is,

Brieg, in Latin Brega, the capital of a circle of the ſame name, and of the whole principality, ſtands on the river Oder, and is not only well fortified, but is one of the largeſt, handſomeſt, and moſt conſiderable cities in all Sileſia. It has four ſuburbs, and a very long, lofty, and ſtrong wooden bridge. The caſtle, which was antiently the reſidence of the dukes of Brieg, was burnt down during the ſiege of the city in 1741. On the ſouth ſide of Brieg ſtands the abbey of St. Hedwiga, which is in the poſſeſſion of the papiſts; beſides which here is alſo a Jeſuits college and a Franciſcan convent. To the Lutherans belong the parochial church of St. Nicholas, and they have alſo an academy founded by duke George II. with the church of the Holy Trinity, in which the Poliſh congregation aſſemble. In 1643 this city held out a ſiege againſt the Swedes, but in 1741 the Pruſſians made themſelves maſters of it in four days.

The principality of Schweidnitz borders to the eaſt on the principalities of Brieg and Breſlau, to the northward on thoſe of Lignitz and Jauer, to the weſtward alſo on Jauer, and to the ſouthward on Bohemia and the county of Munſterberg. It is one of the largeſt and moſt populous principalities in all Sileſia, and, in conjunction with the principality of Jauer, is ſuppoſed to form one-eighth of the dutchy.

In this principality are ſeveral very high mountains: it, however, affords a ſufficiency of grain, timber, and fruit; and abounds in game of all kinds; as alſo in cattle and pit-coal. Beſides theſe advantages, it has excellent flax and wool; and the inhabitants are remarkable for their induſtrious improvement of theſe advantages, by carrying on a variety of manufactures. This is chiefly done in the hilly parts of the principality, where its greateſt trade is carried on. It has no large rivers, the principal of them being the Werſtitz, Polſnitz, and Bober.

This principality is under the war and domain treaſuries at Breſlau, and is divided into five circles, the principal towns in which are,

Schweidnitz, the capital of the circle of the ſame name, and of the whole principality, is a ſtrong fortreſs ſituated on the little river Weiſtritz, in one of the moſt delightful ſpots in all Sileſia. Its ſtrength formerly conſiſted in a triple wall; but in 1748, Frederic II. cauſed it to be fortified with regular works of very great ſtrength. The pariſh church is in the hands of the Jeſuits, who got footing in this town in 1629, and are likewiſe poſſeſſed of a college and ſeminary adjoining to it. There are here a Dominican, Minorite and Capuchin monaſtery, with an Urſeline nunnery, all of which have their reſpective churches. St. Michael's church without the lower gate is a commendam of the Red Star prebends of St. Matthias at Breſlau. Without the town is a Lutheran church, the head miniſter of which is inſpector of the churches within the circles of Schweidnitz, Reichenback, and Strigan, and the principality of Munſterberg. The greateſt part of this city was burnt down in the year 1716; but has been ſince rebuilt with much more beauty than before, and all entirely of ſtone; in particular the new town-houſe is a moſt elegant ſtructure. However, in 1757, it was taken by the Auſtrians, after a ſiege of ſixteen days, during which it was in a great meaſure deſtroyed by the bombs, bullets, and fires occaſioned by them; and in 1758, the Pruſſians recovered it, after a ſiege of the ſame continuance.

Reichenbach, the capital of a circle of the ſame name, is ſituated on the little river Peil. In this town is a commandery of the order of St. John, to which belongs the patronage of its parochial church, which is popiſh; and there is here alſo a Lutheran oratory. Without the Frankenſtein gate is a priory dedicated to St. Barbara, and without the Schweidnitz gate, an hoſpital that has a ſmall church. In 1632, this city was pillaged by the Saxons; in 1638 by the imperialiſts, and in 1634, it ſuffered ſtill greater calamities from the Croats. In 1642, it was ſacked by the Swedes, and in 1643, its imperial garriſon demoliſhed upwards of one hundred and forty houſes for fuel. In this town are ſome conſiderable manufactures of fuſtian, linen, and canvas.

The principality of Jauer is bounded on the eaſt by the principalities of Lignitz and Schweidnitz; to the ſouthward, by Bohemia; to the weſtward by Bohemia and Upper Luſatia; and to the northward by the principalities of Glogau and Sagan.

The whole principality is in general mountainous, and is ſeparated from Bohemia to the ſouth and weſt, by a chain of mountains. The Schnee, or Rieſenkoppe, is the higheſt of all the Rieſen or Giant's chain, as well as of all Sileſia. It raiſes its head far above any of the neighbouring mountains, and for the greateſt part of the year is covered with ſnow. Thoſe who have climbed it, compute its aſcent from the foot to the higheſt ſummit, at three German miles, and the reverend Mr. Schilling, late rector of Hirſchberg, is ſaid to have diſcovered, by means of mathematical inſtruments, that its perpendicular height is no leſs than twenty-two thouſand five hundred Rheinland feet; but this account is certainly a miſtake; for was it of ſuch a height, it would be perpetually covered with ſnow, and the cold would be much more intenſe than it really is. Its loftieſt part is a ſteep ſtony rock of conſiderable circumference, upon which is built a chapel, wherein maſs is celebrated five times a year.

This principality does not produce corn ſufficient for the great number of its inhabitants; but its mountains contain various ores, with numerous mines of copper and iron; they are likewiſe covered with wood. This principality yields alſo pit coal and mill-ſtone.

The principal river which traverſes the whole length of the principality from ſouth to north, is the Bober. There are alſo ſeveral little rivers, particularly the Jauerſche water, which paſſes by the town of Jauer, with a gentle current; but is ſometimes ſo ſwelled by the ſnows and rain, as to do conſiderable damage.

This principality has twelve towns, beſides ſome villages in Sileſia, they being four miles in length, and contain many artificers, particularly weavers. The whole principality is divided into four circles. The principal towns, in which are the following.

Jauer, the capital of the circle of the ſame name, as well as of the principality, lies on the Jauerſche water. The houſes in the market-place have a range of piazzas along the front, to ſhelter paſſengers from the rain; but theſe are ſo ill contrived, as to diſguiſe the buildings, and render the fore part of the ground-floor

of little uſe. The pariſh church is popiſh, beſides which here is another ſmall church belonging to the ſame religion, with a Franciſcan convent, that has likewiſe a church, and without the Goldberg gate, the Calviniſts have a church and a grammar ſchool. In 1640, this town was taken by the Imperialiſts ſword in hand, and plundered.

Hirſchberg, the capital of the circle of the ſame name, is ſituated on the Bober, which here receives a ſmall river called the Zaken. This is one of the handſomeſt, moſt populous, and opulent towns in all Sileſia; it having large and well built ſuburbs, in which are beautiful gardens and bleaching grounds, where every year many thouſand pieces of linen, veils, and other works of the loom are whitened. The papiſts have here a parochial church, to which belongs an arch-prieſt, who is inſpector over ſix arch-preſbyteries, and a reſidence of Jeſuits. Without the town the Lutherans have a large and handſome church, and a ſchool, for the grant of both which they paid thirty thouſand ducats as a gift to the emperor, and alſo advanced him a loan of one hundred thouſand florins. This is next to Breſlau, the principal place of trade in all Sileſia, it having a very extenſive commerce for its linens and veils.

The laſt place we ſhall mention in this principality is that of Schmiedeberg, or Smith's-hill, an open free mine town of conſiderable trade, ſeated among hills, that owes its origin to the vaſt quantity of iron ore found in its neighbourhood. Among the inhabitants are many lock and gun-ſmiths, with other artificers in iron. Here is alſo a damaſk manufacture, which makes linen damaſk, with half and whole ſilk damaſks. The town likewiſe deals largely in linen. The parochial church is in the poſſeſſion of the Romans, and there is alſo one belonging to the Lutherans. Formerly few of the inhabitants were free from wens, which was imputed to the vitriolic and ferruginous quality of the water in the mine trenches; as ſince the diſuſe of that water for drinking and dreſſing of victuals, they are become much leſs frequent.

SECT. VI.

Of the Principalities of Lignitz, Wolau, Glogau, Neiſs, Sagan, Trachenberg, and Carolath.

THE principality of Lignitz is bounded by that of Jauer to the weſtward, by the two principalities of Jauer and Schweidnitz to the ſouth; by thoſe of Breſlau and Wolau to the eaſt, and by the principalities of Wolau and Glogan to the weſtward.

The only conſiderable mountains in this principality are the Spitzberge and Gratzberge. The Oder waters it for about nine miles, running along the borders of the principality of Wolau, where it is joined by the Cratzbach, the largeſt river in all the country; but is ſubject to inundations. This principality is very fertile, and contains ſome large woods. There is here a good breed of ſtrong horſes, and the country about the villages near the city of Lignitz produces madder.

This principality is divided into four circles, and contains five towns, the principal of which are,

Lignitz, the capital of a circle of the ſame name, and of the whole principality, is ſeated on the Catzbach, in the fifty-firſt degree twenty-one minutes north latitude, and the ſixteenth degree twenty minutes eaſt longitude. It is walled round, and near the gate of Glogau is the old palace of the princes, which, though within the town, is encompaſſed with a diſtinct moat and high wall. Here the ſtates of the provinces aſſemble in a very ſtately ſtone edifice. The Lutherans have two churches here, one called St. Peter's and St. Paul's, or the Upper church, is ſituated in the Lower Town near Breſlau gate. The papiſts are ſtill in poſſeſſion of the collegiate church of St. John, which in 1698, was taken from the Lutherans, and being given to the Jeſuits, was entirely rebuilt: they have alſo a magnificent college. Beſides theſe, there is a Benedictine nunnery of the Holy Croſs, with its church; the parochial church of St. Nepomuck, and a Franciſcan church and convent. Here is alſo an hoſpital, and a ſpacious academy founded by the emperor Joſeph, for the inſtruction of young gentlemen of both religions, in military exerciſes: Lignitz is one of the moſt ancient towns in all Sileſia, and carries on a good trade in cloths and madder. It has very frequently been deſtroyed by fire, and in 1741, the Pruſſians took it without oppoſition.

Goldberg, the principal town in a circle of the ſame name, is ſituated in a delightful country near the river Catzbach, and is, next to Lignitz, the beſt town in the principality. It is ſuppoſed to have been founded in the twelfth century, and is ſeated on a hill, which within the town is not every where level. The pariſh church here belongs to the Lutherans. In the ſixteenth century it had a celebrated academy kept in a building which had been formerly a Franciſcan convent, and in 1704, it was reſtored to that order; ſo that the Lutherans have only a common grammar ſchool. There is here alſo a commandery of the order of St. John. The Catzbach is a great convenience to the town, yet its overflowing its banks has frequently done it conſiderable damage. This town has alſo ſometimes ſuffered greatly by fire.

Luben, the capital of a circle of the ſame name, is ſituated in a plain, which though ſomewhat ſtony, is not unfruitful. The town is ſmall; but its ſuburbs are large. Of the ancient palace of the princes, little more is now to be ſeen than the walls. Near this palace is a ſmall popiſh chapel. The pariſh church and ſchool are in the poſſeſſion of the Lutherans.

The principality of Wolau is bounded on the ſouth by the principalities of Breſlau and Lignitz; on the weſtward, by thoſe of Lignitz and Glogau; on the northward, it is alſo bounded by the latter, and on the eaſtward by Poland, and the principalities of Trachenberg, Oels, and Breſlau.

The ſoil of this dutchy is for the moſt part either dry, marſhy, or over-run with woods and buſhes; but there are ſeveral tracts which yield good corn.

The Oder traverſes the whole principality from ſouth to north, and on the borders of Lignitz, is joined by the Catſbach, where it likewiſe receives the little rivers of Caltenbach, Juſeritz, and ſeveral other ſtreams which water this principality.

This diſtrict contains ſix circles, and the ſame number of towns, the principal of which is,

Wolau, the capital of a circle of the ſame name, and of the whole principality. It is on all ſides ſurrounded with marſhes, which in wet weather form a natural defence. It has two ſuburbs, named Breſlau and Steinau; and in it is a palace, with a Popiſh church, and a Carmelite convent; but the town church and ſchool are in the poſſeſſion of the Lutherans. In the year 1640, it was taken by the Swedes, and in 1642, ſurpriſed by the Imperialiſts; but ſoon retaken by the Swedes, and in 1644, was recovered by the Imperialiſts.

The principality of Glogau is ſurrounded by Poland, and the principalities of Wolau, Lignitz, Jauer, Sagan, and Croſſen. It produces a great deal of corn and wine, has a ſufficiency of wood, and its wool is wrought into different manufactories; it likewiſe abounds in iron. The Oder waters moſt of the circles in this principality.

It is divided into ſix circles, in which are ſixteen boroughs and four market-towns.

Great Glogau is the capital of a circle, and of the whole principality, and is called Great to diſtinguiſh it from Glogau in Upper Sileſia. It has a handſome caſtle, is well fortified on the ſide of Poland, and has a governor and commandant, who are nominated by the king of Pruſſia; it is the ſeat of ſeveral courts of juſtice, and alſo of the war and domain office, the exciſe office, the military treaſury, the ſubſidy office, and the domain office. It is ſituated on the Oder, fifty miles to the eaſt of Breſlau, and in it is a palace, a popiſh pariſh church, a college of Jeſuits, a monaſtery of Dominicans, another of Franciſcans, and a nunnery of Clariſts, with a Lutheran church and ſchool. It has been frequently almoſt conſumed by fire, and has often been beſieged and taken; but in 1741, the Pruſſians having carried it by aſſault, ſtrengthened its fortifications.

The

The principality of Neiſs, by ſome improperly called the principality of Grotkau, is environed by thoſe of Munſterberg, Brieg, Oppeln, and Jagerndorf, as alſo by Moravia and the county of Glatz. The ſouthern part of this principality is very mountainous, as through it runs the Moravian mountains; but the northern part is both more level and more fertile. Within the circles of Neiſs and Grotkau are bred good horſes, the latter alſo yields tobacco, and in the former is made a great number of iron mills. Its largeſt river is the Neiſs, which runs out of the principality of Munſterberg, and after continuing its courſe for ſome miles from weſt to eaſt, winds away northwards. Moſt of the brooks and rivulets of this country diſcharge themſelves into it. In this diſtrict alſo riſes the Ohlau; the ſource of the Oppa is likewiſe among the mountains of this country.

The whole principality of Neiſs contains under it eleven cities, and as it is within the biſhopric of Breſlau, that biſhop uſually ſtiles himſelf prince of Neiſs, and duke of Grotkau; and, by virtue of this principality, takes place of all the other princes in Sileſia. As part of this principality is ſubject to the king of Bohemia, the biſhop is under two ſovereigns.

Neiſs, in Latin Niſſa, the capital of the circle of the ſame name, and of the whole principality, is a place of great ſtrength, ſituated on the river Neiſs, on the other ſide of which is a hill where king Frederic II. at the ſiege of this city in 1741, raiſed his firſt battery; and in 1743 a Pruſſian fort was erected by order of that prince, who laid the firſt ſtone. The king appoints a governor and commandant; but the biſhop is poſſeſſed of the palace, and has a treaſury, a court of juſtice, a domain and conſtitutional-office. Here is alſo a collegiate church, which is likewiſe the parochial church, dedicated to St. James and St. Nicholas; the abbey of St. Peter and St. Paul, dedicated to the Holy Croſs; a Jeſuits college, two Franciſcan convents, a Dominican monaſtery in the new ſuburb called Frederickſtadt, a Capuchin convent, and a nunnery of the order of *St. Maria Magdalena de pœnitentia.*

The principality of Oels is ſurrounded by Poland and the principalities of Brieg, Breſlau, Wolau, and Trachenberg: its ſoil is ſandy, and not very fertile; and it contains eight cities and one town. It is divided into four circles, the principal place in which is,

Oels, in Latin Olſena, the capital of the ſame name and of the whole principality, is ſituated in a marſhy ſoil on the river Oels. It contains a palace of the prince, with two Lutheran parochial churches, a free-ſchool, endowed with ſalaries for a maſter of languages, a fencing and writing-maſter, and a popiſh church. In 1634 it was burnt by the Imperialiſts, and in 1730 the greateſt part of it was again demoliſhed by fire.

The principal city of Sagan is bounded on the eaſt by that of Glogau, on the ſouth and weſt by Luſatia and the dutchy of Croſſen, and to the northward by that dutchy. It contains large woods and chaces; and, as it abounds in iron ore, has a great number of iron mills. The Queiſz runs through the whole length of the principality, traverſing it from ſouth to north, and in its courſe receives the Bober, the Tſcherna, and the Brieſnitz. It is divided into three circles, and contains three cities and one market-town.

Sagan, the capital of a circle, and of the whole principality, is ſeated on the Bober in a pleaſant country, and has a palace of the dukes, with an abbey and a church of regular Auguſtins; a Jeſuits college, and a Lutheran church and ſchool, for which the Lutherans made the emperor a donation of ten thouſand florins, and lent him fifty thouſand. It has been ſeveral times deſtroyed by fire.

The principality of Munſterberg is environed by the principalities of Schweidnitz, Brieg, Neiſs, and the county of Glatz. It has a good ſoil, and, beſides flax, hemp, and wood, produces hops and all ſorts of grain. Here are likewiſe a large breed of horned cattle and ſheep. To the weſt and ſouth it is very mountainous, the Bohemian chain ending and the Moravian chain beginning there.

In this principality are three boroughs and one market-town; and it is divided into two circles, the principal town of which is that of Munſterberg, the capital of the whole principality, which is ſeated on the river Ohlau, and has an old caſtle of the dukes, with a parochial popiſh church, and another called St. Peter and St. Paul's belonging as a commendam to the Red Star prebendaries of St. Matthias at Breſlau. To theſe are added, a Lutheran oratory, with another of Bohemian Calviniſts. The moſt conſiderable employment of the inhabitants is the culture of hops.

The principality of Trachenberg, or Drachenberg, is bounded on the weſt by the principality of Wolau, to the ſouthward by that of Oels, to the eaſtward by the free ſeignior of Militſch and Sulau, and on the northward by Poland. Its ſoil, though ſomewhat ſandy, produces plenty of all kinds of grain; beſides which the inhabitants breed good cattle, and the country abounds in timber.

The moſt conſiderable place in this diſtrict is Trachenberg, the capital of the principality, which is ſituated on the Bartſch, and has a palace of the prince ſurrounded by a branch of that river, with a popiſh church, and a Lutheran oratory.

The principality of Corolath is on every ſide ſurrounded by three circles in the principality of Glogau, and contains two or three towns and a few villages; but as they have nothing worthy of notice, we ſhall not trouble our readers with any deſcription of them.

There are alſo in Lower Sileſia ſeveral lordſhips; but as moſt of them are very ſmall, and none of them contain any thing worthy of notice, we ſhall not trouble our readers with a repetition of their names.

SECT. VII.

Of Upper Sileſia, containing the Principalities of Oppeln, Ratibor, the Circle of Leobſchutz, and the Principality of Teſchen.

THE principality of Oppeln, in Upper Sileſia, which we ſhall now deſcribe, is bounded on the weſt by the principalities of Neiſs and Brieg; to the northward on the principalities of Breſlau, Oels, Brieg, and Poland; to the eaſtward on Poland and the lordſhip of Beuthen; and to the ſouthward on the principalities of Ratibor, Jagerndorf, and Troppau, with part of Moravia; and is the largeſt of all the principalities in Sileſia.

The ſoil is in many places ſandy, and it has alſo ſeveral large heaths and foreſts; but the country is not quite ſo bad as it is repreſented. The people find their account in tillage, the culture of wood, and the breeding of ſheep; but fiſh and game are very ſcarce in the cities, which is probably owing to the great quantities of the former conſumed in the popiſh days of abſtinence, and the latter is engroſſed by the lords of the country.

The Oder, which comes from the principality of Ratibor, runs through a conſiderable part of this country, where it receives many ſmaller ſtreams. There are alſo ſeveral lakes.

This principality conſiſts of twelve circles, in which the greateſt part of the inhabitants are Poles.

The principal place in this principality is Oppeln, the capital, which is ſeated on the Oder, over which it has a bridge. The old palace, which was ſeparated from the town by a branch of the Oder, was deſtroyed by fire in 1737. In this town is a biſhop's court, a collegiate abbey dedicated to the Holy Croſs, a college of Jeſuits, and a Dominican and Franciſcan convent. This town has ſuffered greatly by fire, and in 1741 was taken by the Pruſſians.

The principality of Ratibor terminates to the northward on the principality of Oppeln; to the weſtward on thoſe of Troppau and Jagerndorf; to the ſouthward on the lordſhips of Oderberg, Loſzlau, and Pleſz, which alſo forms its caſtern boundary. Its ſoil is better than that in the principality of Oppeln, it producing a ſufficient quantity of wheat, rye, barley, and fruit; beſides which it has good paſture grounds. The Oder is the only river in the whole country: but it is watered in all parts with brooks, ponds, and lakes.

It

It contains only three cities, and the inhabitants are univerſally Poliſh.

Ratibor, the capital of the principality, is ſeated on the Oder, which here becomes navigable, and has a bridge over it. The palace, with the church of St. John, ſtands on the oppoſite ſide of the river. Here is alſo a pariſh church, a canonry of the Holy Croſs, a convent of nuns who are called the Siſters of the Holy Ghoſt, a Dominican and a Franciſcan convent. It has been ſeveral times deſtroyed by fire, and in 1745 the Pruſſians took it by ſtorm from the Hungarians, who loſt a great number of men.

Adjoining to the laſt mentioned principality is the circle of Leobſchutz, which contains the principality of Jagerndorf and that of Troppau, which interſect each other. The principality of Jagerndorf, in Latin Principatus Carnovienſis, has a fertile ſoil, and many mineral ſprings. The larch-trees, which are very common in this country, yield a great deal of turpentine. In this principality are five towns. The principality of Troppau, in Latin Principatus Oppavienſis, is both a good corn and paſture country; it abounds in fruit, and contains ten ſmall cities, with one town.

The capital of the principality of Jagerndorf has the ſame name, and is a ſmall town ſituated on the river Oppa, but defended by a caſtle and other fortifications. The city of Troppau, or Troppaw, is alſo ſmall, but is an antient town, with a fortreſs built after the antient manner. It ſtands on a pleaſant plain, has plenty of all neceſſaries, and is noted for its good beer; but has no great trade. It is well built, and ſurrounded with a ſtrong wall, with the river Oppa on one ſide, and the Mohre on the other. Beſides its beautiful pariſh church, which is richly adorned on the inſide, there are three cloiſters, and three commanderies of Malta. The town-houſe is a large ſtructure, and the houſes in general are of free-ſtone and pretty lofty.

The principality of Teſchen joins to the principality of Troppau, and is for the moſt party hilly, though on the north it is marſhy and has ſeveral lakes; but it has many fertile ſpots, and abounds in wood. The Viſtula has its ſource in this country, and the Olſa, or Elſa, alſo riſes in the Carpathian mountains, which begin here; and, after traverſing the greateſt part of the principality, falls into the Oder.

In the whole principality are five towns, part of the inhabitants of which ſpeak German, and the other Poliſh. The mountains are inhabited by Walachians, and the people of this country are famous for making excellent fire-arms.

Teſchen, the capital of this principality, is ſeated in a very fertile country on the river Elſa. It is walled, and contains a large church, with two monaſteries and a college of Jeſuits. In the ſuburbs is a Lutheran church, in which divine ſervice is performed both in the German and Poliſh languages. To this church is alſo annexed a ſchool.

Beſides theſe principalities in Upper Sileſia, there is alſo that of Bilitz, and a conſiderable number of free lordſhips, which contain nothing worthy of notice; we ſhall therefore proceed to the county of Glatz.

SECT. VIII.

Of the County of GLATZ.

Its Situation, the Face of the Country, and Produce. Of the Inhabitants, their Religion, and Places moſt worthy of Notice.

THE county of Glatz is ſeated between Bohemia, Sileſia, and Moravia, being on all ſides environed by mountains, which render it of very difficult acceſs; the entrance to it being a long, rugged, rocky, and troubleſome road.

This county is thirty-eight miles in length, and about twenty-three miles in breadth. It is every where mountainous, and moſt delightfully variegated with hills and dales, meadows and woods, fields and ſtreams, interſperſed with towns and villages. In a good year it produces more wheat than is ſufficient for home conſumption, and in bad ſeaſons is ſupplied at a moderate rate from the adjacent countries. What fruits and culinary herbs it wants are imported from Sileſia, Bohemia, and Moravia. It alſo yields rich paſtures, and graziery turns to good account. It has great plenty of wood, as well as game of all kinds; and its fiſh, particularly its trout, are very large and well taſted. Here are likewiſe quarries of mill-ſtones, and ſtone fit for building, which are exported to other countries; and it affords good marble, with jaſper, topazes, and cornelians. In this county are alſo coal pits and a copper mine; but the ſilver mine works of Wilhelmſthal, or Neuſtadtel, and Merzberg, are at preſent diſcontinued.

This county has alſo mineral ſprings and warm baths. Here riſes the river Neiſs, which, after watering this country, paſſes into the principality of Munſterberg, in Sileſia; and at the diſtance of about two miles from its ſource, riſes the Morel, on the borders of Moravia, and is the chief river in that dutchy. Here likewiſe iſſues the Erlitz, which divides this county from Bohemia.

There are in the whole county nine towns, with upwards of one hundred villages that are generally large and populous. The uſual language ſpoken here is the German. The inhabitants live moſtly by tillage, graziery, ſpinning thread, and the linen trade.

In the ſixteenth century the opinions of John Huſs prevailed conſiderably; and, from the year 1560 to 1623, Lutheraniſm maintained its ground againſt the moſt violent oppoſition; but, after the laſt mentioned year, all the Lutheran paſtors and ſchool-maſters, to the number of above a hundred and twenty, were driven out of the country, and the reſt of the Lutheran inhabitants, by compulſion and blandiſhments, were prevailed on to embrace popery, though numbers preferred exile to apoſtacy. Thus popery became the public religion of the whole country; but ſince its being ceded to the king of Pruſſia, the Lutherans are again permitted the free exerciſe of their religion.

This county makes but one circle, and is divided into ſix diſtricts; in which the places moſt worthy of notice are,

Glatz, called by the Bohemians Kladzko, by the Poles Klodzko, and in Latin Glacium, is the capital of the county, and is ſituated on the declivity of a hill by the river Neiſs, in the fiftieth degree thirty-ſix minutes north latitude, and the ſixteenth degree twenty-one minutes eaſt longitude. Moſt of the houſes command a fine and extenſive proſpect of the country, and on the top of the hill is built the old caſtle, which was formerly divided into three parts, called the Lower, Middle, and Upper palace. The buildings of the firſt lie lower towards the city; in it is a ſpacious area, ſurrounded with buildings, and in them are vaults ſecured from fire, in which things of value and conſequence may be ſafely lodged, and water is conveyed through pipes from the water tower near the Lower mills, quite up into this Lower palace. In it is alſo a popiſh church. From this Lower palace you aſcend to the Upper, which ſtands much higher on the top of the rock, and has three courts, with a very deep well hewn quite through the rock, that yields plenty of excellent water.

Since Glatz has belonged to Pruſſia, the old citadel has been greatly improved and ſtrengthened, particularly by the addition of very commodious barracks, capable of quartering a numerous garriſon; and as it ſtands within ſight of the whole county, at the firing of a gun, or the lighting up of a beacon, the approach of an enemy may be made known to every part in a quarter of an hour's time.

The new citadel, which is a Pruſſian work, ſtands directly fronting the old one, with the river Neiſs running between them, and by means of ſpeaking trumpets advices may be mutually communicated. This new citadel is very advantageouſly ſituated, and is a ſtrong and regular building, that is alſo provided with a good well, which at a great expence is cut through the rock. Between theſe two citadels is alſo a ſluice, by which the intermediate country may be laid under water.

The town itſelf is now ſtrongly fortified, and in beauty, cleanlineſs, and order, has been greatly improved under the Pruſſian government. It has ſeveral ſuburbs, and has a pariſh church, with a college and ſeminary belonging to the Jeſuits. A new church was built here in 1742, for the uſe of the garriſon and other Lutherans. In the horſe-market without the town, is a Minorite convent with a church, a Franciſcan church and convent, and an alms-houſe in which is a chapel. Here are likewiſe two large mills belonging to the king, with magazines of corn and meal.

Glatz enjoys a good trade, but has been frequently pillaged and burnt; but its ſevereſt ſiege was that in 1622, when it held out againſt the united forces of the emperor Ferdinand II. and his allies. In 1742, the Pruſſians took it by capitulation.

In the diſtrict of Landec, is a little open town of the ſame name, ſituated on the Biela, the inhabitants of which live chiefly by tillage, graziery, and the ſale of their beer and brandy. It has ſuffered greatly by war, and has been frequently ſacked and burnt; but it is moſt remarkable for the warm baths that lie near it. The village of Upper Thalheim joins the town, and from thence a long wooden bridge leads to a ſmall elegant ſeat and an eminence planted with lime trees, on which is a church, and from thence to the New Bath. On proceeding two or three hundred paces to the left, you arrive at St. George's Bath, which ſtands ſomewhat higher than the other, and iſſues from a hard rocky ſoil, on an eminence eaſt of the Biela, and about a hundred paces from a wood; the water there guſhes through the fiſſures of the rock, which were formerly ſeventy in number; and in ſeveral of theſe fiſſures, the ſtream is equal in thickneſs to a man's arm. Nothing can be more pellucid than this water, though it is impregnated with a ſtrong ſulphureous ſmell, and its degree of warmth ſomewhat exceeds that of milk as it comes from the cow. The largeſt ſpring, which is in the middle, is nearly boiling hot; but others are only tepid, and others again quite cold; ſo that the water collected from all theſe ſeveral ſprings, muſt naturally be no more than luke-warm. The New, or, as it is called, our Lady's Bath, which has been already mentioned, is tepid, clear, and in taſte and ſmell perfectly like the capital ſpring. On a hill about two thouſand paces diſtant, is what is called the White Well, the water of which, beſides its being tranſparent, has a moſt grateful taſte, and is extremely cold, though it is never known to freeze.

CHAP. XII.

Of SAXONY.

SECT. I.

Of Saxony in general, and particularly of Upper Saxony; its Limits, Extent, Produce, and Rivers.

THE limits of Saxony are differently deſcribed. It formerly extended over both the circles of Upper and Lower Saxony; but for ſome time the name has been confined to the electoral dominions of Saxony. In the extenſive ſenſe, as including the circles of Upper and and Lower Saxony, it is bounded on the north by the Baltic Sea, Denmark, and the German Ocean; on the eaſt by Poland and Sileſia; on the ſouth by Bohemia, Franconia, and Heſſe-Caſſel; and on the weſt by Weſtphalia, extending between the fiftieth and fifty-fifth degree north latitude, and between the eighth and eighteenth degree eaſt longitude from London.

The circle of Upper Saxony, which lies to the eaſt, includes in it not only the dutchy of Saxony, but the principality of Anhalt, the landgravate of Thuringia, the margravate of Miſnia, Luſatia, the marquiſate and electorate of Brandenburg, and the dutchy of Pomerania, which are divided into many leſſer diſtricts.

The twenty-two ſtates which compoſe this circle, taken in their proper order, are the elector of Saxony, the elector of Brandenburgh, Saxe-Weimar, Saxe-Eiſenach, Saxe-Coburg, Saxe-Gotha, Saxe-Altenburg, Saxe-Querfurt, the Hither and Farther Pomerania, Camin, Anhalt, Quedlinburg, Gernrodo, Walkenried, and Schwartzburg-Sonderſhauſſen, Schwartzburg-Rupolſtadt, Mansfeld, Stolberg, Barby, the counts of Reuſſen, and the counts of Schonberg.

In this circle the elector of Saxony has always been the ſole ſummoning prince and director; but ever ſince the electoral houſe of Saxony embraced the Romiſh religion, in order to qualify the princes of that houſe to wear the crown of Poland, it appeared dangerous to the electoral houſe of Brandenburg, that the direction of this circle, which is of the proteſtant religion, ſhould remain on the former footing.

Saxony, in general, is one of the moſt fertile countries in all Germany; it in many places yields a rich increaſe of all kinds of grain and fruit; the inhabitants likewiſe cultivate hops, flax, hemp, tobacco, aniſe, wild-ſaffron, and woad. The minerals of this country are of great importance, and the ſearching after, working, and exportation of them, employ a very great number of people. The porcelain earth near Aue is excellent. The terra ſigillata and fullers earth found in ſeveral places are extremely good. There is alſo a variety of fine coloured earth; beſides which, Saxony yields various ſorts of beautiful marble and good free-ſtone, ſerpentine ſtone, cryſtals, topazes, hyacinths, rubies, granates, amethyſts, ſaphires, and opals; different ſpecies of agates, chalcedonies, cornelians, and jaſper. Vitriol and allum are likewiſe prepared here, and Saxony alſo yields an earth of great uſe in the preparation of borax. Near Groſwich has been dug a tranſparent and opaque amber of different colours. Coal is dug here, and Saxony prepares a very beautiful ſulphur: it alſo produces cinnabar and quickſilver, with antimony, biſmuth, and arſenic. The mines of ſilver are extremely valuable, as are thoſe of copper, tin, lead, and iron.

In many parts of Saxony is a good breed of horſes, horned cattle, and ſheep. Wild boars and veniſon are alſo extremely plentiful; but theſe muſt be hunted by none but the great.

The Elbe is the principal river of this country, and greatly promotes its trade. This river flows out of Bohemia, and, having traverſed the whole circle of Miſnia and a part of the electoral circle, enters the principality of Anhalt, and at laſt runs into the dutchy of Magdeburg.

The Black Elſter, which flows out of Luſatia, paſſes through the circle of Miſnia and the electoral circles, and diſcharges itſelf into the Elbe.

The Mulde, divides itſelf into two branches; but theſe uniting in the circle of Leipſic, falls in one ſtream into the Elbe, in the principality of Anhalt.

The Saale, riſing in the principality of Culmbach, paſſes through a part of the dutchy of Magdeburg and the principality of Anhalt, and falls into the Elbe.

The other rivers are the Unſtrut, which riſes in the Eichsfeld, the White Elſter, and the Pleiſſe.

Theſe rivers, as well as the lakes and rivulets, yield a variety of fiſh; and in the White Elſter are found pearl muſcles that have beautiful pearls, ſome of them as large as a cherry-ſtone.

SECT.

A MAP of the SOUTHERN PART of LOWER SAXONY from the best Authorities

D. OF LUNENBURG
P A R T O F
U P P E R
S A X O N Y
BRUNSWICK
HANOVER
CALENBERG
DUCHY OF BRUNSWICK
WOLFENBUTTEL
HILDESHEIM
DUCHY OF MAGDEBURG
PRINCIP: OF HALBERSTAT
WOLFENBUTTEL
DUCHY OF BRUNSWICK
P. OF UPPER SAXONY
P. OF WESTPHALIA
P. OF THE UP: RHINE
TO HILDESHEIM
Duchy of Lutterberg
Brunswick
Calemberg
Grubenhagen
Gottingen
Halligenstat
Duderstat
Hoy
Zell
Celle
Gifhorn
Brunswick
Wolfenbuttel
Hanover
Hildesheim
Halberstat
Magdeburg
Stendel
Tangermunde
Brandenburg
Defsaw
Zerbst
Calbe
Barby
Egeln
Staffurt
Newburg
Quedelinburg
Osterode
Andreasberg
Elbingerode
Blankenburg
Reinstein
Wernigerode
Ilsenburg
Goslar
Seesen
Einbeck
Northeim
Munden
Uslar
Warburg
Lippstadt
Paderborn
Corvey
Minden
Nienburg
Verden
Celle
Lüneburg
Uelzen
Dannenberg
Salzwedel
Osterburg
Arneburg
Genthin
Burg
Jerichow
Havel R.
Elbe R.
Aller R.
Weser R.
Leine R.
Ocker R.
Ilse R.
Bever R.
Oker R.
Fuse R.
Ihle R.
Nuthe R.
Fort
Akon
Sidon
Klitzerich
Fehlen
Plarre
Gr. Wusterwitz
Muletwin
Berglow
Zerben
Tuchum
Brandenstein
Hohenwarde
Worbitz
Ziesar
Groningen
Lavenberg
Leitzkau
Hohenwisch
Sandau
Schönebeck
Barleben
Akersleben
Wolmerstede
Bartensleben
Hundsburg
Mosburg
Nie Hatersleben
Walpke
Königslutter
Jsenrodt
Bardorf
Calvoerden
Vechtorf
Tangermunde
Gardeleben
Stendel
Gerlin
Jerichow
Ebter
Tirchel
Gen
Berchol
Jerits
Niermarck
Molkenberg
Hohen Gohren
Aenbuck
Borgfeld
Wolsburg
Borsela
Jauvbel
Oesfelde
Campen
Brunsrode
Meinersen
Isenhuttel
Dyckhurst
Munden
Aller R.
Oasing
Hohem
Brome
Knesebeck
Walkhusen
Wilkenborg
Newenkamp
Ferborg
Engen
Studtorf
Newstat
Bodendorf
Ebersen
Denstorf
Peina
Sonnenberg
Sickten
Wolfenbuttel
Sarstede
Steinbrück
Hildesheim
S. Olderen
Schepenstede
Schoningen
Gerneroden
Brunberg
Hamersleben
Hornburg
Asenrode
Zilly
Bessendorf
Hadmarsleben
Beyfeld
Halberstat
Warningerode
Neindorf
Ilsenburg
Hartsburg
Altenau
Wildberg
Grund
Clausthal
Elbingerode
Reinstein
Horm
Quedelinburg
Osterode
Andreasberg
Elbingerode
Blankenburg
Grubenhagen
Rodershausen
Northeim
Harste
Harlem
Plesse
Gottingen
Duderstat
Halligenstat
Uslar
Warburg
Fredelsun
Brunswick
Calemberg
Elbingerode

SECT. II.

Of the Electorate of Saxony: the Diſpoſition, Manners, and Religion of the People; with a conciſe Account of their Learning, Arts, and Manufactures.

THE Saxons, ſays the Baron de Polnitz, have capacities equal to any nation in the world, and are naturally magnanimous and averſe to ſlavery. The men are well made, robuſt, agile, laborious, good ſoldiers, and artful courtiers: they are addicted to pleaſure, more eſpecially to gaming and the bottle: they love pomp and expence, are ceremonious, and affect, more than any other Germans, to imitate the French, eſpecially in their fondneſs for new faſhions and new acquaintance.

The women are extremely fair, and ſome of them have the fineſt faces in the world. They are generally well ſhaped, tall and ſlender, dance well, have a moſt genteel air, which they ſet off by a rich dreſs, and are extremely fond of ornaments; but ſeem ſomewhat affected, and talk with too much action. They are good-natured, gay and lively, paſſionately fond of dancing and merriment; and when they love, ſays our author, it is with all the heroic ſentiments and conſtancy of a Cleopatra or a Clelia. Though they are fond of gallantry, they are averſe to idleneſs; and, as they are very ingenious, amuſe themſelves with all ſorts of work belonging to the needle, the ſhuttle, and the diſtaff.

According to the marquis d'Argens, the Saxons appear to be the moſt polite and moſt ingenious of all the Germans; at leaſt they have the moſt happy way of expreſſing themſelves; and all the Germans agree, that their language is ſpoke in Saxony with the greateſt purity. The univerſities of this country abound with illuſtrious ſcholars, whoſe merit is allowed throughout Europe, and almoſt every town in Saxony is famous for politeneſs and the cultivation of the arts and ſciences. Cranach, the famous Saxon painter, ſays our author, was not inferior to the great maſters of Italy; and Handel, the prince of muſicians, was born at Dreſden. In ſhort, the numerous and well-regulated inſtitutions for the promoting of learning in the different parts of Saxony, facilitate the taſk of education, and promote the reception of the ſciences.

The people have, however, been much oppreſſed, both by the ravages of foreign troops, and the oppreſſions of the late princes who filled the throne of Poland. Hence Mr. Hanway, on his paſſing through this electorate before the late war, obſerves, that the richneſs of the ſoil did not ſeem to diminiſh the poverty of the inhabitants. Hunting, ſays he, is the favourite diverſion of the Saxon court; but by this diverſion the induſtrious inhabitants are more diſtreſſed than the brutes. Above thirty thouſand head of deer, ſays he, are ſaid to range in the open lands and foreſts; and though they break into the corn-fields of the farmer, he dare not kill one, under the penalty of being condemned to the galleys. Theſe, with the wild boars, are ſo great a nuiſance, that the Saxons would gladly compound to ſupport a body of eight thouſand ſoldiers extraordinary, on condition of having theſe animals reduced to half their preſent number. In every town of any note fifty of the inhabitants keep watch, five every night, by rotation, with bells to frighten the deer, and defend their corn from theſe devouring enemies.

Among the other calamitis, under which this country labours, the jealouſy ariſing from religion, ſays Mr. Hanway, is none of the leaſt. The eſtabliſhed Lutheran clergy oppreſs the Calviniſts, who are obliged to have not only their marriages and burials, but even their chriſtenings performed by Lutherans; while both think themſelves highly injured by the countenance given at court to the Roman catholics, imagining it a groſs abſurdity for a Proteſtant people to be governed by a Romiſh prince: for, according to the eſtabliſhed conſtitution of Saxony, the Roman catholics can no more have a church in Dreſden than their elector, without being of the Romiſh church, can be king of Poland. A chapel, however, is connived at, by which is underſtood a private, or at leaſt a plain and modeſt place of worſhip; but what is called the Romiſh chapel at Dreſden, is a pompous ſtructure, ſo richly adorned with ſtatues and architecture, that art and expence ſeem to contend for the ſuperiority.

The peaſants of this country carry proviſions a great diſtance to market in wheel-barrows, which are well adapted for that purpoſe both in height and other dimenſions. The wheel is bound with iron, and is both larger and lighter than thoſe uſed in England.

The uſeful and fine manufactures are very numerous in the electorate. Great quantities of yarn are ſpun, thread bleached, coarſe and fine linen wove, together with ticking; and there are a variety of cotton, woollen, and ſilk manufactures; tapeſtries are wove, fine lace, edgings, ribbons, and paper are made. The porcelain of Meiſſen is famous throughout all Europe. Fine glaſſes and mirrors are made here, and out of the ſerpent-ſtone they form a variety of things. Iron is wrought into black and white plates in the greateſt quantity; ſteel and braſs are alſo made and worked here. Saxony has likewiſe its manufactures of gold and ſilver. A fine blue colour is made of cobalt with a mixture of arſenic. A great trade is carried on in wood and timber at Grimma, from whence a vaſt quantity of boards, cheſts, boxes, &c. are exported down the Elbe to Hamburg.

Salt is the only neceſſary commodity wanting in Saxony, and with this it is chiefly ſupplied from Halle, a city belonging to the king of Pruſſia. Poſſibly this inconvenience might be removed, if proper care was taken of the ſalt-ſprings, of which there are ſeveral that, under the management of ſkilful perſons, would doubtleſs yield a ſufficient quantity, both as good and as cheap as that imported from Halle.

SECT. III.

The Titles and Arms of the Elector of Saxony; the Taxes laid on the People; and the Diviſions of that Electorate.

THE court of Saxony has always been diſtinguiſhed by its ſplendor, in which it ſeems little inferior to any court in Europe; but the reader will form a better idea of the pomp and grandeur of this prince, when we come to treat of his palaces, the curioſities depoſited in them, and their ſplendid furniture. We ſhall here therefore content ourſelves with giving the titles and arms of that prince, and the taxes raiſed for the ſupport of the government.

The elector of Saxony ſtiles himſelf duke of Saxony, Juliers, Cleve, and Berg, as alſo of Engern and Weſtphalia; arch-marſhal and elector of the holy Roman empire; landgrave in Thuringia; margrave of Miſnia, and likewiſe of Upper and Lower Luſatia; burgrave of Magdeburg; princely count of Kenneberg; count of the Mark, Ravenſberg, Barby, and Hanau; and lord of Ravenſtein.

The arms of Saxony are a garland of rue, or according to Zollman, an ornamental filateé for the head and hair, placed obliquely from right to left over eight, or, according to others, over ten feſſes ſable and or, ranged alternately above each other. On account of Thuringia, a lion marked with four tranſverſe ſtrokes argent and gules, drawn alternately, open jaws, an exerted tongue gules, and gripes projected or, and on the head a crown of the ſame, in a field azure. On account of Miſnia, a lion ſable, with an exerted tongue gules, gripes projected of the ſame, and a double inverted tail in a field or. On account of Juliers, a lion armed ſable and argent, with a tongue exerted gules in a field or. On account of Cleves, in a field gules, an eſcutcheon argent, in the center of which are eight ſcepters conjoined or. On account of the Berg, a lion gules, crowned azure, in a field argent. On account of Engern and Weſtphalia, an eagle crowned or, in a field azure, with three hornets horns gules, in a field argent. On account of the palatine of Saxony, an eagle diſplayed or, and crowned with the ſame, in a field azure, as alſo an eagle uncrowned or, in a field ſable. On account of Lower Luſatia, an

ox gules and courant, with a belly argent, in a field of the ſame. On account of Upper Luſatia, part of a wall or, trowelled ſable, and built battlement faſhion, in a field azure. On account of the mark of Landſberg, two erect feſſes in a field or. On account of the ſeigniory of Pleſſein, a lion divided or and argent, in a field azure. For the county of Orlamunde, a lion ſable crowned gules, and cloathed with roſe-leaves of the ſame, in a field or. On account of the burgravate of Magdeburg, an eſcutcheon divided longitudinally downwards, in whoſe fore-field gules appears a ſemi-argent eagle crowned or, and in the hinder-field argent, four bars gules. For the county of Brene, three ſemi-circles gules, or the hornets horns cantoned argent, in a field of the ſame. On account of the burgravate of Altenburg, a roſe gules with ſeeds or, and painted vert, in a field argent. For the county of Eiſenberg, three feſſes azure, in a field argent. For the county of Ravenſberg, three chevrons gules, placed above each other, and from below to the top fixed or conjoined to each other, in a field argent. For the county of the Mark, a feſſe conſiſting of three chequers gules and argent, in a field or. On account of the Regalia, an eſcutcheon modelled or. For the county of Hanau, three chevrons gules, in a field or. For the princely county of Henneberg, a hen placed on a mount verte, and in the poſition to take wing, in a field or. For the county of Barby, two barbles crowned or, placed back to back, and beſet on the ſides with four ſmall roſes, in a field azure. On account of Munzenberg, a field divided croſs-wiſe, in its upper part or, and in its lower argent. On account of Lichtenberg, a lion ſable, in a field argent: and on account of the office of arch-marſhal of the holy Roman empire, an eſcutcheon divided croſs-wiſe, whoſe upper part is ſable, and its under argent, the two electoral ſwords gules lying croſs-wiſe over each other.

The cuſtomary taxes of Saxony are partly ordinary and partly extraordinary. The ordinary taxes are thoſe which are granted every ſix years by the country: to this head belongs the land-tax; and the taxes upon liquors which ariſe from the imports upon white and brown beer, that is, two rixdollars for each veſſel of the former, and one and a half for each of the latter; but the nobility and poſſeſſors of noble eſtates, and alſo the eccleſiaſtics, are, for themſelves and families, freed from any impoſts upon the liquor they conſume at their tables. And alſo the fleſh-penny, or fleſh-tax, from which the nobility and clergy are alſo exempted.

The extraordinary taxes are uſually the penny-tax, which riſes and falls in proportion to the damage done by fires and ſtorms; the ember-tax, and the exciſe, which is two-fold. The land-exciſe amounts to three-pence in the dollar out of the price of certain goods ſold. The general conſumption exciſe has been introduced into ſuch towns and villages as are inhabited by handicraft tradeſmen. Beſides this laſt there are the poll and eſtate-taxes, ſtamped duties levied upon paper, cards, ſhoes, &c. alſo on the marriage of a new ſovereign; and on other occaſions it is cuſtomary to make a donation in money.

The mines alſo bring in a conſiderable revenue to the ſovereign, which is paid in kind, or certain proportions of ſilver, tin, lead, copper, iron, and ſeveral ſorts of minerals. Mr. Hanway obſerves, that the electors revenues amount to near one million five hundred ſeventy-five thouſand pounds ſterling; and adds, that the expences of the court are ſo great, that ſix thouſand five hundred ducats are annually allowed for ſweet-meats, &c. which is near twice as much as the king of Pruſſia allows for his table. Yet Saxony is ſaid to owe forty millions of dollars; but his late majeſty was ſo fond of curioſities, and particularly paintings, that our author was told, he gave half a million of dollars, intended for part of a payment due to the king of Pruſſia, for the duke of Modena's pictures.

As to the military force of this country, it is ſufficient to obſerve, that there are uſually maintained about twenty thouſand regular troops, beſides well regulated militia.

The whole electorate of Saxony is divided into circles, which according to their order of rank, are the electoral circle or dutchy of Saxony, the circle of Thuringia, that of Miſnia, that of Leipſic, that of Erzebirg, that of Vogtland, and the circle of Neuſtadt, with the two diſtricts of Merſeburg, and Naumburg-zeitz.

SECT. IV.

Of the Electoral Circle, or the Dutchy of Saxony, and the Circle of Thuringia.

THE electoral circle borders on thoſe of Miſnia, Leipſic, Thuringia, the principality of Anhault, the mark of Brandenburg, and on Luſatia. Its greateſt length as well as its greateſt breadth, is eſtimated at about forty-ſeven miles. The country is not remarkable for its fruitfulneſs, a great part of it being ſandy. The Elbe runs through a part of it, and between Gorſdorf and Elſter receives the Black Elſter. Some tracts of this country are watered by the Mulde.

This circle contains in it twenty-four towns, three boroughs, four hundred and twenty villages, one hundred ſixty-four noblemen's eſtates, and eleven prefecturates, in which the moſt conſiderable town is the following.

Wittenberg, in Latin Witteberga, or Leucorea, is a fortified town in the prefecturate of the ſame name, ſituated near the Elbe, and famous for the manufacture of coarſe cloth, the wool of this country being remarkably good. Cloths are ſent hither from all parts to be dyed, and the blues and greens, commonly called Saxon, are beſt dyed here. In this place is an univerſity, in which are about ſeven hundred ſtudents; and here is the Sokoloff church, a building of about three hundred years ſtanding, where Luther firſt preached the doctrines of the reformation; and in this church that great reformer was alſo interred, but has no other monument beſides a braſs plate with an inſcription, except his original portrait at length, painted on wood, and well preſerved ſince the year 1540.

The people here have a ſtrong tincture of Romiſh ſuperſtition; among other inſtances of which the credulous ſay the devil viſited Luther in the library which now belongs to the univerſity, but that the reformer was ſo unpolite as to throw his ink-ſtand at him.

This town is not large, but fortified; the old citadel was formerly the electoral reſidence. In a large round tower, which ſtands by the univerſity church, are kept the common archives of the electoral family. In the pariſh church belonging to the town, is held the general ſuperintendency: there is here alſo a Latin ſchool, which has ſix teachers. In 1547, this town was taken by the emperor Charles V. In 1640 it ſuffered greatly by fire, and in 1756 was taken by the Pruſſians, who broke down a baſtion of the fortifications.

We come now to the circle of Thuringia, which forms the north part of the landgravate of that name. The country, which is well watered, yields good paſturage, and abundance of corn, particularly wheat, which is excellent, as alſo fine woods, and produces woad, ſaflor, and aniſe. It has a conſiderable breed of horſes, horned cattle and ſheep.

In ſome parts of the country ſwarms of field mice commit great ravages among the corn; for they not only devour a great quantity in autumn, but lay up large winter ſtores in their holes; ſo that the government, in order to extirpate theſe noxious animals, gives for every full grown mouſe ſix pfennings, and three for a young one.

The foreſt of Thuringia, which is pretty extenſive, affords no other grain but a few oats, ſo that the inhabitants are obliged to buy corn from their neighbours; however, they have great plenty of wood, which is ſold at a very low rate.

In Thuringia are forty-ſeven towns, fourteen boroughs, ſix hundred ſeventy-four villages, three hundred noble eſtates, and thirteen prefecturates, belonging to the electoral houſe of Saxony, the principal places of which are the following.

Weiſſenfels, in Latin Leucopetra, is a well built town, ſeated on the river Saale. On a white rock above

above the town is a fine citadel called Auguſtuſburg, which was the ordinary reſidence of the dukes of Saxe-Weiſſenfels; as alſo an arſenal, which was ſtripped by the Pruſſians in 1756; a town church, another church near what was formerly called the cloiſter of St. Clara; an hoſpital containing a ſmall church; an academy erected out of the above-mentioned nunnery, and, from duke Auguſtus its founder, named Auguſteum; a Latin ſchool, and manufactures of ſilk and velvet. At the royal hunting houſe, which lies before Niekels gate, reſides the provincial huntſmaſter of the circle of Thuringia. In 1757, a conſiderable number of the troops belonging to this circle had poſted themſelves in the town; but were driven from thence by the Pruſſians; when, in order to facilitate their flight, they burnt down the large and ſpacious wooden bridge built over the Saale.

Langenſalza, the capital of all the electoral Saxon Thuringia, is ſeated in the Salza, in a ſpot very fruitful in corn, and contains an ancient citadel, about nine hundred houſes, two pariſh churches, one ſuperintendency, whoſe ſpiritual juriſdiction is divided into the Upper and Lower circle; a Latin ſchool, and ſome manufactures of ſtuffs. It carries on a good trade in corn, half ſilks, ſerges, and other commodities.

SECT. V.

Of the Margravate of Meiſſen or Miſnia, containing a Deſcription of Meiſſen and Dreſden, with the ſeveral Palaces, and moſt remarkable Curioſities, and an Account of the Fort of Konigſtein, and its extraordinary Tun.

THE margravate of Miſnia, or Meiſſen, is bounded on the north by the dutchy of Saxony; on the eaſt by Luſatia; on the ſouth by Bohemia; and on the weſt by Thuringia; and is about a hundred miles in length, and eighty in breadth. It is divided into fourteen prefectures, and contains forty boroughs, four market towns, one thouſand three hundred ninety-three villages, and twenty ſovereign palaces, the principal places in which are the following.

Meiſſen, in Latin Miſena, is ſituated on the Elbe, where the rivulets of Triebiſch and Meiſne pour themſelves into it; and from the laſt it takes its name. It ſtands partly on eminences, and partly in a valley. The biſhopric, which was firſt founded in the year 948, belongs to the Lutheran church, and the chapter conſiſts of a provoſt, a dean, a ſenior, a chanter, and five canons. In the cathedral are the monuments of ſeveral biſhops, and on the high altar ſtand the ſtatues of three margraves of Meiſſen, repreſented in the character of the Eaſtern magi bringing gifts to the infant Jeſus. Of the old citadel, which ſtands on a mountain, the fore part, which belonged to the burgraves, and the hind part, which belonged to the biſhops, are now become ruinous, and the center only remains, in which is carried on the celebrated manufacture of the excellent Miſnian porcelain. This, however, is a large building, capable of ſome defence. Mr. Hanway tells us, that he had an opportunity of being convinced of the ſecrecy with which this manufactory is conducted; for there is no admittance into the works without an order from the governor of Dreſden; nor are the workmen ever ſeen without the gates; they being all confined as priſoners, and ſubject to be arreſted if they go without the gates: for this reaſon a chapel and every thing neceſſary is provided within. The workmen amount to about ſeven hundred, moſt of whom have not above ten German crowns a month, and the higheſt wages are forty, ſo that the annual expence is ſaid not to exceed eighty thouſand crowns. This manufacture being entirely on the king's account, he ſells annually to the value of one hundred and fifty thouſand, and ſometimes two hundred thouſand crowns, or thirty-five thouſand pounds.

The churches in and near the town, beſides the cathedral already mentioned, and in which is the burying vault of the princes, is a pariſh church, the cloiſter, or Franciſcan church, the church of St. Afra, near the provincial ſchool, and three burying churches belonging to the head church of St. Afra, which is near the provincial ſchool, and has many others united with it, both in the town and country, and together with the provincial ſchool, is immediately under the upper conſiſtory of Dreſden, and the ſchool called the Afraneum, which was formerly the Benedictine cloiſter of St. Afra; the number of ſcholars taught and maintained gratis, amount to one hundred and eighteen. There is alſo a town ſchool. The bridge, which extends over the Elbe, is ſupported by ſtone piers; but the upper part is of wood, and it is obſerved, as a maſter-piece of art, that the middle arch, which is ſeventy-five paces wide, is kept together by a ſingle wooden peg. The country in the neighbourhood of this town, produces a good ſort of wine.

The country between Meiſſen and Dreſden is extremely beautiful, conſiſting of a delightful mixture of corn-fields, gardens, meadow-lands, and paſture. The banks of the Elbe are adorned with a great number of vineyards, and the induſtry of the people have made them form the ſteepeſt hills into a number of terraſſes covered with vines. Near Meiſſen the valley grows narrow, and ſome of the houſes ſcattered along the banks of the Elbe are built on rocks, which riſe perpendicular from the river, and form a very agreeable and romantic ſcene.

Dreſden, the metropolis of this electorate, and one of the fineſt cities in Germany, is agreeably ſituated on the river Elbe, in the fifty-firſt degree twelve minutes north latitude, and in the thirteenth degree forty minutes eaſt longitude from London, ſeventy miles north-weſt of Prague, and ninety ſouth of Berlin, in the midſt of a plain ſurrounded by lofty hills about two leagues diſtant, the neareſt of which are converted into vineyards. As the city ſtands on both ſides the Elbe, it is united by a ſtone-bridge ſix hundred and eighty-five common paces in length, and about ſeventeen in breadth, containing eighteen arches; but Mr. Hanway obſerves, that the paſſage over it being horizontal, takes off from that grand effect which a curve produces in theſe ſtructures. There are ſeveral round projections with ſeats in them on each ſide of the bridge, and a fine iron baluſtrade all along. On the fifth pilaſter on the right hand in going from the new city, the arms of Poland and Saxony are neatly cut in ſtone, ſupported by two ſtatues repreſenting Poland and Saxony, and on the oppoſite ſide is a brazen crucifix of curious workmanſhip, For the more convenient intercourſe between the towns, a new bridge has been built conſiſting of nineteen arches, and over every pier are four pedeſtals with a ſtone urn upon each.

In this city are ſeveral ſquares and lofty ſtone buildings ſix or ſeven ſtories high, which make an elegant appearance, but are inferior in beauty to thoſe of Berlin; beſides, many of the ſtreets are narrow. Near the entrance of the new city is an equeſtrian ſtatue of king Auguſtus, erected on a lofty pedeſtal, and is ſaid to be made by a common ſmith, and on that account is worthy of being admired, though it has many capital defects, particularly in the horſe's head.

The place which affords the greateſt entertainment to a curious traveller is what is called the green room, or the muſeum. This collection was begun by the elector Auguſtus, and placed in a green room of the royal palace, which name it ſtill retains, though there are now ſeveral apartments painted green, and filled with theſe curioſities. The fee for ſeeing this muſeum is generally diſcharged with five or ſix guldens, or about fourteen ſhillings given the attendant who opens the doors; but the greateſt part of it goes to the ſuperintendant, or keeper of the muſeum. At the entrance, the ſhoes of all who are admitted are carefully wiped, in order to keep the place as free from dirt or duſt as poſſible. All the apartments are floored with marble of different colours, of the produce of Saxony.

In the firſt apartment is to be ſeen a great number of ſmall braſs models of moſt of the famous ſtatues and monuments that are extant, both antient and modern. Among theſe are an equeſtrian ſtatue of Auguſtus II. king of Poland, of Frederic William the Great, after the famous ſtatue in Berlin, of Lewis XIV. and the models of the moſt celebrated ſtatues in Italy.

The ſecond room is filled with curious clocks and clock-work, adorned with gold and ſilver. Among theſe is the repreſentation of the Virgin Mary and Joſeph, with the infant Jeſus in the manger, and the ſhepherds with the Eaſtern magi performing their adorations to the Meſſiah, while the heavens ſeem to open with a ſurpriſing effulgence. Here is alſo a ſhip which ſails round a table, while ſome of the ſailors in it weigh anchor, and the reſt are in continual action; and at the ſame time it performs a piece of muſic. The Japan work on the wall of this apartment is an exact imitation of inlaid work of jaſper and other precious ſtones.

In the third room is a numerous collection of drinking-veſſels and other curioſities in ivory, particularly a ſhip with all its ſails, maſts, and rigging.

In the fourth apartment the eye is dazzled with a multitude of gold and ſilver utenſils, moſt of which are large goblets and other drinking-veſſels. The pannels of this room are of looking-glaſs.

The fifth is a ſpacious room, in which are a great variety of precious ſtones, and curious veſſels made of them. Here is a large table of jaſper cut in relievo of onyx, chalcedony, and other gems, repreſenting a young prince on horſeback, preceded by the Virtues, pointing out to him the way to true glory; while the Vices, with looks full of rage and confuſion, are flying from him. This is an antient piece which coſt eighty thouſand dollars. Here is a ſtatue of Charles II. king of England; a large goblet ſet round with the moſt curious and coſtly antiques; the angel Michael vanquiſhing the devil admirably performed in wood, and coſt in England, where it was made, two thouſand five hundred pounds ſterling. Here are likewiſe ſeveral figures conſiſting of gems and pearls naturally adapted to conſtitute the different parts, and ſo curiouſly arranged, that they appear to have been deſigned by nature for the places they occupy. Among theſe, what more particularly ſtrikes the eye is the ſtory of the prophet Jonah; the whale, the ſhip, the prophet, and the ſea-ſhore being made of pearls properly arranged, and the rocks in the ſea repreſented by very large gems. Another curious piece repreſents two perſons carrying in a baſon before them a number of ſmall pearls: the baſon and pearls are the work of nature, with very little aſſiſtance from art. Two other perſons are carrying on a pole a large bunch of grapes, imitated to the greateſt perfection with oriental emeralds.

The ſixth apartment is ſurrounded with cloſets, in which are placed the electors of Saxony as big as the life in their proper habits. In the middle of this room is a clock in the form of a woman, which moves the head every minute from one ſide to the other.

The firſt object ſhewn in the ſeventh apartment is a tea-equipage, with a table, &c. all of gold enamelled, and ſet with diamonds, and coſt forty-ſix thouſand dollars. On a table an ell broad, and an ell and a quarter long, is repreſented the celebration of the Great Mogul's birth-day. The monarch is exhibited ſitting on a throne, the grandees of his empire lie proſtrate before him with their reſpective gifts, and the portico is crowded with his guards, elephants, and every thing belonging to the ſplendor of an eaſtern court. Dinglinger, jeweller to the court, and fifteen other ingenious artiſts under him, were ten years and eight months employed on this piece; for which he was paid eighty-five thouſand dollars. The pillar in the middle of the room is adorned with beautiful baſſo relievos of Arabian agate, and on it is an oriental onyx of an oval figure near a quarter of a Dreſden ell in its longeſt diameter. In the golden fleece belonging to the order of knighthood is a diamond for which the king of Poland paid two hundred thouſand dollars; it weighs a hundred and ninety-four grains and a half, and is placed between two diamonds, each of which is equal in ſize to a large nutmeg.

In the laſt apartment are, among other things, a clock of gold ſet with gems, and a jaſper table with veins of cryſtal and amethyſts. This jaſper comes from Frieberg, only four miles from Dreſden, and it is but a few years ſince the real value of the Saxon jaſper was known, for the peaſants formerly uſed this ſort of ſtone, together with others, to incloſe their fields; yet it is very beautiful, but extremely difficult to poliſh. The number of curioſities in the above apartments is exceeding great; but ſome idea may be formed of this collection by the few that have been mentioned, and it is obſervable that the judicious arrangement of the ſeveral pieces adds a ſurpriſing beauty to the whole.

The palace is furniſhed in a moſt ſuperb manner; the drawing-rooms are particularly worth ſeeing, on account of twelve pictures by Lewis Silveſter, repreſenting the rape of Proſerpine, the metamorphoſis of Acteon, with other fables from Ovid; and a piece repreſenting the late elector taking leave of his father, at his ſetting out on his travels. The latter recommends his ſon to Pallas and Mercury. Behind the prince ſtands his governor; by his ſide is Prudence with a teleſcope in her hand, and ſeveral genii hold up maps of the countries which the prince was going to viſit. The cieling of the audience-room was alſo painted by the ſame hand. The looking-glaſſes in ſome of the apartments are between eight and nine feet high, and ſix and ſeven broad. The aſſembly-room for the royal family is hung with rich tapeſtry, repreſenting the atchievements of Alexander the Great.

Among the ſurpriſing quantity of plate kept in the plate-cabinet are four ſtands, each weighing four hundred and ſeventy-one marks, and twelve others that weigh nearly as much; two ſilver vaſes, each above five feet high, ſcarce to be fathomed by two men, weighing ſix hundred marks each; two pieces of the ſame faſhion little inferior in weight; and eight ciſterns with the veſſels ſtanding in them, each weighing eight hundred marks. The mark is eight ounces.

The common aſſembly-room is adorned with tapeſtry repreſenting the battle of Hochſtet. In the ſeveral apartments are many curious clocks, beautiful tables, rich cabinets, and other furniture; among which a foreigner ſhould not omit ſeeing the confidents-table, a curious piece of mechaniſm, on which the elector dines privately with his confidents; for this table, with all its appurtenances, riſes from the lower apartments into the upper, without one ſervant being ſeen.

There is another muſeum in the palace which contains a vaſt variety of curioſities. In the firſt chamber is a collection of prints, from the commencement of the art of engraving to the preſent time.

The ſecond is the mineral-gallery, in which is the earth of the different countries in the world, and ores of every denomination.

The third contains petrifactions, particularly of wood, animals, &c.

In the fourth chamber, which is a very large one, are different kinds of wood and vegetables; in particular there is a cabinet with three hundred and fifty ſquares as big as the palm of a large hand, run in flat as drawers, of ſo many different kinds of wood. In this apartment are alſo the pictures of a man and his wife, who lived near Tameſwar; the man was a hundred and eighty-five years of age, and his wife a hundred and ſeventy-two.

In the fifth chamber is a ſmall cabinet of ſkeletons, and other anatomical curioſities. The ſixth contains the ſkins of a variety of animals ſtuffed. The ſeventh has the ſkins of fiſhes ſtuffed. The eighth has a great quantity of different kinds of ſhells. In the ninth is a cabinet of about ſix feet high, and four broad, every drawer of which has ſome natural curioſity in amber. In the tenth is a grotto with ſprings of water. In the eleventh are many curioſities in coral. The twelfth contains the ſkeletons of lions, bears, &c. of a prodigious ſize, and the ſtuffed ſkins of ſome extraordinary beaſts, particularly of a horſe, whoſe mane is ſaid to be three ells and a half long, and his tail twelve ells and a half.

In another apartment at ſome diſtance is a model of Solomon's temple cut in cedar, as deſcribed in the Old Teſtament, with all its furniture.

The gallery of pictures is one of the fineſt in the world; part of the collection conſiſts of a hundred capital pieces, which are ſaid to be all originals, and to have coſt half a million of crowns. Among theſe are the capital works of Raphael, Corregio, Rubens, and all the great maſters. The whole collection conſiſts of above two thouſand pieces, and are valued at between two and three million of crowns.

The

The elector's gardens, though agreeable, are too level, and void of thoſe natural beauties that are capable of being afforded by an equality of ground. A ſmall palace is ſituated in them, which is approached by a grand avenue of a conſiderable length. A field for tournaments is in the front, and behind is a fine piece of water. The gardens which are on the ſides, are adorned with a profuſion of marble ſtatues, many of them larger than the life. Theſe ſhew the genius of Auguſtus I. the late king's father, who being entirely devoted to his amours, left them to after-ages, as monuments of his laſciviouſneſs. The orangery, which is in another part of the city, has four hundred orange-trees of a very large ſize, and many exotics.

The Chineſe palace, thus called from the taſte of the building and the furniture, is ſituated on the Elbe, and commands a view of the bridge and the Romiſh chapel. The ornaments of the architecture, and the relievo of the frontiſpiece, are in the Chineſe taſte; but after all, it is far from being an elegant ſtructure. It has fourteen rooms, in which are a great number of leopards, wolves, bears, monkeys, and other animals, as large as the life, made of porcelain, with elephants and rhinoceroſes of the ſize of a great dog, and a prodigious variety of birds and fowl, with a curious collection of flowers, all of porcelain made at Meiſſen. The apoſtles near three feet high, are in white porcelain. There is alſo a repreſentation of the crucifixion four or five feet high, with many other curious pieces; but what is more ſurpriſing, there are forty-eight China vaſes that appear to be of no uſe, and to be extraordinary only on account of their great ſize, and yet the elector's father was ſo charmed with them, that he purchaſed them of the late king of Pruſſia at the price of a whole regiment of dragoons.

The Turkiſh gardens and palace are ſituated in Plauſtreet. The firſt floor of the palace is adorned with many pieces of painting, repreſenting the ceremonies uſed in the Turkiſh ſeraglio, with the baths, audiences, &c. in which all the great officers of ſtate are dreſſed in their proper habits. In the ſecond ſtory are the pictures of ſeveral celebrated beauties that have made no little noiſe at the court of Dreſden, all in Turkiſh dreſſes. The tapeſtry hangings and other furniture of this palace, are either the manufacture of Turky or Perſia, and ſeveral tables are ſet off with oriental curioſities; as knives made in Tartary, a Perſian enamelled tea-equipage, and a large bowl of *lapis nephriticus*, which is called the *welcome*; and this bowl full of wine is to be drank off by the ladies on their arrival here; as a large bowl made of a Maldivia nut, is ſaid to have been preſented to the gentlemen by the cham of Tartary on ſuch occaſions. Here are alſo ſhewn ſilver cymbals, to which the Turkiſh women generally dance, and ſeveral other curioſities of the ſame kind.

The menagery is in old Dreſden, and contains lions, tygers, leopards, lynxes, and ſeveral other animals; and at the elector's palace at Neuſtadt-oſtra, near Dreſden, there are kept a number of tame ſtags, which draw in a carriage, and when Mr. Keyſler was there, one of them was uſed for the ſaddle. Theſe generally ſet out with great ſpirit, but ſoon flag.

The palace of count Bruhl has been built at ſeveral times, and the apartments are elegant and richly furniſhed. They are adorned with luſtres of porcelain in beautiful figures; the tables have a variety of tea equipages, and the figures of men and women, birds and beaſts of porcelain. The drawing-room is pannelled with looking-glaſs, and his cabinet furniſhed with enamels and crayons. The houſe and gardens belonging to it are ſituated on the Elbe, near the bridge, and command a pleaſant proſpect. His library, which is in the garden, is two hundred twenty feet long, and well furniſhed with books: but what is moſt ſtriking is the gallery of pictures, which, though it does not contain a fourth part ſo many as the royal gallery, is incomparably more magnificent. It is one hundred fifty-ſix ells long, and the paintings are ſhewn to great advantage, by being ranged only on one ſide, and fronted by lofty windows, that afford ſufficient light to ſhew the minuteſt beauties of this excellent collection. The pannels between the windows are of looking-glaſs, againſt which are placed ſtatues and buſts that have a grand effect.

The other remarkable buildings at Dreſden are the opera-houſe; the aſſembly-houſe, and the royal ſtables, the outſide of which is very grand; the arſenal, which was ſtripped by the Pruſſians in 1756, under which is the electoral cellar; the palaces of the electoral prince, and the other princes of that family; the electoral chancery office, the mint office, the foundery, the court diſpenſary, the royal foundation for Roman catholic boys and girls, the academy for painting, the palace of prince Lubomirſki, the hotel de Saxe, and other magnificent palaces and buildings.

The places of religious worſhip are the church of the Holy Croſs, which is the principal; St. Mary's, St. Sophia's, the garriſon church, and the Roman catholic chapel, which is a curious piece of architecture. In the ſuburbs are the churches of St. John, St. Anne, St. James, St. Bartholomew, and the Lazar church.

About the year 1730, the number of houſes in Dreſden, including the ſuburbs, were computed to amount only to two thouſand five hundred, and that of the inhabitants to little more than forty thouſand, including the garriſon; but in 1755, there were reckoned here about eighty or ninety thouſand men.

In the city and its neighbourhood, many ingenious manufactures are carried on. The trade of Dreſden is, however, very inconſiderable; the moſt important article is the ſilver brought in ingots every fifteen days from the mines near Friedburg, to the amount of about twenty thouſand dollars, or three thouſand five hundred pounds ſterling. This ſilver is immediately coined into florins of ſixteen groſch, which with reſpect to the current money of bats, driers, &c. is worth ſeven per cent advance, and is therefore, ſays Mr. Hanway, ſo ſpeedily conveyed into the neighbouring territories to be coined again, that it is next to impoſſible to obtain, in the ordinary commerce of the people, change in this money for a ſingle Louis d'or.

About four miles from Dreſden, on the other ſide of the Elbe, is the royal palace of Pillnitz, which ſtands in a pleaſant country, and is adorned with a great number of portraits of the moſt celebrated beauties of Saxony.

Five miles from Dreſden is fort Konigſtein, which ſtands on a rock, cut ſo ſteep, that it appears quite perpendicular, and in many places has projections in the manner of baſtions, from whence the ſides of the rock may be raked and defended. The aſcent towards it is the leaſt difficult, for which reaſon it is ſecured on that part by good works, and a triple row of cannon ranged one above another. Wood and other neceſſaries are drawn up by the help of cranes. The garriſon conſiſts of one hundred and fifty men; but on the firſt alarm from the governor, the neighbouring villages are obliged to furniſh ſome hundreds more. This fort is always ſtocked with proviſions ſufficient to laſt many years. On the top is a large green area, a wood, and ſeveral gardens, in which are thirty-eight different kinds of foreſt and fruit trees, with paſtures and land fit for agriculture. The fortreſs is provided with fine ciſterns, or ſmall ponds, as reſervoirs for ſnow and rain water, in which are ſeveral kinds of fiſh for the governor's uſe; but the water drank by the garriſon, is drawn up by a wheel from a well nine hundred Dreſden ells deep.

One of the greateſt curioſities to be ſeen at this fort is the tun which general Kyaw cauſed to be made here. Its length is ſeventeen Dreſden ells, and its diameter at the bung twelve ells. It conſiſts of one hundred fifty-ſeven ſtaves, eight inches thick, and fifty-four boards for the heads. It holds three thouſand ſeven hundred and nine hogſheads, and upon one head of the caſk is a Latin inſcription to the following purpoſe:

"Welcome, traveller, and admire this monument,
"dedicated to feſtivity, in order to exhilarate the mind
"with a chearful glaſs, in the year 1725, by Frederic
"Auguſtus king of Poland, and elector of Saxony,
"the father of his country, the Titus of his age, the
"delight of mankind. Therefore drink to the health
"of the ſovereign, the country, the electoral family,
"and baron Kyaw, governor of Konigſtein; and if

"thou

" thou art able, according to the dignity of this caſk,
" the moſt capacious of all caſks, drink to the proſpe-
" rity of the whole univerſe: and ſo farewel."

The top of the caſk is railed in, and affords room for fifteen or twenty people to regale themſelves. There are alſo ſeveral kinds of welcome cups, which are offered to ſtrangers.

This fortreſs is a place of confinement for ſtate priſoners. It has an arſenal, and in a room called the hero's apartment, beſides the old Saxon warriors, which the painter has drawn according to his own fancy, are the portraits of all the generals employed by the elector.

SECT. VI.

Of the Circle of Leipſic, with the Diſtrict of Wurzen, and the principal places in each.

THE circle of Leipſic, including the diſtrict of Wurzen, is bounded by the Miſnian and Ertzgebirg circles, by a part of the dutchy of Altenburg, the biſhoprics of Merſeburg and Naumburg-Zeitz, and by the Thuringian and electoral circles. It contains thirty-two towns, nine hundred forty-ſeven villages, and conſiſts of fourteen prefecturates.

The principal city of this circle is Leipſic, which ſignifies the place of lime-trees, and is one of the fineſt and moſt celebrated towns in all Germany. It is ſituated in a pleaſant and fertile plain on the Bleiſſe, in the fifty-firſt degree twenty-two minutes latitude, and in the twelfth degree thirty-four minutes eaſt longitude, forty-ſix miles to the north-weſt of Dreſden. It has ſeveral other rivulets in its neighbourhood, as the Barde, the Elſter, and the Luppe. It is indeed ſaid to be only eight thouſand nine hundred fifty-four paces in circumference; but it has large and well built ſuburbs, with fine gardens. Between theſe ſuburbs and the town is a fine walk of lime-trees, which was laid out in the year 1702, and encompaſſes the city. Mulberry-trees are alſo planted in the town ditches; but the fortifications ſeem rather calculated for the uſe of the inhabitants to walk on than for defence. The walls have four magnificent ſtone gates, and the citizens maintain two hundred ſoldiers. The houſes are very lofty, and have elegant fronts. The ſtreets are clean, commodious, and agreeable; they are lighted in the night with ſeven hundred lamps, and the inhabitants amount to about forty thouſand within the walls.

Leipſic has been diſtinguiſhed during ſeveral ages for the liberty of conſcience granted to all people. Hence the inhabitants have been induſtrious in the cultivation of knowledge and moral improvement. Here is an univerſity which is ſtill very conſiderable, with ſix churches for the Lutherans, theirs being the eſtabliſhed religion, one for the Calviniſts, and a chapel in the caſtle for thoſe of the Romiſh church. The univerſity library conſiſts of about twelve thouſand volumes, ſix thouſand of which are folios. This library is open for the uſe of the public, from ten to twelve, on Wedneſdays and Saturdays; and on the ſame days, but in the afternoon, free acceſs is allowed to the magiſtrates library, which conſiſts of about twenty-five thouſand volumes, and contains cabinets of urns, antiques, and medals, with many curioſities of art and nature. The exchange is an elegant ſtructure, and the cieling of the great hall is well painted. The Appel gardens are planted with a great number of yew trees, and adorned with canals, water-works, and ſtatues. In a ſtructure erected in this garden is carried on a manufactory of gold and ſilver tiſſue, velvet, &c. The Boſen gardens are very large, but want that ſymmetry and beauty which appear in the Appel gardens; however, here is a fine orangery, and in a pavilion adorned with ſome paintings are to be ſeen a numerous collection of curioſities in the animal and vegetable kingdoms. In an incloſure within the garden are kept ſome white ſtags, of a different ſpecies from the common deer. The aſparagus of Leipſic is large and delicious, the gardens here being reckoned the beſt in Germany.

All ſorts of manufactures are carried on in this city, gold ſilver, ſilk, wool, and linen yarn being worked here into all kinds of ſtuffs, velvets, ſtockings, cloths, and linens. There are alſo houſes for the dying of ſilk, the printing of cottons, the making of tapeſtry, and the preparation of Pruſſian blue. The orphan-houſe is appropriated to the culture of ſilk. The people here are much famed for their painted cloths in imitation of tapeſtry.

Leipſic has three fairs, viz. on New-year's-day, Eaſter, and Michaelmas; but that of Eaſter is moſt conſiderable. To theſe fairs reſort the Poles, Hungarians, Bohemians, Pruſſians, and indeed people from all parts of Germany; and likewiſe the Engliſh, French, Italians, and even Ruſſians, who all bring the produce of their reſpective countries, which are bought up there and diſperſed, by means of the rivers, to the moſt diſtant parts of the empire.

In the years 1631 and 1632 this city was taken by the Imperialiſts; in 1642 it was taken by the Swedes, and in 1745 and 1756 was garriſoned by the Pruſſians, to whom it was obliged to pay very conſiderable ſums of money by way of contribution.

The neighbouring country being very pleaſant and well cultivated, its fertility draws hither multitudes of larks, which are ſo very fat, and have ſo delicate a flavour, that the Leipſic larks are famous all over Germany; and what muſt appear very extraordinary is, that the exciſe on theſe birds produces ſix hundred thouſand dollars, or about nine hundred pounds a year to the city, at a groſch or two-pence ſterling for every ſixty of thoſe birds. The revenue accruing to the ſovereign from the city of Leipſic is computed at four hundred thouſand rixdollars, or ſeventy thouſand pounds ſterling a year.

The next town we ſhall mention is Grimma, which has an old ruinous citadel, and is divided into the Upper and Lower town, in each of which is a church with another for interments, and the hoſpital church of St. George, which lies before the bridge-gate. The prince's, or provincial ſchool, has alſo a church of its own; beſides which there is a town ſchool. The inhabitants procure ſubſiſtence chiefly by their wood, cloth, and thread; the dealers in the latter frequent the fairs of Leipſic, their thread being exported far and near. This town was the firſt in all Saxony that imitated the Engliſh flannel.

Rochlitz is ſeated on the Mulde, in the prefecturate of the ſame name with the town, and contains about four hundred houſes. To the weſt it has a citadel, which ſtands on a high grey rock. It has three churches, and a good Latin ſchool. In this town cloths, ſtuffs, and linen are made; and in a mountain near the town are ſome excellent ſtone quarries, the red ſtone in which is exported to a great diſtance. Marble, jaſper, chalcedony, and other beautiful ſtones are alſo found here.

The diſtrict of Wurzen, though united to the circle of Leipſic, has its own regency, and ſeveral towns, the principal of which is Wurzen, which is ſeated on the river Mulde. The town is but ſmall, but the ſuburbs, which are much larger, contain in them the old citadel, a cathedral church, that of St. Wenzeſlaus, an hoſpital, and a Latin ſchool. The beer of this town is reckoned equal to any in Saxony, and is exported in great quantities. Here are alſo many houſes for the dying of cloth, ſeveral bleaching grounds for linen, and many of the inhabitants get their living by knitting.

SECT. VII.

Of the Circles of Ertzgebirg, Voigtland, Neuſtadt, Merſeburg, and the Biſhopric of Naumburg; with their principal Towns.

THE circle of Ertzgebirg is bounded by the circles of Leipſic and Miſnia, as alſo by Bohemia, the Voigtland and Neuſtadt circles, and has its name from the mountains, which are rich in ore. On the ſearching and working of this ore and other minerals, and on ſome manufactures, the inhabitants depend for their ſubſiſtence, which they cannot here receive from agriculture. This circle, including the ſeigniories of the count of Schonburg, contains fifty-four towns, ten mine and market-towns,

towns, and ſeven hundred and ſixty-one villages; and is divided into fifteen prefecturates, the principal places in which are,

Freyberg, or Fridberg, the capital of the prefecturate of the ſame name, and the principal mine-town belonging to the elector of Saxony, is ſeated on the Mulde, into which the river of Luſitz falls, after it has run through the town. Freyberg conſiſts of about two thouſand houſes, and the number of its inhabitants, in 1725, was computed to amount to ſixty thouſand. It is ſurrounded with a double wall, each of which is defended by towers and out-works; but the inner wall has the greateſt number. Round it alſo runs a lined ditch. The tract about the town is pretty mountainous, and yet is eſteemed fertile. It has an upper mine-office, which has the direction of all the mines in the country. The citadel lies at a ſmall diſtance from one of the gates, and is encompaſſed with a ditch remarkably deep, and has a church of its own. The other churches are the cathedral, near which is the electoral burying-chapel, St. Peter's church, St. Nicholas's, St. James, St. John's, and St. Bartholomew's. Each of the two laſt has an hoſpital belonging to it; here is alſo an academy, which has eight teachers, and in it is kept the public library. Freyberg has alſo a cannon and bell-foundery, and the inhabitants are employed in making fine Lyons lace and lace of Tombac; and near the town is a ſulphur and vitriol-houſe. Its excellent beer is exported to a great diſtance. In 1318 it obtained the privilege, that all the carriers that go to Bohemia ſhould be obliged to expoſe their wares to public ſale for three whole days to the inhabitants of this town. The ſilver mine works in this neighbourhood are of great importance, and the moſt profitable in all Miſnia. There are likewiſe mines of copper, tin, and lead; all which are ſaid to bring in the elector a clear annual profit of a hundred and thirty thouſand pounds ſterling. In 1632 it was taken by the emperor, when the elector gave eighty thouſand rixdollars to ſave unrifled the family monuments in St. Peter's church, the German princes being antiently buried in their robes, jewels, &c.

Zoblitz is a ſmall town, where the inhabitants principally ſubſiſt by working the ſerpent-ſtone, which is found here, into pitchers, mortars, bowls, tea and coffee-cups, writing implements, boxes, pipes, caſkets, candleſticks, ſnuffers, tobacco-boxes, and alſo by trading in lace, yarn, and linen. The ſerpent-ſtone is dug juſt above the town; and farther to the eaſt is found a red ſpecies, which is eſteemed the fineſt, and is therefore conſidered by the ſovereign as his property; together with a yellow, green, brown, grey, and black ſort. In the electoral red quarry are found granates, and alſo aſbeſtos of various colours.

Zwickau, one of the largeſt towns in this country, is ſituated on the river Mulde, and has a citadel ſeparated from the town by a ditch. It has a church in the upper part of the town, another in the lower part, and a third in the lower ſuburbs. It has a good Latin ſchool, in which is a library that contains above twenty thouſand volumes; there is here alſo a ſuperintendency, whoſe ſpiritual juriſdiction is divided into three circles, in which are fifteen boroughs and nine towns, with ſixty-ſix churches in the country. This town has a manufacture of cloth, and a great nnmber of cards are made here for the manufacturers who work in wool, cotton, &c. The trade carried on here conſiſts in theſe articles, and alſo in leather, deals, iron, coals, marble, and corn.

The circle of Voigtland is bounded by that of Ertzgebirg, Bohemia, and the principality of Culmbach, and contains fifteen towns and three hundred and twenty-three villages, the principal place in which is,

Plauen, the capital of a prefecturate of the ſame name, and of the electoral Saxon ſhare in Voigtland; it is ſeated on the river Elſter, and contains an old citadel, with one pariſh church, and another for interments; as alſo a Latin ſchool and a ſuperintendency, which has a ſpiritual juriſdiction over ten towns and thirty-nine churches. Here is a manufacture of cotton and cloth.

The circle of Neuſtadt is bounded by a part of the circle of Ertzgebirg, and the principalities of Altenburg and Saalfeld. It conſiſts of three prefecturates, in which are ſeven boroughs, two market-towns, and two hundred and twenty-two villages; but the places in this circle are too inconſiderable to deſerve notice.

The dutchy of Merſeburg is environed by the circles of Leipſic, Thuringia, the county of Mansfeld, and the dutchy of Magdeburg.

The country is fertile, and produces a conſiderable quantity of corn, millet, and flax. It was formerly a biſhopric ſubject to Magdeburg; but was ſecularized by the treaty of Paſſaw in favour of the houſe of Saxony. One of the dukes, who was adminiſtrator of it, having introduced Lutheraniſm here about the year 1562, it has been ſince granted as a portion to one of the younger ſons, to whom it gives the title of duke, who, with the revenues of other diſtricts added to this noble biſhopric, is enabled to keep a very genteel court.

The chapter conſiſts of Lutheran proteſtants of antient genuine nobility, theſe are ſixteen canons major, among whom are ſix prelates and four minor canons.

The dutchy has its own regency, together with a peculiar chamber, college, and conſiſtory.

It is divided into five prefecturates, in which are one borough, ſeven towns, and two hundred and twelve villages.

The principal place of this dutchy is Merſburg, where the duke reſides. It ſtands in a fine ſituation, amidſt meadows and gardens, on the banks of the Sala, or Saal, ten miles to the ſouth-eaſt of Halle, and ſeventeen to the north-weſt of Leipſic. It is thought to derive its name from Mars, who was worſhipped here by the pagan Saxons: within the liberties of the chapter ſtands the epiſcopal palace, together with the cathedral, a Gothic ſtructure, in which is to be ſeen the magnificent tomb of the emperor Rodolphus of Swabia, who died after loſing his hand in a battle fought with Henry IV. his competitor, and the burying-vault of the duke of Saxe-Merſeburg. Near the cathedral is a library of very antient manuſcripts. The town is well built, though not in the modern taſte, and its walls and ſeven towers are of ſtone. Among the other buildings are the palace, an academy, the chancery, the chapter-houſe, the abodes of the canons, and the pariſh-church. It has two ſuburbs, in each of which is a church, and in one of them is an orphan-houſe, and a water-engine, by means of which water is conveyed from the Saale into the palace, the town, and ſuburbs.

The laſt diſtrict we ſhall mention in the electorate of Saxony is the ſecularized biſhopric of Naumburg, which lies partly on the Saale and partly on the Elſter. The former part is entirely ſurrounded by the circle of Thuringia, and the latter by Thuringia, the circle of Leipſic, and the principality of Altenburg.

The proteſtant chapter of Naumburg conſiſts of twelve capitulars, ſix major prebends, and four minor; and the collegiate foundation of Zeits, which is alſo proteſtant, has ſeven canons. This biſhopric has its own regency, together with a peculiar college and conſiſtory; the latter of which is filled up by the counſellors of the regency, in whom is likewiſe veſted the choice of the ſuperintendency of the foundation.

This biſhopric contains three prefecturates, in which are five towns, and about a hundred and forty villages: but the only places worthy of notice are,

Naumburg, the capital of the diſtrict. This city lies in a fertile tract near the Saale. It is under the juriſdiction of its council, and contains a ſmall citadel, with three churches and a ſchool. In the liberty is the cathedral, and the cathedral ſchool. Its yearly fair, which begins on the twenty-ninth of July, enjoys conſiderable privileges.

Zeitz is a town ſeated on the Elſter, and contains a citadel, which, from its founder duke Moritz, or Maurice, is named Moritzburg. It contains four churches, with a ſchool, and is the ſeat of the regency and conſiſtory. In this town is likewiſe a manufacture of cloth.

We here conclude our account of the electorate of Saxony, which compoſes only one of the twenty-two ſtates into which Upper Saxony is divided, and ſhall now proceed with the reſt.

SECT. VIII.

Of the Mark or Marquiſate of BRANDENBURG.

Its Situation, Produce, Rivers, and Canals. The Religion of the Inhabitants, and their Learning, Arts, and Manufactures.

THE mark of Brandenburg is bounded on the north by Mecklenburg and Pomerania; on the eaſt by Poland; on the ſouth by Sileſia, Luſatia, the electorate of Saxony, the principality of Anhalt, and the dutchy of Magdeburg; and on the weſt by the dutchies of Magdeburg and Lunenburg.

This country is not every where fertile, ſome tracts being very ſandy; notwithſtanding which theſe lands, when properly cultivated, yield rye, ſmall barley, and oats in abundance, and the corn is thinner ſhelled than that which grows in a fatter ſoil. The inhabitants alſo turn their ſandy grounds to advantage by laying it out in vineyards and gardens, or planting it with pine-trees, which thrive well in theſe parts; but ſome of the circles are very fruitful, producing wheat, ſpelt, and large barley in plenty.

This country, under the government of king Frederic William and his ſon Frederic II. has acquired a very different form from that in which it antiently appeared. Agriculture is univerſally improved, large tracts of waſte land have been cultivated, ſuperfluous woods grubbed up, deep and large moraſſes rendered dry and fruitful, and a prodigious number of villages erected. In ſome of the circles millet, buck-wheat, and flax are cultivated; in others great quantities of tobacco, and in others again herbs uſed for dying. The woods furniſh the inhabitants not only with fuel fit for domeſtic uſes, but with great quantities of timber for houſe and ſhip-building, a great deal of which is exported to Hamburg, Holland, France, and other places. The woods are alſo of great advantage for carrying on their glaſs and iron-works; the making of charcoal, tar, and pot-aſhes. Hence great care is taken to preſerve thoſe woods in a good condition, for the benefit of poſterity.

The inhabitants alſo employ themſelves in breeding of cattle, and particularly ſheep, on account of the great advantage they receive from their wool, which enables them to carry on ſome profitable woollen manufactories; and therefore for the improvement of their breed of ſheep, king Frederic II. has cauſed rams to be imported from Spain and England. The culture of ſilk is likewiſe carried on with good ſucceſs, and is continually increaſing; for notwithſtanding the climate is in winter much colder than ours, ſilk-worms thrive, and produce a great deal of ſilk.

The principal minerals in the Mark are a fine porcelain earth, and all manner of colour-earths, together with allum, ſalt-petre, amber, and iron ſtone.

Of the rivers in this country are the Elbe, and the Oder, which may be eſteemed the capital rivers of Germany. Beſides theſe there are leſſer ſtreams, and many uſeful canals for the advantage of navigation. One of theſe canals, named Plauen, ſhortens the water-paſſage between Berlin and Magdeburgh about one half; it is eight thouſand ſix hundred fifty-five perches in length, and at the bottom is twenty-two, at the ſurface of the water twenty-ſix, and in ſome places between forty and fifty feet broad, with bridges laid over it, at nine different places. There are alſo ſeveral inland lakes, ſome of which, in the middle Mark, have a communication by means of canals and ſluices. The Elbe and the Oder abound leſs in fiſh than the Havel, the Spree, and ſeveral ſmaller ſtreams.

The greateſt part of the inhabitants are of the Lutheran church; the preachers belonging to which are ranged under ſixty-nine ſpiritual inſpections and their head, partly ſtiled inſpectors, and partly alſo provoſts. The royal and electoral houſe alſo now profeſs themſelves of this church. The refugee Bohemians who are ſettled here are Roman catholics, but the French refugees are Calviniſts; however, every inhabitant enjoys an unreſtrained liberty of conſcience.

The ſciences are in high eſteem, and greatly cultivated: for their improvement there are Latin ſchools, ſeveral ſeminaries, the univerſity of Francfort on the Oder, and the academy of ſciences at Berlin. The ſovereign himſelf is the patron of learned and ingenious men; and he himſelf is a philoſopher and a poet.

Numerous manufactures are carried on here, the greateſt part of which were introduced by the French refugees. The inhabitants make cloths, and ſeveral ſorts of woollen ſtuffs, as camblets, calimancoes, flannels, ſilk ſtuffs, velvets and tapeſtries, gold and ſilver lace, and leather. They prepare all manner of purified earths for colours, allum, ſalt-petre, gun-powder; and ſeveral ſorts of wares are made of wrought and caſt iron, ſteel, and braſs. They likewiſe make large and excellent mirrors, and a very fine ſort of porcelain. At Berlin are alſo excellent painters, ſtatuaries, and engravers. Admirable things are alſo performed in the jewelling, goldſmiths, and enamelling way; fine mathematical inſtruments are alſo made; and the Berlin coaches are every where famous. By means of theſe arts and manufactures, a ſaving of large ſums is made, and the money kept in the country; while the goods exported bring in return a prodigious quantity of gold and ſilver.

SECT. IX.

The Royal and Electoral Titles, and Arms; the various Offices by which the Government is adminiſtred; the Revenues, and Power of the Elector; and the Number of his Forces.

THE royal and electoral titles run thus: viz. Frederic king of Pruſſia, margrave of Brandenburg, of the holy Roman empire arch-chamberlain and elector, ſovereign and ſupreme duke of Sileſia, ſovereign prince of Orange, Neufchatel and Valengin; of the county of Glatz, Guelders, Magdeburg, Cleve, Juliers, the Berg, Stettin, Pomerania, the Caſſubi and Wends, Mecklenburg and Croſſen, duke; burgrave of Nurenberg, prince of Halberſtadt, Minden, Camin, Wenden, Schwerin, Ratzeburg, Eaſt-Frieſeland and Mors; count of Hohenzollern, Rappin, the Mark, Ravenſberg, Hohenſtein, Tecklenburg, Lingen, Buren, and Leerdam; lord of Ravenſtein, the countries of Roſtock, Stargard, Lauenburg, Butow, Arlay, and Breda, &c.

The arms on account of Pruſſia are a crowned eagle ſable, with trefoil-ſtalks or, on the wings, and the letters F. R. on the breaſt, in a field argent. On account of the mark of Brandenburg an eagle gules, weaponed or, with trefoil-ſtalks of the ſame on the wings, in a field argent. On account of the arch-chamberlain's office, a ſcepter placed palewiſe in a field azure. On account of the dutchy of Geneva, a cheſs-table divided into five fields or, and four azure. On account of Orange, a belt or, with a blue hunting-horn. On account of Neufchatel, a pale gules beſet with three chevrons argent, in a field or. On account of Magdeburg, a ſhield divided gules and argent. On account of Cleve, eight ſceptres or, in a field purple; or according to others, united in a ſmall ſhield argent, in which is ſeen a round ring. On account of Juliers, a lion ſable in a field or. On account of the Berg, a lion gules crowned azure, in a field argent. On account of Stettin, a griffin gules, crowned or, and weaponed in a field azure. On account of Pomerania, a griffin gules, weaponed or, in a field argent. On account of Caſſuben, a griffin ſable, turned to the ſiniſter ſide and weaponed or, in a field of the ſame. On account of Wenden, a griffin tranſverſely marked gules and verte, in a field argent. On account of Mecklenburg, a buffalo's head ſable, having horns argent and crowned gules, with a ring argent paſſed through the noſe. On account of Croſſen, in a field or, an eagle ſable, with wings, tail and weapons diſplayed, and having on his breaſt a creſcent argent, over which is ſeen a ſmall croſs of the ſame. On account of Jagerndorf, an eagle ſable with a hunting-horn argent, placed on the breaſt, in a field of the ſame. On account of the burgravate of Nurenberg, a lion ſable, with open jaws prepared for battle, a tongue exerted gules, weaponed and crowned, in a field or. On account

account of Halberſtadt, a ſhield divided argent and gules. On account of Minden, two keys argent, placed in form of a St. Andrew's croſs, in a field gules. On account of Camin, an anchor croſs argent, in a field gules. On account of Schwerin, a ſhield divided, in whoſe upper part is a griffin or, in a field azure, the under part verte, with an incloſure argent. On account of Ratzeburg, a croſs waving and argent, in a field gules. On account of Eaſt Frieſland, a crowned harpy or, with wings diſplayed, in a field ſable, and four ſtars or, in the four corners of the field. On account of Mors, a feſſe ſable, in a field or. On account of Hohenzollern, a ſhield quarterly argent and ſable. On account of Ruppin, an eagle argent, in a field gules. On account of the Mark, a feſſe chequered gules and argent, in a field or. On account of Ravenſberg, three chevrons gules and argent, placed over each other. For Hohenſtein, a ſhield chequered gules and argent. For Tecklenburg, three hearts gules, in a field of the ſame. On account of Lingen, an anchor or, in a field azure. On account of Schwerin, an arm ornamented argent, projecting out of a cloud, and holding in its hand a ring, in a field gules. For Clettenberg, a hart ſable, in a field argent. For Regenſtein, a hart's attire gules, in a field argent. For Buren, a feſſe argent pinnacled alternately on both ſides, in a field gules. On account of Leerdam, two feſſes gules, alternately pinnacled on each ſide, in a field argent. On account of the marquiſate of Ter Veer, a feſſe argent in a field ſable. For Roſtock, a buffalo's head gules and crowned, a tongue exerted gules, and horns argent, in a field or. On account of Stargard, a ſhield divided gules and or; and on account of Breda, three ſmall St. Andrew's croſſes argent.

With reſpect to the orders of knighthood, we have already given an account of them in treating of Pruſſia.

With reſpect to the ſeveral offices by which the government is adminiſtered, they conſiſt of the following, which are kept at Berlin.

I. The privy ſtate-council, which aſſembles once a week. In this council all the privy miniſters of ſtate and war, as well as thoſe who are in the provinces, have a ſeat and voice when they come to Berlin. In it are propoſed matters of grace, important juſticiary affairs are decided, and the vacant inveſtitures conferred, thoſe of the Sileſian princes excepted, who are inveſted by the king himſelf from the throne.

II. The cabinet miniſtry, which take care of foreign ſtate affairs, and conſiſt of the privy miniſters of ſtate, war, and the cabinet, who are divided into two departments, of which one attends only to German ſtate-affairs, or the concerns of the empire.

III. The general ſupreme directory of the finances, war, and domains, throughout the whole of the royal and electoral countries; under which are all the war and domain chambers. The king himſelf is preſident, and the heads of the ſix departments into which it is divided have certain privy finance counſellors under them; they are miniſters of ſtate and war, and act as vice-preſidents, and directing miniſters at the general ſupreme directory of the finances, war, and domains. Under four of theſe departments are divided the ſeveral parts of the king of Pruſſia's German dominions; the fifth takes cognizance of affairs relating to commerce, arts, and manufactures; and the ſixth of the magazines, proviſions, marching, quartering, ſalt-petre, and other affairs relating to the ſervice.

IV. The ſpiritual department, which takes care of the church, the univerſity, ſchools, and affairs relating to the poor, and has at its head a miniſter of ſtate and war.

V. The general poſt-office, which provides every thing relating to the poſt throughout the whole of the royal and electoral countries, Sileſia excepted.

VI. The ſupreme court, or tribunal of appeals, the higheſt juſticiary college in all the royal and electoral countries, and to which appeals lie from the ſeveral regencies or governments.

VII. The chamber court, which decides all proceſſes throughout the electoral Mark, and conſiſts of two ſenates, the chief preſident of which, and likewiſe of the tribunal, is the great chancellor for the time being.

VIII. The war and domain chamber of the electoral Mark, which has the management of the farming out of the royal prefecturates and mills, the care of the finances and domains, and in general of every thing that relates to the royal revenues ariſing from the electoral Mark of Brandenburg.

IX. The ſupreme war and domain chamber of accompts, which inſpects the accompts of the ſeveral caſh officers in the royal and electoral countries.

X. The ſupreme Lutheran conſiſtory, which is employed in filling up the places of preachers and ſchoolmaſters, and in examining candidates. This conſiſtory is likewiſe conſulted on the filling up of the theological chairs at the royal univerſities.

XI. The directory of the Calviniſt church, which takes cognizance of the concerns of the ſeveral Calviniſt churches in the royal countries.

XII. The war conſiſtory.

XIII. The pupil college of the electoral Mark, which being appointed for the tutelage of minors, audits their accounts, and provides for the ſecure lodgment of their capitals.

XIV. The ſupreme mine-office.

XV. The general proviſion-office.

XVI. The general ſalt-cheſt and ſalt-factory.

XVII. The ſupreme medicinal college.

The French have an upper and under judicatory of their own, as alſo their own reviſion, tribunal, ſupreme conſiſtory, and ſupreme directory, which is ſtiled the *Conſeil François*.

The ſources of the royal revenues ariſing from the marquiſate of Brandenburg are the royal domain, with the foreſts, poſts, mines, mints, duties on ſalt, ſtamped paper and cards, exciſe, impoſts upon beer, and grinding, the buſhel-tax, tolls, protection-money paid by the Jews, the contribution or tax on hides, land, and houſes, &c. Theſe ſeveral revenues are collected into different cheſts, and the ſum total of the yearly revenues ariſing from the mark alone are eſtimated at about two millions and a half of crowns.

The power of the royal Pruſſian and electoral houſe of Brandenburg has riſen under king Frederic II. to a height that has attracted the attention and aſtoniſhment of all Europe. This power is not ſo much founded on its extent of territory, which is much leſs than that belonging to ſome other European ſtates, but on its excellent internal conſtitution, as well as on the great inſight of its governor into the connection of the different parts of the body politic, and likewiſe on his own wiſe and indefatigable attention to the government of his people.

All the countries and ſtates of this royal and electoral houſe do not exceed three thouſand ſquare German miles, and contain in them nearly five hundred towns. From the year 1750 to 1756 there were, one year with another, one hundred and ſixty-ſix thouſand five hundred and ſixty-ſeven perſons baptized, and about a hundred and twenty-five thouſand three hundred and forty-eight deaths; whence, in order to find out the number of inhabitants, we need only to multiply the laſt of theſe ſums by thirty-eight, which brings the number to four million ſeven hundred and ſixty-three thouſand two hundred and twenty-four. The whole of the royal revenues are rated at near twenty millions of dollars. The contributions of the ſubjects are invariably fixed, and at no time, not even in the moſt difficult conjunctures of war, are afterwards raiſed or renewed.

According to a compleat liſt of the royal Pruſſian army in 1753, it conſiſted at that time of one hundred and forty-ſix thouſand two hundred and fifty-ſeven men, which in time of peace requires the ſum of ten million nine hundred and thirty-two thouſand nine hundred and ſixty dollars for their yearly maintenance, excluſive of the charges of mounting and remounting, levying and quartering, which may ariſe to about one-fourth more: ſo that the ſum total of the money required for their maintenance one year amounts to nearly fourteen millions of dollars.

The diſcipline of theſe troops, as well as their expertneſs at their exerciſe, is not to be equalled. For their ſubſiſtence the ſeveral royal and electoral countries are divided

divided into cantons or ſmaller circles, out of which each regiment, and even each company, has a ſeparate one to itſelf, out of which its recruits are to be drawn; for which reaſon the ſeveral regiments are always quartered in or near thoſe cantons out of which they draw their recruits. In times of peace theſe troops have every year nine or ten months furlow granted them, in order to enable them to carry on their buſineſs as burghers or peaſants.

The above-mentioned army has conſiſted of ten thouſand three hundred and forty cuiraſſiers, eleven thouſand nine hundred and thirty-eight dragoons, ten thouſand one hundred and ſixteen huſſars, and one hundred and thirteen thouſand eight hundred and fifty-ſix foot; among which were four thouſand four hundred and twenty-three ſuperior officers, and ten thouſand and forty inferior ones. A regiment of cuiraſſiers conſiſts of five ſquadrons, a regiment of dragoons of ten, and a regiment of huſſars of the like number. A ſquadron of the two firſt contains one hundred and ſixty-ſix men, and a ſquadron of the laſt one hundred and fourteen complete. A regiment of foot uſually conſiſts of two battalions, each of which is compoſed of ſix companies, that is one of grenadiers, and five of muſketeers. However, two of the Pruſſian regiments conſiſt of three battalions; theſe are the regiment of guards and that of Anhalt Deſſau. A field battalion conſiſts of eight hundred and ſixty-four men, and a garriſon battalion of ſeven hundred and twenty.

The Pruſſian ſoldiers are in general remarkable for the ſhortneſs of their coats, which ſeems at firſt view to proceed from a ridiculous frugality, yet is calculated for very wiſe ends. Their cloaths ſit extremely cloſe to their bodies, and are ſtrengthened at the elbows with leather in the form of a heart, which prevents the neceſſity of patching an old garment. A Pruſſian ſoldier is never ſeen in rags; but all of them, with reſpect to neatneſs and the cleanlineſs of their perſons, appear as gentlemen. The king's guards, and ſome other regiments, have new cloaths every year, but the reſt of the army in general have new regimentals only twice in three years. The laſt king obliged the ſoldiers to wear white ſpatterdaſhes both in winter and ſummer; but his preſent majeſty, obſerving the inconvenience with which it was attended, gave his men black for the winter. In the ſame ſeaſon their breeches are of woollen cloth, but in ſummer they are of white dimity, or linen, which are very light and clean. They all wear their hair queued, which is by this means eaſily kept in order; and they are always powdered when on duty. This not only ſerves to preſerve the natural hair or wig, but gives the ſoldier a reſpect for his own perſon, and the rank in which he conſiders himſelf in ſome meaſure compenſates for the ſmallneſs of his pay.

The Mark of Brandenburg is in general divided into the Electoral and New Marks. The Electoral Mark compriſes in it the Old Mark, the Prignitz, the Middle Mark, and the Ucker Mark. Theſe marks, or provinces, are again divided into circles, and over each is placed a land council. We ſhall begin with the Middle Mark, on account of its lying next the countries laſt deſcribed, and its containing the capital city, the ſeat of government.

SECT. X.

Of the Middle Mark of Brandenburg; with a particular Deſcription of the Cities of Berlin, Brandenburg, and Potſdam; the Palace of Sans Souci, and other Places worthy of Notice.

THE Middle Mark is bounded by the Prignitz, the dutchy of Magdeburg, the Saxon Electoral circle, Lower Luſatia, the New Mark, the Ucker Mark, and the dutchy of Mecklenburg. This country has been greatly improved by the laſt and preſent king of Pruſſia, who have cauſed many marſhy and unſerviceable tracts to be drained and rendered fertile.

In ſeveral parts of this Mark the inhabitants apply themſelves to the cultivation of vines; in others millet and buck-wheat are produced in great quantities; woad, clary, and ſaw-wort are here cultivated, and in many places it ſucceeds well in the culture of ſilk. In ſome parts are conſiderable heaths and woods. This diſtrict has the advantage of having ſeveral fine canals dug for the benefit of commerce.

The Middle Mark is divided into eight circles, the principal places in which are,

Berlin, the capital of all the king of Pruſſia's dominions, and one of the largeſt, fineſt, and moſt populous cities in all Germany, conſiſting properly of five towns united under one town-council. In Berlin are ſeveral fine palaces, with other magnificent and ſuperb buildings. The ſtreets are for the moſt part broad, regular, ſtraight, and ſome of them very long and elegant. There are alſo ſeveral large and beautiful ſquares, together with pleaſant walks. There are twenty-five churches, fourteen of which are Lutheran, eleven Calviniſt, and one Roman catholic; an academy of ſciences, another of arts and painting, a college of anatomy and ſurgery, five ſeminaries, and two public libraries. In 1755 it was computed to contain five thouſand eight hundred and twenty-ſix houſes, and one hundred and twenty-ſix thouſand ſix hundred and ſixty-one perſons, among which were ſix thouſand five hundred and forty-one French, one thouſand two hundred and fifty-three Bohemians, two thouſand five hundred and ninety-five Jews, and twenty-ſix thouſand three hundred and twenty-five ſoldiers who had wives and children.

This city is ſeated on the Spree, which paſſes through it in two principal branches, and is in the fifty-ſecond degree twenty-eight minutes north latitude, and the thirteenth degree forty-four minutes eaſt longitude, a hundred and fifty miles to the north-weſt of Prague, and is encompaſſed with agreeable gardens and vineyards. The entrance into Berlin is airy and elegant. In going towards the palace, on the new bridge, which is of ſtone, over the Spree, is an equeſtrian ſtatue of Frederic William the Great, which is eſteemed a piece of exquiſite workmanſhip, and was erected by Frederic I. king of Pruſſia. Both the man and horſe are of one entire piece caſt at the ſame time, and coſt forty thouſand crowns. The elector is repreſented in a Roman habit, ſomewhat above the common ſize, on a pedeſtal of white marble, adorned with baſſo relievo, repreſenting four ſlaves bound in chains to the corners of the baſe.

The king's palace is a magnificent ſtructure of free-ſtone, begun by Frederic I. in 1699, and conſiſts of four ſtories, with fine ceilings, large apartments, and ſuperb furniture, in particular the quantity of ſilver every where ſeen is amazing, for the tables, ſtands, luſtres, chandeliers, looking-glaſs frames, couches, &c. are ſaid to be all of that metal. Mr. Hanway obſerves, that the apartments in the palace are adorned with ſilver in every ſhape; but theſe ornaments are ſo maſſy, that the faſhion does not exceed ſeven per cent. ſo that four millions of dollars might with great eaſe be realized, if the exigencies of the ſtate required it. Here are the pictures of Charles V. and his empreſs, the frames of which are of ſilver, each weighing ſix centners, or ſix hundred and ſixty pounds; and there is a ſuperb crown luſtre of ſeventeen centners. There are alſo pieces of three, four, and five centners, and a grand muſic-gallery finely ornamented, all of ſilver; beſides, one end of a large apartment, for about twenty feet high and as many broad, is richly furniſhed with gilt plate: yet all this is merely for ſhew, the court having other ſervices of plate for uſe. This account of the treaſures in this palace was written juſt before the late war, and it is not improbable that might induce his Pruſſian majeſty to melt down ſome of it into ſpecie.

The king's particular apartments are elegant; but have nothing extraordinary, the prevailing taſte is white ſtucco and gilding. Several of the private apartments have tables, with pens, ink, and looſe papers, which indicate the diſpatch of buſineſs, more than the regularity and elegance one naturally expects to find in a royal palace. The hall has ſeveral good paintings, and the grand ſaloon is adorned with four pieces of tapeſtry, repreſenting our Saviour driving out the money-changers, his waſhing the diſciples feet, the miraculous draught of fiſhes, and

and his laſt ſupper. The throne in the audience-chamber is of velvet, embroidered with gold in a grand taſte; but not loaded with ornaments. There is nothing extraordinary in the old quarter of the palace, except a bed of crimſon velvet, which has above two hundred cyphers with electoral crowns, all ſet with pearls, and the chairs in this room are in the ſame taſte. It is uſual for perſons of the royal blood to lie in this bed on the firſt night of their marriage.

The library is far from having a beautiful appearance; but all gentlemen have the liberty of reading there, from ten in the morning till two in the afternoon.

The king's ſtables are a ſpacious building, divided into two courts, and nine pavilions, at an equal diſtance from each other. The architecture on the outſide is Gothic; but the inſide is more magnificent, and very lofty and lightſome. The mangers are of ſtone, and the pillars of the ſtands of iron, adorned with his majeſty's cypher gilt. Over the mangers are ſeveral large pictures of the fineſt horſes bred in the king's ſtuds. The back ſide of theſe ſtables projects towards the river, a ſlope being formed inſtead of a ſtair-caſe, by which they deſcend. Here are noble apartments for the maſter of the horſe and the inferior officers, with large rooms over the ſtables, in which are depoſited a great deal of rich furniture and harneſs; among which are the accoutrements of the horſe on which Frederic I. rode at his public entry; all the ornaments of the bridles, the breaſt-leather, and crupper, as well as the bits and ſtirrups, being of gold, adorned with brilliants. Theſe ſtables are ſaid to have room for four hundred horſes.

The arſenal is one of the nobleſt ſtructures of the kind in Europe, and conſiſts of four grand buildings, that form a ſpacious ſquare, with four fronts almoſt exactly alike, and a handſome portico at the entrance of each. The lower ſtory is of ruſtic architecture, with arched windows. Over the principal gate, which is in the middle, is the model of the king's grand-father in braſs gilt, encloſed in an oval frame; the four cardinal virtues, of a gigantic ſize, are placed on pedeſtals on each ſide of the portico, and ſeem to look towards the picture, and over it is his majeſty's cypher, ſupported by two men, and above it a large pediment covered with a beautiful baſſo relievo repreſenting Mars, reſting on a trophy, and looking at a couple of ſlaves chained at his feet. The firſt ſtory is of the Corinthian order, and a baluſtrade runs round the top, with noble decorations of trophies and ſtatues.

The inſide of the arſenal is not leſs magnificent, the rooms of the upper ſtory being full of arms ranged in great order; the lower rooms are ſtored with braſs guns, and the walls and pillars that ſupport the roof covered with cuiraſſes and helmets.

Behind the arſenal ſtands the houſe of the general of the ordnance, in which is contained the foundery, where a number of men are continually employed. There are ſeveral other arſenals in this city, where they keep field pieces, iron cannon, and every thing belonging to the train of artillery.

The opera houſe is an elegant modern edifice, the front of which is adorned with a noble portico, ſupported by ſix Corinthian columns, and in the architrave is wrote FREDRICUS REX APOLLINI ET MUSIS; above which is a pediment adorned with baſſo relievo and ſtatues. The ſcenes are ſplendid, and in an elegant taſte. It has three galleries, and is ſaid to contain two thouſand perſons. The columns that ſupport the roof are calculated to throw the whole into a grand ſaloon, and the orcheſtra conſiſts of about fifty muſicians. The opera is entirely ſupported at the king's expence, and rendered in ſome degree ſubſervient to the ends of government. The extreme delight the king takes in muſic, and his great knowledge in that ſcience, have carried this entertainment to a very high degree of perfection. In the upper galleries on each ſide of the ſtage are ſeated ſix trumpeters, who ſalute the queen conſort when ſhe enters the houſe or retires; but the king himſelf, who is ſuperior to the rules of ceremony, will not allow this ſalutation to his own perſon.

In the ſuburbs the houſes are generally of timber; but ſo well plaiſtered, that they ſeem to be of ſtone, and the ſtreets are broad, ſtraight, and lightſome. Here was the reſidence of the queen mother, who was ſiſter to king George I. of England. This palace is named Mon Bijou, or My Jewel; it is a ſmall elegant ſtructure, beautifully furniſhed, and has very fine gardens that lie open to the river.

About five miles from the city of Berlin, is the palace of Charlottenburg, which was founded by the king's grandfather, and his preſent majeſty has finiſhed it according to his own taſte, which is extremely elegant. There is a range of about ten apartments well diſpoſed, adorned with white ſtucco and gilding. The ball-room is worthy of the king who is ſaid to have deſigned it: it has ten windows on each ſide, and beſides the ſtucco and gilding, which are here richer than in the other rooms, it is adorned with buſts, ſtatues and large pier glaſſes. The gardens are laid out with taſte, and the ſtatues well diſpoſed.

We ſhall now give ſome account of Brandenburg, a city from which the whole electorate takes its name; it is ſeated on the Havel, which not only divides the Old and New Town from each other, but ſeparates the fort from them both, and likewiſe environs the New Town with a particular trench, on which a ſluice has been erected. The Old Town contains about four hundred inhabitants, and the New Town about twice that number. They are both under one magiſtracy, and each contains two churches. The fort reſembles a ſuburb, and in it is the cathedral church; the houſes of the greateſt part of the members of the chapter; and a riding ſchool, in which young noblemen are inſtructed. The biſhopric is ſecularized; but the chapter is ſtill kept up, and conſiſts of ſeven perſons, who are the provoſt, the dean, the ſenior, the ſubſenior, and three other canons. In 1755 king Frederic II. conferred upon it a peculiar diſtinction, and conſiſting of a chapter croſs of gold enamelled with violet, terminating in eight points. There is here a ſmall colony of French Calviniſts, with a manufacture of cloth, fuſtian and canvas; and in this town a pretty good trade is carried on by means of the Havel.

Potſdam, which lies four miles to the ſouth-weſt of Berlin, is agreeably ſituated on a branch of the Spree; it is of conſiderable extent, and the buildings neat and regular. The elector Frederic-William made this his ſeat, and in 1662 built the caſtle, which was afterwards enlarged by king Frederic I. and adorned with a fine portal. King Frederic William began to erect ſome coſtly additions to the town, for which purpoſe he cauſed ſeveral moraſſes to be filled up and built upon, with a canal fifty paces wide and two thouſand in length, to be carried on from the Havel, through the center of the town, to a branch of the ſame river. This canal is planted on both ſides with trees, and environed with well-built houſes. King Frederic II. has raiſed the caſtle one ſtory, enlarged it with two wings, and adorned it with magnificent apartments. The old houſes in the neighbourhood of the caſtle are pulled down, and, inſtead of them, new, regular, and grand buildings have been raiſed for the owners at the king's expence. The apartments are remarkable for their elegance, particularly his majeſty's writing-chamber and ſtudy: the laſt is partitioned off by baluſtrades of ſilver. The frames of the looking-glaſſes and the embelliſhments of the tables are of the ſame metal. The officers dine every day in a large apartment at the king's expence. His majeſty here avoids the empty ceremonies of a court. The allowance of his table is but thirty crowns a day, fiſh and wine excepted, in which he is at no great expence. The king entertains at his table twelve perſons: thoſe of his miniſters moſt in favour are firſt invited, with thoſe of foreign princes, who happen to be at Potſdam, and his officers, even to an enſign, fill up the vacant places. The throne in the audience-chamber is richly embroidered with the arms of the houſe of Brandenburg, ſupported by two Herculeſes. In one of the apartments are two curious figures in copper of a Chineſe man ſitting, and a woman of the ſame country holding an umbrella over his head. Theſe figures, which are richly gilt, ſtand in an oval niche, lined with marble, and form a very convenient ſtove.

Before the caſtle is a large ſquare adorned with Roman columns, in which the ſoldiers that lie here in garriſon are daily exerciſed. The garden adjoining to the caſtle is beautifully adorned with water-works, gilding, and ſtatues, which are large and elegant, particularly a Neptune and Amphitrite ſeated in a ſea-car, in a large baſon, oppoſite the eaſt front of the palace. The ſtables are contiguous, and furniſhed with good Engliſh hunters.

In the market-place is a pyramidal obeliſk of four ſides, compoſed of variegated Sileſian marble, ſeventy feet high, fixed on a pedeſtal of white Italian marble, at each corner of which is a ſmall ſtatue of the ſame; and on the center of each ſide ſtands a marble buſt of the kings, from Frederic I. to Frederic II.

The town church, which is at a ſmall diſtance from the caſtle, is a fine ſtructure. The garriſon church is large, and has a marble pulpit, under which is the monument of king Frederic William: it has a lofty and beautiful tower, in which is placed a fine ſet of chimes. The French church is a neat building, adorned with a cupola, and the church of the Holy Ghoſt has alſo a lofty tower. The council-houſe is a new building that has an elegant cupola. In a large orphan-houſe, founded in 1724, are maintained, cloathed, and educated above two thouſand ſoldiers children of both ſexes; and belonging to it is one Lutheran and one Calviniſt preacher. In this town is a foundery for arms, and a velvet and ſilk manufactory.

Near the town are a great number of vineyards, for the planting of which the elector Frederic William cauſed layers to be brought out of the beſt wine countries. In the park, which is adorned with viſtas in the form of a ſtar, ſtands a royal hunting-houſe, called the Star.

At a ſmall diſtance from Potſdam is Sans Souci, or Without Care, a royal palace devoted to retirement. King Frederic II. ſoon after his acceſſion to the throne, cauſed this palace to be erected on a deſolate eminence, in a fine and grand taſte, both within and without. This eminence is cut into ſix terraſſes, to each of which is an aſcent of twelve ſteps, and againſt the walls upon each terraſs are planted the beſt vine ſtocks, which are kept under glaſs-caſes. On the upper part of this hill, which affords a view of the town, and its adjacent territories, ſtands the palace, which is but ſmall, and only one ſtory high; yet, on account of its regularity, elegance, and ornaments of ſculpture and painting, is much admired: among theſe is to be ſeen the ſtatues, from the cabinet of antiques, formerly in the poſſeſſion of cardinal Polignac. In the center of the palace is a round hall lined with marble, adorned with magnificent columns and excellent paintings; but is particularly admired for the beauty of its floor, the marble of which is diſpoſed in the form of flowers, after the Florentine manner, and ſtrikes the eye very agreeably. On its top is a cupola, which ſupplies it with ſufficient light. One of the apartments in this palace is wainſcotted with cedar, ornamented with foliage of gold; and in this apartment is kept a ſmall library. Behind the palace is a covered ſemi-circular paſſage, adorned on each ſide with columns. The palace is encompaſſed on three ſides with gardens, which have ſeveral fine ſtatues, particularly of a Venus drawing a net, and Diana with game; the pedeſtals of which are adorned with relievo. Theſe gardens, which do not extend above half an Engliſh mile in length, are terminated on the eaſt end by an Egyptian pyramid embelliſhed with hieroglyphics. They have, however, no gravel, and their ſandy walks, in our author's opinion, rob them of half the beauty they might otherwiſe have.

Francfort on the Oder is finely ſituated on that river, in the fifty-ſecond degree twenty minutes north latitude, and in the fourteenth degree fifty-three minutes eaſt longitude from London. The Oder, over which there is a large bridge of timber, divides it into two parts. The ſtreets are wide, the houſes well built, and the market-place ſpacious. There is here a cathedral and two churches, one of which belongs to the Calviniſts; and an univerſity, the profeſſors in which are partly Calviniſts and partly Lutherans. There is here alſo an academy for martial exerciſes, a Lutheran free-ſchool, and another for the Calviniſts called Frederic's ſchool. This city was formerly one of the Hanſe-towns, and had a very conſiderable trade, which is at preſent much decayed. The inhabitants deal chiefly in linen cloths and fells, which they ſend to diſtant parts of Germany by the Oder, and the canal between that river and the Elbe. However, it has annually three great fairs. This city has ſuffered various revolutions: it was put under the ban of the empire by the emperor Charles IV. and, to pacify him, the inhabitants were forced to pay him twelve thouſand marks of ſilver. In 1631 the Swedes took it by ſtorm, when they had the cruelty to put all the inhabitants to the ſword, to revenge the maſſacre of two thouſand Swedes, whom count Tilly, the emperor's general, had inhumanly put to death in the city of Brandenburg; but the place was reſtored to the elector by the peace of Weſtphalia.

SECT. XI.

Of the New Mark, the Ucker Mark, the Old Mark, and the Prignitz; with the moſt remarkable Places in each.

WE ſhall now proceed to the New Mark, which lies to the eaſt of the country laſt deſcribed, and is a long tract of land, which to the weſt is ſeparated from the Middle and Ucker Mark by the river Oder; to the north it terminates on Pomerania; and to the eaſtward on Pomerania, Poland, Sileſia, and Lower Luſatia; being in its greateſt length about a hundred and ſixty-nine miles, and in its greateſt breadth forty-ſeven.

The ſoil is for the moſt part ſandy; but the circles of Konigſberg, Soldin, Frideberg, and Arnſwalde have good corn-lands. Near the rivers are luxuriant paſtures; but the graſs in many of them is coarſe and ruſhy. It abounds in wood, but has a ſufficiency of fruit, garden-plants, game, and fiſh. Some of the circles produce wine, and likewiſe yield great quantities of iron.

The New Mark contains thirty-eight towns, and, as the burials amount one year with another to about five thouſand ſeven hundred, the number of the inhabitants may be eſtimated at two hundred and ſixteen thouſand. The Lutheran churches are divided into twelve inſpections, and thoſe of the Calviniſts conſiſt of five congregations. The New Mark has a regency of its own, which conſiſts of a preſident, and four counſellors, two of whom are nobles, two commoners, one prothonotary, and four clerks. It has alſo its own particular conſiſtory and criminal court of juſtice; as likewiſe a board of war, and a chamber of domains. Reviſals and appeals indeed lie from it to the exchequer at Berlin; but it has been agreed, that it ſhould determine in caſes relating to the New Mark only by way of commiſſion, and not as a ſuperior court.

The New Mark conſiſts of the town of Kuſtrin, of ſeven original circles, and of four incorporated circles.

Kuſtrin, the capital of the New Mark, is ſituated in the fifty-ſecond degree thirty-five minutes latitude, fifteen miles to the eaſt of Berlin. Its proper name is Koztryn, that is a Ruſh Baſket, which is the name of a large lake that abounds with ruſhes, between this city and Sonnenburg, and from which it received this denomination. It is ſeated on the river Oder, which, a little above this city, receives it into the Warte. The adjacent country is marſhy, on which account the approach to it on the ſide of the Middle Mark is by means of a cauſeway, that extends above three miles in length, and has no leſs than thirty-ſix large and ſmall bridges: the approach alſo to one of the ſuburbs is over a cauſeway of ſeven bridges. Its ſituation therefore is very ſtrong, and it is defended by good fortifications. Though the city is ſmall, its ſuburbs are very extenſive. Before the year 1758, there were in the town and fort about two hundred houſes, an old manſion houſe, and a church, in which the Calviniſts uſed to perform divine ſervice; together with a Lutheran pariſh church, the garriſon church, three arſenals, one ſalt houſe, and three magazines. There were alſo a church and two hoſpitals in the ſuburbs; but in the above year, the Ruſſians ſetting the town on fire by

means of bombs and red-hot bullets, it was reduced to a heap of ruins. The fortifications, however, held out againſt all their attempts, and on the approach of the king of Pruſſia, the Ruſſians precipitately raiſed the ſiege.

The other towns in the circles juſt mentioned are inconſiderable, and we ſhall not trouble our readers with deſcribing a number of places, none of which have any thing remarkable.

We ſhall now proceed to the Ucker Mark, which to the north and eaſt is bounded by Pomerania, and the New Mark, being for the moſt part ſeparated from the former by the Welſe and the Rando, and from the latter by the river Oder; to the ſouth and weſt it is bounded by the Middle Mark, and the dutchy of Mecklenburg. Its greateſt extent is about ſixty-one miles in length, and fifty-two in breadth. This province was anciently called Uckerland, or ſimply the Ucker, which name is doubtleſs received from the lake and river Ucker. This lake, which is the largeſt in all the electoral Mark, extends about nine miles in length, and the river of the ſame name iſſues from it at Prenzlo.

The greateſt part of this province is very fertile; for the inhabitants have ſo improved the ſoil, as to be able almoſt every year to export ſeveral thouſand laſts of all kinds of grain, with which it particularly ſupplies Berlin. The parts adjoining to the rivers have good meadow grounds; but in other places the graziery is ſo inconſiderable, that a great number of horſes and black cattle are bought up by the inhabitants in Pomerania and Poland. The country, however, abounds in ſheep, which turn to good account. It alſo produces fruit, hops, and honey, with plenty of tobacco; but in ſome places the inhabitants are in great want of fuel, with which they are partly ſupplied from the neighbouring diſtricts; but other parts abound in fine woods of oak, beach, and pine.

The principal court of judicature in the Ucker Mark, to which appeals lie from the towns and courts of the nobility, is held at Prenzlo. This court conſiſts of a preſident and four aſſeſſors, two of whom are noblemen, and two commoners. The three firſt are conſtantly choſen out of the ancient families of the Ucker Mark, and of the two latter, one is always firſt burgomaſter of Prenzlo.

The Ucker Mark is divided into two circles, in which are nineteen cities, beſides caſtles and market-towns, and the villages are computed at three hundred ſeventy-five.

The principal place in this Mark is Prenzlo, the capital of the country, which is ſeated in a very fruitful plain, on the lake and river Ucker, and is large, well built, with ſtraight broad ſtreets, and is divided into the Old and New Town. The revenues ariſing to the corporation from the city mills, its ſeveral farms, and large woods, are conſiderable. There is a numerous French colony ſettled here, whoſe judge is inveſted with power over all the French colonies in the Ucker Mark. This city formerly contained three convents, two of which have been given to noblemen, and the third converted into an alms-houſe. It has at preſent ſix churches, that is, three parochial churches, in the Old City, one in the New City, a church of German Calviniſts, and one of French proteſtants. Here is alſo a good Latin ſchool, and the city carries on a very conſiderable trade in cattle, corn, and tobacco; for the laſt of which it is particularly famous, as it is alſo for its manufacture of cloth.

The next town we ſhall mention is Templin, which is ſituated on the lake Dolgen, and contains an eccleſiaſtical inſpection. In 1735, it was totally conſumed by fire, but has been re-built to very great advantage: its ſtreets being now broad and ſtraight, and its houſes uniform. It has a ſpacious market-place, which forms a regular ſquare, and it is one of the moſt beautiful towns in all the Mark. It carries on a large trade in timber, which is greatly promoted by means of a canal newly made, to form a communication with ſeveral bodies of water, particularly with the lake of Fahr, which is about ſeven Engliſh miles in length.

The Old Mark is bounded towards the eaſt by the Elbe, which ſeparates it from Prignitz, and the dutchy of Magdeburg; on the ſouth, and part of the weſt, by the latter; and on the other part by the dutchy of Lunenburg, extending nine German miles from eaſt to weſt, and eleven from north to ſouth.

This country has in many parts a fat clay ſoil; but in ſome places is ſandy or ſtony; yet in general it may be ſtiled a fertile country; indeed conſiderable moraſſes and waſte grounds have been rendered fruitful, by forming of ditches and canals, by which means their paſturage and breed of cattle have been conſiderably improved. This Mark is computed to have at preſent fourteen ſmall towns, five hundred ſixty-four villages, and ten manors.

The ſupreme tribunal of the Old Mark is ſeated at Stendal, and the provincial captain is preſident of that court. The principal towns in this diſtrict are,

Standal, the capital of this mark, which is ſeated on the Uchte, in a plain ſurrounded on all ſides by mountains. It is divided into four pariſhes, which have four principal churches, among which is the cathedral of St. Nicholas. The town-ſchool is in a building that was once a Franciſcan monaſtery. The cloiſter of St. Catharine was formerly ſupplied with Benedictine nuns, and that of St. Anne with nuns of the order of St. Francis. After the reformation theſe cloiſters were preſerved, but came over to the Proteſtant religion, and over each of them was ſet a Domina. This place was formerly one of the Hanſe towns, and carried on a great manufacture of woollen cloth. The French refugees who have ſettled here, have ſince the loſs of that trade, introduced ſeveral manufactures, and have a tribunal of their own.

Saltzwedel, is a town ſeated on the Jeeze, in a low and marſhy ſoil, and conſiſts of the Old and New Town, each of which has its ſeparate limits, gates, churches, ſchools, and magiſtracy. In the Old Town is the church of St. Mary, in which was formerly a provoſtſhip; but it is at preſent the ſuperintendency of the ſpiritual inſpection of Saltzwedel. Two churches, both of which belonged to cloiſters that formerly ſtood here, are in a good condition. The principal ſubſiſtence of the inhabitants conſiſts in the brewing of beer, the making of linen cloth of various ſorts, and the manufactures of ſerge, frieze, and ſtockings, and a briſk trade is carried on here.

The laſt diviſion we have to mention in the marquiſate of Brandenburg is the Prignitz, which terminates on the Elbe and Havel, the dutchy of Mecklenburg and the Middle Mark, and is ten German miles and a half in length, and ſeven and a half in breadth, and contains ſeven circles, in which are eleven towns, and two hundred forty-ſix villages. The principal places in this diſtrict are,

Perlberg, the capital of the province, is ſituated on the Stepenitz, which here divides itſelf into two branches, one of which paſſes by the town; but the other dividing itſelf again runs in two ſtreams through the center of the town. Perlberg contains about three hundred and ſeventy dwelling houſes. At the principal church reſides the inſpector of the ſpiritual inſpection of Perlberg. Near the hoſpital of the Holy Ghoſt is a ſmall church, with a peculiar preacher and catechiſt. The inhabitants draw their principal ſubſiſtence from agriculture and the arts.

The Havelberg is ſeated on the Havel, by which it is ſurrounded, and rendered an iſland, to which there is no other paſſage than by three draw-bridges. A long bridge leads to the cathedral, and the hills ſituated beyond the Havel. Here was an antient biſhopric founded in the year 946, and the laſt of the biſhops was the elector Joachim Frederic, no biſhop being ever elected to ſucceed in his place; but the chapter ſtill continues, and on the members of it king Frederic II. conferred, in the year 1755, a peculiar diſtinction and chapter croſs of gold enamelled with purple, terminating in eight points. On the right ſide of it is ſeen the Pruſſian eagle, and on the four corners the letters F. R; but on the other ſide is a repreſentation of the virgin Mary, the patroneſs of the chapter, with the infant Jeſus. This croſs is worn pendant at a white watered ribbon terminated with purple.

purple. To this foundation belong three manors. A great quantity of brandy is diſtilled in this town, and many ſtockings knit. Here are alſo many fiſhermen, and boats for the Elbe are built at this place.

SECT. XII.

Of the Dutchy of POMERANIA.

Its Situation, Produce, Rivers, and Lakes. The Number of the Inhabitants, their Religion and Government; with the Diviſion of the Country.

POMERANIA is bounded on the eaſt by Poliſh Pruſſia; on the ſouth by Poland, the New Mark and Ucker Mark; on the weſt by the Dutchy of Mecklenburg; and on the north by the Baltic. Its length along that ſea is about two hundred eighty-five miles, and its breadth from thirty-eighth to ſixty-one. It was formerly of a much greater extent, reaching eaſtward as far as the Viſtula, and ſouthward including part of the New and Ucker Mark; while to the weſt it took in a part of the preſent dutchy of Mecklenburg.

The country is level, and of the few hills in it, that of Chollenberg is the principal. The ſoil is, indeed, in ſome parts ſandy, but in moſt places it is pretty cloſe and good; ſo that the inhabitants not only raiſe a ſufficient quantity of wheat, rye, barley, and oats, but export a great deal. They likewiſe cultivate buckwheat, vetches, turnips, peas and beans, to great advantage, and in ſome parts millet, flax, and hemp. It alſo produces a ſufficient quantity of fruit, and foreign eſculent plants would likewiſe thrive here. In ſeveral parts of the country are fine heaths and foreſts, and among the latter, ſeveral are covered with oaks. The wood of theſe foreſts is not only uſed for fuel and the building of houſes and veſſels, but alſo ſerves for making tar and charcoal.

Thoſe parts of the country that are improper for tillage, are made uſe of for grazing, which is here very conſiderable. The geeſe of this country are famous for their largeneſs, and in general the dried Pomeranian geeſe, hams, ſauſages, and ſalmon, are eſteemed the beſt in all Germany.

In Hither Pomerania are ſome mineral and ſalt ſprings. The largeſt river in Pomerania is the Oder, which the Pomeranians call the Ader. This river forms three lakes below Stettin, after which it diſcharges itſelf into the Friſchen Haff.

The other rivers of note are the Reckenitz, which is the boundary of Pomerania towards Mecklenburg. The Peene, which comes from the dutchy of Mecklenburg, and at laſt, after forming two lakes, falls into the Baltic. The Ucker has its ſource in the Ucker Mark, and, being joined by the Rando, purſues its courſe into the Friſchen-haff. The Ihna riſes in the borders of the New Mark, and dividing into two branches, which are again united near Stargard, becomes navigable, and at laſt diſcharges itſelf into the lake of Dam. The Rega, likewiſe riſes in the New Mark, and after becoming navigable, and receiving the Mulſo, enters the Baltic. The Perſante iſſues out of the lake of Pakuvet, becomes navigable at Belgard, and being joined by the Raduye, forms a pretty good harbour: it is remarkable that an iſland in the midſt of this river affords rich ſalt ſprings. The Wipper riſes out of the Gewipp, receives the Grabo, and then becoming navigable, diſcharges itſelf into the Baltic. The Lebe riſes near Lauenburg, and near Lebe forms the lake of that name, which is about three German miles in length, and diſcharges itſelf thro' a narrow outlet into the Baltic.

Beſides the above lakes there are many others, eſpecially in Hither Pomerania, ſeveral of which are pretty large. Theſe lakes, as well as the rivers, abound in fiſh, and particularly great quantities of ſalmon, which are dried and exported to diſtant parts.

The ſituation of this country on the Baltic is very advantageous for navigation, though the coaſt of Pomerania, eſpecially about the Oder, is very dangerous. Amber is found on the coaſts of Hither Pomerania, but not in ſuch quantities as on thoſe of Pruſſia.

With reſpect to the number of the inhabitants, a judgment may be formed by that of the burials, which, taken one year with another, have amounted to about twelve thouſand; whence the number of the living may be computed at about four hundred and ſixty thouſand. The greateſt part of the inhabitants are of the Lutheran religion, tho' in ſome parts there are Calviniſts, and in others Papiſts. The Lutheran churches are under the inſpection of provoſts, who are ſubordinate to the general ſuperintendants.

The whole dutchy of Pomerania conſiſt of ſixty-eight towns, which are divided into immediate and mediate. The former of theſe are immediately under the ſupreme tribunals of the country, chooſe their own magiſtrates, and the governing burgomaſters of the three capital towns of every province ſit in the diets of the country. On the other hand, the mediate cities are either under the king's agents or noblemen, take the oath of fidelity and allegiance to their lords and patrons, attend their courts, and have the proceſſes of their townſmen on an appeal moved from their magiſtracy to the courts held by thoſe agents, or the noblemen. Their magiſtrates are likewiſe appointed by their lords, and confirmed by the regency.

Mr. Buſching obſerves, that the electoral-houſe of Brandenburg had the neareſt claim to Pomerania, when the family of the dukes became extinct, in 1637; but, at the treaty of Weſtphalia, all the Hither Pomerania, with the principality of Rugen and Farther Pomerania, Stettin, Garz, Dam, Golnau, the iſland of Wollin, the Oder, and the Friſchen-hoff, were aſſigned to Sweden; all the elector of Brandenburg had was the remainder of Hither Pomerania, with the dioceſe of Cammin, which was changed into a temporal principality. Sweden likewiſe obtained the reverſion of the Brandenburg part of Pomerania, on the failure of the male line of that houſe. But the crown of Sweden by the northern war, and the peace of Stockholm in 1720, loſt the greateſt part of Hither Pomerania, ceding for ever to Frederic William king of Pruſſia the city of Stettin, with the whole country between the Oder and the Peene; as alſo the iſlands of Wollin and Uſedom.

The crown of Sweden appoints a governor general, who reſides at Stralſund, over Swediſh Pomerania; and in that city is kept the regency, war-office, and court of appeals; but the higheſt court of appeals in Swediſh Anterior Pomerania is held at Wiſmar.

The Pruſſian regency has its ſeat at Old Stettin, where are likewiſe kept the war and domain-offices, with the civil and criminal court of juſtice for both the Pomeranias. The whole revenue of both the Swediſh Pomeranias amounted in the year 1753 only to one hundred and twenty-four thouſand rixdollars, though Pruſſian Pomerania annually brings in the ſum of eight hundred thouſand.

With reſpect to the diviſion of Pomerania into Anterior and Ulterior, or Hither and Farther Pomerania, it has not always been the ſame; but at preſent the country ſituated between the Reckenitz and the Oder is uſually ſtiled Anterior; as the country between the Oder and Poliſh Pruſſia bears the name of Pomerania Ulteror, and conſequently the Oder muſt be conſidered as the boundary between them. We ſhall begin with Pomerania Ulterior, on account of its being ſituated to the eaſt, and its being ſubject to the prince part of whoſe dominions we have laſt deſcribed.

SECT. XIII.

Of Pomerania Ulterior, and that Part of Pomerania Anterior which is ſubject to the King of Pruſſia; with a conciſe Account of the principal Towns contained in each; and of the Iſlands Uſedom and Wollin.

THE Farther Pomerania, including the principality of Cammin, belongs entirely to Pruſſia, and contains a conſiderable number of towns, the principal of which are the following:

Stargard, alſo called New Stargard, the capital of all Farther Pomerania, is ſeated on the Ihna, by means of which it has a free communication with the Baltic, in

in the midſt of a country that produces plenty of corn; is an immediate town, large and well built. The church of St. Mary is thought to have the higheſt roof in all Germany; beſides this, there are ſeveral other churches belonging to the Lutherans, and the German and French Calviniſts. There is here a college founded in 1631, and a free-ſchool kept in a ſuppreſſed convent; and it has ſeveral good manufactures. This town was taken by the Ruſſians in the year 1758.

Cammin, a ſea-port town, ſeated on the eaſtern mouth of the river Oder, oppoſite to the iſle of Wollin, in the fifty-fourth degree ten minutes latitude, and the fifteenth degree two minutes eaſt longitude. This place was always in mean circumſtances, till it became ſubject to the Pruſſian government, when it roſe to ſuch proſperity as to make a very good figure, and to have handſome ſuburbs. This is chiefly owing to its navigation, fiſhery, and agriculture. The biſhopric of Cammin was, by the treaty of Weſtphalia, changed into a temporal principality, and given to the electoral houſe of Brandenburg; it was at the ſame time agreed, that on the deceaſe of the canons then living, the electoral family ſhould be at liberty to aboliſh the chapter; but this chapter ſtill ſubſiſts, and is kept at the town. Near the cathedral ſtands a ſchool, beſides which Cammin contains a provoſtſhip and a foundation for ladies.

The principality of Cammin derives its origin from the ſuppreſſed biſhopric of that city; for at the peace of Weſtphalia the biſhopric was converted into a temporal principality of the empire, and this intitled the electoral houſe of Brandenburg to a ſeat and vote for this principality both in the circular and imperial diets. The moſt remarkable places in this principality are,

Colberg, an immediate and well fortified town, ſeated on the Perſante, which, at a ſmall diſtance, falls into the Baltic, and forms the convenient harbour of Munde. This town is the metropolis of the principality; it is pretty large, and, from its woollen and linen manufactures, its trade with Poland, and its numerous ſhipping, is in a flouriſhing condition. It has a collegiate church, to which belongs a provoſt, a dean, a chanter, and rector; with a religious foundation for young ladies in the building that was formerly the ducal palace: it has alſo three other churches, and a Latin ſchool. In the neighbourhood are caught a great number of ſalmon and young lampreys, and in a meadow ſurrounded by the Perſante are ſome ſalt ſprings: little ſalt, however, is made on account of the ſcarcity of fuel, which the inhabitants convey hither by means of the Perſante, at a very great expence. In 1758 this town was bombarded by the Ruſſians, but without effect.

The laſt town we ſhall mention in Farther Pomerania is Coſlin, which is ſeated ten miles to the eaſt of Colberg, on the river Niſebec. In the times of popery here was an image of the Virgin Mary, which drew hither many pilgrims. In 1504 Coſlin was entirely deſtroyed by fire, and in 1718 the greateſt part of it was again conſumed; but ſince this calamity it has been rebuilt to advantage, particularly the large ſquare market-place, which is very handſome, the houſes being all two ſtories, and of an equal height. In the center ſtands a ſtone ſtatue of Frederic-William, erected in 1724, according to the inſcription, in grateful remembrance of the royal munificence diſplayed in rebuilding the town.

The principal places in Anterior Pomerania ſubject to the king of Pruſſia are the following:

Stettin, Stetin, or Old Stettin, is ſeated on an eminence near the river Oder, which is here divided into four branches, and ſtands in the fifty-third degree thirty-ſix minutes latitude, and in the fourteenth degree ninety-ſix minutes eaſt longitude. This city is large, handſome, well fortified, and the capital of the Pruſſian Anterior Pomerania; as alſo the reſidence of the regency, both for the Anterior and Ulterior Pomerania. It has a college of phyſicians, with a board of health, a chamber of commerce inſtituted in 1755, a royal ſeminary, and a general ſuperintendency of the Hither and Farther Pomerania. It has a caſtle, in which the above colleges meet, and an arſenal; together with the church of St. Otten, which was formerly collegiate; the cathedral of St. Mary, to which belong very conſiderable eſtates; five pariſh churches, a French Calviniſt meeting, and a maſs-houſe. It has alſo a dock for the building of ſhips, with a court of admiralty, and has not only various manufactures, but the inhabitants carry on a very great foreign trade. It exports ſalt and freſh fiſh, naval ſtores, as planks, maſts, and other wood, for building and fuel; pipe-ſtaves, clap-boards, canvas, dimity, flannel, linen yarn, and cloth; ſtarch, arſenic, glaſs, antimony, lapis caliminaris, madder, pot-aſh, ſoap, tobacco, honey, wax, roſin, corn, and many other articles to England, Holland, France, Spain, Denmark, Norway, Sweden, Pruſſia, Dantzic, Mecklenburg, Lubec, and Hamburg. It is, in ſhort, the centre for exchanging the commodities of Poland and Germany with thoſe of the Baltic.

Anclam is ſeated in a fertile country on the river Peene, having on the one ſide of it marſhes and meadows, with a dyke of ſtone above a mile in length, and on the other deep moats and walls. This town contains two pariſh churches, enjoys a good trade both by land and water, and has proſpered greatly under the Pruſſian government. In 1757 and 1758, it fell ſeveral times into the hands of the Swedes: for the other ſide of the river being within the Swediſh territories, the centinels of that nation are poſted very near it. It is the capital of a circle to which it gives name, that is near three German miles in length, and contains ſeventeen villages. To it belongs Anclam ferry, on the Friſchen Haff, where is a fort, to which all the ſhips that paſs by pay a toll.

The iſland of Uſedom, which commands the navigation of the Peene, the Ucker, and the Oder, is bounded on the north by the Baltic; on the eaſt by the ſtreight called the Swin, which ſeparates it from the iſland of Wollin; on the ſouth by the Friſchen Haff; and on the weſt by the Achter water, which is famous for its plenty of fiſh. This iſland is about five German miles in length; but in ſome parts is very narrow, and where wideſt is only between three or four miles broad. It is ſeated in the fifty-fourth degree north latitude; and contains the following places. Uſedom, a ſmall immediate town, that has an old caſtle. Penemunder-Schanze, ſituated on the north point of the iſland, which it entirely commands. The Swin-Schanze, on the ſouth eaſt part of the iſland, which was deſtroyed by the Swedes in the year 1757; but a new town has ſince been built. The iſland alſo contains ſeveral villages.

The iſland of Wollin, is bounded by the Baltic Sea on the north; by a ſtreight called Wollin-Water, or Diveno to the eaſt; by the Friſchen-Haff to the ſouth; and by the paſſage of the Swin on the weſt. This iſland is frequently in danger of being overflowed, and the ſea winds are continually throwing up againſt it drifts of ſand. It is about twenty Engliſh miles in circumference, and produces excellent cattle, with plenty of game and fiſh. On this iſland ſtands Wollin, an immediate town, ſituated on the waters to which it gives name, and has a bridge over it leading to Anterior Pomerania. There are alſo ten or twelve villages on the iſland.

SECT. XIV.

Of the iſland of Rugen, and the reſt of that part of Anterior Pomerania ſubject to Sweden, with the principal Places contained in each.

THE iſland of Rugen is ſeated in the Baltic, about two miles and a half from the continent, and was antiently celebrated for the courage of the Rugii its antient inhabitants, from whom it takes its name. It formerly extended as far to the eaſt as Ruden, which is now at three leagues diſtance; it being parted from it by a violent tempeſt in the beginning of the fourteenth century, when the ſea drowned a great part of the iſland. It is, however, ſtill thirty miles long, and nearly the ſame broad; but ſo full of creeks and peninſulas, that ſcarce any part of it is above three miles from the ſea; and one creek on the eaſt, runs almoſt through to the weſt ſide: but the peninſulas are ſo guarded by rocks, as to be no longer in danger from inundations.

The ſoil here is ſo fruitful in corn, that this iſland is called the granary of Stralſund, ſome thouſand laſts being annually ſhipped from hence for that city. There are likewiſe bred abundance of cattle in the iſland, which likewiſe yields prodigious plenty of fiſh; but is ſupplied with fuel from Pomerania, though ſome places afford turf.

Rugen contains twenty-ſeven pariſhes, which are divided into four provoſtſhips. The principal town in the iſland is Burgen, which is ſituated in the middle of it, and is the ſeat of the provincial court of juſtice, a prefecturate, and a provoſtſhip: it is likewiſe the reſidence of a governor, and the place where the nobles hold their aſſemblies. In it is a proteſtant convent for young ladies, conſiſting of a prioreſs and eleven ſiſters. This convent has likewiſe two curators belonging to it, who are nobles, one of whom is always the governor. This town has frequently ſuffered by fire, particularly in the years 1715, and 1726.

Near this iſland there are ſeveral others, particularly Ruden, which is ſituated amidſt ſhoals and ſand banks, and has a caſtle. The iſland of Unmanz, which lies to the weſt of Rugen, and the iſland of Hiddenſee or Hiddenſo, which alſo lies to the weſt of Rugen, and is about ten miles in length, though in moſt places it is not above two miles broad. The ſoil is ſandy, and affords little corn.

We ſhall now return to the continent of Swediſh Pomerania, the principal place in which is,

Stralſund, the capital, which is a free city, that lies on a ſtreight of the ſea oppoſite to the iſland of Rugen, in the fifty-fourth degree twenty-ſix minutes latitude, and the thirteenth degree twenty-two minutes eaſt longitude. It derives its name from the narrow Sund or Streight that lies between it and the little iſland of Danholm, and is very ſtrong, it having very good fortifications. On the land-ſide are bulwarks and fiſh-ponds two muſquet-ſhot in breadth, beſides large ditches and marſhes, only paſſable by four cauſeways, from four gates all fortified. It has an excellent haven, where ſhips come up into the very heart of the town; ſo that it has had a conſiderable trade both by ſea and land. Here are great quantities of honey, wax, tar, pitch, roſin, hides, tallow, linen, and a good ſort of canvas, which is made here. The ſtreets are broad, and the houſes pretty uniform. This city is the reſidence of the king's governor general of the regency, and is the place where the ſtates of Swediſh Pomerania hold their meetings. It has alſo its own conſiſtory and a ſeminary. Among its citizens, who form a numerous body, are many ſubſtantial merchants. In 1714 Charles XII. king of Sweden, ennobled its magiſtracy, and in 1720 king Frederic I. extended this honour even to the members of the council. It was formerly one of the principal Hanſe-towns; but it has ſuffered greatly by the ravages of war. In 1628, it held out a ſiege againſt the Imperialiſts under general Wallenſtein; but in 1678, was ſo furiouſly bombarded by Frederic William elector of Brandenburg, that it ſurrendered on the third day of the ſiege, after the deſtruction of about eighteen hundred houſes; and in 1715 was taken by a combined army of Ruſſians, Danes, and Brandenburghers.

SECT. XV.

Of the Principality of ANHALT.

Its Situation, Extent, Climate, Produce, and Rivers: the Religion of the Inhabitants; the States of the Country: with a conciſe Account of the Princes of Anhalt, their Titles, and Arms.

THIS principality is bounded on the north-eaſt by the mark of Brandenburg; on the eaſt by the electorate of Saxony; on the ſouth by Miſnia; on the ſouth-weſt by the county of Mansfeld; and on the north-weſt and north by the dutchy of Brunſwic, the principality of Halberſtadt, and the dutchy of Magdeburg. It is remarkable that at Haderholz, near Heidelberg, the territories of Brunſwic, Anhalt, and Stolberg meet in ſuch a manner, that the three ſovereigns may ſit at the ſame table, and each be in his own dominions. This principality is ſixty-ſix miles in length, and in breadth about eighteen, though in ſome places more.

On the foreſt of Hartz the air is freſh and healthy, but rather too cold. The harveſt is later than in other places, but the plains enjoy a milder air, though in ſome places they are not ſo healthy as in the high lands. The ſoil is various: for in the diſtricts of Cothen and Bernburg the earth is compact and fat, and particularly fertile in wheat and barley; while the light and ſandy countries of Deſſau and Zerbſt are adapted to rye; but they have ſome tracts of a firmer texture. Tobacco is alſo planted in the country of Deſſau; the land every where produces not only plenty of culinary and other herbs, but alſo fruits; though on the Hartz the latter never arrive to their proper ripeneſs. Here are likewiſe hop-grounds and vineyards; but the former anſwer better than the latter. In Cothen and Bernburg fuel is ſcarce; but Zerbſt and Deſſau are plentifully provided with it, particularly the Hartz, where are fine woods of oak, beech, poplars, elms, limes, &c. and in general it is a fine ſporting country. The mines in the Hartz yield ſilver, copper, lead, iron, ſulphur, vitriol, coals, allum, ſalt-petre, and other minerals.

The graziery in this principality alſo varies according to the difference of the ſoil, and the rivers yield excellent fiſh.

The rivers of Anhalt are the Elbe, which traverſes the center of this principality; the Milde, or Mulde, which runs into the Elbe; the Saale, into which the Wipper diſcharges itſelf; the Seike, which falls into the Bude, while the laſt diſcharges itſelf into the Saale and ſome others. The lake of Gaterſleben, which was nine miles in length, and in ſome places about four broad, has been drained, and converted into corn land and paſtures.

Chriſtianity was introduced into this country in the ninth century, and the Reformation began to take place in the dioceſe of Gernrode in the year 1521, and ſpread itſelf with a ſwift progreſs over the whole country. The poſſeſſions belonging to the monaſteries were employed in augmenting the revenues of the alms-houſes and churches, in the founding of ſchools, and the eſtabliſhment of ſtipends and exhibitions. The whole country profeſſed Lutheraniſm till the year 1596, when the Calviniſt religion was introduced, and the ſeveral churches, both in the towns and villages, in the patronage of the ſovereign, were filled with Calviniſt miniſters. The pariſhioners, however, were allowed to enjoy their own opinion, and both the nobles and their vaſſals were permitted the free exerciſe of the Lutheran worſhip. By virtue of a compact made in 1679, the Lutherans are allowed to erect new churches. The Zerbſt line, with the greateſt part of its ſubjects, profeſs Lutheraniſm; but the three other lines are of the church of Calvin, which is the eſtabliſhed religion in their reſpective territories.

In the whole principality are nineteen towns, and two boroughs. For the inſtruction of youth in literature, the towns are endowed with Latin ſchools, and there is an univerſity at Zerbſt which belongs in common to all the princes of Anhalt.

The ſtates of the country are compoſed of the nobility, who are very numerous, and likewiſe of the towns: out of the former are choſen a ſub-director and three provincial counſellors, who, with the four ſenior burgomaſters of the four reſidentiary towns, form the leſſer committee. The great committee conſiſts of twenty perſons, that is twelve noblemen and eight burgomaſters, two out of every reſidentiary town. Beſides theſe there is a commiſſioner of the revenue, who is aſſiſted by a ſecretary and ſyndic. The diets are aſſembled in the name of the four ſeveral princes of the houſe of Anhalt, who alſo direct the proceedings. They generally meet in the reſidentiary town, where the ſenior of the princely houſe reſides, though upon occaſion another place may be choſen.

The four reigning princes of Anhalt are all deſcended from the ſame family, who conſider Joachim Erneſt II. as the founder of the preſent houſe of Anhalt, who dying in 1586 left ſeven ſons, of whom the third and fourth died without heirs, and Auguſtus IV. lived in retirement at Plotzkau, without requiring any part of his father's lands; but the four other brothers divided their father's territories into four parts, prince John George I. obtaining Deſſau, prince Chriſtian I. Bernburg, prince Rodolphus Zerbſt, and prince Lewis Cothen. The ſon of the laſt of theſe princes dying in 1665 without heirs, his ſhare of the country was by the other three lines conferred upon Leberecht and Immanuel, ſons to the abovementioned prince of Plotzkau, who, on their ſide, ceded Plotzkau to Bernburg. The right of primogeniture takes place in all theſe four lines.

The titles of theſe ſovereigns are, princes of Anhalt; dukes of Saxony, Engern, and Weſtphalia; counts of Aſcania;

Aſcania; lords of Bernburg and Zerbſt. The Deſſau line likewiſe inſerts in its titles the lordſhip of Gropzigk, and the Zerbſt line thoſe of Zever and Kniphauſen.

The arms for Anhalt conſiſt of nine fields: in the dexter chief point is argent, a bear, with a collar, ſable and or, and a crown or, placed paſſant, on four turrets gules, on a wall with a gate, ſignifying the antient bearings. In the ſecond are five pales ſable, for the lordſhip of Barenſtadt. In the third checquée argent and ſable. In the fourth chequée or and gules, denoting the county of Walderſee. The fifth argent an eagle counter-changed, the claws and bill or, winged with a ſemi-circle of the ſame in a field argent; as likewiſe five pales and a wreath of rue, in a field or, and in this field the Saxon and Brandenburg arms are mutually quartered, to expreſs their common origin. In the ſixth azure, are two bendlets from the left to the right for the county of Warmſdorf. In the ſeventh an eagle argent, in a field azure for the county of Mulingen. The eighth is pure gules, and termed the bloody banner, or bloody ſhield, with the regalia coat. In the ninth is a bear ſable, with a collar argent, ſtanding on a wall gules, with a gate ſable, and three battlements gules, to denote the lordſhip of Bernburg.

Since the year 1689, when the dutchy of Saxe Lauenberg became vacant, the houſe of Anhalt having a claim to it, have quartered three other ſhields with their arms: firſt the arms of Saxony, conſiſting of five pales, with a wreath of rue, to denote the dutchy of Saxony. The ſecond an eagle diſplayed and crowned or, in a field azure, for the palatinate of Saxony. The third three beetles horns or, a ſemi-circle gules, in a field argent, for the antient county of Bree. The Zerbſt line alſo bears three particular ſhields, a lion or, for the lordſhip of Zever; a lion ſable, in a field or, for the lordſhip of Kniphauſen; and a hound's head, with a collar or, placed between two wings argent, in a field azure, for the bailiwic of Walter-Nienburg.

All the four reigning lines enjoy collectively for the principality of Anhalt, both in the college of princes at the diet of the empire, and in the diets of Upper Saxony, only one vote; but the antient abbey of Gernrode intitles them to another in both thoſe aſſemblies.

Each of the reigning lines has its regency, exchequer, and conſiſtory. The annual revenue of the whole principality of Anhalt to the four reigning lines, is eſtimated at between five and ſix hundred thouſand rixdollars.

We ſhall now give a particular deſcription of the principal places in the ſeveral parts belonging to each line: and ſhall only firſt obſerve, that, according to a very good author, the people of theſe four little independent ſovereignties, in the opinion of the Saxons, live in the land of milk and honey; the princes poſſeſs lands ſufficient for their expences, and the taxes laid on the people are very inconſiderable. The ſecurity with which a perſon travels in this part of the world is very extraordinary. The people are ſober, and the duties of morality are taught not only by the miniſters, but by parents; whence theſts and robberies, in time of peace, are hardly known.

SECT. XVI.

The principal Places in the Principalities of Deſſau, Bernburg, Cothen, and Zerbſt.

AS we have already deſcribed the country of Anhalt in general, and given ſome account of the conſtitution, nothing remains but to take notice of the principal places in the four ſeveral diviſions ſubject to its four princes, and we ſhall begin with Anhalt-Deſſau, which is divided into ſix bailiwics; the principal places in which are,

Deſſau, the reſidence of the prince, which is ſituated in a delightful plain on the river Hulde, which, at a ſmall diſtance from the town, runs into the Elbe. It conſiſts of the town particularly called Deſſau, the New Town on the north ſide, the ſuburb called the Sand, another before the Mulde gate, and the Water Town on the other ſide of the Mulde. Beſides the prince's palace, which is a ſtately building, it has two Calviniſt churches, and one belonging to the Lutherans, with a grammar-ſchool, an orphan houſe, and two alms-houſes. There are here ſome good manufactures of cloth, ſtockings, and hats. In 1467 this town was entirely deſtroyed by fire.

Oranienbaum, a regular and pretty little town agreeably ſeated on the ſpot where formerly ſtood a village. Henrietta-Catharine, princeſs of Orange, and conſort to John-George II. in 1686, built a ſuperb villa of ſtone at this place, and named it Oranienbaum, which, with the other buildings belonging to it, is ſurrounded with a moat. Its garden is extremely beautiful. She afterwards raiſed the village to a town, and permitted new houſes to be built on a regular plan with the former.

To the houſe of Anhalt-Deſſau belongs alſo a conſiderable tract of land in the kingdom of Pruſſia.

Anhalt-Bernburg contains eight bailiwics, the principal places in which are,

Bernburg, the capital and reſidence of the prince. This city is ſeated on the river Saale, or Sala, over which it has a handſome bridge of free-ſtone. This is a place of great antiquity, and conſiſts properly of three diſtinct towns. On the land ſide it is encompaſſed with walls and moats, and, beſides its magiſtracy, has a governor appointed by the prince, who preſides in the ſupreme court of juſtice. In the Old Town ſtands two churches, with a ſchool, the town-houſe, and the prince's ſecretary-office. A part of Bernburg, called Vordenburg, ſtands on a hill on the other ſide of the Saale, and is reckoned the third part of it, though it is under a diſtinct magiſtracy, conſtitution, and privileges. The church in this part ſerves both for the caſtle and court. The caſtle is one of the moſt antient, and at the ſame time the moſt celebrated fortreſs in the principality of Anhalt. It ſtands on a high rock, and is ſurrounded with a deep and lined moat; and below it runs the Saale, on which ſtands the noble ſtone ſluice erected in 1696 by prince Victor Amadeus. The Auguſtine convent in this place was, at the Reformation, converted into an hoſpital and poor-houſe. To the north of the New Town lies the ſuburb of Waldau, in which is one church.

Hartzgerode derived its name from its being ſituated at the entrance of the foreſt of Hartz. Both the walls and houſes are built of a motley kind of marble, in which this country abounds. On its eaſt ſide prince William, in 1601, erected a new town, which, in 1705, was called Auguſtenſtadt; and oppoſite to it is a ſuburb called the Liberty, which has an hoſpital at the end of it. On the north ſide is the New Mine Town called Wilhelmſtadt.

Wilhelmſhof, a houſe and farm belonging to the prince, lies in the foreſt not far from Hartzgerode: it is an elegant ſtructure, moſt delightfully ſituated. The building was compleated in 1582, and conſiſts of two ſtories. Farther in the foreſt, on a high and ſteep mountain, are to be ſeen ſome ruins of the antient caſtle of Anhalt, which are now overgrown with buſhes.

The abbey of Gernrode was originally a free temporal convent for ladies, founded in the year 960, and richly endowed: but the houſe of Anhalt reſuming it in 1624, it was confirmed in its poſſeſſions by the treaty of Weſtphalia; and by virtue of it, is intitled to a ſeat and voice among the prelates of the Rhine, both in the imperial diet, and that of the circle of Upper Saxony. The abbey itſelf is converted into a manſion-houſe. The town of Gernrode was at firſt only a village; but, on the additions made to the wealth of the abbey, the inhabitants, whoſe number increaſed, obtained ſeveral immunities and privileges. Divine worſhip is performed in the abbey church, that belonging to the town being for the moſt part uſed only at funerals.

The prince reſides in the palace of Schaumburg, which is ſituated in the circle of the Upper Rhine.

The principality of Anhalt-Cothen conſiſts of four bailiwics, the principal town in which is,

Cothen, the reſidence of the prince, is ſituated on the little river Zitau, and conſiſts of the Old and New Town, which were incorporated in 1620. It is a conſiderable place, the inhabitants amounting to about fifteen thouſand. They have three churches, a Calviniſt and Lutheran orphan-houſe, and each has a free-ſchool; among the other public buildings is an hoſpital. In this town the prince of Anhalt-Cothen has a palace. He keeps a body of two hundred and fifty men, who are well cloathed; and

and his revenues, according to Mr. Hanway, are computed at one hundred and ſixty thouſand dollars.

We now come to the principality of Anhalt-Zerbſt, which contains ſeven bailiwics, the principal places in which are,

Zerbſt, the reſidence of the prince, and the largeſt and handſomeſt town in all Anhalt. The prince's palace is very magnificent. In the town are two Lutheran churches, one belonging to the Calviniſts, and an univerſity common to all the princes of Anhalt, which has three Calviniſt and one Lutheran profeſſor; beſides which here is alſo a Lutheran and Calviniſt ſchool. The beer brewed here, with its manufactures of gold and ſilver lace, are very profitable articles, though the firſt was formerly more eſteemed than it is at preſent.

The prince of Anhalt Zerbſt is alſo proprietor of the lordſhip of Zevee, in the circle of Weſtphalia.

We ſhall conclude this ſection with a conciſe account of the abbey and town of Quedlinburg, and the abbey of Walkenried.

The abbey of Quedlinburg was founded between the years 932 and 936, by king Henry I. and enriched by his couſin Matilda; but in 1539 embraced Lutheraniſm. It at preſent conſiſts of four dignitaries, viz. the lady abbeſs and three others, diſtinguiſhed by the titles of provoſt, dean, and canon. The abbeſs is a princeſs of the empire, and at the diet enjoys both a ſeat and voice on the bench of the prelates of the Rhine, as ſhe likewiſe does in the diets of Upper Saxony.

The arms of the abbey are two carving knives or, placed in a ſaltire croſs, with handles of the ſame in a field gules.

Antiently the houſe of Anhalt held the patronage or government of Quedlinburg as a fief from the abbey; and it afterwards continued a long time hereditary in the houſe of Saxony, by which it was at length transferred to the houſe of Brandenburg for the ſum of three hundred thouſand rixdollars; and, by virtue of an agreement concluded in 1574, between the elector Auguſtus and the abbeſs Elizabeth, no abbeſs, nor any other dignitary, is to be choſen without the knowledge of the patron.

The town of Quedlinburg, which belongs to the abbey, is ſituated on both ſides the Bode, and has a court of juſtice dependent on the abbey, with a particular magiſtracy divided into two councils. The abbeſs, with the chapter, lives on a hill at the cathedral of St. Servatius. In the town are ſix churches, and the hoſpital of the Holy Ghoſt; and without the town is the hoſpital of St. Anne, and a college that was formerly a Franciſcan monaſtery; and near the town ſtands alſo the church of St. Wipert.

Here is alſo the free abbey of Walkenried, which was of the Ciſtercian order, and poſſeſſed of ſeveral eſtates; but in 1546 the abbot introduced the Lutheran doctrine and ſervice; but, at the peace of Weſtphalia, the patronage of the abbey was aboliſhed, and it was rendered an hereditary fief, which is now ſubject to the prince of Brunſwic Wolfenbuttle.

SECT. XVII.

The Principalities of Saxe Weimar, Eiſenach, and Gotha; with the principal Places in each.

SAXE WEIMAR, which lies in Thuringia, extends along the Ilm, which, after traverſing the whole length of this principality, loſes itſelf in the Saale. Its length, taken in its utmoſt extent, is about twenty-ſix miles, and its greateſt breadth twenty-three; but conſiderable parts of this principality are detached from the main body.

The duke of Saxe Weimar has two votes, both in the diet of the empire, and in that of Upper Saxony.

The principality is divided into thirteen bailiwics, the principal towns in which are the following:

Weimar, or Weymar, the capital, and the reſidence of the prince, is ſeated in a valley by the river Ilm. The new palace, called Wilhelmſburg, is a very noble building, and contains the duke's valuable library, a cabinet of medals, and a gallery of painting; and in it is a whiſpering-gallery, like that of St. Paul's, in London. The old caſtle, which has a bridge before it, is called the Red Palace. The town church has always for its miniſter the ſuperintendant-general of the principality, and contains the hereditary vault of the princes. The ſecond pariſh church is that of St. James; and here is a ſeminary founded by duke William Erneſt.

In the neighbourhood of this city is Belvedere, a ſeat of the princes, built by duke Erneſt Auguſtus, which has very beautiful gardens, and a very fine greenhouſe.

The principality of Eiſenach, which is ſubject to the duke of Saxe Weimar, alſo lies in Thuringia, extending chiefly along the Worra and the frontiers of Heſſe. The face of the country is mountainous and woody, and it bears ſo little grain, that the inhabitants are obliged to be ſupplied with a great deal of it from other places. However, the neighbourhood of Jena and ſome other tracts yield wine; it has alſo mines of copper, iron, vitriol and allum, and ſome ſalt-ſprings.

The inhabitants are Lutherans, and the duke of Saxe Weimar ſits and votes in the diets of the empire and Upper Saxony as prince of Eiſenach.

This principality is divided into nine diſtricts, the principal towns in which are the following:

Eiſenach, the capital of the principality, is ſeated on the Neſſe, which here receives into it the Horſel. The prince's palace is a noble building. Here are the various colleges for the different branches of the government; beſides an academy, a ſeminary for divans, and an orphan-houſe.

Jena, a town, ſituated on the Saale, or Sala, which waſhes it on the eaſt and ſouth ſides. It lies in a pleaſant vale, among hills that produce a great quantity of wine. The town forms an oblong ſquare, and is ſurrounded with moats, walls, and high towers. There is here a celebrated univerſity, in which is a very valuable library, an obſervatory, and phyſic-garden. There are ſeveral churches, and without the town are four ſuburbs: to the weſt lies a ſuburb before St. John's-gate, in which is a church and an orphan-houſe; eaſtward is a ſuburb before the Sala-gate; and northward is a ſuburb before the port, in which are the prince's gardens, ball-room, and other edifices; and to the ſouthward lies a ſuburb without the Lober-gate. A delightful row of trees has been planted round the moats from the Lober to the Sala-gate, and from thence to the port.

The principality of Saxe Gotha, which lies to the ſouthweſt of that of Eiſenach, abounds in grain and fruit; and in the ſouthern diviſion, which takes in a part of the foreſt of Thuringia, are ſeveral mine-works.

The rivers that riſe in this principality are the Leina, which falls into the Neſſe; the Apfelſtatt, which runs into the Gera; the Neſſe, which has its ſource in the territory of Erfurt, and traverſing the principality of Gotha from eaſt to weſt, diſcharges itſelf into the Werra, after it has received the Horſel, which alſo riſes in this principality.

Gotha contains ſeven cities, five towns, and two hundred churches.

The eſtabliſhed religion is that of Lutheraniſm, with reſpect to which, and the inſtruction of youth, there are ſome excellent regulations; particularly an inſpector travels through the country, and makes enquiry into the ſtate of the churches and ſchools.

The duke maintains two regiments, conſiſting of eight hundred men: of theſe one is quartered in the principality of Gotha, and the other in that of Altenburg. He alſo keeps a guard of a hundred and ſixty ſoldiers, with a body of artillery.

The principality of Gotha is divided into twelve bailiwics, the principal places in which are the following:

Gotha, the capital of the principality, is ſeated in a vale near the Leina, in the fifty-firſt degree twelve minutes latitude, and the tenth degree forty-one minutes eaſt longitude. Canals, lined with ſtone, are drawn from that river through all the ſtreets of the city, which is one of the beſt and handſomeſt towns in all Thuringia. Within the walls are nine hundred and ſix houſes, beſides many others

others which ſtand on the ramparts; and there are large ſuburbs. It has an hoſpital for the ſoldiers, with two ſchools for their children, and in the largeſt of the barracks the cadets are inſtructed in the ſeveral branches of the military art. Here is likewiſe a foundery for cannon and bells. Within the town is the bailiwic houſe, with two churches, a ſeminary, an alms-houſe for widows, and an orphan-houſe. The inhabitants carry on a conſiderable trade in woollen manufactures, as alſo in wood and beer, and beſides the profits ariſing from agriculture, receive conſiderable advantage from its being the thoroughfare from Leipſic to Upper Germany.

On a hill above the town ſtands a fortified caſtle or palace, which affords an extenſive proſpect over the fertile plain. Here the ſovereign, who is brother to the preſent princeſs dowager of Wales, and is one of our knights of the garter, keeps a ſplendid court. In this palace is a well provided armoury, with a very valuable library, which conſiſts of about thirty thouſand printed volumes, and two thouſand manuſcripts, and in the apartments belonging to it are the portraits of ſeveral perſons eminent for their birth, high ſtation, or learning. The cabinet of medals is ſaid to be, next to thoſe of the emperor, the king of France, the dukes of Florence and Parma, one of the moſt valuable in the whole world. The muſeum at Gotha is far from being contemptible. It contains a number of onyxes ſet in different kinds of work, which are valued at ſixty thouſand dollars, among which is one of admirable beauty, repreſenting a man ſitting with a ſpear in his hand, and a woman ſtanding by him. The image of Lewis XIV. is to be ſeen here, cut out of a ſingle amethyſt. Here is a ſilver elephant on a pedeſtal of agate, with the capariſons of gold ſet with emeralds and diamonds; and among a multitude of other curioſities, are two or three earthen vaſes painted by Raphael, and a large copper bowl enamelled with black and white, aſcribed to the ſame artiſt, which coſt the duke ten thouſand dollars. Here is alſo a good collection of pictures, the moſt remarkable of which are Paul Rubens, his miſtreſs, and his diſciple Vandyk, all painted in one piece by Rubens himſelf, a book in which Brugel the elder has exquiſitely painted ſixty-one portraits of perſons of diſtinction, and a ſcreen of ſeven large leaves, on which is painted by the ſame Brugel the moſt remarkable paſſages in the New Teſtament. Here is alſo a ring, in which is ſet a moſt curious watch. Among the works in ivory, are Auguſtus king of Poland on horſeback, and fourteen hollow balls turned one within another. Here is a marſhal's ſtaff and a flageolet made of the cinnamon-tree; and a ſtaff on which the paſſion of Chriſt is engraved with ſurpriſing minuteneſs; a landſcape made entirely of corolines; the elevation of a palace, all of garden ſeeds, arranged with the niceſt art; a gondola and crown both made of cloves.

There are alſo in the palace a church, in which is a very fine chapel, a mint, a laboratory for fire-works, and adjoining to it is a beautiful garden.

Without the gates is alſo Fredericſthal, a kind of banqueting-houſe, which is well worth ſeeing. Among the paintings in this laſt palace, is a large piece, repreſenting the czar Peter on horſeback, conducted by Mercury, Neptune, Fame, Courage and Plenty, with ſeveral other figures offering him gifts; and alſo a family hiſtory piece in four compartments, the firſt repreſenting the carrying off the Saxon princes Erneſt and Albert; the ſecond, their reſcue; the third, their magnificent reception at their return; and the fourth, the execution of the robbers.

The garden of the palace is ſmall; but well laid out in walks, water-works, and parterres, adorned with buſtoes and ſtatues; among which are ſome good copies of the moſt celebrated pieces of antiquity. At the end of the garden is a delightful grotto, the pavement of which is variegated marble dug near Coburg; and the cielings and walls are embelliſhed with ſhells, ores, and figures in glaſs work. In the apartment of the ſecond ſtory are ſome curious paintings of flowers and vegetables. On one ſide of the grotto among ſeveral ſmall jetteaus is the image of Neptune, and on the other that of Thetis.

Between Fredericſthal and the caſtle is a fine orangery, or green-houſe, kept in excellent order, where among a number of exotics are to be ſeen coffee and ſtrawberry-trees.

SECT. XVIII.

Of the Principalities of Saxe-Coburg, Altenburg, and Querfurt, with the moſt conſiderable Places in each.

THIS principality lies to the ſouth-eaſt of the foreſt of Thuringia, but belongs to Upper Saxony; to the north it terminates on the county of Schwartzburg, to the eaſtward on the dioceſe of Bamberg, to the ſouthward on that of Wurtzburg, and to the weſtward on that of Henneberg. It is forty-three miles long, and ſixteen where broadeſt.

The ſoil is moſtly fertile; in the valleys along the rivers are fine paſture grounds, and the principal employment of the inhabitants conſiſts in grazing and the breeding of cattle; it alſo produces a great deal of flax, and in the neighbourhood of Koningſberg are vineyards. The foreſts afford timber and wood for fewel. There are alſo mines of ſilver, copper, and iron; and there are here found pit-coal, gypſium, alabaſter, and marble.

The river Itz or Itſch, which riſes in the foreſt of Thuringia, traverſes the country from north to ſouth, and after receiving ſeveral little rivers, diſcharges itſelf into the Mayn. The Steinach, which has alſo its ſource here, and falls into the ſame river; and the Werra, which likewiſe riſes in this principality, and flows into the county of Henneberg.

The inhabitants are almoſt all Lutherans, except a few Calviniſts at Hildburghauſen, where they have the free exerciſe of their religion. The people are employed in agriculture and trade, and the country produces ſuch plenty of corn, that it has more than ſufficient for home conſumption. Its moſt uſual exports, however, are black cattle, fatted ſheep, and wool. The inhabitants of Sonnenberg deal in ſlates, hones, and gun-flints, wooden ware, pitch and pot-aſh. The other towns purſue different occupations, and the whole country is provided with all manner of neceſſary artificers.

The principality of Coburg formerly belonged to the counts of Henneberg; but by marriage became annexed to the houſe of Saxony, and at length devolved to duke Erneſt the Pious, the founder of the preſent line of the family of Gotha, who divided it among his ſons; whence it comes at preſent to be divided between the houſes of Saxe-Saalfeld, Saxe-Meinungen, Saxe-Hildburghauſen, and Saxe-Gotha.

In the whole principality are ten cities and ſix towns, the principal of which are the following:

Coburg, the capital of the whole principality, and the reſidence of the duke of Coburg-Saalfeld, is ſituated in a valley on the Itſch, in the fiftieth degree thirty-two minutes north latitude, and the eleventh degree twenty minutes eaſt longitude. It is defended by a ſtrong caſtle on a neighbouring hill, where Luther chiefly reſided during the diet at Augſburg in 1530. Both the town and ſuburbs are walled in, and the latter are larger than the former. The prince's palace called Ehrenburg is in the town, and contains the archives of the principality. The town is likewiſe the ſeat of the ſeveral offices of the government belonging to the houſe of Saxe Coburg-Saalfeld, as the privy-council, the regency, the treaſury, and the conſiſtory, and in the market-place ſtands the chancery. Here are four churches with a ſeminary called *Caſimirianum*, from its founder duke John Caſimir; a town ſchool, a gold and ſilver manufactory, and one of porcelain. Without the town is an hoſpital, in which is a ſmall church.

Hildburghauſen, the reſidence of the duke of that diſtrict, is ſituated on the Werra, and contains many handſome houſes, moſt of which are not only regular, and of an equal height, but the ſtreets are broad and ſtraight. In the market-place ſtands the town-houſe, in which the regency, treaſury, and conſiſtory have their meetings. Here is alſo a Lutheran church, to which is

annexed the ſuperintendency of the principality of Hildburghauſen, and the Latin ſchool. In the old town is alſo the duke's palace, which is a large regular building, begun by duke Erneſt in 1685, and in its church is a burial vault belonging to the family. In the New Town is a Lutheran and Calviniſt church.

The principality of Altenburg borders to the weſt on the upper principality of Schwartzburg, and the principality of Weimar; to the north on the circles of Thuringia and Leipſic; to the eaſt, on the circle of Leipſic and the lordſhip of Schonberg; and to the ſouth on the circles of Ertzgebirg and Neuſtadt.

The ſoil is very fertile in corn, and alſo abounds in good paſtures, whence grazing is carried on, and there is a large breed of horſes. The country likewiſe produces plenty of wood, and the mines yield copper, cobalt, vitriol, and other minerals. The principal river is the Pleiſſe.

The religion of the country is Lutheraniſm, and the churches and ſchools are ranged under ſeveral ſuperintendencies, over which is placed a general ſuperintendent, who reſides at Altenburg. The ſtates of this principality are divided into thoſe in the Altenburg, Saalfeld, and Eiſenberg circles, and conſiſt of the nobility and towns of theſe three diſtricts, who have their principal meetings at Altenburg.

The chief towns in this principality are the following.

Altenburg, antiently named Pleiſs, the capital of the principality, is ſubject to the duke of Saxe Gotha. It ſtands high on an uneven ſpot of ground, and the caſtle, which is ſeated on a rock, is famous in hiſtory for being the reſidence of the former electors and dukes, and from hence the young princes Erneſt and Albert, who were afterwards the founders of the two principal lines of the Saxon houſe, were carried off in the year 1455; but the princes were recovered, and thoſe who had taken them executed. In the town is a ſtately building, in which the ſecretary's office is kept, and where the regency and conſiſtory hold their meetings; two churches, one of which is a ſuperintendency. Here is alſo a houſe for the education of young ladies of decayed families, a public ſeminary, a houſe belonging to the knights of the Teutonic order, a muſeum and library, and an orphan houſe.

Saalfeld, a pretty handſome town, ſeated on the river Sala, in a beautiful ſituation, amidſt hills and meadows. This town and its diſtrict is ſubject to the dutchy of Coburg Saalfeld. The palace here was begun by duke Albert, and for ſome time honoured by being the reſidence of the Saalfeld line, till on their acquiring a ſhare of the principality of Coburg, they removed thither. In this town are three churches, and a good grammar ſchool, with ſome manufactures of cloth of gold, and ſilk ſtuffs, and a ſmelting and vitriol houſe. On an eminence near the town ſtands the once celebrated and rich Benedictine abbey of St. Peter, whoſe abbot was a prince of the empire, and had both a vote and ſeat in the diets, and the privilege of coinage. The lands belonging to this abbey are converted into bailiwics, and belong to the family of Altenburg.

We ſhall now give a conciſe account of the principality of Querfurt, which belongs to the duke of Saxe-Weiſſenfels, and is ſurrounded by the county of Mansfeld, the dioceſe of Merſeburg, the diſtricts of Freyburg, Wendelſtein in the circle of Thuringia, and by part of the territories of Eiſenach. The principal places in this principality are,

Querfurt, a charter town, ſeated on the little river Weite. It is very ſmall, it having only about five hundred houſes; but it has large ſuburbs, and is defended by a caſtle ſeated on a hill.

Heldrungen, a ſmall town ſeated near the Unſtrut, which is the ſeat of a ſuperintendency, and had formerly a ſtrong caſtle. But it is to little purpoſe to enumerate towns that have nothing worthy of notice.

SECT. XIX.

Of the Principality of SCHWARTZBURG.

The Situation of its two ſeparate Parts; their Produce, Rivers, Government, Arms, and the principal Places belonging to each of the reigning Princes.

THE principality of Schwartzburg has its ſouthern, or upper part, ſeparated from the north, or lower part, by an intermediate ſpace of ſix German miles; the former being ſurrounded by the principalities of Coburg, Altenburg, and Eiſenach, with the territory of Erfurt; and the latter by the circle of Thuringia, the electorate of Saxony, and the counties of Stollberg, Hohenſtein, Eichsfelde, and the territory of Mulhauſen.

This principality has ſeveral beautiful and fertile parts, remarkably fruitful in all kinds of grain, eſculent vegetables, and fruit; other places afford tolerable wine; and the foreſts of Thuringia and the Hartz are of conſiderable advantage to the country, from the great quantity of timber annually cut down and exported. Theſe foreſts likewiſe abound in deer, wild boars, and other game; and the rivers and ponds yield a great variety of fiſh. There are here likewiſe mines of ſilver and copper, and in ſome places are dug a very beautiful red and white alabaſter.

The principal rivers in the upper principality are the Schwartze, which iſſues out of the foreſt of Thuringia, beyond the caſtle of Schwartzburg, and at length falls into the Sala. The Ilm riſes in the foreſt of Thuringia, as does alſo the Gera. In the lower principality are the following rivers: the Helme, which diſcharges itſelf into the Unſtrut; the Wipper, which riſes at Eichsfelde, and alſo falls into the Unſtrut; and the Helbe, which diſcharges itſelf into the ſame river.

In the whole principality are twelve boroughs, ten market-towns, fifteen caſtles, and about a hundred thouſand perſons. The princely houſes and their ſubjects are of the Lutheran religion.

The princes of Schwartzburg are inveſted by the emperor with the office of grand maſter of the horſe to the empire, and they are alſo huntſmen of the empire; but this title is enjoyed by other German princes. Their full titles run thus: Princes of Schwartzburg, and of the four counts of the empire; counts of Hohenſtein; lords of Arnſtadt, Sonderſhauſen, Leutenberg, Lohra, and Clettenberg.

Their arms are quarterly per pale four tranſverſe beams or, and azure, containing for Schwartzburgh a lion; for Arnſtadt an eagle ſable, in a field or; for Hohenſtein checquée argent and gules; for Leutenberg a lion paſſant or. The middle ſhield is argent a ſtag gules, or ſable, for Lohra; beneath it argent a pitch-fork, and a curry-comb gules, in token of the office of maſter of the horſe. In the center of the whole, on a particular ſhield, is the imperial ſpread eagle, with the ſceptre and monde, and on a ſmall ſhell on its breaſt is the imperial crown, denoting that in the fourteenth century Gunther, count of Schwartzburg, was elected king of Germany.

In 1713 the two principal lines entered into a perpetual compact and union, by which the diviſion of the princely houſe into that of Sonderſhauſen and Rudolſtadt was confirmed, and the reigning princes of both lines were, in 1754, introduced to ſit and vote in the college of princes.

Each reigning prince has an actual privy-council, and by the diviſion of the Schwartzburg lands between the two ruling lines, each of them is to maintain two courts of regency; that is, the prince of Schwartzburg-Sonderſhauſen one at Sonderſhauſen, the other at Arnſtadt; and the prince of Schwartzburg-Rudolſtadt one at Rudolſtadt, and another at Frankenhauſen. Each has alſo its counſellors at law and regency, who are abſolutely independent of each other, and only ſubordinate to their own prince; but, by agreement, appeals, though with ſome limitations, are carried from the Schwartzburg regencies at Sonderſhauſen and Frankenhauſen, to the elector of Saxony's

Saxony's regency at Dreſden, and thoſe from the regency of Arnſtadt to that of Saxe Weimar.

Each prince has likewiſe his colonel, captain, and lieutenants for the management of military affairs; and when the empire is engaged in a war, the houſe of Schwartzburg, together with the count of Reuſſen, furniſhes a regiment of ſix companies, amounting to a thouſand men.

The territories of Schwartzburg-Sonderſhauſen are divided into thirteen bailiwics, the principal places in which are the following:

Arnſtadt on the Gera, a river which a little above divides itſelf into two branches. This town has a handſome ſtone bridge of ſix arches over the river, and of late the buildings in the town, both public and private, are much improved. Here is likewiſe an antient reſidentiary caſtle, with a church, and near it a palace for the princeſs dowager, erected in 1732, with three churches, a provincial ſchool of eight claſſes, a regency, a conſiſtory, and exchequer. On the Gera are erected ſome braſs and iron works, beſides ſeveral mills; and near the town is a houſe for the making of ſaltpetre.

Sonderſhauſen is a town ſeated on the Wipper, which at this place is joined by the Beber. On an eminence without the town ſtands the palace, where the ruling prince of the houſe of Sonderſhauſen uſually reſides. The front of this palace is new, and beſides many other fine apartments, ſplendidly furniſhed, is a moſt ſuperb ſaloon called the Giant's-hall. The garden here is laid out in a moſt beautiful manner. In the armoury ſtands an image of Puſtrich, one of the Wendiſh idols, caſt in a black ſhining metal, and hollow within. The body, which is every where large, is towards the belly an ell and a quarter round, and capable of containing above a common pail of water. Its head is alſo of a diſproportionate ſize, with a round hole inſtead of the mouth, and another on the crown. The right hand reſts on the head, and the left in his lap; but the middle of the left arm is broken off, and the legs are mutilated. Sonderſhauſen is the ſeat of the regency, aud has a conſiſtory and a court of juſtice.

The territories of Schwartzburg-Rudolſtadt are divided into fifteen diſtricts; but ſome of them the prince of this family holds jointly with the count of Stollberg. The principal places belonging to the former are the two following:

Rudolſtadt is ſeated on the Sala, and has near it a caſtle, which ſtands on an eminence, in which the princes of Schwartzburg-Rudolſtadt uſually reſide. This caſtle was deſtroyed by fire in 1735, but has been ſince rebuilt. Here are held the regency, conſiſtory, and exchequer courts; and in the town church is to be ſeen the burial-place of the princes. Here is alſo a ſuperintendency, and a ſeminary of divines founded in 1745 by prince John Frederic, and in honour of him called *Fredericianum*.

Frankenhauſen is ſeated on a branch of the Wipper, which paſſes through the town, and ſtands in a fine fertile country, on the ſide of a mountain that forms a part of the Hartz, and to the north ſeparates its diſtrict from a tract called the Golden Vale; indeed the town is on all ſides environed with woods and mountains. It has a regency, and among the public buildings are the prince's palace, in which is a chapel. There are alſo two churches within the town, and two more without the gates. The ſchool is within the remains of a Ciſtercian nunnery. The ſalt-works of this place are ſome of the moſt antient and famous in all Germany, and ſo conſiderable, that the town owes its proſperity entirely to them. There are a great number of ſalt-houſes: the ſalt is drawn up in leathern buckets by means of large wheels, which are turned by the river Wipper; and in the Upper Town ſtands a fort originally built for the protection of theſe works.

SECT. XX.

Of the County of MANSFELD.

Its Situation, Produce, Rivers, Lakes, and principal Towns.

THE county of Mansfeld borders on the dutchy of Magdeburg, and the principalities of Anhalt and Halberſtadt; and extends thirty-three miles in length, and fifteen in breadth.

It is in general very mountainous, yet affords not only paſturage, but good corn-land, and has large woods, chaſes, vineyards, and fiſheries. There are here mines of a kind of a blackiſh glittering ſort of ſlate, which when ſmelted, yields much copper and ſilver, a quintal of the beſt ſort containing five pounds of pure copper; but a quintal of the worſt yields only two pounds. From this copper a great deal of ſilver was formerly extracted, and a great number of dollars coined. This ſlate is alſo remarkable for having the impreſſions of various animals, eſpecially of fiſhes, as herrings, perches, and pikes.

In this country are likewiſe two conſiderable lakes, which, though they ſtand near each other, and have even a communication, the water of the largeſt is quite ſalt, while that in the other is perfectly freſh and ſweet. They both abound in fiſh, on which account the inhabitants of the villages along their banks ſubſiſt by fiſhing; and they alſo afford an inexhauſtible number of ſnipes, wild geeſe, and other water fowl, ſome of which are ſhot and others taken by the net. The Sala is the northern boundary of this country, where it receives the Salze, which iſſues from the above ſalt lake, together with the Schlenze and other ſmaller ſtreams. The other rivers are the Wipper, the Eine, and the Weite.

Part of this country is under the ſovereignty of Saxony, and part ſubject to the king of Pruſſia, who enjoys the title of count of Mansfeld.

The number of towns in the whole county amounts to ſeven. The prevailing religion is that of Lutheraniſm, and there are ſixty-ſix parochial villages; the clergy belonging to them are divided into eight deaneries, the adminiſtration of which and the ſeveral pariſhes is lodged in the general ſuperintendent of the county.

The titles of the count of Mansfeld are, prince of the holy Roman empire, Mansfeld, and Fondi; noble lord of Heldrungen, Seeburg, and Schraplau; and lord of the lordſhips of Dobrziſch, Neuhaus, and Arnſtein.

The arms for Querfurt are argent party per feſſe gules; for Mansfeld, ſix lozenges, diſpoſed in two rows gules; for Arnſtein, ſable, an eagle diſplayed, with the bill, legs, and claws or; and for Heldrungen, azure, a lion rampant or, with a crown of the ſame, a tongue exerted gules, and a reverſed tail, gules and argent checquée in a bend.

The principal towns in this county are thoſe which follow:

Eiſleben, the capital of the county, is ſeated in the fifty-firſt degree thirty-nine minutes north latitude, and in the eleventh degree fifty-ſix minutes eaſt longitude. It is remarkable for the great number of its brew-houſes, and for the copper-mines in its neighbourhood, which were formerly in ſuch good condition, that between the towns of Eiſleben and Mansfeld there were at leaſt thirty ſmelting-houſes, which generally produced above a thouſand tons of copper in a year; and every ton contained near two hundred ounces of ſilver; and though at preſent ſeveral good ſhafts are overflowed with water, and the ore is neither ſo rich in copper, nor yields ſo much ſilver as formerly, yet theſe mines turn to good account. In the town is a caſtle, with three pariſh churches, a grammar-ſchool, a mine-office, a conſiſtory, a general ſuperintendency, and about a thouſand houſes. It is very populous, and the center of all the trade and buſineſs of the whole county, every thing deſigned for ſale being brought hither; whence its exports to the Hartz and into Thuringia are very conſiderable.

This place is famous for having given birth to Martin Luther, who alſo died here. Among other relics of that great reformer is ſhewn in the great church of St. Thomas, his pulpit, which, from the extreme veneration entertained for it, is only preached in three times a year; that is, on the anniverſary of Luther's birth-day, the day in which he died, and the opening of the catechetical lectures. There is here alſo ſhewn the wooden bedſtead on which Luther lay, which is here pretended to be of ſuch extraordinary virtue, that whoever carries a bit of it about him will never be troubled with the head-ach, and a tooth-picker made of it infallibly ſecures a perſon from the tooth ach. "The Swedes, ſays Mr. Keyſler, who

" are very fond of being thought the genuine ſons of " Luther, carried away as many pieces, ſaid to be cut " from this bedſtead, and a table that belonged to Luther, " as would have made ſeveral tables and bedſteads. As " this afforded great ſatisfaction, ſo it yielded no ſmall " profit to thoſe who ſhewed theſe relics; for a very ſmall " part of the gratuities they got on this occaſion, was " ſufficient to buy ſuch another lucrative bedſtead." Our impartiality would not permit our ſuppreſſing ſo extraordinary a circumſtance, though we are ſorry to find any of the followers of that reformer ſo weak and ſo wicked as to countenance ſuch groſs ſuperſtition, which every rational proteſtant muſt condemn, and which Luther himſelf, were he living, would cenſure with the utmoſt warmth and indignation.

The city of Mansfeld is ſituated five miles to the north-weſt of Eiſleben, and is very ſmall. Its caſtle, which is ſeated on a high rock, was formerly both a fortreſs and the reſidence of the counts of Mansfeld; but the fore-part of it only remains, the reſt, together with the walls and baſtions, being blown up in the year 1674.

SECT. XXI.

Of the County of WERNIGERODE.

Its Situation, Extent, Produce, Rivers, Government, and principal Towns.

THE county of Wernigerode is ſituated partly on the Hartz, and borders on the principalities of Blankenburg, Brunſwic, and Hildeſheim; and is only about fifteen miles in length and ten in breadth.

One part of the country is mountainous, and the other level. The hills form a kind of amphitheatre, riſing gradually behind each other. The moſt diſtinguiſhed of theſe is Great Brocken, which ſome eſteem the higheſt mountain in all Germany. No trees, or ſcarce any ſmall ſhrubs, are to be found on its ſummit, which frequently remains covered with ſnow till Midſummer, and in ſome of the northern parts even longer. Out of this mountain iſſues the Ilſe, with the Great and Little Bude, and alſo the Ecker. The mountains afford very valuable plants, with berries of all kinds, particularly cranberries, great quantities of which are preſerved by the inhabitants. Oak and beech are leſs common here than firs and pines, though great care is taken in planting and keeping up the foreſts.

The plains are very fertile in all kinds of grain, pulſe, turnips, flax, culinary herbs, fruit, and other vegetables. As the meadows and paſtures are very rich, great numbers of cattle are bred here, and the country likewiſe abounds in all manner of beaſts of chace and wild fowl.

This county alſo abounds in iron, lead, cobalt, free-ſtone, lime-ſtone, marl, and clay for bricks and pots.

The county is very populous, and the language of the inhabitants, who are of the Lutheran religion, is Low German. They export corn, oatmeal, all kinds of berries, timber, and bruſh-wood; as alſo deals, oil, fine oxen, veniſon, hogs, fiſh, chalk, ſaltpetre, gunpowder, caſt and wrought iron, wrought copper, which is imported rough, paper, cloth, ſtuffs, and brandy.

This county is a fief of the king of Pruſſia, though a part of it belongs to the count of Stollberg. The king, as ſovereign of the country, levies the exciſe in the town of Wernigerode, though one-tenth of it goes to the count. His majeſty alſo taxes the country, and raiſes ſoldiers. Appeals lie from the count's regency to the revenue court at Berlin; and yet the count has the juriſdiction of the mines, chaces, ſtores, and coinage; as alſo in criminal, civil, and church affairs. His regency, to which appeals are brought from the inferior courts in the town and country, conſiſts of a ſecretary, a director, and counſellors. Theſe, with the addition of three eccleſiaſtical counſellors, form the conſiſtory. The revenue court conſiſts of a director, counſellors, aſſeſſors, and other officers, who, with the addition of foreſt and mine officers, form the foreſt and mine courts. The revenue of this county is computed at the annual ſum of fifty thouſand rixdollars.

The principal towns in this county are the following:

Wernigerode is ſituated at a ſmall diſtance from the Ecker, which receives into it a rivulet that runs through the town. It has a caſtle ſeated above the town on a mountain, which has been ſo greatly improved by count Chriſtian Erneſt, that it has not one waſte ſpot. This caſtle he has adorned with a large and valuable library; and here likewiſe are kept the archives of the family. About this ſtately ſeat lies a park, which was walled in by the above count, and finely planted both with fruit and foreſt trees. In it, near the caſtle gate, is a row of houſes for the count's domeſtics, together with a well-built orphan-houſe and new ſtables, with many ſingle houſes for the count's attendants. In the park is a ſummer-houſe called the hermitage, which ſtands higher than the caſtle itſelf. Near the park is a moſt beautiful parterre, with a fine green-houſe, in which is a large ſaloon; and juſt by is a magnificent palace, in which lives the counteſs Frederica Charlotte of Hohenlohe-Ingelfingen. A viſta of limes leads from the park to the count's kitchen-garden and orchard, which lie near the town, and both the road and foot-way to the caſtle are planted with rows of trees.

The town itſelf conſiſts of three parts, the Old and New Town, and the ſuburb of Noſchenrode. In the Old Town are only four hundred and thirty houſes, three churches, two alms houſes, a palace belonging to the count, the offices belonging to the government, a Latin ſchool of five claſſes, and ſeveral manſion houſes belonging to the nobility. The New Town contains only about two hundred houſes, a pariſh church, and an alms-houſe, while the ſuburb contains about one hundred and fifty houſes, one church and a ſchool.

Several great fires have happened here, particularly in the year 1751; but the greateſt part of the houſes have been rebuilt with ſtone.

To the corporation belong very large woods, out of which the burghers are allowed timber for building, with a certain quantity of wood for fuel. The trade of the townſmen chiefly conſiſts in manufactures of cloth and woollen ſtuffs, brewing, diſtilling, and agriculture.

Drubec is a large and beautiful village, the inhabitants of which are eſteemed the richeſt farmers in all the country, and are fond of being called the men of Drubec. At this place is an antient foundation, conſiſting of an abbeſs and five canoneſſes, who may be either of noble or trading families. To this foundation belongs a church, beſides which there is another in the village.

Iſenburg is a large open town, which was antiently walled. It has a caſtle ſeated on an eminence, which was formerly the reſidence of the counts of Stollburg, and near the caſtle is a large park, in which is the manſion-houſe of Leiningen, thus named from the conſort of count Chriſtian Erneſt of the houſe of Leiningen. The chief trade of the place ariſes from the iron works and ſlatting mills belonging to the count.

SECT. XXII.

Of the Dutchy of MAGDEBURG.

Its Situation, Extent, Produce, and Rivers; the Religion of the Inhabitants; the ſeveral Offices of the Government; the Revenues of the Prince, and the principal Cities of this Dutchy.

WE now come to the circle of Lower Saxony, which is bounded on the north by the dutchy of Sleſwic and the Baltic; on the eaſt by the circle of Upper Saxony; on the ſouth by the ſame circle, and a part of the circle of the Upper Rhine, and on the weſtward by the circle of Weſtphalia and the German ocean.

The ſtates belonging to it are thoſe of Magdeburg and Bremen, Zell, Grubenhagen, Calenberg, Wolfenbuttle, Halberſtadt, Mecklenburg-Schwerin, Mecklenburg-Guſtrow, Holſtein-Gluckſtadt, Holſtein-Gottorp, Hildeſheim, Saxe-Lauenburg, the archbiſhopric of Lubec, Ratzeburg, Blankenburg, Ranzau, Lubec an imperial city, Goſlar, Mulhauſen, Nordhauſen, and Hamburg.

We

We ſhall begin with the dutchy of Magdeburg, which is ſurrounded by the Mark of Brandenburg, the dutchy of Brunſwic, the principalities of Halberſtadt and Anhalt, the county of Mansfeld, and the electorate of Saxony, extending ſixty miles from eaſt to weſt; but its breadth is very unequal.

The country belonging to this dutchy is for the moſt part level. It has ſome good corn lands, and produces fine cattle; but ſeveral circles are ſandy, marſhy, and over-grown with woods. In ſome parts there are pit-coal, while in others fuel is ſcarce. The ſalt ſprings are here ſo rich, as to be able to ſupply all Germany with ſalt.

The Elbe paſſes through a conſiderable part of the country, and the river Havel forms its eaſtern boundaries between Brandenburg and this dutchy. Here riſes the Aller, which diſcharges itſelf into the Elbe. The other rivers are the Saale, or Sala, which here receives the Elſter, and afterwards diſcharges itſelf into the Elbe, the Ohre, and the Bode.

The eſtabliſhed religion of the inhabitants is Lutheraniſm; but a great number of French and German Calviniſts have ſettled here, and the popiſh religion is tolerated at Magdeburg and Hall. The Lutheran pariſhes amount to three hundred fourteen, and the paſtors to three hundred and fifty-three. Theſe pariſhes are divided into ſixteen inſpections, under the direction of as many inſpectors, ſubordinate to a general ſuperintendent. The German Calviniſts are poſſeſſed of ſeven churches, and have eleven miniſters; the French have ſix congregations, to five of which are ten miniſters; but thoſe at Calbe are ſubject to a German paſtor; and at Hall is a ſynagogue of Jews.

Magdeburg contains manufactures of woollen cloth, linen, ſtuffs, ſtockings, oil-ſkin, leather, parchment; and particularly exports large quantities of ſtarch, flour, and all ſorts of grain.

In the diet of the empire the king of Pruſſia, as duke of Magdeburg, ſits and votes between the elector of Bavaria and the elector Palatine.

The arms of the dutchy are party per pale, gules and argent.

The dutchy has its own regency, who in 1714, were removed from Hall to Magdeburg, and conſiſt of two ſenates. The war and domain chamber manage all the concerns of the domain and finances, with the exciſe, contributions, &c. but each cheſt is kept ſeparate, under its diſtinct office. In the towns the exciſe and other branches of the revenue are under the direction of perſons ſtiled tax counſellors. The conſiſtory is compoſed of the members of the regency, the general ſuperintendent, and ſome lay and eccleſiaſtical counſellors. Its power is limited to the Lutheran churches, while the Calviniſts are ſubject to their ſupreme directory, and the French are under the direction of the French ſupreme conſiſtory at Berlin.

The princes revenues ariſe chiefly from the domains, taxes, and military cheſt. In the domains are included the king's profits ariſing from the ſalt-works at Hall, and other places, with the duties on ſalt; the neat profit and tythes of mines, confiſcations, fines, farms belonging to bailiwics, navigation-farms, ſluice money, tolls by land and water, foreſt rents, payments for maſtage, and the like. Out of theſe taxes are paid the king's officers in the dutchy, the expences of the royal buildings, ſluices, tillage, repairs of highways, and other diſburſements. The ſurplus is paid into the general domain cheſt. The tax and military cheſt receive the country contributions, with the forage and ſubſiſtence money for the country cavalry, the exciſe laid upon goods conſumed, the provincial exciſe, and other incomes, all which are afterwards paid into the general military cheſt, or remitted to the ſeveral regiments in the country for their ſubſiſtence. The contributions, and other revenues belonging to the tax cheſt, are collected in every circle by circular receivers, to whom they are remitted every month by the under receivers in the ſmall towns and villages, of which every provincial counſellor has the controul in his reſpective circle. The annual revenues of the ſovereign from this dutchy, amount to above eight hundred thouſand rixdollars.

The dutchy is divided into four circles, the moſt conſiderable places in which are,

The city of Magdeburg, which is the capital of the dutchy, the ſeat of the provincial regency, the conſiſtory, the war and domain office, and one of the principal trading towns in all Germany, is ſeated on the Elbe in the fifty-ſecond degree ſixteen minutes latitude, and the twelfth degree nine minutes eaſt longitude. It is ſtrongly fortified, and has among other works a citadel, ſeated on an iſland in the river Elbe, which is joined to the city and the country by two bridges. The city is well built, particularly the broad ſtreet, which has a grand appearance; but the principal beauty of the town conſiſts in its cathedral ſquare, which is adorned with large elegant houſes, and the area of it well paved. The Lutheran cathedral, dedicated to St. Maurice, is a ſuperb ſtructure in the antique taſte; it is two hundred and eight German ells in length, and of the ſame height; its breadth is fifty-five ells, and the whole building, which conſiſts entirely of free-ſtone, is richly adorned with ſculpture, particularly there is a baſſo relievo of the wiſe and fooliſh virgins, a fine porphyry font, an altar in the choir of different kinds of marble, and in the front of the choir is a fine marble ſtatue of St. Maurice.

Among the other public edifices are the king's palace, which was antiently the reſidence of the biſhops, the armoury, the governor's houſe, and the guild-hall. Here is alſo a Lutheran convent, which was formerly a monaſtery of Premonſtratenſian monks, dedicated to Our Lady, and has a ſchool or ſeminary. The Lutherans have alſo ſix parochial churches, and the Calviniſts conſiſt of three congregations, German, French, and Walloon. To the ſeminary, which belongs to the town, are ten profeſſors, and the Calviniſts have a Latin ſchool. Here is alſo an alms-houſe, an hoſpital, and an orphan-houſe, all maintained at the king's expence.

In this town is a variety of manufactures, particularly of all ſorts of woollen cloths and ſtuffs, half and whole ſilk ſtuffs, cottons, linen, ſtockings, leather gloves, black and yellow tobacco, roll tobacco, ſnuff, &c. The city is alſo remarkable for its large magazines of merchandize brought from Hamburg, on the Elbe, which is very rapid, in flat-bottomed boats, and from hence ſent by land to Leipſic, and other parts. Indeed its ſituation on the Elbe, and its being on the road between Upper and Lower Germany, is of great advantage to its trade.

This city has frequently ſuffered by the ravages of war. Charles V. put it under the ban of the empire for rejecting the *Interim*, and charged Maurice elector of Saxony, with the execution of it, who after a ſiege which laſted from the ſixteenth of September 1550, to the ninth of November 1551, took it by capitulation, in which it was ſtipulated, that the emperor ſhould be reconciled, and the ban revoked. In 1629, it was blockaded by the Imperialiſts for the ſpace of twenty weeks. But the moſt dreadful calamity of this kind, was in the year 1631, when the Imperialiſts under count Tilly beſieging it in form, and taking it by ſtorm, it was ſacked and burnt, except the cathedral, ſome adjacent houſes, and a few ſmall cottages of fiſhermen; ſo that, according to ſome authors, ſixteen churches and chapels, many of them covered with lead, and one with copper, were reduced to aſhes. Tilly had the infernal barbarity to order his ſoldiers to ſpare neither age nor ſex; and they too well obeyed the commands of their inhuman general, by ripping up women with child, murdering infants in the ſight of their parents, and raviſhing the helpleſs virgins in the very ſtreets, while many of theſe, to eſcape violation, ran into the Elbe, and others into the fire; in ſhort, the ſlaughter was ſo great, that though the number of the burghers was before computed to amount by the loweſt computation to twenty thouſand, not above four hundred eſcaped. In the beginning of the year 1632, the Imperialiſts withdrew, and the Swedes taking poſſeſſion of the city, began to

rebuild it; but when it was reduced to ſome order, it was again blockaded in 1635, by the troops of Brandenburg and Weimar, and in 1636, beſieged and taken by capitulation by the Imperialiſts and Saxons, on which the Swediſh garriſon withdrew.

The city of Hall is ſeated on the Saale or Sala, and contains a thouſand and ſixty-three houſes that pay taxes, beſides its public edifices; and the inhabitants of the town and ſuburbs are computed at thirteen or fourteen thouſand, without including the ſtudents and the garriſon. The town is divided into four parts, named the Maria, the Ulrich, the Nicholas, and Maurice quarters. Mauriceburg was antiently a caſtle; but the greateſt part of it now lies in ruins; however, the chapel is in the poſſeſſion of the French Calviniſts. The Lutherans have three pariſh churches, and the German Calviniſts have the cathedral and another church; the Papiſts are likewiſe permitted a chapel for the private exerciſe of their religion, and the Jews have a ſynagogue. The celebrated Frederician univerſity was formed out of an academy of martial exerciſes. The public hall belonging to this laſt building is in the weigh-houſe, as is alſo its library, which conſiſts of upwards of ten thouſand volumes, and on the parade is an anatomical theatre. The nunnery for ladies was founded in 1702, for the reception of one abbeſs and nine ladies of the Calviniſt religion, by Godfrey Zena, ſecretary to the regency of Magdeburg. The Calviniſts are poſſeſſed of two hoſpitals, excluſive of an almshouſe for the French Calviniſts.

The vale of Hall, which conſiſts of the loweſt part of the town, and lies on the Saale, has four rich ſalt-ſprings, with ninety-ſix boiling houſes. Beſides the common trades, there are here carried on various manufactures, as thoſe of fine brown and white leather gloves, worſted and ſilk ſtockings wove, flannel, frieze, light ſtuffs, fuſtian, printed flannel and linen, tobacco-pipes, porcelain, great quantities of ſtarch, powder, gold, ſilver, and ſilk ribbons after French and other patterns, and beautiful red and yellow Turky leather.

Cloſe to the north ſide of Hall is the town of Neumarkt, which ſeems one of its ſuburbs, though in reality it is not. It conſiſts of about two hundred eighty-three houſes, has its own magiſtrate, a pariſh church, and a ſmall ſchool.

Glauche, another town, lies alſo ſo near the walls as to ſeem a ſuburb to the city, and contains about three hundred and thirteen houſes, with ſeveral vineyards: it has its own magiſtrates, and contains one pariſh church, with a ſchool. But the moſt remarkable public buildings here are the orphan-houſe, which is eſteemed one of the moſt noble and uſeful foundations in all the Pruſſian dominions, with the royal pædagogium, and the widows-houſe. In the above orphan-houſe is a valuable diſpenſatory, a laboratory, and a conſiderable trade is carried on in books. To the orphan-houſe alſo belongs a ſpacious library, a muſeum, and an excellent printing-office, the latter founded by the baron Canſtein, in which the whole Bible, the New Teſtament, and Pſalter are always kept ſtanding; and theſe books, of all ſizes, are ſold at this printing-office at very low prices.

SECT. XXIII.

Of MECKLENBURG.

Its Situation, Extent, Produce, and Rivers. The Religion of the Inhabitants, their Trades, Exports, Government, the Diviſions of the Country, and the Places moſt worthy of Notice.

MECKLENBURG is bounded on the north by the Baltic; on the eaſt by Pomerania; on the ſouth by Brandenburg; and on the weſt by the dioceſe of Lubec, the principality of Lunenburg, and alſo by Lauenburg and Ratzburg: but geographers differ greatly in their accounts of its extent; which is, however, about a hundred and thirty miles in length from eaſt to weſt, and in ſome places eighty in breadth from north to ſouth.

With reſpect to the nature and goodneſs of the country, the Mecklenburghers themſelves diſagree. It, however, contains many large and ſmall lakes from four to ten miles in length, and from four to ſeven in breadth. There are here likewiſe ſome large and deſolate heaths, moors, and fens; a great part of the country conſiſts of a ſandy ſoil, but, according to Cluverius, the very worſt of theſe ſandy tracts produces excellent rye; when they lie fallow there cannot be better ſheep-walks; and when they are well tilled and dunged, they yield wheat and barley. The country is interſperſed with delightful eminences; pleaſant and profitable woods. Several fens have been drained and improved into arable and paſture land. The commons and meadows are in moſt parts not at all inferior to thoſe of Holſtein and Pomerania; and grazing is ſo conſiderable, that the inhabitants export ſome thouſands of cattle. Indeed, it muſt be acknowledged, that by art and labour the face of the country is capable of being greatly improved; for the marquiſate of Brandenburg, which lies contiguous, and bears a great reſemblance to this country, ſhews that their marſhy and ſandy waſtes may be converted into a fertile and pleaſant country. The lakes and rivers abound in fiſh, more particularly in eels and craw-fiſh. The country has alſo ſome ſalt ſprings, with mines of copper, iron, and allum.

With reſpect to the rivers of Mecklenburg: the Elbe waſhes the borders of this country to the ſouth-weſt, where it is joined by the Elde, which here iſſues from the lake of Plauer; and into that river flows alſo the Stor, which proceeds from the lake of Schwerin. The Reckenitz riſes in this country, and forms the limits between Mecklenburg and Pomerania, after which it diſcharges itſelf into the Baltic. The Tollenſe iſſues out of the lake of the ſame name, and joins the Pena. The Warno riſes in the center of this country, and, after receiving the Milnitz and Nebel, forms a lake and harbour at Roſtoc, and falls into the Baltic. The Radegaſt riſes at Stellenz, and having run by ſeveral towns, is called the Stopenitz, under which name it croſſes the lake of Deſſau; and having united its ſtream with the Drave, diſcharges itſelf into the Baltic. The Havel flows from the lake of Barn, and flows into the mark of Brandenburg.

Mecklenburg has only one harbour on the Baltic, which is that of Roſtoc; but it would be eaſy to make another at Neu-Bucko, and a third at Ribnitz, the advantages attending which would abundantly over-balance the expence.

This country is divided into two dutchies, and the inhabitants of both are Lutherans, whoſe churches and ſchools are here divided into ſix rural ſuperintendencies, and under the ſuperintendents are provoſts. There are alſo ſome congregations of Calviniſts, and in Schwerin the papiſts are permitted the private exerciſe of their worſhip.

The country has woollen manufactures, tanners, leather-dreſſers, and people of other trades; but their number is not ſufficient to ſupply the country. The exports of the inhabitants conſiſt of cattle, butter, cheeſe, corn, flax, hemp, hops, ſeveral kinds of wood, and alſo honey and wax. In both dutchies are forty-five great and ſmall cities, three convents belonging to the nobility and ſtates of the country, and five hundred and ninety-four manors. In the year 1628 the number of farms belonging to the ſovereign were one thouſand and one, thoſe of the nobility amounted to ſeven hundred and twenty-ſeven, and thoſe of the convent to ſeven hundred and ſixty eight.

The peaſants are under villenage, but the nobility are free, and enjoy very conſiderable privileges.

The ſtates are compoſed of the nobility and towns. In 1523, the nobility and commons of the two dutchies of Schwerin and Guſtro entered into an indiſſoluble compact of union, which has been acknowledged and confirmed by the ſovereigns, and conſiſts both in a conjunction of the provinces, and in that of the ſtates of which each is compoſed; it being agreed, that all the free inhabitants of both dutchies, including the whole of the Stargard circle, ſhould enjoy an equality in rights, privileges, and immunites; be governed by the ſame laws,

laws, and in all caſes and exigencies ſhould daily aid and aſſiſt each other in council and action.

The government of the whole country of Mecklenburg was formerly under one prince; but duke John, who died in 1592, leaving two ſons, Adolphus Frederic and John Albert II. they divided the country between them, by which the former obtained the part belonging to Schwerin, and the latter that belonging to Guſtro; while the town of Roſtoc, with its univerſity and hoſpital, and the monaſtic lands, remained in common: but the line of Guſtro becoming extinct in 1695, duke Frederic William of the Schwerin branch laid claim to the ſole inheritance of that dutchy, but was oppoſed by Adolphus Frederic, duke of Strelitz, his father's younger brother. However, this conteſt was decided at Hamburg in 1701, by an agreement that the principality of Guſtro ſhould be added to that of Schwerin, and that duke Adolphus Frederic, beſides his dutchy of Strelitz, ſhould alſo hold the principality of Ratzeburg, with the lordſhip of Stargard, the antient commandaries of Miro and Nemero, and a yearly penſion of nine thouſand dollars. At the ſame time the right of primogeniture ſhip and the lineal ſucceſſion were eſtabliſhed in both houſes, and the agreement ratified by the emperor. Theſe two lines of the dukes of Mecklenburgh ſtill ſubſiſt, and her preſent majeſty, Charlotte queen conſort of Great Britain, is the ſiſter of Adolphus IV. the preſent duke of Mecklenburg Strelitz.

The titles aſſumed by both the dukes, are duke of Mecklenburg; prince of Wenden, Schwerin, and Ratzburg; count of Schwerin and the county of Roſtoc; and lord of Stargard.

Their arms are party per pale two bends divided into ſix fields. The firſt is or, a buffaloe's head gardant gules, crowned with horns argent, with a ring of the ſame through its noſtrils, for Mecklenburg. The ſecond is azure, a griffin or, for Wenden. The third party per feſſee barry of two azure, with a griffin argent, and a lozenge purpure. Both theſe are ſaid to be the arms of Roſtoc. The fourth is gules, a croſs wavy argent, for the principality of Ratzeburg. The fifth gules, an arm cloathed argent, and bound with a ribbon of the ſame, iſſuing from a cloud, and holding up a ring or, with a ſtone infixed, for the lordſhip of Stargard. The ſixth is or, a buffaloe's head ſable, with a crown or, and horns argent, panting and placed oblique. There is alſo an eſcutcheon, party per feſſe, gules and or, for the county of Schwerin. The electors and margraves of Brandenburg likewiſe uſe the title and arms, becauſe, on the extinction of the male ſtem of the dukes of Mecklenburg, that dutchy falls to the houſe of Brandenburg.

The annual revenues of the Schwerin line amount to three hundred thouſand rixdollars per annum, and thoſe of the duke of Mecklenburg Strelitz to about a hundred and twenty-ſix thouſand. No payment is required for the maintenance of the duke's troops, either of the nobility or ſtates, the duke defraying all the expence of the military eſtabliſhment out of the fixed annual contributions. The nobility and their vaſſals are alſo exempted from quartering and maintaining the militia, as the municipal towns are from quartering the horſe. The towns, however, quarter the foot, and pay ſervice-money.

The two dutchies are divided into three circles, that of Mecklenburg, that of Wenden, and the circle of Stargard.

The Mecklenburg circle forms the dutchy of Schwerin, which conſiſts of the antient dutchy of Mecklenburg, the county of Schwerin, the weſtern part of the principality of Wenden, and a ſmall part of the lordſhip of Roſtoc; the principal places in which are the two following towns:

Parchim, the capital of this circle, is ſeated on the river Elde, which here divides itſelf into two branches, and in ſeveral parts run eaſt and weſt through the town, which, though it has the name of a capital, is very inconſiderable, and has only two pariſh churches.

Schwerin, the uſual reſidence of the dukes of that line, is ſituated on a pleaſant lake that abounds in a variety of fiſh, and, beſides ſurrounding the greateſt part of the town, originally gave name to it. This town is nearly ſquare, and conſiſts of three parts, which are named Schwerin, the New Town, and the Moor. The duke's palace ſtands on an iſland in the lake, where it is defended by fortifications, and has a communication with the town by means of a bridge. Some parts of it command a moſt delightful proſpect. The paintings in this palace are very valuable, and the gardens are laid out in a fine taſte. The town has frequently ſuffered by dreadful fires.

The circle of Wenden contains the eaſtern, and greateſt part of the principality of Wenden, with the lordſhip of Roſtoc, and the largeſt part of the dutchy of Guſtro.

Guſtro, the capital of the circle of Wenden, is ſeated on the little river Nebel, thirty-five miles to the north-eaſt of Schwerin, and is one of the largeſt and moſt pleaſant cities in the whole country, as alſo the ſeat of the chief courts of judicature and a ſuperintendency. In this town is a good palace belonging to the prince, with a moſt elegant garden; and in the church of this palace is the vault of the ducal family. Guſtro likewiſe contains a cathedral, and a pariſh church.

Roſtoc, a free imperial city, and the largeſt in both dutchies, is ſeated on the Warna, at the mouth of which it has an harbour, and ſtands twelve miles to the north-weſt of Guſtro. It has fourteen wide and long ſtreets, beſides ſmaller, and many thouſand handſome houſes. It properly conſiſts of three parts: the Old, New, and Middle Towns. The firſt ſtands on an eminence towards the eaſt, and contains the churches of St. Catharine, St. Peter, and St. Nicholas; the two laſt of which are parochial. In 1677 moſt of this part was deſtroyed by fire, but has been ſince rebuilt with greater regularity. The Middle Town is ſeparated from the former by a branch of the Warna, and contains St. Mary's church, a ſtately ſtructure, in which are preſerved the entrails of the celebrated Grotius, who died here in 1645. Here is alſo the church of St. John, a library, and the council-houſe. In the New Town is St. James's church, which was formerly collegiate; the church of St. Michael, and that of the Holy Croſs, which has a convent for young ladies, natives of Roſtoc. In this part is alſo the univerſity, which has twenty-four profeſſors, to whom the dukes annually pay the ſum of three thouſand florins, and the town five hundred, towards their ſalaries. Here is alſo a public free-ſchool.

Among the peculiarities belonging to this city, the inhabitants are ſaid to boaſt of their having ſeven gates, ſeven large ſtreets that center in the great market, ſeven bridges over the Warna, ſeven doors to St. Mary's church, ſeven towers to the town-hall, ſeven great bells belonging to the town clocks, which chime at certain hours, and ſeven vaſt lime-trees in their common garden.

The magiſtracy conſiſts of three burgomaſters, one ſyndic, twelve aldermen, one ſecretary, and a prothonotary. This city has a mint, and the right of coining gold, ſilver, and copper. Both the civil and criminal juriſdiction are veſted in the magiſtracy, though with right of appeal to the two ſupreme courts of juſtice. This city is ſeated in the fifty-fourth degree twenty-ſix minutes north latitude, and in the twelfth degree eighteen minutes eaſt longitude; and carries on a conſiderable trade.

Wiſmar, a town ſeated on a bay of the Baltic, formerly belonged to the dutchy of Schwerin, but at the peace of Weſtphalia was ceded to the crown of Sweden. It has a good harbour, and is one of the beſt and largeſt towns in theſe countries; for it has ſix churches, a particular conſiſtory, a grammar-ſchool under the direction of eight maſters, and is likewiſe the ſeat of a Swediſh court of juſtice. It was formerly a Hanſe town, and had the privilege of coining money. This town has been frequently taken and retaken.

SECT.

SECT. XXIV.

Of the Dutchy of HOLSTEIN.

Its Situation, Extent, the Face of the Country, and its Produce. The Religion, Trade, and Commerce of the Inhabitants. Of the Dukes of Holſtein, their Titles, Arms, and Order of Knighthood: their Revenues, Courts of Juſtice, and principal Towns; with a particular Deſcription of the free Cities of Hamburgh, Altena, and Lubec.

THE dutchy of Holſtein is bounded towards the north by the dutchy of Sleſwic and the Baltic, which is alſo its eaſtern boundary; towards the ſouth by the dutchy of Lauenburg, the territories of Lubec and Hamburg; and on the weſt by the Elbe, which ſeparates it from the dutchy of Bremen, and by the German ocean. Its extent from eaſt to weſt is about ninety miles, and from north to ſouth about ſixty.

Its ſituation between the Baltic and German ocean expoſes it to frequent ſtorms, which indeed purify the air, but oblige the inhabitants to be at great expence to ſecure themſelves from inundations, by raiſing lofty and ſtrong dykes, and keeping them in conſtant repair. The diſtricts where theſe dykes are neceſſary being in the low lands near the German ocean, and the mouth of the Elbe, they conſiſt of excellent marſhes that produce wheat, barley, peas, beans, and particularly rape-ſeed; and alſo afford a fine breed of cattle, that are much larger and ſtronger than thoſe in the champaign country; and, beſides the native cattle, a great number of heifers are brought here to be fattened. The middle part of the country indeed moſtly conſiſts of ſand and heath, yet affords good paſture for ſheep. In theſe parts the fern is mowed, and in winter is ſtrewed in the cow-houſes. The diſtricts which border on the Baltic, and conſiſt of champaign land, are very fruitful. The beef, veal, mutton, and lamb, are very fat and palatable. The breed of horſes is on the decline, but this country ſtill affords ſome that are very beautiful, and are ſold for two or three hundred rixdollars. Holſtein likewiſe abounds in poultry, wild-fowl, and game of all kinds.

The German ocean, with the Baltic, the rivers, the lakes and ponds, furniſh the inhabitants with great plenty of a variety of fiſh. In this country are fiſh-ponds of a very ſingular nature, which for two or three years abound with pike, carp, lampreys, and perch; but every third or fourth year are drained, and the fiſh ſold; after which the pond is for ſome years ſown with oats, or uſed as paſture land, and then again laid under water and ſtocked with fiſh. This is ſaid to be a moſt lucrative piece of oeconomy.

Here are no hills that deſerve the name. The principal inland rivers are the Eyder, the Stor, and the Trave, the laſt of which, among other ſtreams, receives into it the Pennau, the Schivenſtin, and the Schwartau.

The inhabitants are generally fair, handſome, ſtrong and brave, and ſo juſt and true to their words and promiſes, that in the neighbouring parts of Germany the Holſtein faith is become proverbial. They are fond of good cheer, and the great affect a ſplendid equipage and retinue.

The eſtabliſhed religion is Lutheraniſm, and the churches are under the inſpection of provoſts, ſubordinate to the general ſuperintendents who preſide over the king's ſhare in the dutchies of Sleſwic and Holſtein, and over thoſe of the prince within his part of the latter; and theſe churches are viſited every year by the ſuperintendent of the ruling prince. At Gluckſtadt and Altena are churches belonging both to the Calviniſts and Papiſts, and at the latter, among other ſects, the Menonites are poſſeſſed of two churches. At Kiel is a Greek chapel for the Ruſſians, and at Altena, Rendſburg, Kiel, and Gluckſtadt, the Jews are likewiſe permitted the exerciſe of their religion.

This country has ſeveral manufactures, particularly in the towns of Altena and Gluckſtadt, but theſe might be greatly enlarged. Its advantageous ſituation for commerce, from its bordering on the Baltic ſea and the German ocean, and its having the advantage of navigable rivers, are not properly improved. Its exports are grain, malt, grots, ſtarch, buck-wheat, peas, beans, rape-ſeed, horned cattle, ſheep, ſwine, horſes, veniſon, poultry, cheeſe, butter and fiſh.

This country is divided between the duke of Holſtein Gottorp and the king of Denmark. Duke Adolphus, ſecond ſon to Frederic I. was the founder of the Gottorp line, by bequeathing his ſhare in the dutchies of Sleſwick and Holſtein to his ſons, of whom only the third duke John Adolphus had iſſue. This prince introduced the right of primogeniture ſhip, and dying in 1616, his ſon duke Frederic III. had for his ſucceſſor duke Chriſtian Albert, who was alſo ſucceeded by his ſon duke Frederic IV. whoſe ſon Charles Frederic in a ſecond marriage eſpouſed Anne the eldeſt daughter of Peter I. emperor of Ruſſia; but was ſoon after diſpoſſeſſed of all his territories. This prince dying in 1739, his ſon duke Charles Peter was in 1743 declared great duke of Ruſſia, on which he aſſumed the name of Peter Feodorowitz, and in July 1762, aſcended the throne of Ruſſia; but was ſoon after depoſed by his wife, and this was preſently followed by his death, when his young ſon, who was born in 1754, was declared great duke of Ruſſia, and alſo duke of Holſtein-Gottorp, of which country prince Frederic Auguſtus of Holſtein-Gottorp is appointed adminiſtrator during the young duke's minority.

The king of Denmark, on account of his ſhare in this country, ſtiles himſelf duke of Holſtein, Stormar, and Ditmarſh; and all the dukes of Holſtein and Sleſwick ſtile themſelves heirs of Norway, dukes of Sleſwic, Holſtein, Stormar, and Ditmarſh, and counts of Oldenburg and Delmenhorſt.

The arms of the duke of Holſtein conſiſt of five fields, and an eſcutcheon. The firſt of theſe is a lion crowned or, holding in his paws a bent halbert argent, for Norway. The ſecond or, two lions paſſant azure, for Sleſwick. The third gules, a nettle-leaf expanded and divided into three parts argent, with an eſcutcheon party per bend gules and argent, having round it three nails argent, placed between the three parts of the nettle-leaf, for Holſtein. The fourth is gules, a ſwan argent, crowned or about the neck, for Stormar. The fifth is azure, a horſeman armed or, with his ſword drawn, and a horſe argent, capariſoned ſable, for Ditmarſh. The eſcutcheon is quarterly, the firſt and fourth or, barry gules, for Oldenburg; and the third and fourth, a croſs wavy or, for Dolmenherſt.

Holſtein has an order of knighthood called that of St. Anne, which was founded in 1735, by duke Charles Frederic. The enſign of this order is a red croſs enamelled, on the right ſide of which is the word ANNE written in a cypher, and on the left the letters A. I. P. F. alſo in a cypher, which are explained by the ſubſcription: *Amantibus Juſtitiam, Pietatem, Fidem.* This croſs is worn pendant at a red ribbon edged with yellow, ſloping from the left ſhoulder down to the right ſide.

The king of Denmark from his ſhare in the dutchy of Holſtein, enjoys both a ſeat and voice in the college of the princes of the empire, and his vote is called that of Holſtein Gluckſtadt. The grand duke of Ruſſia has alſo his ſeat and voice in the ſame college, which is called that of Holſtein-Gottorp. Both under the ſame titles alſo ſit and vote in the circle of Lower Saxony, and together with Meckenburg preſent, in their turn, an aſſeſſor for this circle in the aulic chamber.

The principal revenues of the ſovereigns ariſe from their domains, and ſeveral impoſts on their ſubjects, as the contribution, which is a kind of land-tax, paid monthly by the towns, manors, bailiwics, and convents, according to the quantity of lands they poſſeſs; which alone annually brings into the military cheſt of each ſovereign a hundred thouſand rixdollars; ſtamped paper, toll on horſes, black cattle, the fiſhery, &c.

As to the military force kept up in this country, the king of Denmark uſually keeps here ſome regiments of foot, and one of horſe. With reſpect to the duke's military force it amounts, according to Mr. Buſching, to only about eight hundred men.

The king of Denmark appoints a ſtadtholder over his part of Holſtein, and every ſovereign has his colleges of ſtate.

ſtate. At Gluckſtadt is held the king's regency-office, which is compoſed of the ſtadtholder, who is always preſident, a chancellor, a vice-chancellor, five counſellors that have ſalaries, and three ſecretaries, one of whom is always keeper of the records: this court is held four times a year. The other courts are,

The ſupreme bailiwic court, which on the riſing of the chancery court, is held by the members of the regency office. This court receives appeals from the lower bailiwic courts; but from theſe ſuperior courts no appeal lies, except to the king. Ever ſince the year 1754, the regency court has had the ſupreme authority in the trial of criminals.

With reſpect to inferior courts, the ſeveral cauſes in the towns are tried by the magiſtracy, from whoſe ſentences appeals lie to the court of regency. Every town has likewiſe a petty court of its own, that takes cognizance of criminal cauſes, defamatory words, ſmall debts, and the like, and from theſe an appeal lies to the magiſtracy.

It is remarkable, that the nobility and convents in the dutchy of Holſtein, with their tenants, are ſubject to a joint government, to which every Michaelmas the king and duke alternately ſucceed. The perſon in whom the directory is lodged, after previous notification to the other ſovereign's office of regency, iſſues forth orders and citations to the provincial court in both their names; but always gives precedence to the king's. The law affairs of the ſubjects are uſually carried firſt before the joint Quartal court, which is held ſix weeks before the ſeſſion of the provincial court, and is, as it were, a preparative to the next provincial court, for the greater diſpatch of affairs which are brought to it, when thought neceſſary, by letters patent under the ſeals of both ſovereigns. This court is alternately held at Kiel and Gluckſtadt, the directory is under the ruling ſovereign for the current year. The court is compoſed of four of the king's counſellors, and the like number of the princes, who muſt all be nobles, alſo of four men of letters for each ſovereign, aſſiſted by a chancellor, who is alternately appointed by the ſovereign. Its other members are a ſecretary from each prince. In this court the cauſes of the prelates, nobility, and paſtors in the churches of the nobility, have their firſt hearing, and hither likewiſe are brought all appeals from the courts of the nobility and convents.

We ſhall now proceed to deſcribe, firſt, the principal places in the king of Denmark's ſhare in the dutchy of Holſtein.

We ſhall begin with Gluckſtadt, called in Latin Tychopolis, a town and fortreſs ſituated in the diſtrict of Stormar, on the Elbe, which here receives into it a ſmall river, called the Rhein. This town is regular and well built; and the market-place opens into the main ſtreets. This town was built in the year 1620, on a waſte ground called the Wilderneſs, by the permiſſion of Chriſtian IV. who in the patent, gave orders that it ſhould be named Gluckſtadt, or the Fortunate Town, conferring on it at the ſame time many privileges. The adjacent country being hollow and marſhy, a ſtone cauſeway of near four miles in length has been carried along it, and on the land-ſide the town may be eaſily laid under water. It has a harbour, adjoining to which is a baſon for the reception of veſſels; but there being no ſprings here, the greateſt part of the houſes have ciſterns for the receiving of rain; and thoſe which are without ſuch conveniences, are obliged to uſe the harbour water, or that of the new moat. Here is the ſeat of the king's regency, and the offices and courts connected with it. Both the palace congregation and the garriſon frequent the town church; the Calviniſts have a church of their own, the Papiſts a chapel, and the Jews a ſynagogue. The town has ſeveral times been beſieged, but has never been taken.

Itzehoa, an antient and handſome town, ſeated on the river Stor, and divided into the Old and New, the latter of which is partly ſurrounded by the main ſtream of the Stor, and partly by a canal drawn from it, which ſeparates it from the Old Town. In this part is St. Laurence's church, which is a ſtately edifice, and near it a convent for ladies of noble birth. Here is alſo an alms-houſe, which has a chapel. In the New Town is St. Nicholas's chapel, the town-houſe, and a Latin free ſchool.

Rendſburg, a fortified town on the river Eyder, ſeated on the confines of Germany. It conſiſts of three parts. The Old Town ſtands on an iſland in the Eyder, and it was formerly conteſted whether this iſland belonged to the dutchy of Sleſwic, or to Holſtein. The town conſiſts of ſix hundred houſes, and is generally well garriſoned. In it is the royal armoury, the carriage-houſe, and the granary, which are large buildings. It has two pariſh churches, one in the Old Town near a Latin free ſchool, and the other in the New Town. It has its own conſiſtory, and is the ſeat of the king's general ſuperintendents over Holſtein and the bailiwic of Rendſburg. It has a commercial college, eſtabliſhed here in 1738 by Chriſtian VI.

Ploen is a town almoſt environed by a great and ſmall lake: it is divided into the Old and New, the laſt of which belongs to the bailiwic of Ploen, and in the former is a pariſh church and a Latin ſchool. Without the Lubec gate is a ſuburb. The ducal palace here, which was rebuilt by duke Joachim Erneſt, ſtands high, and commands a beautiful proſpect. To the weſtward of this palace, and adjoining to the ſtable, a garden has lately been laid out, with a park, at the end of which is an hydraulic machine for the conveyance of water to the palace. On one ſide of it is a ſpacious kitchen garden, and in an iſland farther up the lake is a delightful pleaſure garden. This town has been four times entirely deſtroyed by fire.

The duke of Holſtein Gottorp's part of this dutchy is about half as large as that which belongs to the king, and brings in a revenue of two hundred thouſand rix-dollars.

The principal town in this territory is,

Kiel, the capital of that part of Holſtein, ſubject to the duke, which is ſituated on a bay of the Baltic, and has a convenient harbour. It is well built, and contains the prince's palace and the ſtate colleges. Beſides the town church here is one belonging to the palace, with a convent church, and a chapel at the farther end of the ſuburbs. It has alſo an univerſity, founded in 1665 by duke Chriſtian Albert.

We ſhall now give a particular deſcription of thoſe cities of Holſtein which are neither ſubject to the king of Denmark nor to the duke of Holſtein Gottorp, and ſhall begin with Hamburg, which was formerly the metropolis of all Holſtein, till it became a free imperial city. It is ſeated on the north ſide of the river Elbe, which there forms a commodious harbour, in the fifty-third degree ſixteen minutes north latitude, and in the tenth degree thirty-eight minutes eaſt longitude from London. It is ſeated partly on iſlands, and partly on the continent, and has a territory that extends twelve miles round, in which are ſeveral large villages and fine ſeats. Its ſtreets are for the moſt part pretty ſpacious, and ſome of them make a grand appearance; but ſeveral are very narrow, and there are many lanes. The houſes, which are built with brick, are very high, and thoſe in the broad ſtreets make a handſome appearance. This is the ſecond of the Hanſe towns, and one of the principal among them. It is not only naturally ſtrong, but is as well fortified by art as a place of its magnitude can well admit of. It is nearly circular, and five or ſix miles in circumference. The walls and other fortifications that lie open to view, are planted with rows of very high trees, ſo that on that ſide of the walls next Altena, none of the houſes can be ſeen. It has ſix gates, and three entrances by water, namely, two from the Elbe, and one from the Alſter. The wall is defended by twenty-three bulwarks, beſides other outworks, and a very deep ditch. A noble line with other works run from the largeſt baſon of the Alſter to the Elbe, about half a mile above the town; and on the other ſide of the baſon below the town, is the Star-ſconce, a fortification ſo ſtrong, that in 1686, the king of Denmark with all his army could not take it, after a ſix weeks ſiege.

The number of houſes in Hamburg are ſaid to amount to about thirty thouſand, and it has ſix large market-places. The churches are antient, large, and handſome

ſtructures; but are open thoroughfares all day long, and in ſome of them are bookſellers ſhops. Here are ſix lofty ſteeples, ſome of which are covered with copper, though the frames are only of timber. The great ſpire of St. Peter is the higheſt, that of St. Michael's is four hundred feet high. St Nicholas's is ſupported by large gilt globes. St. Catharine's has a noble front, adorned with ſtatues in niches, and the ſteeple is formed of ſeveral lantherns diminiſhing to the laſt, which ſupports a ſpire like that of St. Bride's in Fleet-ſtreet, London; but is much taller: round the middle of this ſteeple is a gilt crown, and its organ, which is ſaid to be the beſt in Europe, has ſix thouſand pipes. The ſpire of the cathedral, with the tower on which it is ſupported, are near three hundred and ſixty feet high; and though it is ſecularized, it has a dean and chapter, who with the cathedral and ſeveral houſes belonging to it, are under the immediate protection of his Britannic majeſty, as duke of Bremen. Beſides theſe there are five other very large churches, and eight chapels of eaſe.

Hamburg has an univerſity, well endowed and furniſhed with ſix profeſſors. The ſenate-houſe and town-hall form an antient, large, and noble ſtructure. The exchange, which is built oppoſite to it, is a fine building, but inferior to that in London. The Britiſh reſident and company have a handſome hall. The emperor and ſeveral princes of Germany have their own poſt-houſes; but that for England and Holland is the only one that can be ſaid to belong to the public. Here is alſo an opera houſe, chiefly for the reſidents and other foreigners, of whom there are ſome from moſt of the trading kingdoms in Europe. This city is celebrated for its care of the poor; for they have here an hoſpital for orphans which has a revenue of between fifty and ſixty thouſand pounds a year: they have ſometimes above three hundred infants abroad at nurſe, who, when able to dreſs themſelves, are taken into the houſe: the boys, if they ſhew extraordinary abilities, are maintained at the univerſity, the reſt are put out to trades; and the girls, after they can read, ſpin, knit, &c. are ſent to ſervice. There are alſo a large hoſpital for poor travellers that fall ſick, and another for the relief of maimed, antient, and decayed ſeamen, where care is alſo taken of the widows and children of thoſe who loſe their lives in the ſervice of the public. In another about a hundred and fourteen poor, old, blind, and dumb people are maintained. There is likewiſe St. Job's for the venereal diſeaſe; and a peſt-houſe. Beſides theſe hoſpitals there are many ſmaller for poor widowers, widows, orphans, &c. and a great number of free ſchools; with two work-houſes, where rugs and coarſe kerſeys are manufactured, with which thoſe confined are cloathed. In one of them, ſuch as have not performed their taſk are hoiſted up in a baſket over a table in the hall while the reſt are at dinner, that they may be tantalized with the ſight and ſmell of what they muſt not taſte. Here are likewiſe ſocieties for making good loſſes by fire.

Hamburg, from its ſituation, has all poſſible advantages for foreign and domeſtic trade, and therefore merchants from all the trading nations in Europe reſort thither, and their goods are ſent up the Elbe into the heart of Germany: the ſhips come up to their doors to lade and unlade, and this city has ſuch advantages from its port, its rivers, and canals, that can no where be exceeded in Europe; for, beſides the Elbe, which enters the German ocean below the town, a canal is opened into the river Trave, for the ſake of a communication with Lubec and the Baltic ſea, without going round the coaſt of Jutland, and the difficulties and expence which attend paſſing the Sound. Hence its trade is very conſiderable; for the Elbe, and the many navigable rivers that fall into it, after taking their courſe through ſome of the richeſt and moſt trading parts in Germany, furniſh this city with the produce and manufactures of Auſtria, Bohemia, and Upper and Lower Saxony. By the Havel and Spree it trades with the electorate of Brandenburg; and by a canal from the Spree to the Oder, its commerce is extended into Sileſia, Moravia, Poland, and almoſt to Hungary.

The principal merchandize exported from Hamburg, eſpecially to Great Britain, are linen of ſeveral countries, great quantities of linen yarn, tin plates, braſs, ſteel, and iron, wire, corn, kid-ſkins, pipe-ſtaves, clap-boards, and other timber.

The chief articles which the Hamburghers import from abroad are woollen manufactures from England, the value of which from Yorkſhire alone, and generally ſhipped from Hull, is computed to amount to above a hundred thouſand pounds a year; with Engliſh ſtockings, and other goods, amounting to a very great ſum. The Engliſh merchants make a very extraordinary figure here; they form a body that has ſeveral privileges, and have a church and miniſter of their own. The Hamburghers alſo trade very conſiderably into Livonia and Ruſſia; and for the goods they ſend into the north part of the empire, and into Poland, they have a return in linen yarn, fine flax, honey, wax, aniſeed, linſeed, oil, drugs, &c.

Above two hundred Engliſh ſhips enter this harbour every year, and a great number come from Spain, Portugal, and Italy. This city has a great ſhare in the Greenland whale-fiſhery, having commonly fifty or ſixty ſhips employed in this trade, whence they are able to export great quantities of oil and whale-bone; but from their great trade upon the Elbe they are obliged to buy more of theſe articles from the Dutch, than their own ſhips can ſupply them with. In time of war they fit out ſhips of force to convoy their merchantmen; and they are ſtrong at land as well as ſea, they having a conſtant garriſon of near two thouſand men, and being able to arm twelve or fourteen thouſand.

Beſides the beer brewed here, great quantities of which are exported, they have erected ſeveral manufactures, particularly weaving of damaſks, brocades, velvets, and other rich ſilks, calico-printing, and ſugar-baking.

The government of this city is veſted in the ſenate and three colleges of burghers, and is a mixture of the ariſtocratical and democratical form: the principal perſons of the republic are veſted with almoſt every act of ſovereignty, while the management of the finances is ſolely entruſted to the burghers. They are governed by their own magiſtrates, have no ſeat or vote in the general diet of the empire, and are only ſubject to the general laws of the Germanic body. They are, however, under the protection of the emperor, to whom they pay annually eighty thouſand crowns.

The common priſon in this city for malefactors is in the hangman's houſe. After ſentence is pronounced, which is always on Friday, and the execution on the Monday following, they are carried not to a dungeon, but to a handſome upper room, where they are allowed a good bed, with all reaſonable comforts ſuitable to their condition, and are conſtantly attended by one of the city clergymen, a duty which they are all obliged to perform by rotation. As no criminal can be put to death without his pleading guilty, they have five degrees of torture in order to extort a confeſſion, and theſe are applied one after another in proportion to the ſtrength of the evidence in ſupport of the charge or accuſation. The degree of the torture is lodged in the breaſt of the judges, who are always preſent with a clerk in order to take down the confeſſion, at a table with a curtain drawn round it; ſo that they can hear and ſpeak to the poor tortured wretch without being eye-witneſſes of the cruelty, and can either relax or increaſe the torture according to the ſtrength and other circumſtances of the ſufferer. It will not be improper here to obſerve, that among the ſeveral convents of this city, all of which have been ſecularized and are now Lutheran, one of them is obliged by its foundation to offer a glaſs of wine to every malefactor that is carried by it to execution.

Few or no beggars are to be ſeen in the ſtreets of this city, which is partly owing to their being picked up by the beadles, who have a reward for it, and carry them to the houſe of correction, and partly to the manufacture of knit ſtockings, worſted being carried by the pariſh officers to the habitations of the poor, and alſo wool to be carded and ſpun; theſe fetch their work from thence every Saturday, and pay them what they have earned. A curious piece of work here intitles an artificer to the freedom of his company, a benefit that can no otherwiſe be obtained but either by ſervitude, by marrying a freeman's widow or daughter, or elſe at a very great expence.

The merchants of Hamburg are courteous, but too ceremonious and full of compliments; and though very frugal in their own houſes, yet are extremely liberal when they treat ſtrangers. They are fond of having gardens at the city gates. Coaches here are very numerous, though the crookedneſs and narrowneſs of many of the ſtreets renders them inconvenient, and there is hardly a merchant or even conſiderable ſhop-keeper without one. The hackney-coaches are alſo very numerous. The common carts are only a long pulley to a ſort of truckle upon an axle-tree, between two wheels, drawn not by horſes, but by a dozen or more men, who are linked to theſe machines with ſlings acroſs their ſhoulders, and drag along a weight of two tons.

Among the other peculiarities, the ladies are attended to church not by a footman, but by a ſervant-maid, with a book hanging by a ſilver chain upon one arm, and, if the weather be very cold, with a braſs ſtove upon the other.

Both ſtrangers and natives of the beſt faſhion ſpend their time at an odd kind of tavern kept in a cellar, or vault, which has a prodigious ſtock and a great vent for old hock, &c. and brings in a conſiderable revenue to the ſtate, it being under the management of a deputy, put in by a ſelect number of the magiſtrates.

Altena is a conſiderable town ſeated in a moſt delightful country on a high ſhore of the Elbe, not above a cannon-ſhot to the weſt of Hamburg. It contains about three thouſand houſes, and upwards of thirty thouſand inhabitants, with two Lutheran churches, and the ſame number for the German and Daniſh Calviniſts, with a fifth for the French Calviniſts, a ſixth for the Papiſts, and two Menonite churches, beſides thoſe belonging to other ſects, who are allowed the free exerciſe of their religion: the Jews are alſo very numerous, and have a large ſynagogue, but pay two thouſand ducats a year as protection-money. Here is a royal ſeminary, to which the town-ſchool is united, an orphan and poor-houſe, and an anatomical theatre, with three docks for the building of ſhips. Among its ornaments is the mall, which, being planted with four rows of trees, forms an agreeable walk. This town has a variety of manufactures, and its trade is far from being inconſiderable.

The origin of its name is thus accounted for: deputies from Hamburg, in a remonſtrance to the king of Denmark againſt building it too near their city, frequently made uſe of the words *Dat is all te nae*, or That is too near; the king taking particular notice of the three laſt monoſyllables, ſaid banteringly to the deputies, he could not excuſe himſelf from going on building it; but that to oblige them he would call it by the name they had given it. This town is famous for the calamities it ſuffered in 1712, when count Steinbock, the Swediſh general, after defeating the king of Denmark, appeared before Altena, and ſending a meſſage to adviſe the inhabitants to retire with ſuch of their effects as they could carry off, the magiſtrates came out in a body, and falling at his feet, offered him fifty thouſand rixdollars to ſpare the town. Steinbock inſiſted on two hundred thouſand: this they were ready to comply with, and only begged time to go to Hamburg for the money; but the general would admit of no delay; ſo that the inhabitants were obliged to leave the place, the mothers with their infants at their breaſts, the ſons with their aged fathers on their backs, others groaned under loads of houſhold furniture; while all bewailed their fate with dreadful cries and lamentations. While they paſſed out the Swedes ſtood ready with flaming torches in their hands, and, before they were all gone out, entered the town and ſet fire to all parts of it, which burnt about two thouſand houſes, with ſeveral fine magazines, and the popiſh church; ſome old men, women, and infants alſo periſhed in the flames; but they ſpared the Lutheran and Calviniſt churches, with about eighty houſes that lay on the ſide next Hamburg. The Swedes, in juſtification of this barbarous proceeding, pretended that magazines of proviſions and ſtores were preparing here for the Ruſſians and Saxons, and that it was done by way of repriſal for the burning of Stade, and other cruelties committed by the Danes and Ruſſians in Bremen and Pomerania. But it ought to be remembered, that the Danes had beſieged Stade in form, and that its deſtruction proceeded from their bombs; while Steinbock acted the part of a cruel incendiary againſt naked walls, and a poor defenceleſs people. What compleated the ruin of Altena was the raging of the plague at the ſame time in Holſtein; ſo that the Hamburghers were forced, for their own preſervation, to ſhut the gates of the city againſt their diſtreſſed neighbours, many of whom periſhed through cold and want. The king of Denmark, however, relieved them as far as poſſible, and ſupplied them with materials for rebuilding their town, which, by the help of charities, has been done in a beautiful manner, and is at preſent a finer and more pleaſant town than ever, it being the market for the ſale of goods brought by the Daniſh Eaſt India company from the Indies.

The laſt place we ſhall mention in Holſtein is Lubec, the chief of the Hanſe towns. This city is ſeated at the confluence of ſeveral rivers, the largeſt of which is the Trave, upon which it has a harbour. It ſtands fifteen miles to the ſouth-weſt of the Baltic, and thirty-eight from Hamburg, in the fifty-fourth degree thirty-one minutes north latitude, and in the tenth degree forty-two minutes eaſt longitude.

This is a large, rich, populous, free, and imperial city, about two miles in length, and upwards of a mile in breadth. The city ſtands on the two ſides of a long hill of moderate height, the eaſtern part extending down the declivity towards the river Wackenitz, as the weſtern does towards the Trave. It is environed with walls, towers, falſe brays, wide moats, and ſtrong ramparts, which being planted with trees, form a very delightful walk. The houſes are all of ſtone, but old faſhioned, and the ſtreets, which are pretty ſtraight and lofty, are for the moſt part ſteep; but others at the bottom of the hill have a canal running through the middle, with rows of limes on the ſides. The churches are magnificent, and amount to about twenty, beſides the cathedral. It has ſeveral large market-places, and handſome public buildings, particularly the town-houſe, which is a ſuperb ſtructure, and has ſeveral towers. On the ground-floor is the hall of audience, which is well furniſhed, where the ſenate aſſembles, and in this ſtructure are the archives of the Hanſe-towns. Here is alſo a fine exchange. The collegiate church of St. Mary is a noble pile, richly adorned with images and pictures; among the laſt is one called the Dance of Death. This ſtructure is ſupported by tall pillars, each of one ſtone, and has a very lofty ſpire covered with gilt lead. The nunnery of St. John has an abbeſs or domina, a prioreſs, and twenty-two conventualiſts, and has its own church and chaplain. The convent of St. Mary Magdalen was, at the time of the reformation, converted into a poor houſe, which has alſo its particular church and chaplain. In the ſuppreſſed convent of St. Catharine has been founded a grammar ſchool of ſeven claſſes, and in that building is a public library. The convent of St. Anne has been converted into an alms-houſe, and houſe of correction, both which are handſome buildings under excellent regulations. Here is alſo an hoſpital dedicated to the Holy Ghoſt, an orphan houſe, a ſmall-pox hoſpital, and many other charitable foundations.

The corporation conſiſts of four burgomaſters and ſixteen counſellors, who may be either men of letters, patricians, or tradeſmen. The burghers conſiſt of twelve companies, each of which has a vote in the public deliberations. An alliance ſtill ſubſiſts between Lubec, Hamburg, and Bremen, and under the title of Hanſe-towns they negociate treaties of commerce with foreign powers.

The principal home commodity, beſides corn, is their beer, which is highly valued, and much of it exported.

The biſhopric of Lubec is a ſmall territory, that has been enjoyed by proteſtant princes ever ſince the year 1561, when Lutheraniſm was eſtabliſhed in this biſhopric, and it has devolved as an inheritance to a younger ſon of the duke of Holſtein Gottorp, ſtiled duke of Holſtein Eutin, from his uſual place of reſidence about five miles from the city; but he has ſince been raiſed to the throne of Sweden. This territory extends about ſixty miles in compaſs, containing ſeveral ſmall towns, and one hundred and three villages.

SECT.

SECT. XXV.

Of the Dutchies of Saxe-Lauenburg, Bremen and Verden, and the Principality of Lunenberg-Zell. Their Situation, Extent, Produce, Government, and principal Towns.

THE dutchy of Saxe-Lauenburg is environed by that of Holſtein, the dioceſe of Lubec, the principality of Ratzeburg, the dutchies of Mecklenburg and Lunenburg, and the four countries, as they are called. The face of the land of this dutchy is for the moſt part level, and the ſoil, according to its different goodneſs, is divided into wheat-land, barley-land, ſand and heath. Dr. Buſching obſerves, that in general it requires much labour to make the corn that is ſown yield five or ſix fold; it, however, produces large quantities of flax; great advantages are alſo made of its woods, and, in good ſeaſons, the maſtage of the oak and beech turns to a conſiderable account; but grazing, however, ſeems moſt adapted to the nature of the country, and conſequently to be moſt profitable.

The inhabitants are of the Lutheran religion, and in the whole dutchy there are only three boroughs and one market-town; though the inhabitants amount to about thirty-ſix thouſand ſouls, manufactures are but little known here. The exports of the country amount annually to about a thouſand laſts of rye, four hundred and fifty pound of cheeſe, ſeven thouſand ſtone of wool, timber, and wood for fuel, to the amount of twenty thouſand rixdollars, a conſiderable quantity of butter, and ſome fiſh.

The king of Great-Britain is entitled, on account of his poſſeſſing this dutchy, to a ſeat and voice in the college of the princes of the empire. But though Saxe-Lauenburg is dependent on the privy council at Hanover, it has its own particular regency, which conſiſts of the chief governor for the time being, and three regency counſellors. It has alſo its own tribunal, which is compoſed of a judge, two provincials, and two counſellors at law, with the like number of aſſeſſors, who are not in the ſovereign's ſervice. The principal places in this dutchy are Ratzeburg and Lauenburg.

Ratzeburg is a ſtrong town, nine miles to the ſouth of Lubec, ſeated on an iſland, in a large and deep lake of the ſame name, from whence a river iſſues, by means of which boats go to Lubec with goods and paſſengers. In the year 1693, the Danes bombarding this place, laid it in aſhes; but ſince that time the ſtreets have been regularly built after the Dutch manner. In the market-place ſtands the regency office, where is alſo held the chief court of juſtice and the conſiſtory. Near the lake to the north-weſt of the town, where boats go off to Lubec, is a delightful walk of limes and aſh trees, named Belvedere. One part of the town belongs to the principality of Ratzeburg in Mecklenburg Strelitz: the bridge on that ſide is above four hundred paces long, and the rebuilding of it coſt at leaſt ten thouſand rixdollars, Lubec money; but the town is to keep it in repair.

Lawenburg, or Lauenburg, a ſmall town, ſituated on a hill near the Elbe and Steckenitz, twenty-five miles to the ſouth of Lubec. Several of the houſes are built ſo low, that the upper ſtory lies level with the ſtreets, while the ground floor of others is ſome ells higher. This town ſubſiſts by ſhipping, and its trade in corn and wood. It is alſo a great thoroughfare for goods brought up the Elbe to Lubec. Here is a toll on the Elbe, the produce of which is very conſiderable, and in the town formerly ſtood the duke's palace, which was erected on an eminence. One wing of this palace ſtill remains, and in it is held the court of the bailiwic of Lawenburg.

We now come to the dutchies of Bremen and Verden; the former terminates to the eaſtward, on the principality of Lawenburg; to the ſouth-eaſtward on that of Verden; to the ſouthward on the Weſer; to the weſtward on the ſame river; and to the northward on a territory belonging to the city of Hamburg, and the river Elbe. Its dimenſions are variouſly given; but ſome authors make it ſixty miles in length, and fifty in breadth.

The country is very level. The Elbe and the Weſer, by which the greateſt part of it is environed, receive into them ſeveral other rivers; as for inſtance, the Oſte, Schwinge, and the Luke, diſcharge themſelves into the Elbe, and the Weſer receives into it the Geeſte, the Leſum, the Rodau, and the Wiedau.

The banks of the Elbe, the Oſte, and the Weſer are bordered with very rich marſh-lands, and in ſome places the country produces extraordinary plenty of grain and fruit. For the preſervation of theſe marſh-lands againſt inundations, the dykes and dams are kept in conſtant repair at a great expence, under the inſpection of officers appointed for that purpoſe. Great numbers of cattle are bred here: the heaths are alſo covered with ſheep, and the breeding of bees is much followed. In ſome places is dug a kind of free-ſtone, and in others great quantities of turf, which is exported to Bremen and Hamburg, and uſed in the brick-kilns and glaſs-houſes. Theſe countries alſo yield a great deal of flax.

The eſtabliſhed religion of the inhabitants is Lutheraniſm, and in the dutchy of Bremen are one hundred and eleven churches, with one hundred thirty-ſeven paſtors. The ſupreme inſpection of the churches of this dutchy, and of Verden, is veſted in a general ſuperintendent. As to the Calviniſts, they form ſeven congregations in the dutchy of Bremen.

The only manufactures here are the making of cordage, linen and woollen cloth, kerſeys, and other woollen ſtuffs.

The dutchy of Bremen was formed out of an archbiſhopric, which was ſubdued by the Swedes in 1644; but at the peace of Weſtphalia in 1648, they returned it as a dutchy and fief of the empire. In 1675, the duke of Brunſwic and Lunenburg, in conjunction with the biſhop of Munſter, over-run the country. The conquerors thought of ſharing the dutchies of Bremen and Verden between them; but Sweden kept the whole to herſelf, except a ſmall part, which was reſtored to the duke of Brunſwic and Lunenburg. During the northern war, theſe dutchies were reduced by the Danes; but in 1715, king Frederic IV. transferred them to the elector of Brunſwic, in lieu of the ſum of ſeven hundred thouſand rixdollars, and afterwards Sweden likewiſe ceded them to that elector; for which the king received a million of rixdollars.

The elector of Brunſwic, as duke of Bremen, bears the arms of the archbiſhopric, that is, Gules two keys in a ſaltire argent, with a ſmall croſs argent in chief.

The dutchies of Bremen and Verden are jointly under the following colleges: the regency, which conſiſts of three counſellors, and is ſubordinate to the privy council at Hanover; and the chancery, which is compoſed of three counſellors of the regency, a director, and certain judiciary counſellors, and takes cognizance of criminal and other cauſes. In the high court of juſtice ſit all the members of the chancery, with ſeven aſſeſſors, who are nominated by the ſtates of each dutchy. To this court of juſtice all civil caſes requiring a judicial deciſion are ſubject, as alſo the officers of the ſovereign in affairs in which the prince is concerned, together with the nobility and the magiſtrates of the towns. From this tribunal appeals are carried to the high-court of appeals at Zell.

The chief branches of the revenues of the elector are thoſe of the domain bailiwics, exciſe, ſtamp-duty, &c. The principal town ſubject to the king of Great-Britain, as duke of Bremen, is

Stade, which is ſeated on the Schwinge near the place where that river flows into the Elbe. This town is the ſeat of the regency of the dutchies of Bremen and Verden, as alſo of the chancery, chief court of juſtice, and conſiſtory. It contains three churches, and a Latin ſchool. Stade was formerly a place of conſiderable trade, and from the year 1586 to 1612 had an Engliſh ſtaple, which was removed to Hamburg; but by a concurrence of misfortunes it is now greatly declined. This city has been frequently taken and retaken, but in 1757 his late majeſty king George II. cauſed great improvements to be made in the fortifications.

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We ſhall now give a particular deſcription of the imperial city of Bremen. It is ſeated on the Weſer, which divides it into the Old and New Town, but both of theſe are joined by a large bridge, and a ſmaller one that extends over a little branch of the ſame river. In the year 1744, all the buildings and inhabitants were numbered, when the Old and New Town, excluſive of the ſuburbs, contained four thouſand ſeven hundred and ſeventy-eight houſes, with five hundred and ſixty-five other edifices, as ſtore-houſes, brew-houſes, and the like, four thouſand and ninity-nine married couple, that is one thouſand five hundred and eighty-nine Calviniſts, one thouſand ſeven hundred and ſeventy-two Lutherans, eighty-one Papiſts, two hundred and eighteen widowers, one thouſand two hundred and thirty-nine widows, two hundred and thirty-three ſingle men, who were houſe-keepers, and three-hundred fifty-nine ſingle women houſe-keepers.

The Old Town, which is the largeſt and moſt populous, is divided into four pariſhes, according to the four capital churches belonging to the Calviniſts, viz. of our Lady, St. Anſgarius, St. Stephen, and St. Martin. In this part ſtands the cathedral, which belongs to the dutchy, and is frequented by the Lutherans. Under its choir is the lead-cellar, remarkable for the undecayed bodies that lie there. Here is alſo the convent of St. John with its church, the celebrated academy of the Calviniſts, with its ſpacious library, the armoury, the hoſpital, in which is an anatomical theatre, the work-houſe, and other public buildings. Under the large bridge of the Weſer is a water-wheel, which works an engine that raiſes the water by which the city is ſupplied, as in London, by pipes laid under the ſtreets; and at the other end of this bridge is an ingenious fulling-mill.

In the New Town is St. Paul's church, which belongs to the Calviniſts, and in the ſuburbs are two more. The New Town conſiſts chiefly of gardens and little pleaſure-houſes belonging to the principal merchants, and other inhabitants of the Old city; it has larger and more regular ſtreets than the latter, and moſt of them are planted with rows of limes and wild cheſnuts. The Calviniſt is the eſtabliſhed religion, it being profeſſed by the whole body of the corporation, though with reſpect to numbers they are nearly equalled by the Lutherans. The corporation is compoſed of four burgo-maſters, and twenty-four counſellors, or aldermen. The merchants and tradeſmen have their elders; but theſe have no ſhare in the government of the city. The garriſon conſiſts of about ſix hundred men. Here are ſeveral manufactures, and the inhabitants carry on a conſiderable trade.

Verden is bounded on the eaſt and ſouth by the dutchy of Lunenburg, on the weſt by the Weſer and the dutchy of Bremen, and on the north by the dutchies of Bremen and Lunenburg, extending both in length and breadth about twenty-eight miles.

This dutchy conſiſts chiefly of heaths, and high, dry land, as alſo of foreſts; but there are good marſh-lands on the rivers Weſer and Aller. The latter waters almoſt all the ſoutherly, but the Weſer only a part of the weſterly boundaries of the country, and this laſt receives alſo the Aller. The other principal river is the Wumme, which riſes on the borders of Lunenburg, traverſes the dutchy from eaſt to weſt, and receives into it the ſmaller rivers that riſe here.

The inhabitants are Lutherans, who have the ſame conſiſtory with the dutchy of Bremen, and one and the ſame general ſuperintendent.

Verden was formerly a biſhopric founded by Charlemagne; but John Frederic the laſt biſhop was of the royal houſe of Denmark, and afterwards became king of Denmark and Norway, under the name of Frederic III. At the peace of Weſtphalia in 1648, the crown of Sweden obtained the biſhopric as a dutchy, and in 1712, the Danes invading Bremen, the inhabitants of Brunſwic-Lunenburg poſſeſſed themſelves of the dutchy of Verden, on account of the plague raging in the former. In ſhort, in the year 1715, by virtue of the alliance concluded at Wiſmar, both Bremen and Verden were ceded by the king of Denmark to the electoral houſe of Brunſwic-Lunenburg; and this ceſſion was made by the crown of Sweden in the year 1719.

This dutchy has the ſame regency as that of Bremen, and contains ſeveral towns, the principal of which is

Verden, ſeated on the Aller, a river that divides itſelf into two branches, the ſmaller of which lies near the town. It is ſituated twenty-ſix miles to the ſouth-eaſt of Bremen, and has four churches, which are the cathedral, the church of St. Andrew, which lies near it, that of St. Nicholas, and that of St. John. There is here alſo a Latin ſchool.

The dutchy of Lunenburg-Zell is bounded by the river Elbe, which on the north ſeparates it from Holſtein and Lauenburg; on the eaſt by the marquiſate of Brandenburg, and on the weſt by the dutchies of Bremen and Weſtphalia, it extending about a hundred miles in length, and ſeventy in breadth.

The ſoil is various, for along the Elbe, the Aller, the Zetze, and ſome ſmaller rivers, are fruitful marſh-lands; but other parts of the country conſiſt of barren ſand, others of heaths, others of turf, and others are ſwampy. The worſt parts of the country are towards its center, through which lie the main roads; but a traveller is not from thence to form an idea of the whole country. Agreeably to the diverſity of its ſoil, it produces wheat, rye, barley, oats, buck-wheat, flax, hemp, hops, and garden plants. They have alſo oak, beach, firs, pines, birch, and elder, with other trees. Some bailiwics do not yield a ſufficiency of wheat; but others again have a ſuperfluity; in ſome, few horned cattle and horſes are bred, though in others they abound. The heaths are covered with numerous flocks of a ſmall kind of ſheep, that have long and coarſe wool; and the culture of bees is ſo great, as to afford conſiderable quantities of honey and wax. Lunenburg abounds in excellent lime-ſtone and valuable ſalt ſprings, and the rivers yield plenty of fiſh.

With reſpect to the rivers, the Elbe, which traverſes the eaſt and north ſide of this country, is of conſiderable advantage, from its fertilizing the adjacent marſh-lands, and its having fiſheries, navigations, and tolls. This river receives into it the Zetze, which flows from Brandenburg; the Ilmenau, another navigable river which riſes in this country; the Luhe, which alſo riſes here; the Seeve, and other ſmaller rivers. The Aller, which is alſo navigable, traverſes the whole ſouthern part of the dutchy, and being joined by ſeveral ſmall rivers, continues its courſe into the dutchy of Verden.

The inhabitants of this country are of the Lutheran religion, and there are near two hundred pariſh churches in this dutchy. Theſe are divided into fifteen ſuperintendencies, and over theſe are appointed two general ſuperintendents.

The principal manufactures made here are thoſe of linen, cotton, woollen cloths, ribbons, ſtockings, and hats; and at Zell are ſome ingenious artificers in gold and ſilver.

The exports chiefly conſiſt of corn, meal, garden-ſtuff, hops, flax, ſtarch, timber, beams, maſts, all kinds of wooden ware, ſhips, barges, boats, horſes, black cattle, fatted calves, milk, butter, cheeſe, poultry, wool, wax, honey, ſalt, ſugar, thread, linen, knit and wove ſtockings, ſtuffs, works in gold and ſilver, &c. The conveyance of merchandize from this place to and from Hamburg, Lubec, and Altena, affords a conſiderable branch of commerce; many of the inhabitants procuring ſubſiſtance by navigating the rivers.

The principal towns in this dutchy are the following:

Lunenburg, the capital, is ſeated on a navigable river called the Elmen, or Ilmenau, which runs through a part of the town. This city is fourteen miles to the ſouth-weſt of Lawenburg; it is ſurrounded with moats and walls, ſtrengthened with towers, and is two miles and a half in compaſs. It conſiſts of thirteen hundred houſes, with between eight and nine thouſand inhabitants. Here are three pariſh churches, that of St. John, to which is annexed the ſuperintendency, with a Latin ſchool conſiſting of five claſſes; and thoſe of St. Nicholas and St. Lambert. In the church of St. Mary was formerly a convent of Minims, which at preſent ſerves for the town armoury, a library, and a houſe of correc-

tion. It has alſo three hoſpitals, two of which have each a church. In the market-place ſtands the prince's palace, with the guild-hall, and fronting them is the Præmonſtratenſian abbey of Heiligenthal, which was ſequeſtered by the magiſtracy in 1530, and its church now ſerves for a magazine of ſalt. In 1753 an anatomical theatre was built here. The convent of St. Michael, which was formerly of the Benedictine order, and conſiſted of monks of noble families, embraced the ſentiments of Luther in the year 1532; and in 1655 duke Chriſtian Lewis, with the approbation of the nobility, ſuppreſſed the monaſtery, and founded within it a ſchool for martial exerciſes, which is ſtiled the academy. The director, like the antient ſuperior of this houſe, is the head of the ſtates of this principality; he is alſo preſident of the provincial college, and next in rank to the privy counſellors. This perſon is even ſtiled excellency, and in public inſtruments makes uſe of the following title: By the grace of God, landſchaft, director, and lord of the manſion of St. Michael, in Lunenburg. He is alſo chancellor of the academy, where young gentlemen, natives of the principality of Lunenburg, are maintained gratis; but foreigners are educated at a certain price, and taught French, fencing, riding, and dancing. The members of this academy live in a ſpacious ſtone edifice, built in the year 1711, and counts and even princes have been of their number. Within the conventual church of St. Michael is the antient burial-place of the dukes, and on its great altar ſtands a celebrated golden table, which is a board formerly plaited over with gold; but which, in 1698, was ſtripped by a famous robber named Nickel Liſt; ſo that at preſent only a ſmall quantity of the gold remains. In the convent is alſo a Latin ſchool of four claſſes, to which belongs the hoſpital of St. Benedict, with its chapel, and ſeveral country churches and conſiderable eſtates.

In a part of the city, within the walls, ſalt ſprings ariſe; this quarter, which is called the Sulze, is walled in, and has its own ſeparate magiſtrates. It conſiſts of fifty-four ſmall houſes built deep in the earth, and in each are four large leaden ciſterns, which are new caſt every month for receiving the ſalt water, which is left to exhale in them in order to form the ſalt. Theſe ſprings are very copious, and four of them are in this place, three in one of the town moats, and one near the building that once ſerved for a Minorite convent. From theſe ſeveral ſprings the ſalt-water is conveyed by pipes into a reſervoir in the Sulze, and there diſtributed among the houſes. The ſalt-houſes are fifty-four in number, and contain two hundred and ſixteen ciſterns of ſalt, which are daily boiled; and of theſe ſalt-works a fifth part belongs to the ſovereign.

To the weſt of the city are two rocks, known by the names of Schildſtein and Kalkberg. The latter is near the New-gate, and even within its walls. This is a ſteep rock, in which are ſpacious caverns that contain a great number of terraſſes. Towards the city it is ſurrounded by a crown-work, which joins the town wall; on the other ſide is erected a horn-work; and round its ſummit, which is level, runs a breaſt-work, on which are planted ſome cannon.

The exports of this city conſiſt of ſalt, lime, and beer, wax, honey, wool, flax, linen, and frieze. Goods are alſo brought here from all parts of Germany, and forwarded down the Ilmenau to Hamburg, and by means of the Achſe to Lubec; their returns coming the ſame way. The warehouſes for theſe imports and exports ſtand on the Ilmenau, and the commerce carried on here is ſuperintended by a particular commiſſion.

Ultzen is a town ſeated on the Ilmenau, by two branches of which it is ſurrounded. Here that river firſt receives its name, it being formed by the conflux of eleven rivulets. It was once navigable at this place; ſhips from England even traded here, and the antient harbour belonging to it is ſtill to be ſeen. In the great church is alſo ſhewn a ſhip of gilt copper, which was a preſent to the corporation from the Engliſh. The town contains about three hundred and twenty-nine houſes, three hundred and four of which belong to the burghers, and the others are inhabited by the gentry, eccleſiaſtics, and men of letters. The firſt miniſter of the great church is provoſt, and ſuperintendent of ſeventeen country miniſters. In the town are two alms-houſes, with a church to one of them; and without the town is another alms-houſe, with a church. The adjacent country produces a very fine ſort of flax, and the neighbouring villages weave great quantities of linen. The town had formerly a very flouriſhing trade in thread, linen, woollen, wax, beer, and brandy, and received great advantage from its being a conſiderable thorough-fare for goods and perſons; but its trade is at preſent greatly declined.

Zell is a fortified and well built city, ſeated on the Aller, which is here navigable, and, in conjunction with the ſuburb of Fritzenwieſe, conſiſts of five hundred and ſixty-four houſes; but, including the other ſuburbs, ſummer-houſes, and buildings without the gates, their number amounts to about fourteen hundred. At this place are held the high court of appeals for the ſeveral territories of the electoral houſe of Brunſwic-Lunenburg, with the chancery, and chief tribunal of the principality of Lunenburg. The other public edifices are the guild-hall, the riding-houſe, the mews, and the armoury. The remarkable buildings in the ſuburbs are the Neuſtadt church, that of the Calviniſts, the prince's mews and garden, St. George's alms-houſe, the Alumlager church, the alms-houſe of St. Anne, the hoſpital for diſabled ſoldiers, and the orphan-houſe. This town principally ſubſiſts by its being a great thorough-fare, and the ſeat of the high court of appeals. It has manufacturers and artificers in various branches, particularly in gold and ſilver, whoſe performances are much admired even in other countries.

Haarburg, a town ſeated on the Seeve, which runs through it, and, after being joined by the Engelbach, diſcharges itſelf, near this place, into the Elbe. It conſiſts of four hundred and ſeventy-two houſes, beſides thoſe belonging to noblemen, and is the ſeat of the two general ſuperintendences of this principality; as likewiſe of a ſpecial ſuperintendency under the direction of the general ſuperintendent, who is always the head miniſter of the pariſh church. Here are manufactures of cotton, ſtockings, hats, ribbons, wax-bleachery, ſtarch, and the refining of ſugar. As Haarburg is commodiouſly ſituated for commerce and navigation, it carries on a conſiderable trade to Holland in knee-timber, beams, maſts, and floats.

SECT. XXV.

Of the Dutchy of Brunſwic-Lunenburg, or the Electorate of Hanover, with the Principality of Grabenhagen, and the Counties of Blackenburg and Rheinſtein; their Situation, Extent, Produce, Manufactures, Government, and principal Cities and Towns.

THE dutchy of Brunſwic, taken at large, includes the dutchy of Hanover, the principality of Grabenhagen, and the counties of Blackenburg and Rheinſtein; and is bounded on the ſouth by Thuringia and Heſſe Caſſel; on the weſt by the river Weſer, which divides it from the principality of Minden, and the counties of Lippe and Hoye; on the north by Lunenburg; and on the eaſt by Magdeburg, and the principalities of Halberſtadt and Anhalt.

But within this compaſs is included not only the dutchy of Brunſwic-Lunenburg, which belongs to the king of Great Britain, but Brunſwic-Wolfembuttle, which is governed by its own ſovereign, and will be hereafter deſcribed: we are now to treat only of the former.

The dutchy of Hanover, alſo called Calenberg, from a caſtle that was formerly the reſidence of the prince, is bounded on the north by Lunenburg-Zell; on the eaſt by the dutchy of Brunſwic-Wolfenbuttle, and the biſhopric of Hildeſheim; on the ſouth by Grubenhagen, which Moll calls Brunſwic-Lunenburg; and on the weſt by the county of Schawenburg; extending thirty-three miles from north to ſouth, and eighteen from eaſt to weſt.

All

All the rivers, ſtreams, and brooks in this principality diſcharge themſelves either into the Weſer, or the Leina. The former of theſe waſhes it on the weſt, and the latter on the eaſt. The principal mountains are the Deiſter and the Suntel in the north, and the Solingerwald in the ſouth; but the mountainous and ſtony parts, with the moraſſes, heaths, and ſands, yield very little: this country has, however, many marſhy, clayey, and loamy tracts, mixed with earth and ſand, where all kinds of fruit and vegetables thrive, as wheat, rye, barley, oats, lentils, peas, beans, vetches, buck-wheat, plenty of good fruit, excellent garden plants and roots, hops, flax, and tobacco. It has alſo fine woods of oak, beech, pine, aſp, birch, alder, &c. which afford timber for the building of ſhips and houſes; as alſo wood for fuel and other uſes. The maſtage from the oaks and beech are likewiſe of great advantage.

This country alſo abounds in a large breed of horſes, black cattle, and ſheep; and there is here no want of veniſon, game, and fiſh. At ſeveral places in this principality are marl-pits, quarries of free-ſtone and mill-ſtones, coal-pits, and mines of rich iron ore.

In this country there is no want of manufactures, great quantities of linen yarn are ſpun here, and linen wove not only ſufficient for home conſumption, but likewiſe for exportation, particularly a moſt beautiful damaſk. The printing of linen is here brought to ſuch perfection, that it begins to take place of the uſe of India chintz and calicoes. Cotton is likewiſe ſpun here, and knit or wove into ſtockings, gloves, and caps. The oil-ſkins and carpets printed and painted here are of the beſt ſort. Various branches of the woollen manufacture are made in this principality, more particularly at Gottingen; among theſe are light and ſubſtantial fine cloths, which, for their beauty and the brightneſs and durableneſs of the colours, equal the beſt cloths made in Holland. The worſted ſtockings made at Gottingen are alſo diſtinguiſhed for their fineneſs. At Hanover are two celebrated gold and ſilver manufactures for galloons and laces; as alſo for fringes, toſſils, embroidery, and other works. Among the other manufactures are ſilks, ſtuffs, ſtockings, and ribbons. In different parts are iron-works, mills for the flatting of copper, powder mills, paper and fulling mills, braſs founderies, glaſs-houſes, &c. Large quantities of goods manufactured here are ſent abroad, particularly linen, linen-yarn, Gottingen camblets, baraguins, and other ſtuffs, in which a great trade is carried on to Hamburg, Bremen, Holland, Francfort, and even to Italy.

In this principality are nineteen cities and ſeventeen towns. The four following are ſtiled the great cities: Gottingen, Hanover, Nordheim, and Hamelen, the others being called the ſmall; and in the whole principality are three abbeys and ſix convents, which laſt are all inhabited, one by men, and five by women. There are here alſo two hundred and ten Lutheran pariſh churches, five churches belonging to the Calviniſts, and ſix churches and chapels of the Roman catholics.

There are few ſovereign princes whoſe finances are ſaid to be in ſo good a condition as thoſe of this elector's, owing to the œconomy of the two preceding princes, who have yet kept up a ſplendour ſuitable to their rank: the government here being ſaid to be the leaſt deſpotic of any in the empire; for the elector can neither make laws, nor raiſe taxes, without the conſent of the ſtates, conſiſting of the nobility, clergy, gentry, and towns, who meet regularly every year.

The princes of the two illuſtrious houſes of Brunſwic are deſcended from Erneſt duke of Lunenburg, who died in 1546; the Wolfenbuttle and Bevern branches, (the former of which is now extinct) from Henry the eldeſt ſon, and the electoral houſe of Hanover from William the youngeſt. The electorate attached to the dutchies of Hanover and Zell was concerted at the congreſs held at the Hague in the year 1692, by king William III. and effected by his influence, in conjunction with that of moſt of the proteſtant princes of the empire. Accordingly the ſame year, the emperor Leopold conferred the dignity of elector on prince Erneſt, grandfather of his late majeſty king George II. and his heirs, with the title of ſtandard-bearer to the empire. This, however, met with oppoſition from the college of princes, and particularly from the pope and his adherents However, in 1708, after the death of Erneſt, the firſt elector, the three colleges of the empire agreed to the eſtabliſhment of this new electorate in the perſon of his eldeſt ſon, afterwards George I. king of Great Britain, who then took his ſeat in the diet: but the office of ſtandard-bearer being claimed by the duke of Wurtemburg, the title of arch-treaſurer of the empire was the next year given inſtead of it to the elector of Hanover.

The revenues of the elector from all his German dominions riſing from ſalt-pits or ſprings, taxes, and cattle, merchandize and inns, eſpecially from rich mines of ſilver, iron and copper, are computed to amount to at leaſt four hundred thouſand pounds per annum; or, according to Mr. Hanway's computation, at four millions of dollars, or ſeven hundred thouſand pounds; and it is ſaid, that from theſe dominions alone he may raiſe an army of between thirty and forty thouſand men, without greatly burdening his ſubjects. His majeſty, the preſent elector, has here ſome troops of life-guards, and two regiments of foot guards, of one battalion each, with an uniform of red, lined with blue, and at the court of Hanover are the officers of ſtate uſually found in the courts of crowned heads.

The government here is under the management of the ſix following councils. I. The council of ſtate, to which all Hanover is ſubject, which receives orders immediately from the elector, counterſigned by a German envoy from that electorate, who always attends the Britiſh court.

II. The war-office.

III. The treaſury.

IV. The chancery.

V. The juſtice court, and

VI. The conſiſtory, which is compoſed of the miniſters or preſbytery of the city of Hanover, aſſiſted by lay-elders, who are generally perſons diſtinguiſhed for their learning and piety as well as rank. It is obſervable, that every proteſtant prince and ſtate in Germany has this kind of ſpiritual courts; but theſe have no power in civil affairs, divorces only excepted; and the prince, or ſtate, has always a deputy preſent at all their meetings, to be a check upon their power, and to keep it within due bounds.

This principality is divided into three quarters or departments; the firſt of which is the Hanover quarter, in which are eight cities, three towns, two abbies, ſix convents, and two hundred and twelve villages.

The city of Hanover, the capital of his Britannic majeſty's German dominions, and the ſeat of the electors before their acceſſion to the crown of Great Britain, is pleaſantly ſituated on a ſandy hill upon the Leina, which is only navigable for ſmall boats, in the fifty-ſecond degree twenty-nine minutes north latitude, and in the ninth degree forty-five minutes eaſt longitude, that is three hundred and ſixty-five miles eaſt of London, and forty miles to the weſt of Brunſwic. It is walled round, regularly fortified, and the ravelins before the gates well provided with cannon; but does not ſeem remarkable for its ſtrength. The houſes are moſtly of timber and clay, though many are of ſtone and brick; but the ſtreets are broad, and in winter well lighted with lantherns. It contains about twelve hundred houſes, ſome of which are very large and handſome ſtructures. The Neue Graben, as it is the neweſt, makes the beſt appearance of any part of the city. The elector's palace, is ſituated on the banks of the Leina, and as it ſuffered greatly by fire in the year 1741, a conſiderable part of it has been ſince rebuilt with great magnificence. It has ſeveral courts, and the rooms which are grand and commodious, are chiefly hung with very rich tapeſtry. In apartments in this ſtructure the privy-council and commiſſioners of war hold their meetings. The opera houſe, and the theatre for the French comedians are both within the palace, and though antient are commodious; but the whole is rather rich, decent, and elegant, than very ſplendid.

ſplendid. The guard is always mounted, and an open table kept, even when the king is not in his electoral dominions, at which time the adminiſtration is conducted with the utmoſt dignity. During the whole winter a play is exhibited, and a concert performed twice a week, at his majeſty's expence, when the courtiers without exception take place according to their rank. In the church belonging to the palace, which is very ſplendid, is kept a treaſure of great value, conſiſting of reliques, gold and ſilver plate and gems, collected by duke Henry the Lion, in his journey to the Eaſt in 1171, and the ſucceeding years. The elector's armoury and fine ſtables ſtand in a row along the Leina. The ſtates houſe in Eaſt-ſtreet is a very noble ſtructure, and within it are held the diets and high court of juſtice. In the ſame ſtreet is alſo the Lockumer Hof, where the abbot of the convent of Lockum reſides, and near St. Giles's church is the chancery. In the Old Town there are only three pariſh churches, and one for the garriſon. Beſides theſe ſtructures, there is an orphan houſe, the hoſpital of the Holy Ghoſt, the poor houſe belonging to the magiſtracy, a ſpinning-houſe, and a houſe of correction.

The New Town, which lies on the other bank of the river, has a communication with that already deſcribed by means of bridges. This part is fortified, and though it conſiſts of only three hundred and ſeventy-ſix houſes, is populous, and makes a good appearance. It is the ſeat of the conſiſtory for the electoral territories, and likewiſe of the general and ſpecial ſuperintendency. In the market-place is a curious grotto, but the waterworks belonging to it are fallen to decay. In the ſame part is alſo the church of St. John, and on the parade is a large edifice of ſtone, in which are kept the electoral archives and library; the latter of which is one of the moſt copious and ſplendid in all Germany. There are here alſo ſeveral palaces, a German and a French Calviniſt church, another for the Roman catholics, a Jewiſh ſynagogue, and a Latin free-ſchool.

In ſhort, Hanover is in many reſpects a pleaſant city, and, though it does not equal Berlin and Dreſden, may be eſteemed elegant; but it has no trade worth mentioning.

The neighbouring country makes an agreeable appearance, and the number of kitchen and pleaſure-gardens before the gates, with the elegant buildings belonging to them, appear very extraordinary; particularly there is a delightful viſta which extends to Monbrillant and Herrenhauſen, two electoral palaces; but the former is now falling to decay.

The palace of Herrenhauſen is ſeated about two miles to the north of the city. But Mr. Hanway obſerves, that he does not know whether he was more mortified or more ſurprized to find that the building fell vaſtly ſhort of his expectations; for though in England, it is ſaid, our hoſpitals are palaces, and our palaces more proper for hoſpitals, yet he had conceived the opinion that this palace, ſo much talked of, was indeed grand, and worthy of his majeſty. It was built in the year 1670, by Erneſt Auguſtus, the late king's grandfather: the greateſt part of it is of wood, and the apartments in general rather give the idea of a large antient manſion-houſe belonging to a private gentleman in England, than of the palace of a great monarch: but it has rich furniture, and ſome good pictures. The garden, however, is juſtly worthy of admiration. Our author had ſeen none in Germany comparable to it, though it wants thoſe exquiſite charms, and that enchanting variety, capable of being produced by an inequality of ground, of which we have numerous proofs in Great Britain. One ſide of the garden has a narrow piece of water above a quarter of a mile in length. The walks, which are wide and ſpacious, are moſtly laid with gravel. The garden is divided into large ſquares and baſons, and in the intermediate ſpaces are lofty groves and one of the fineſt orangeries in Europe. Here are beautiful caſcades, and noble fountains, with very large baſons; among theſe the jet d'eau, erected in 1716 by Mr. Benſon, perhaps exceeds any thing of the kind in the whole world: it throws the water ſeventy feet high. Here alſo, according to the German taſte, is a ſylvan theatre, cut out in green ſeats, with arbours and ſummer-houſes for the actors to dreſs in; and here are ſometimes exhibited plays and maſquerades: this theatre is adorned with ſtatues, and occaſionally illuminated in a grand taſte.

The next diviſion in this country is called the Hamelen and Lauenau quarter, which contains three cities, ten boroughs, and a hundred and twenty-eight villages. The moſt conſiderable place in this diviſion is

Hamelen, a fortified city, twenty-three miles ſouth-weſt of Hanover, ſeated in a fine country on the banks of the Weſer, which waſhes it to the weſt, and over it is a bridge of nine wooden arches ſupported by ſtone piers. The Weſer alſo forms at this place a ſmall iſland, and for the farther convenience of ſhipping here is an admirable ſluice, finiſhed in 1734, at the expence of eighty thouſand rixdollars. The river Hamel, whence the town obtains its name, runs into the town moats, and continuing its courſe round the walls, diſcharges itſelf into the Weſer. In this city are ſix hundred houſes belonging to the burghers, and fifty eccleſiaſtical and other edifices. Though the town conſiſts of but one pariſh, it has two churches, an abbey, now ſecularized, beſides a church belonging to the French Calviniſts, and once a quarter the Roman catholics perform divine worſhip in a houſe hired for that purpoſe. Here is alſo a Latin free-ſchool, an hoſpital, and a poor-houſe. Here are woollen, ſilk, and ſtocking manufactures; and from hence great quantities of thread and linen are exported.

The Gottingen quarter is ſituated apart from the others, and once conſtituted a diſtinct principality. It contains eight towns, with the ſame number of ſecularized convents, fifteen royal bailiwics, and eleven noblemen's juriſdictions, under which are four market-towns and a hundred and ſeventy-nine villages. The principal places in this diſtrict are the following:

Gottingen, a city ſeated in the fifty-firſt degree forty-ſix minutes north latitude, and in the ninth degree fifty-ſix minutes eaſt longitude, in a fertile, ſpacious, and pleaſant vale, along the water called the New Leina, which is a canal drawn from the river of that name. This canal ſeparates the Old from the New Town, and the marſh. The ramparts which encompaſs the town command a delightful proſpect of gardens, with meadows, fields, and eminences. Theſe are about ſix hundred and ninety-ſeven rods in circuit, and would form a fine walk were the uſeleſs breaſt-works on it removed. The town conſiſts of above a thouſand houſes; and, ſince the univerſity has been built, is ſo embelliſhed with new buildings, that it is at preſent one of the beſt built towns in all Lower Saxony, and the fine free-ſtone pavement on both ſides of the ſtreets have few equals. In winter the ſtreets are illuminated with lamps. In the town are five pariſh churches, the principal of which is that of St. John, together with an alms-houſe, that has a church and particular preacher of its own; as alſo another for the Calviniſts. The Papiſts here ſay maſs in a private houſe. The church of the bare-footed friars is converted into an armoury.

The principal ornament and advantage of this city is the univerſity, named Georgia Auguſta, founded in the year 1734, by king George II. in the room of the antient Gymnaſium in the Dominican convent founded in 1586. This univerſity has acquired a diſtinguiſhed reputation. It has a large ſplendid church, which was that belonging to the Dominicans, and to it belongs a new and ſtately ſtructure of ſtone, the ground floor of which ſerves as a hall for public lectures, and in that above it is the library, with the council chamber, and other apartments. This library, to which conſiderable additions are every year made, is called the Bulowan, from its receiving its original from a collection of about ten thouſand volumes, bequeathed by baron Bulow, for the public uſe, and by his heirs given to the univerſity. A royal ſociety of ſciences founded in 1751, and a royal German ſociety alſo form a part of the univerſity; it has likewiſe a fine obſervatory, erected on a tower that ſtands on one of the ramparts, together with a noble phyſic garden, near which is a handſome anatomical theatre, a ſchool for teaching midwifry, a *ſeminarium philologicum*, under the direction of the profeſſor of eloquence,

quence, and an academy of exerciſes. The Latin free-ſchool here is under excellent regulations, and governed by eight maſters.

Along the marſh, from the New Leina to the town wall, runs a beautiful viſta of lime-trees. Many curious manufactures are carried on in this city, which has a great trade. The adminiſtration of juſtice for the town-courts is veſted in a judge, nominated by the ſovereign himſelf and the magiſtracy. In the year 1757 and 1758 this city was for ſome time in the hands of the French.

Nordheim is ſituated on the Ruhme, which here divides itſelf into two branches, over each of which is a ſtone bridge. This is the third in order of the great towns of Hanover; it contains five hundred houſes, and has an antient abbey now ſecularized; but has only one pariſh church, and a grammar-ſchool; yet carries on ſome manufactures. The governor of the town examines cauſes, and manages trials; but the ſentence is pronounced by the burgomaſter and council, without his concurrence.

Munden, a town ſituated in a vale by the Fulda, which a little below this place joins the Werra, from which conflux the river is called the Weſer. Theſe ſtreams, with the meadows along the Weſer, the neighbouring gardens, woods, and hills, form on all ſides delightful proſpects; but the town frequently ſuffers by inundations. It conſiſts of ſix hundred and ſeven houſes, and in it are two Lutheran pariſh churches, with a Latin free-ſchool and an alms-houſe. The Calviniſts perform their worſhip in an elegant building, in which is an organ. In the town is a double garriſon, that is, one of four companies maintained by the town, and a regiment belonging to the ſovereign that is quartered in barracks. Theſe barracks are ſituated in a large ſtone edifice, that was originally a palace built by duke Eric the younger. The burghers of Munden are free of Brunſwic and Oſterade, and thoſe of Oſterade and Brunſwic free of Munden. The town has above two hundred gardens belonging to it, but has little corn-land. The inhabitants chiefly conſiſt of ſilk and damaſk-weavers, vinegar-brewers, tobacco-ſpinners, and neceſſary artificers; but the principal ſupport of the town is derived from its traffic and navigation.

We now come to the principality of Grubenhagen, ſo called from its formerly belonging to the family of the Grubes; it is ſurrounded by thoſe of Hanover and Wolfenbuttle, the county of Wernigerode, the principality of Blankenburg, the county of Hohenſtein, the lordſhip of Klellenberg, and Eichfeld; and one diſtinct part of it is entirely encompaſſed by Hanover, Wolfenbuttle, and a part of the dioceſe of Hildeſheim. This tract of country, which includes a part of the Hartz foreſt, is about forty miles long, and the ſame in breadth; but is almoſt overrun with woods.

This country has ſome fertile tracts that produce wheat, rye, barley, oats, peas, beans, and buck-wheat; but the greateſt part of it being mountainous, and little corn growing in the lands bordering on the Hartz, and none at all within that foreſt, agriculture is far from being the principal employment of the inhabitants, who are obliged to be ſupplied with corn from other countries. They have, however, great quantities of flax, the cultivation of which, and making it into thread and linen, are among the principal occupations of the inhabitants. In ſome bailiwics the breeding of horned cattle and ſheep turns to a pretty good account; but their principal advantages ariſe from the large foreſts, quarries, and mines of this country. Theſe foreſts conſiſt of oak, beech, pines, birch, and alder: its minerals and foſſils are chiefly free-ſtone, marble, ſlate, lime, gypſum, alabaſter, jaſper, ſalt, zink, ſulphur, and cobalt; its metals are ſome gold, with a great deal of ſilver, copper, iron, and lead.

The principal rivers that run through this principality are the Leina, the Oder, and the Ocker.

The exports of this country are flax, thread, linen, timber, ſand, ſtone, ſlate, marble-works, iron, copper, lead, ſalt, vitriol, ſulphur, lapis calaminaris, zink, powder-blue, ſtarch, various woollen manufactures, and fatted ſheep.

Lutheraniſm is the only religion of this country, which has forty-one pariſh churches, beſides thoſe in Einbec and Oſterode, all ranged under four ſuperintendents; but the miniſters of thoſe cities are not ſubordinate to them; but have ſeniors of their own. The principal towns in this country are

Einbec, which is ſeated on the Ilne, one branch of which runs through the town, and the other above it; but both meeting ſoon after, run into the Leina. The town of Einbec is encompaſſed with ramparts, bulwarks, towers, moats, and ſeveral out-works, and contains about ſeven hundred and ſixty houſes belonging to the citizens, ſeventy-ſeven public edifices, and eight hundred fourteen granaries, ſtables, and other out-houſes. The city is divided into three parts, called the Markt, the Neuſtadt, and the Munſter. In the two firſt are pariſh churches; but the laſt has been incorporated with the cathedral of St. Alexander. Among the other public buildings are a grammar ſchool belonging to the corporation, which has ſeven maſters, an orphan-houſe, in which forty or fifty children are educated, under the immediate direction of the royal regency, they being maintained out of the provincial revenues. The hoſpital of the Holy Ghoſt, the great poor-houſe of St. Bartholomew, and a leſſer poor-houſe. In this city are made cloth, flannels, baize, ſhalloons, ſerges, crapes, calamancos, druggets, dimity, and other ſtuffs, and at the orphan-houſe they carry on the printing of linen and cotton.

Oſterode is ſituated near the Hartz, by a little river called Apenke, and conſiſts of five hundred and eighty-two houſes, with a caſtle, in which ſeveral of the dukes of Brunſwic-Lunenburg have reſided. In the town is a ſuperintendency, with three pariſh churches, a Latin ſchool, and a granary erected for the uſe of the miners and other labourers on the Brunſwic part of the Hartz, and from whence they are always ſupplied with rye at a moderate price.

Scharzfels is a remarkable caſtle, which ſtands on a high mountain, or rather a vaſt rock, on the borders of the Hartz. The only acceſs to it is by means of high ſtone-ſteps, at the ſummit of which is a round free-ſtone tower of a conſiderable height and thickneſs, but without any roof. In the lower part of the caſtle are barracks erected along the wall. This fortreſs is defended by a few cannon; it has a ſmall garriſon under the direction of a commandant, and here ſtate-priſoners are ſometimes confined. In it is a very deep well, the water of which is drawn up by means of a large wheel. On deſcending northwards from the mountains, after paſſing through a narrow valley, and then aſcending a hill, you come to the famous Scharzfel cave, which properly conſiſts of five caverns, all lying in a row. The firſt of theſe is very large and clear, the ground being ſunk in towards the center, and thus admits the light; but the others are quite dark.

Before we take leave of this country, it is proper to take notice of that part of the Hartz which is included in it, and ſubject to Brunſwic-Lunenburg.

It is obſervable, that the air is here ſo cold, that the winters uſually laſt one-half of the year. The rains, ſnows, and fogs are here more frequent than in the level countries round it; yet thoſe who live above ground, and not among the mines, and forges, arrive to as great an age as the inhabitants of the plains. Tillage and the cultivation of fruits turn to no account; ſo that the whole harveſt conſiſts of good hay. The trees which cover the mountains conſiſt of oak, beech, aſh, aſpin, alder, birch, &c. but two-thirds of them are firs, pines, and other ſoft wood. The abundance of timber is here the more valuable, as without it the mines and forges could not ſubſiſt. The minerals found here are yellow oker, vitriol, ſulphur, lapis calaminaris, borax, cobalt, lead, iron, copper, ſilver, and ſome gold.

The Brunſwic-Lunenburg Hartz being divided into the Upper and Lower, the mine-workers are diſtinguiſhed by the ſame diviſions. The Upper Hartz, with its mine-works, is termed particular, or belonging only to the electoral houſe of Brunſwic; or elſe common. The produce of the particular mine-works about the year

1724, reckoning ſilver, copper, iron, lead, and borax, amounted to no leſs than ſeven hundred and ſix thouſand one hundred and twenty-five rixdollars; and on deducting the expence out of this ſum, the ſurplus accruing to the ſovereign amounted to about a hundred and thirty-ſix thouſand rixdollars, and that ariſing to the other proprietors to a hundred and twenty thouſand five hundred and ſixty-ſeven. The common mine-works in the Upper Hartz uſed to yield annually in the above-mentioned ores about two hundred and eighty-ſix thouſand rixdollars, of which the ſurplus ariſing to the ſovereign amounted to about fifty-three thouſand rixdollars, and that of the ſharers to nineteen thouſand ſeven hundred and ſeven. The common mine-works of the Lower Hartz have produced annually in gold, ſilver, copper, lead, borax, ſulphur, green and white vitriol, zink, and pot-aſh, about a hundred and eighty thouſand ſix hundred and eight rixdollars, of which near ninety-ſix thouſand are its neat produce. Thus the whole Hartz yield annually about one million one hundred and ſeventy-two thouſand ſeven hundred and thirty-three rixdollars, of which, to the value of two thouſand eight hundred and eighty are gold, which is coined into ducats, and eight hundred and two thouſand eight hundred and ſixty ſilver, which, after a deduction of all charges, the neat profit amounts to four hundred and twenty-five thouſand two hundred and ſeventy-four rixdollars.

The ſilver is coined immediately in the Hartz, and the other products the mine-offices at Hanover and Wolfenbuttle take at a ſtipulated price, making their returns in tallow, leather, and other neceſſaries for the mine-works, which are alſo furniſhed at a certain rate.

The inhabitants of the Hartz are compoſed of miners, labourers in the ſmelting-houſes, wood-heavers, carriers, and the ſovereign's officers and ſervants; together with miniſters, ſchool-maſters, artificers, and tradeſmen, who have there no other taxes but one rixdollar on every houſe, and a lodger and mine-officer only half a rixdollar, with a ſmall exciſe on the beer carried thither; and even this is applied to the benefit of the miners and labourers in the ſmelting-houſes.

The principal places in the Hartz are,

Clauſthal, a conſiderable mine-town, which has broad ſtreets, and upwards of nine hundred houſes; it contains about ten thouſand inhabitants, two churches, a grammar-ſchool, which has nine maſters, and an orphan-houſe. This is the ſeat of the mine-office, which belongs particularly to the elector of Brunſwic-Lunenburg, and has a mint, in which between four and five hundred rixdollars are annually coined. There is here alſo a houſe for the ſmelting of ſilver.

Cellerfeld is an open mine-town, ſeparated from Clauſthal only by a ſmall rivulet. This is the ſeat of the mine bailiwic-office of the common Upper Hartz; as alſo of a common mint, in which between two hundred and fifty thouſand and three hundred thouſand rixdollars are annually coined in ſilver ſpecie. The town contains about five hundred and ſixty houſes, a good library at the pariſh church, and a Latin ſchool. This town ſuffered greatly by fire in 1737 and 1753.

What is here particularly called the Lower Hartz, is a ſteep high mountain of pretty large extent, alſo named Rammelſberg, which is poſſeſſed in common by the electoral and princely houſes. The ores found in it are of a very ſolid texture, and make ſuch reſiſtance againſt the hammer and wedge, that for the eaſier diſſolution of them, the workmen are obliged to make uſe of fire. On this mountain are twelve mines, of which the magiſtracy of Goſlar work four, though to a diſadvantage, they being obliged to deliver a certain part of the ore gratis to the ſovereign, and to ſell the remainder to him at the price formerly ſtipulated to them, which it at preſent too low; but on default of this the town forfeits its foreſt-right, which it holds on theſe conditions.

Goſlar, a free imperial city at the foot of Rammelſberg, is ſeated on the river Goſe, which at a ſmall diſtance from the town diſcharges itſelf into the Ocker. The buildings are in the old taſte, except in that part of the town that was burnt down in 1728, and has been rebuilt in the modern manner. The eſtabliſhed religion is Lutheraniſm, and in the city are four pariſh churches and two Lutheran foundations, which are that of St. Simon and St. Jude, that was founded as a canonry of Auguſtins in the year 1040, by the emperor Henry III. and the imperial foundation of Peterſburg, which received its riſe from the munificence of the ſame prince and his conſort Agnes, in honour of St. Peter. The building has been pulled down by the burghers, and, ſince the year 1603, the chapel of St. Catherine has been aſſigned for the canons, who are Lutherans, and their principal officer, who is a dean. Here are two other Lutheran convents, that of Frankenberg, which conſiſts of a domina and three conventualiſts, which belongs to the principality of Wolfenbuttle; and the nunnery at Neuenwerk, which is dependent on the magiſtracy, and has a church of its own. The city derives its principal ſubſiſtence from the neighbouring mines, the inhabitants being chiefly employed either in digging, cleanſing, tempering, and vending the metals and minerals, or making and ſelling the hard-ware formed of them. They alſo have breweries of beer, and trade in proviſions, which they ſell into the Hartz. This city is under the protection of the king of Great Britain, as elector of Hanover, alternately with the duke of Brunſwic-Wolfenbuttle. Here Bartold Schwartz, a Benedictine monk, is ſaid to have diſcovered the art of making gunpowder.

SECT. XXVI.

Of the Dutchy of BRUNSWIC-WOLFENBUTTLE.

Its Situation, Produce, and Rivers: the Religion and Commerce of the Inhabitants: the Title, Arms, Offices, Revenues, and Forces of the Prince; with the principal Places in this Dutchy.

WOLFENBUTTLE forms a part of the dutchy of Brunſwic, and is divided into two parts by Halberſtadt and the dioceſe of Hildeſheim. The north part is environed by Lunenburg, Brandenburg, Magdeburg, Halberſtadt, and Hildeſheim. The ſouth part lies between the two laſt, the county of Wernigerode, Grubenhagen, Hanover, Cowey, and the county of Lippe.

The eaſtern half of the ſouth part, which lies between the Leina and the Ecker, contains under it a part of the Hartz, with the mine ſalt-works, which the prince holds in common, as hath been already obſerved, with the elector of Brunſwic-Lunenburg. The ſouthern part of this principality conſiſts chiefly of hills and woods, with little arable land; but, on the other hand, has great plenty of timber, iron, and glaſs-houſes, the manufactures of which are greatly admired, particularly thoſe of looking-glaſſes; with a fine porcelain manufacture. The north part of the principality is more level, and produces corn, flax, and hemp, with all kinds of pulſe and fine fruit; grazing alſo turns to good account; the breeding of ſilk-worms is now followed here, and premiums are aſſigned by the prince for the encouragement of the production of ſilk.

The Weſer and the Leina are the principal rivers in the ſouth part of the principality; and here alſo, as well as in the Hartz, flow the Innerſte and Ocker: there are here likewiſe the Aller, and a canal drawn between Querum and Gliſſenrode, which is of ſingular advantage, and was opened in the year 1750.

The eſtabliſhed religion is Lutheraniſm, and both the paſtors and congregations are at preſent under five general ſuperintendents. At Brunſwic both the Calviniſts and Papiſts are permitted the uſe of a church.

The manufactures of Wolfenbuttle conſiſt in the ſpinning of thread, and the weaving of linen; the making of woollen cloth, and ſilk ſtuffs, Turkey, and other ſorts of dreſſed leather; the bleaching of wax, and making of porcelain; in lead, iron, and ſteel founderies. The trade of the country conſiſts in theſe and other articles; as in minerals, turnery, and cabinet-makers work, with Brunſwic mum, and the beer of Konigſlutter.

The prince's title is only that of duke of Brunſwic and Lunenburg, which he enjoys in common with the king of Great Britain; both, as hath been already obſerved

ſerved in treating of Hanover, being deſcended from the ſame family.

His arms are, however, very extenſive, and conſiſt of thirteen fields: the firſt gules, a ſemée of hearts or, and a lion azure, for the dutchy of Lunenburg. The ſecond is gules, with two leopards or, for the dutchy of Brunſwic. The third is azure, with a lion argent crowned or, for the county of Eberſtein. The fourth gules chequée argent and azure with a lion or, for the lordſhip of Homburg. The fifth or, a lion gules crowned azure, for the county of Diepholz. The ſixth gules with a lion or, in chief, and four feſſes of the ſame; but through miſtake only three are marked, and theſe in the tenth field. The ſeventh is or, two bears paws expanded, for the county of Hoya. The eighth is quarterly party per feſſe chequée gules and argent; underneath argent and azure girony, for the county of Bruchauſen. The ninth azure, an eagle argent, which forms the lower half of the Diepholz ſhield. The tenth is chequée gules and argent, for the county of Hohenſtein. The eleventh argent, a ſtag's horn gules, for the county of Reinſtein. The twelfth argent, a ſtag ſable, for the lordſhip of Klettenberg. The thirteenth is alſo argent, a ſtag's horn ſable, for the county of Lauterberg. Among the five crowned helmets, the chief, or that in the center, has a pillar argent, crowned and ſurmounted with a peacock's tail, in which is a ſtar or, and in the middle a horſe argent, between two ſickles reverſed, and decorated in five places with peacocks feathers.

The principality of Wolfenbuttle is poſſeſſed of a vote among the princes, both in the college of the princes of the empire, and in the diets of Lower Saxony; in each of which, by virtue of an agreement concluded in 1706, when the ſeniority lies in the houſe of Brunſwic Wolfenbuttle, it precedes thoſe of the elector of Brunſwic and Lunenburg for Zell, Grubenhagen, and Hanover; but otherwiſe comes after them.

The ſupreme college of the princes is the privy council, which has the direction of all ſtate affairs, as alſo the general government of the country, laws, and ordinances, with the polity, grant of privileges, nomination of magiſtrates and officers of the law in the towns, and other important concerns, and here the reigning duke aſſiſts as preſident. The prince's revenue, and all affairs relating to it, are either under the inſpection of the treaſury, in which alſo the ſovereign preſides, or of the convent-office. Brunſwic is the ſeat of the two firſt colleges; but the laſt, together with the chancery, the high court of juſtice, and the conſiſtory, are held at Wolfenbuttle.

The prince's immediate revenues ariſe from the treaſury, bailiwics, the regalia, the conventual eſtates, the impoſts of the circle and empire, contributions, legation and fortification money, ſervice and quotas of proviſions. The leſſer committee of the ſtates, or the tax college, ſuperintends the town-tax, land-tax, convent-tax, ſheep-tax, meaſure-tax, tithe-tax, and mill-tax, with the exciſe on malt, beer, wine, brandy and ſtamped paper; as alſo the licence.

The military force maintained by the duke generally conſiſts of four regiments of foot, each of two battalions, a body of horſe-guards, a regiment of dragoons, and a militia regiment of five companies, each company containing one hundred and eighty men, with a corps of engineers and matroſſes. There is alſo one regiment of invalids. Theſe troops are clean, and cloathed much after the Pruſſian manner; but their arms are lighter, and their exerciſe not ſo exact. Mr. Hanway obſerves, that people of diſtinction ſeldom leave this court without being extremely well ſatisfied with their reception, and, in particular, Engliſh noblemen are well received, when they occaſionally paſs that way. The duke, that gentleman obſerves, ſeems more fond of eaſe and happineſs, than of the parade of life. He generally appears in his coach with three other perſons of his family. His livery is yellow laced with a blue ſilk and ſilver galoon; behind his coach are uſually four footmen; two pages in blue cloth laced with ſilver run by its ſides, and a ſingle ſervant in livery rides before to clear the way.

In this principality are ten boroughs, eight market-towns, three hundred and eighty-ſix villages, and ſeventeen ſees and convents. The ſtates are compoſed of the deans of the ſees, and the priors of the convents; of the nobility who are poſſeſſed of manors within the country; and laſtly, of the deputies of the eight oldeſt towns. The diets are held at the provincial houſe at Brunſwic, and meet four times a year. The whole country is divided into four diſtricts, viz. into thoſe of Wolfenbuttle, Schening, the Hartz, and the Weſer.

The diſtrict of Wolfenbuttle is ſituated on both ſides the Ocker, and contains under it the following towns.

Brunſwic, the capital of the dutchy, is ſituated in a plain on the banks of the Ocker, which runs through it, entering the town by two branches; but within it dividing into a great number, all which unite again in one ſtream at the iſſue of the Ocker out of the town. It ſtands in the fifty-ſecond degree thirty minutes north latitude, and in the tenth degree thirty minutes eaſt longitude. It is well fortified with a double wall and ditches, and on the ramparts is a braſs mortar piece made in 1411, which is ten feet ſix inches long, and nine feet two inches in diameter. It requires fifty-two pounds of powder, and will carry a ball of ſeven hundred and thirty pounds weight to the diſtance of thirty-three thouſand paces, and throw a bomb of a thouſand pounds weight. In the arſenal of the city are about ſixty pieces of braſs cannon, ſeveral cohorns and mortars, ten pieces of large battering cannon of an enormous ſize, and a great quantity of ſmall arms. The city is two miles in compaſs, and the ramparts planted with mulberry-trees. The buildings are for the moſt part in the old taſte; but of late the city has been beautified with many new ſtructures, and its ſtreets are better paved than formerly. The prince's palace, called the Grauehof, was in 1731, the court of Elizabeth Sophia Maria, widow to duke Auguſtus William. That learned and pious princeſs erected a ſplendid library here, the principal curioſity of which conſiſts in a very valuable collection of ſcarce and curious Bibles, or parts of Bibles, in ſeveral languages, to the number of above a thouſand volumes. In this palace the reigning duke uſually reſides. It has rich and elegant furniture, very fine pictures, and a cabinet of curioſities. The gardens belonging to this palace are laid out in an elegant taſte. In the ſame ſtreet with the palace is the academy for martial exerciſes, the cavaliers houſe and armoury, all new and handſome buildings.

In the Hagen market is the *Collegium Carolinum*, a noble ſtructure, built in 1745, and founded by duke Charles, from whom it takes its name. The ſtudents, particularly thoſe of good families, are taught all the neceſſary arts, ſciences, languages, and exerciſes. In it is a good library. In the ſame market-place ſtands the opera houſe, which makes a very handſome figure.

The Oldburg, at preſent called the Moſthaus, or Moſhof, is ſeated on the Ocker, and before it on a high and broad pillar of free-ſtone ſtands a braſs lion, which, it is ſaid, repreſents one which duke Henry ſurnamed the Lion made ſo tame, that he followed him wherever he went, and after that prince's death died with grief. On the burg-platz is the new play-houſe. At the packhoſe all goods imported or exported are rated and taxed, and this is ſaid to produce about two hundred thouſand rixdollars per annum.

In the new town is the council-houſe, where the magiſtrates meet, as the treaſury board does in the council houſe of the old; and during the fair the paſſages round it are crowded with toy-ſhops. Near it is a chapel dedicated to a ſaint named Autor; but in 1681, it was aſſigned to the foreign dealers at the fair, for the ſecurity and more convenient ſale of their goods. In Heyden-ſtreet is the mint. The work-houſe was rebuilt by duke Charles, it being firſt formed out of an hoſpital, originally dedicated to the Virgin Mary. The orphan-houſe is an excellent foundation, and ſince the year 1753, has had a Latin ſchool annexed to it, with a printing-houſe, and a bookſeller's ſhop.

The Lutherans are poſſeſſed of ten churches. The cathedral of St. Blaſius, which ſtands in the Burg-ſquare, was erected in 1172 by Henry the Lion, on his return from the Holy Land, inſtead of the church of St. Peter and St. Paul, which was then falling to ruins, and annexed

nexed to it a chapter. This is an antient Gothic ſtructure, the cieling of which is adorned with twenty large paintings, repreſenting the prophets of the Old Teſtament in the clouds of heaven, which give the edifice a very ſolemn air. The high altar is of marble, adorned with the ſtatues of the four Evangeliſts, and ſupported below by Moſes and Aaron. In this cathedral are two fine monuments of that duke and his ſecond conſort, and here are kept the records of the electoral family and the vault of the dukes of the Bevern line. The Dutch and French Calviniſts poſſeſs in common St. Bartholomew's church, but each have their reſpective paſtor, and to the Roman catholics is aſſigned the church of St. Nicholas at the ſtone gate. The Tempelhof is an antique building that formerly belonged to the Knights Templars; but, on their ſuppreſſion, paſſed to thoſe of St. John, and particularly to the commandery of Supplingenburg, which in 1367 diſpoſed of it to Kaland St. Jurgen. The dean and *camerarius* are eccleſiaſtics, and the two lay-members are uſually magiſtrates: theſe four compoſe the ſociety.

In the town are two ſeminaries, that of St. Martin and St. Catharine, with a ſchool for anatomy and ſurgery. Here is alſo a college for the ſtudy of phyſic, inſtituted in 1747, and depending only on the duke and his privy-council. The lazaretto, as well as the above ſchool and college, were built by the ſame munificent prince duke Charles. Here is alſo St. Leonard's hoſpital, which ſtands without the ſtone gate.

This city is well provided with a variety of ingenious artiſts, and has ſeveral manufactures. The firſt ſpinning-wheels were invented here in 1530 by one Jurgen, a ſtone-cutter and ſtatuary. The ſtrong beer invented by Chriſtian Mummen, and from his name called mum, is exported to all parts, even as far as Aſia. Brunſwic has two annual fairs, which are very conſiderable ones. This city has been frequently beſieged, and ſometimes taken. In 1757 it was poſſeſſed by the French, who quitted it again in 1758.

At the diſtance of about five miles from Brunſwic is the palace of Saltzdahlen, which is ſituated in a mean village of the ſame name, thus called from a conſiderable ſalt-work in its neighbourhood. The greateſt part of this palace is of timber, and the rooms moſtly lined with painted cloth. The great gallery of pictures is a noble apartment two hundred feet long, fifty broad, and forty high, containing above a thouſand excellent pictures, ſeveral of them curious originals, by the beſt maſters. The leſſer gallery, which is a hundred and ſixty feet long, and twenty broad, is likewiſe full of maſterly paintings. Mr. Hanway, on viewing theſe galleries, ſays he was particularly ſtruck with the following pieces: Adam and Eve viewing Abel after his death, and pulling open his eyes, by Strudel. Abraham embracing his ſon after the trial which God had made of his faith; piety and joy here ſeem to contend with each other, while his looks expreſs a ſeraphic adoration: this piece is by Liebens. Peter delivered from priſon by the angel, by Steinbeck. Judith and her attendant, an old woman, holding Holofernes's head juſt cut off, the face appearing with ſome ſigns of life. Rembrandt, his wife, and three children, in one piece, by himſelf. Cephalus and Procris, a very fine piece. The Aſcenſion, which is much eſteemed. Lewis XIV. and his two miſtreſſes. Prince Eugene. The marriage of two Hollanders, the young man and woman looking tenderly at each other, while the parents are attentive to the notary who draws up the articles.

At the end of the leſſer gallery to the right is a large cabinet, in which are above a thouſand pieces, as plates, bottles, ſaltſellers, of incomparable beauty, many of them being enamels performed by Raphael Urbino, when he was enamoured with the potter's daughter. Facing the above cabinet is a large one of China porcelain, containing above eight thouſand pieces, beautifully arranged. Adjoining to the large gallery are ſix ſmall cabinets filled with curioſities of art and nature. The chapel here is very grand. The garden is a very fine one; but ſome of the ſtatues are but poorly executed.

Near the chapel, and contiguous to the orangery, is a convent dedicated to the Virgin Mary, founded by duke Anthony Ulric and his conſort, for a domina and fifteen ſiſters of noble families, who perform divine ſervice twice a day in the chapel belonging to the palace. It has alſo a provoſt, and ſends a repreſentative to the ſtates.

Wolfenbuttle, a fortified city, ſeated in a low and marſhy country on the banks of the Ocker. It is a pleaſant place, and contains many handſome houſes; beſides which it is the ſeat of ſome of the head colleges of the dutchy of Wolfenbuttle, as the chancery, the chief court of juſtice, the bailiwic-office, the convent-chamber, the conſiſtory, and general ſuperintendency. Here is an antient armoury, and the caſtle was for the moſt part the uſual reſidence of the dukes, and their library is one of the beſt in all Germany; it is in a particular building, finiſhed in 1723, in the lower part of which is a riding-ſchool. The ſeminary here is ſtiled the ducal great ſchool. It contains ſeveral churches and other public buildings. In 1757 it was in the hands of the French, who abandoned it the next year.

Ganderſheim, a ſmall mean town ſeated in a valley by the ſide of the little river Gande, and containing a ducal ſeat, erected by John Julius, with a bailiwic-houſe, and a Latin free-ſchool. But it is moſt famous for the imperial, ducal, free, and ſecular foundation of St. Anaſtaſius and St. Innocent, founded in the ninth century. This abbey is at preſent Lutheran, and compoſed of an abbeſs, a dean, and eleven canoneſſes. Theſe have no particular dreſs, but wear a croſs of the order enamelled black and red, on which is repreſented the inſtruments uſed at our Saviour's crucifixion. On the top of it is a cluſter of diamonds, and at the bottom a death's head enamelled white. This croſs is faſtened to a broad watered ribbon of a pale blue, diverſified on the edges with narrow black ſtripes, and hanging from the right ſhoulder down below the waiſt to the left. To this celebrated foundation alſo belong eight canons and capitulars. The dukes are patrons and protectors of the abbey, though the abbeſs has both a ſeat and voice in the diet of the empire and among the prelates of the Rhine. The abbey is poſſeſſed of four hereditary bailiwics, and to it belong the adjacent convents of Brunſhauſen and Claus.

SECT. XXVII.

Of the Principality of HALBERSTADT.

Its Situation, Extent, Produce, Rivers, and Towns: the Religion and Trade of the Inhabitants: their Government, the Revenues of the Sovereign, and a Deſcription of Halberſtadt its Capital.

THE principality of Halberſtadt is ſurrounded towards the eaſt by the principality of Anhalt and the dutchy of Magdeburg, and towards the weſt by the dutchy of Brunſwic and the biſhopric of Hildeſheim, extending from eaſt to weſt about forty-two miles, and from north to ſouth thirty-three.

The country is for the moſt part level, but contains ſome eminences. The ſoil is extremely fertile, both in grain and flax, and has rich paſtures and meadows, whence the inhabitants ſubſiſt by grazing, and their large breed of ſheep affords plenty of wool. But, on the other hand, the woods are continually leſſening, and the want of fuel is ſo great, that they are obliged to import turf for the uſe of the poor. The country has not a ſufficiency of game and fiſh; nor is there a river of a conſiderable ſize in the whole country: the principal is the Bode, or Bud, the Selke, and the Ilſe.

In this country, including the county of Regenſtein and the lordſhip of Derenburg, are ten towns, and ninety-nine ſmall country towns and villages. The inhabitants are ſaid to amount to upwards of two hundred thouſand.

The greateſt part of the inhabitants are Lutherans, and their churches are divided into eleven inſpections, over which is a general ſuperintendency. The Calviniſts and Papiſts are pretty nearly of an equal number, and the Jews are tolerated, but are not to exceed a fixed number of families.

The woollen manufactures eſtabliſhed in this country are in a thriving condition, and its exports principally conſiſt of grain.

It enjoys a vote among the princes, both in the diet of the empire and that of the circle. On its devolving to the houſe of Brandenburg, it was placed both in title and arms before any of the other principalities. Its arms are party per pale gules and argent.

The annual revenue ariſing to the ſovereign from this principality, and the incorporated counties and lordſhips, including likewiſe the county of Wernigerode, amounts to about five hundred thouſand rixdollars. For the more convenient levying the imports and aſſeſſments, the principality is divided into ſix circles: the principal town is

Halberſtadt, the capital of the principality, is ſeated on the river Hotheim, in the fifty-ſecond degree ſeven minutes north latitude, and in the eleventh degree fifteen minutes eaſt longitude. It is a well built town, the ſtreets are pretty ſtraight and uniform, and many of the buildings are handſome, though they are generally old-faſhioned. In the year 1752 the walls which ſurround near half the city were pulled down, and the moats filled up ſo as to form a level, which has been converted into a plantation of mulberry-trees. The inhabitants do not much exceed thirteen hundred, though within and about the town are ſixteen churches. The cathedral of St. Peter is an old but ſtately building, conſiſting of a very hard free-ſtone. The chapter is compoſed of a provoſt, a dean, a ſenior, ſub-ſeniors, and ſixteen canons, four of whom are of the Romiſh religion, and all the others Lutherans. In 1754 the king of Pruſſia conferred on the chapter a croſs of gold, enamelled with white, and divided into eight points: in the center on one ſide is the Pruſſian black eagle, and on the other the image of St. Stephen. This croſs is faſtened to a deep ſcarlet ribbon, bordered with black. On St. Peter's-ſquare, which is very ſpacious, ſtands the priory and a monaſtery, the latter of which was rebuilt in 1754, with ſome handſome houſes for the canons and prebendaries. Fronting the cathedral is the Lutheran collegiate church of our Lady: to them alſo belong the collegiate churches of St. Boniface and Maurice, and St. Peter and Paul; St. Martin's, to which the general ſuperintendency of the principality is annexed; St. John's, the hoſpital or church of the Holy Ghoſt; and St. Elizabeth's. The German Calviniſts are poſſeſſed of St. Peter's chapel, and the French Calviniſts have a church. The Papiſts are poſſeſſed of three convents of monks and two nunneries, to which muſt be added the chapel of the voluntary poor; the Jews are alſo allowed a ſynagogue. This town is the ſeat of all the ſtate courts and offices; it has three public Lutheran ſchools, which are thoſe of the cathedral, St. Martin's and St. John's, and an orphan-houſe. In 1758 Halberſtadt was very ſeverely treated by the French, who demoliſhed its gates, and alſo its remaining walls for eight hundred rods in length.

Before we conclude this account of Halberſtadt, it will be neceſſary to obſerve, that the county of Ragenſtein, or Reinſtein, antiently formed but one county in conjunction with Blankenburg, the counts of Reinſtein and Blankenburg being derived from the ſame ſtem. The former at preſent, however, belongs to the elector of Brandenburg, who retains it as a fortified fief of Halberſtadt, notwithſtanding the demands of the houſe of Brunſwic-Lunenburg relative to a reſtitution of a part of the county which the counts of Tattenbach had held as its fiefs; and this has given riſe to a proceſs ſaid to be ſtill depending before the aulic council. Blankenburg was, in 1707, erected by the emperor Joſeph into a principality, and ſince the year 1731 has belonged to the reigning houſe of Brunſwic-Wolfenbuttle.

SECT. XXVIII.

Of the Biſhopric of HILDESHEIM.

Its Situation, Extent, Produce, and Rivers; the Religion of the Inhabitants, their Manufactures, Government, and principal Towns.

THE dioceſe of Hildeſheim is encompaſſed by Hanover, Wolfenbuttle, Grubenhagen, Halberſtadt, and Lunenburg, terminating alſo on the county of Wernigerode. Its greateſt extent from eaſt to weſt is about forty-ſeven miles, and from north to ſouth ſomewhat above thirty-eight.

The greateſt part of this dioceſe conſiſts of a good ſoil fit for tillage, and that yields a great quantity of flax and hops, with garden plants and roots; but it affords only a ſufficiency of horſes, cows, ſheep, and hogs, the ſouth part is hilly, and for the moſt part covered with fine woods of oak, beach, aſh, and birch. Such mountains as are bare contain valuable quarries, and alſo iron ore; in conſequence of which ſome iron founderies have been built. There are likewiſe ſome good ſalt-works in this part; but theſe are not ſufficient to ſupply the dioceſe.

The Leina traverſes the weſtern part, and at Ruhte is joined by the Innerſte. The Fuſe riſes here, and runs into the principality of Lunenburg. The Ocker traverſes the eaſtern part of the dioceſe, and, after receiving the Ecker, enters the principality of Wolfenbuttle: but, notwithſtanding their having theſe rivers, fiſh is ſcarce.

At the time of the Reformation the greateſt part of the dioceſe belonged to the duke of Brunſwic-Lunenburg, who after taking it from biſhop John, when under the ban of the empire, obtained the inveſtiture of it. Theſe dukes were indeed ſo far from promoting the reformation in theſe parts, that they obſtructed it to the utmoſt of their power; yet almoſt the whole country ſoon made an open profeſſion of Lutheraniſm. The leſſer ſee did the like, and the biſhops granted the vaſſals freedom of religion; but, in the beginning of the thirty years war, the Lutheran miniſters were driven out of the leſſer biſhopric of Hildeſheim, and the Lutheran churches in the greater as much oppreſſed; but the dukes of Brunſwick and Lunenburg having, by a convention in 1643, ceded the latter to the biſhop, it was ſtipulated that the Lutherans ſhould at certain times, and under certain limitations, enjoy the free exerciſe of their religion; but at length religious liberty was ſettled on a ſolid and laſting foundation. Of the Lutheran religion are all the towns, with the greateſt part of the nobility, and moſt of the villages; but the ſovereign, with the cathedral chapter, the convent, almoſt all the epiſcopal officers, a part of the nobility, and many perſons both in the towns and country, are Roman catholics. The leſſer biſhopric, as it is called, has no Lutheran ſuperintendency; but in the greater there are no leſs than four.

This dioceſe has but few manufactures, and theſe are of good linen, ordinary woollen cloth, worſted ſtockings, a coarſe porcelain, with all kinds of iron-wares. Its exports conſiſt of corn, ſheep, wool, hops, ſalt, thread, and linen.

The arms of this ſee are party per pale gules and argent.

The biſhop of Hildeſheim ſits in the diet between the biſhops of Augſburg and Paderborn, and votes among the princes in the diet of Lower Saxony. The cathedral chapter conſiſts of forty-two members, who elect the biſhop, and on a vacancy of the ſee take the reins of government into their own hands. The chapter is alſo the firſt ſtate of the dioceſe, and is poſſeſſed of very conſiderable revenues.

The biſhop, who is generally abſent, leaves the government of the country to a ſtadtholder and privy council. The adminiſtration of juſtice is committed to the chancery of the regency, and the chief tribunal; but the former alone takes cognizance of criminal cauſes. From both theſe courts, an appeal lies to the Aulic council: in like manner cauſes are carried from the towns to them.

The ſpiritual juriſdiction over thoſe of the Popiſh religion belongs to the biſhop's official, and the Lutheran ſubjects, by the peace of Weſtphalia, have alſo their conſiſtory, which is compoſed of two eccleſiaſtical, and and two lay counſellors, who muſt be Lutherans, and to theſe are added a ſecretary and clerk of the ſame religion. The chancellor of the regency, or, in his abſence, a ſtate counſellor, repreſents the ſovereign, and is poſſeſſed of the firſt ſeat and voice; but his vote does not extend to certain caſes, in which, on account of the difference of religion, he cannot act as judge. The conſiſtory isuſually held but eight times a year.

The epiſcopal revenues are under the direction of the treaſury, and ariſe from the domains and regalia, exclu-

ſive of the ſums annually granted by the diet. Here is alſo a tax-office for this country, into which are paid the contributions, with the land-tax, meaſure-tax, village and ſheep-taxes.

The whole military force of this ſee conſiſts only of one company of foot, as a garriſon to the town of Peina, and a few troopers. In the dioceſe are eight boroughs, with four market-towns, and two hundred and forty-eight villages. In 1731, the nobility were reckoned to have ſeventy-five manors, the proprietors of which are admitted into the aſſemblies of the nobility, and qualified for the diet.

The ſtates of the country conſiſt firſt of the cathedral chapter; ſecondly, of the ſeven abbies; thirdly, of the nobility; and fourthly, of the towns of Hildeſheim, Peina, Elze, and Alel. The ſovereign alone convenes the diets, which are generally held in the beginning of the new year, in the nobles hall at Hildeſheim. They are opened by the biſhop's chancellor, and a ſecretary reads over his propoſals, on which each claſs returns thanks in the perſon of its ſyndic, with aſſurances that the propoſals ſhall be taken into conſideration, and a proper anſwer returned.

The principal places in this dioceſe are the following:

Hildeſheim, in Latin Hildeſia, is the capital of the dioceſe, and ſtands on a rugged declivity, near the Innerſte, in the fifty-ſecond degree twenty-ſix minutes north latitude, and the ninth degree fifty-one minutes eaſt longitude. It is pretty large, but old and irregularly built. The magiſtracy, with the greateſt part of the burghers, are Lutherans; but the reſt of the popiſh religion. The cathedral, which belongs to the latter, is richly ornamented, particularly with fine paintings, and among its antiquities is the idol Irmenſul, which ſtands fronting the grand choir. Over the croſs-way is the nobility hall, which is finely painted in freſco; here is alſo the place where the diet is opened, together with the chapter-room, the treaſury, and a library. Near the cathedral ſtands the chancery, which was once the reſidence of the biſhop; but at preſent of the ſtadtholder. The cathedral yard, in which ſeveral of the canons have their dwellings, is planted with rows of trees. In the ſame place alſo ſtands the Jeſuits college, which beſides its other ornaments, is remarkable for its fine hall. The ſeminary, which belongs to it, conſiſts of nine claſſes. Holy Croſs abbey is alſo a noble edifice, that has a ſplendid church. Here are two convents of Benedictine monks, a Carthuſian monaſtery, with another for Capuchins, and two nunneries. The Lutherans are poſſeſſed of eight pariſh churches, the principal of which is that of St. Andrew, in the Old Town. There the ſuperintendent reſides, and in that alſo is the *Gymnaſium Andreanum*, a large elegant ſtructure, which contains a good library. The church was once collegiate, but on its being ceded to the Lutherans in 1542, the deans and canons were removed to the Liberty, where they ſtill reſide, and hold their meetings every year. The Latin ſchool of St. Lambert is under the direction of four maſters. The Jews have a ſynagogue here. This was antiently one of the Hanſe towns; but the calamities it ſuffered by war in 1632 and 1634, in both which years it was beſieged and taken, have been of irreparable prejudice to it.

Peina is ſituated in a marſhy country on the Fuſe, and was formerly reckoned among the fortreſſes. The greateſt part of the inhabitants are Lutherans; but the patronage of the Lutheran town and pariſh church, is lodged in the biſhop. This garriſon conſiſts of one company of foot, who are in the biſhop's pay. In a corner of the town, ſtands the epiſcopal palace, with a Capuchin convent, and near them is a ſuburb called the Dam, chiefly inhabited by ſhop-keepers and Jews.

CHAP. XIII.

Of LUSATIA.

SECT. I.

Of the Situation, Extent, Produce and Rivers of Luſatia in general; with the Religion, Learning, Manufactures and Commerce of the Inhabitants.

LUSATIA, which ſome authors place in Auſtrian Sileſia, and others in Saxony, extends in length from the north-weſt to the ſouth-eaſt, and is bounded on the eaſt by Sileſia, on the ſouth by Bohemia, on the weſt by Miſnia, and on the north by Brandenburg. It is five hundred and ſeventy miles in compaſs, and is divided into the marquiſates of Upper and Lower Luſatia. The former abounds more in mountains and hills, and enjoys a purer air than the latter, in which are found many boggy and mooriſh tracts; but has a great number of woods, and thoſe finer ones than are to be met with in Upper Luſatia, where the fertile tracts of that country have a great ſcarcity of timber. In the mountainous tracts of Upper Luſatia, on the borders of Bohemia and Sileſia, is but little room for agriculture. The heaths on the confines of Lower Luſatia conſiſt of a poor ſoil, which are of but little uſe except for hunting.

In each of theſe marquiſates wheat, rye, barley, and oats are cultivated; as alſo much buck-wheat, together with peas, beans, millet, lentils and flax. With reſpect to orchard and garden fruits, as alſo to the culture of hops, tobacco, and wine, Lower Luſatia has greatly the preference. The inhabitants alſo make ſome white and red wine. However, the produce of this country is not ſufficient for the ſupply of the people, and therefore corn, fruit, hops, garden ſtuff and wine, are imported into the Luſatias. The breeding of cattle is very conſiderable; there is alſo no want of veniſon, and the rivers, lakes, and ponds yield a variety of fiſh.

Here are quarries of ſtone, and in the mountains are dug cryſtals, agates, and jaſpers. This country has alſo an allum-work, and a vitriolic and copper water, and in ſeveral places is found very good iron-ſtone.

In the Luſatias riſe the river Spree, the Schwartze-Elſter, and the Pulſnitz; and the Neiſſe, which riſes in Bohemia, has its courſe chiefly in Luſatia, where it receives ſeveral ſmall rivers, and below Guben diſcharges itſelf into the Oder.

Some ſparks of the Chriſtian religion were ſcattered here in the ſeventh century; but ſeveral hundred years paſſed before the people could be brought under the Romiſh church, and the compulſion employed on that occaſion muſt neceſſarily have exaſperated them, while it rendered numbers of them hypocrites. However, from the eleventh century, many convents and churches became erected in the country. The doctrines of Luther were here received ſo early as the year 1521, and ſpreading by degrees, became the prevailing church, as it continues even to this day. There are, however, ſeveral popiſh convents, churches, market towns, and villages, ſcattered through the country.

Learning is much eſteemed in both marquiſates, which have produced many perſons who rendered themſelves illuſtrious by their literature. In the thirteenth century the groſs ignorance in which this country was involved began to vaniſh, and from the year 1450 to the Reformation, it ſtill increaſed, men of learning arriving from foreign countries, who brought books and the ſciences along with them, and by theſe the ſchools were improved. Learning, however, was not thoroughly eſtabliſhed till after the Reformation.

Luſatia would be unable to ſupport its inhabitants without the aſſiſtance of the arts; but the numerous woollen and linen manufactures afford the inhabitants all the neceſſaries of life. Theſe flouriſh principally in Upper Luſatia, and in ſeveral towns cloth manufactures have been carried on ſo early as the thirteenth century, and by this means have raiſed thoſe towns to a flouriſhing ſtate. The cloths of Luſatia are of different kinds, and the beſt of them little inferior to thoſe made in Holland. Prodigious quantities of ſtockings, ſpatterdaſhes, caps and gloves are alſo made here. The conduct of the emperors Ferdinand the Second and Third, together with that of Leopold towards the Proteſtants in Bohemia and Sileſia, cauſed vaſt numbers to retire to Upper Luſatia, where they erected villages chiefly in the mountains, and generally employed themſelves in the weaving of linen. Hence there are made here all ſorts of linen from unbleached and bleached yarn common and fine, as alſo fine white damaſk and white ticking. Various ſorts of coloured and printed linens are made here, and there are likewiſe in Luſatia good manufactories of hats, leather, paper, gun-powder, iron, glaſs, and the bleaching of wax.

By means of theſe manufactories a conſiderable trade is carried on, which though not ſo great as formerly, exceeds the value of the importation in ſilk, wool, and yarn, employed for their manufactures, and of the foreign ſilks, gold and ſilver lace, wines, ſpices, corn, fruit, garden-ſtuff, and hops, brought into the country.

The marquiſates of Upper and Lower Luſatia are remarkably different with reſpect to their arms, conſtitution, and government.

SECT. II.

Of the Conſtitution, Government, Arms, and principal Places in Upper and Lower Luſatia.

THIS marquiſate contains two ſorts of ſtates, viz. thoſe of lands and towns. The land-ſtates are divided into, firſt, the ſtate-lords, who have all their vaſſals and proper judicatories; ſecondly, the prelates, as the dean of Budiſſin, the abbeſs of Marienſtern and Marienthal, and the prioreſs of Lauban. The king of Bohemia has the ſupreme right of protection over the catholic foundations, cloiſters and clergy, in both marquiſates; but this extends only to religious affairs; they being in every thing elſe ſubject to the government of the country; and the dean of Budiſſin with the cloyſters of Marienſtern and Marienthal perform homage to the elector of Saxony. The third diviſion of the land-ſtates conſiſts of the gentry and commonalty, as counts, barons, nobles and burgeſſes, poſſeſſors of knights fees and fiefs.

The ſecond claſs of the ſtate conſiſts of the immediate ſeignioral towns, called by way of eminence The Six Towns, which are ranked in the following order, Budiſſin, Gorlitz, Zittau, Lauban, Camenz, and Lobaw.

Theſe two ſtates, in all conſultations relating to the common concerns of the country, form two voices, viz. the ſtates of the country one, and the united ſix towns the ſecond. They alſo aſſiſt in drawing up all ſuch reſolutions and regulations as have a relation to the common benefit and welfare of the country; and without firſt obtaining their opinion and free conſent, no taxes can be laid, nor any thing done that claſhes with the conſtitution of the marquiſate.

Theſe ſtates aſſemble at the land diets, which are either ordinary or extraordinary; the firſt are held three times a year at Budiſſin, and the laſt only upon extraordinary occaſions.

The arms of the marquiſate of Upper Luſatia are a wall or, ſtreaked with black, and erected in the manner of battlements in a field azure. In the ſhield it bears an helmet crowned, on which ſtands the wall or, with two eagles wings azure.

The arms of the marquiſate of Lower Luſatia are, an ox gules in a field argent, which ſtands from the left to the right.

All Luſatia was formerly a part of Bohemia; but rebelling againſt the emperor in 1620, John George elector of Saxony reduced it; for which ſervice, by the treaty of Prague in 1635, it was ſettled on the elector of Saxony, except ſome parts of Lower Luſatia, which were left to Brandenburg.

The marquiſate of Upper Luſatia is divided into two circles, and to each of theſe belong inferior circles; the principal towns in which are the following,

Budiſſin, or Bautzen, is the capital of the whole marquiſate, and is reckoned the firſt of the ſix towns. It ſtands in a mountainous ſituation, on the banks of the Spree, and is fortified in the antient manner. It is conſiderably large, well built and populous. The caſtle of Ortenburg, which ſtands on a high rock, is ſeparated from the town by a ditch and rampart, and yet is within the town walls. There is here a cathedral church dedicated to St. Peter, half of which belongs to the Lutherans, and the other half to thoſe of the inhabitants, who are of the Romiſh church. Budiſſin has likewiſe a ſeparate church belonging to the Lutherans, and another to the Papiſts; beſides which there are three hoſpitals, with a church belonging to each. The other buildings are a council-houſe and the council library, a celebrated academy, and an orphan-houſe. This town carries on a conſiderable trade in linen, hats, ſtockings, gloves, manufactures of Turky and glazed leather, cloth, fuſtian, &c. It has frequently ſuffered by fire, and has been ſometimes entirely burnt down.

Gorlitz, the principal town of the circle of the ſame name, and the ſecond of the ſix towns, is ſituated on the Neiſſe, in the fifteenth degree ſeven minutes eaſt long. and the fifty-firſt degree ten minutes north lat. 20 miles to the eaſt of Budiſſin, and is built and fortified in the antient manner. Within its walls are three churches, a celebrated academy, an orphan-houſe, and the bailiff's ſeat, in which the knights of this circle meet once a year. Without the walls are three churches, an hoſpital, and what is called the Holy Sepulchre, built after the model of the Holy Sepulchre at Jeruſalem. The cloths made in this place are beautiful, but the trade in this article is not near ſo conſiderable as formerly.

Zittaw is one of the beſt towns in Luſatia; it is fortified in the antient taſte, but finely built, and carries on a conſiderable trade in cloths, linen, and blue paper. It contains within its walls two churches, an hoſpital, a library, a good academy, and an orphan-houſe; but without there are three churches, which are only uſed for funeral ſermons, and three hoſpitals, in one of which is a chapel.

Herrenhuth, a famous place in the circle of Zittaw, firſt founded in the year 1722, by ſome Moravian brethren, who ſettled there in the fields of the village of Berthelſdorf, belonging to the late count Zinzendorf; but were afterwards greatly encreaſed, and this place became the chief nurſery of the Herrenhuthers, who conſidered count Zinzendorf as their biſhop and father.

The ſtates of Lower Luſatia are alſo divided into land and town-ſtates. The former conſiſts of the prelates, the lords who are poſſeſſors of ſeigniories, and the knights, to which claſs belong the counts, barons, and nobles, poſſeſſors of knights fees and fiefs. The town eſtates are compoſed of the deputies of the four circle towns Luckaw, Guben, Lubben, and Kalaw.

Each circle holds in its circle town a circle aſſembly, under the inſpection of the land-elders. The ſtates of the country conſtitute the leſſer and greater ban, who, in weighty affairs, and caſes requiring diſpatch, aſſemble with the privity and approbation of the upper office. The land-diet here hold two annual voluntary diets. But when the ſuperior cauſes the ſtates to be ſummoned together at his diſcretion, and propoſals to be laid before them by commiſſaries deputed for that purpoſe, ſuch convention is called a great land-diet.

The principal towns in Lower Luſatia are,

Soraw, or Zarow, one of the moſt antient towns in all Luſatia, has a pretty ſtrong caſtle, to which belongs a church, a pleaſure-garden, and alſo a good ſchool. It has five other churches, and is the ſeat of the chancery and conſiſtory. The town has been ſeveral times almoſt deſtroyed by fire; and near it is a hunting ſeat and a park.

Luc-

Luckaw, which is eſteemed the capital of Lower Luſatia, is ſeated on the rivulet of Geila, and contains a Latin ſchool, a pariſh church, a cloyſter-church, a houſe of correction and poor-houſe founded in the year 1744, with another church, and two hoſpitals. In 1644 and 1652 it was demoliſhed by fire.

Guben lies on the Neiſſe, which below it falls into the Oder. It is a pretty large town, and, beſides two pariſh-churches, has an hoſpital, which has likewiſe a church, a burying-church, a Latin ſchool, and a ſalt-office. Four villages which belong to it have ſome good manufactures of cloth, and there is here made a pretty deal of good wine.

CHAP. XIV.

Of the Circle of BAVARIA, including the Electorate of BAVARIA, the UPPER PALATINATE, and the Archbiſhopic of SALTZBRUG.

SECT. I.

Of the Circle of Bavaria in general, and more particularly of the Electorate of Bavaria; its Extent, Produce, and Manners of the Inhabitants, their Religion, and Government; with the Title and Arms of that Electorate; and the Bavarian Order of St. George.

THE circle of Bavaria is ſurrounded by the circles of Swabia, Auſtria, and Franconia, and by the kingdom of Bohemia, and derives its name from the dutchy of Bavaria, which is the largeſt and moſt conſiderable part of it.

Of this circle the elector of Bavaria and the archbiſhop of Saltzburg are joint ſummoning princes and directors, the convocatory being likewiſe held jointly by them; but the *directorium* is alternate. The diet of the circle is moſt uſually held at Ratiſbon, or Waſſerburg, though it is ſometimes convened at Landſhut, or Muldorf. The elector of Bavaria is hereditary commander in chief of the circle, by virtue of which office he has the direction of all military affairs.

We ſhall begin with the electorate of Bavaria, which contains the principal part of the circle, but it is not eaſy to aſcertain with any degree of exactneſs the proper extent of this electorate; for maps themſelves differ with reſpect to its greateſt length and breadth. Bavaria is, however, according to The Preſent State of Germany, a hundred and thirty miles long, and one hundred broad.

Upper Bavaria is partly mountainous and woody, and partly marſhy, abounding alſo in large and ſmall lakes, and is in general fitter for paſturage than tillage; but Lower Bavaria, which is for the moſt part level, is more fruitful: however, this electorate in general abounds in grain, paſture, fruits, woods, and foreſts; producing alſo a great number of cattle, and plenty of game and wild-fowl. It has ſome ſalt-works, and a mine of ſilver, another of copper, and one of lead; and in ſeveral places are quarries of very fine marble. The Upper Palatinate is extremely mountainous; but it is covered with woods, and has plenty of graſs, and, where cultivated, produces corn. The country is able to ſupport its inhabitants, particularly by means of the great number of its iron and lead-mines, its large woods and paſtures.

The principal river in this country is the Danube, which iſſuing out of Swabia waters the electorate from weſt to eaſt. The large inland lakes are ſaid to be ſixteen in number, and the ſmall ones a hundred and ſixty. The rivers, lakes, and ponds abound in fiſh, particularly the numerous ponds in the Upper Palatinate, which have an uncommon plenty.

In all Bavaria are reckoned thirty-five towns, and ninety five open and encloſed market-towns. In the ſeveral bailiwics are upwards of a thouſand caſtles and ſeats, and there are ſaid to be in Bavaria eleven thouſand ſeven hundred and four villages and hamlets.

Though the Bavarians are eſteemed rude, and are called by the other Germans Hog-drivers, they are found to be as hoſpitable and courteous as their neighbours. The people are in general poor, and their clergy ſuffer them to continue in the moſt deplorable ignorance with reſpect to religion, their adorations being principally paid to ſaints and images. They are ſaid to be far more ſuperſtitious than the Swabians; for in almoſt every town ſome bone or relic is held in higher veneration than the welfare and honour of their country: yet they are more polite and ingenious than the people of Swabia; and though they cultivate the ſciences, they are more addicted to arms than to arts, and make good ſoldiers.

The ſtates of Bavaria conſiſt of three claſſes, the prelates, the knights, and nobility; to which alſo belong the counts and lords, and the burghers of the ſeveral boroughs and market-towns. Provincial diets are here very rare, but a committee of the ſtates aſſemble annually at Munich, or as often as the ſtate of affairs requires.

No other religion is tolerated here but that of popery. The Lutheran and Calviniſt doctrines had indeed obtained a ſuperiority in the Upper Palatinate; but that country falling into the hands of the elector of Bavaria, popery was reſtored by force. There are, however, a great number of Lutherans ſtill. The pariſhes in the electorate amount to about fifteen hundred. The vicarages, chapels of eaſe, and other chapels, are near two thouſand in number, and the churches are ſaid to amount to twenty-eight thouſand ſeven hundred and nine. Theſe churches are ſubject to ſeventy-one rural deans. There are likewiſe eighty-ſix remarkable convents, and twelve collegiate foundations. Manufactures are here greatly increaſed and improved, particularly thoſe of ſilk ſtuffs, velvets, tapeſtry, coarſe cloth, woollen ſtuffs, and ſtockings, very good clocks, and watches; but its chief exports conſiſt of cattle, grain, wood, ſalt, and iron.

The titles of the elector are, By the grace of God duke of Upper and Lower Bavaria, as alſo of the Upper Palatinate; palſgrave of the Rhine, arch-ſteward of the holy Roman empire, and elector and landgrave of Leuchtenberg.

The arms of the elector are quarterly, an eſcutcheon of pretence. In the laſt of theſe quarters is the imperial monde or, in a field gules, denoting the office of arch-ſteward of the empire: in the upper dexter and lower ſiniſter quarter are lozenges azure, and argent for the dutchy of Bavaria; and in the upper ſiniſter and lower dexter is a lion gules crowned or, for the palatinate of the Rhine. During an interregnum, when the elector of Bavaria exerciſes the vicariate of the empire, he is allowed to bear the imperial ſpread-eagle, with his family ſhield on the breaſt.

The Bavarian order of St. George was revived in 1729 by the elector Albert. The knights of this order are ſtiled Defenders of the immaculate conception of the bleſſed Virgin Mary, and muſt produce unqueſtionable proofs of the nobility of their anceſtry for eight generations in both lines. The elector is grand maſter, and its enſign is a croſs enamelled blue, with St. George in the middle; on the reverſe of which is the name of the reſtorer of the order in a cypher, ſurrounded with the electoral cap, and at the four angles theſe letters I. V. P. F. ſignifying *Juſtus velut palma florebit*, that is, "The righ-" teous ſhall flouriſh, like a palm tree." This croſs is wore pendant to a broad ſky-blue ribbon with a black and white border.

In the electoral college the elector of Bavaria has only the fifth ſeat, though he is the ſecond of the lay electors; he

he is not only a member of the college of princes, but has even the firſt ſeat and vote in it.

The revenues of the elector ariſe out of ſalt, beer, wine, brandy, oak-maſt, veniſon, wood, mines, exciſe, coinage, tolls, contributions, and other ordinary ſources; beſides the impoſts raiſed on extraordinary occaſions. His ordinary annual revenue is eſtimated at between five and ſix millions of guldens.

The elector's military force conſiſts of regulars and militia; the former of theſe in times of peace uſually amount to about twelve thouſand; but in war they have been augmented to twenty-five, and even to thirty thouſand.

SECT. II.

A Deſcription of the principal Places in the Electorate of Bavaria, particularly of Munich the Capital, with a Deſcription of the Palaces of the Elector, and of whatever is moſt worthy of Notice.

WE ſhall now deſcribe the moſt remarkable places in Bavaria, in which we ſhall mention whatever deſerves the notice of the curious.

Munich, in Latin Monachium, is a fortified city ſeated on the Iſer, in the forty-eighth degree twenty two minutes north latitude, and in the eleventh degree forty-one minutes eaſt longitude. It is the capital and reſidence of the elector, and has broad ſtreets extending in a direct line, adorned with a multitude of noble edifices of all kinds. The palace and other buildings belonging to the elector, together with the churches, ſixteen monaſteries, and other religious ſtructures, take up near half the city. The precinct of the Auguſtines alone conſiſts of ſeveral ſtreets, which bring them in an annual rent of three thouſand guilders.

The elector of Bavaria's palace is an elegant ſtructure, conſiſting of four courts, the two fineſt of which are called the Prince's and Emperor's Court; the former is adorned with ſeveral braſs ſtatues: in the latter a broad flight of ſteps of beautiful red marble leads to the emperor's hall, which is a hundred and eighteen feet in length, and fifty-two in breadth; and in it is, among other things, a ſtatue of Virtue of one ſingle piece of porphyry. In the chamber of antiquities are two hundred marble ſtatues and buſts of Roman emperors, with five hundred antiques, as lamps, inſcriptions, baſſo relievos, &c. moſt of which were brought from Italy.

Among the valuable curioſities in the treaſury is a cabinet of many large pieces of work in cryſtal, among which is a ſhip ſome ſpans long, with a pilot, and all the tackling of the fineſt gold. A hill, with a caſtle upon it, all of oriental pearls. St. George on horſeback of red agate, with his armour of diamonds ſet in gold; and the Bavarian family, each perſon cut out of a piece of blue chalcedony. A double brilliant diamond of the ſize of a middling nutmeg. A larger, which coſt a hundred thouſand guilders. A ſet of buttons and loops of diamonds and rubies ſet between. A ſet only of diamonds, the buttons of extraordinary beauty, not inferior to thoſe worn by Lewis XIV. when he gave public audience to the Perſian ambaſſador, and of a ſuperior luſtre to the French; the late elector having been twenty years, with great difficulty and incredible expence, in compleating the collection. An ivory cloſet, with figures in relievo of moſt curious workmanſhip, in which are preſerved eleven hundred and forty-four gold Roman medals. In the year 1729 the palace, and particularly the chamber of rich curioſities, ſuffered greatly by fire, and in 1750 a whole wing of it was burnt down. Towards the eaſt ſtands the elector's arſenal, and to the northward lie the park and pleaſure-gardens, near which is a large edifice for tournaments.

On the weſt ſide of the palace, and oppoſite to it, ſtands the fine houſe built by count Preiſing, maſter of the horſe, which is a great ornament to the city, its four ſides anſwering to ſo many ſtreets. The pillars of the ſtable are of red marble, and every horſe feeds out of a marble manger, that coſt twenty-five guilders.

In this part is another palace built by duke William. In the largeſt market-place is a lofty marble pillar, upon which ſtands a braſs ſtatue of the Virgin Mary: there are here alſo two large fountains, and on the ſides of the market-place is the town-houſe, in which the ſtates hold their meetings; together with ſeveral lofty houſes ornamented with decorations of paintings on the front.

The principal eccleſiaſtical buildings are the collegiate church dedicated to the Virgin Mary, in which is the magnificent monument of black marble of the emperor Lewis IV. of Bavaria, adorned with ſix large and ſeveral ſmaller ſtatues of braſs. About ten or twelve paces from the entrance of the great door; one of the ſtones of the pavement is marked with a double croſs, and a perſon ſtanding upon this ſtone finds the pillars of the church ſo placed as to intercept the view of all the windows.

Among the other eccleſiaſtical buildings, the moſt remarkable is the church of St. Peter, with the convents of the Auguſtines, Capuchins, Carmelites, Franciſcans, and Theatines; as alſo the Jeſuits college, in which is a valuable library: both their convents and church are exceeding fine, and the laſt very large, light, and lofty. The veſtry is very rich, and among their relics they ſhew a joint as big as that of an elephant, which they pretend was one of the joints of St. Chriſtopher's backbone. The other buildings worthy of notice are the nunneries of St. Clara, Bridget, and Ridler; the reſidence of the Engliſh ſociety; the hoſpital of the Holy Ghoſt, of St. Elizabeth, or the Duke's, and St. Joſeph.

They have no religion but that of the Roman, to which they are ſo bigotted, that they look upon thoſe of another perſuaſion as monſters rather than men; and among the feſtivals performed here, the proceſſion at that of *Corpus Chriſti* appears very extraordinary. Here march the deputies of all the trades and manual arts, with coſtly flags carried before them. Every member of all the religious orders join in the proceſſion; and a great number of religious hiſtories are exhibited on triumphal cars, by children richly dreſſed. At the head of their reſpective orders ride St. George and St. Maurice, in Roman habits; while St. Margaret is repreſented by a young lady, dreſſed like a veſtal, leading after her a large dragon, in which two men are uſually encloſed to give it the neceſſary movements. The four mendicant orders precede the hoſt, which is carried under a ſplendid canopy; after which come the elector and his conſort, both holding a lighted taper. They are followed by the maſter of the houſhold, ſome court ladies, and after them the whole court. The proceſſion is cloſed by the garriſon, burghers, and peaſants; and, while the clergy ſtop at four different places to give the benediction, they are anſwered by ſalutes of eight guns from the ramparts.

On the other ſide of the river Iſer lies Au, the remarkable places in which are the houſe of duke Albert, with its chapel, and the elector's manufactory. Above this place ſtands a convent belonging to the order of St. Paul. In Munich are manufactures of velvets, ſilk, wool, and tapeſtry.

At the diſtance of nine miles from Munich is Sleiſheim, an elegant palace belonging to the elector. The entrance is very grand, both the pavement and the columns being of red and grey marble; and the ſtairs are adorned with columns of green marble, brought from Brixen. In the firſt hall are two large paintings of the raiſing of the ſiege of Vienna, and the battle of Hagaz; and in the victory hall, which is contiguous to it, are the battles of Belgrade, Peſt, and ſeveral others. On the ſide of the palace towards Munich is a noble gallery of pictures, among which are two pieces of Annibal Caracci, for each of which Maximilian, the firſt elector of the Bavarian; family paid forty thouſand guilders, and ſeveral large hunting-pieces by Rubens. In another chamber is the ſlaughter of the innocents at Bethlehem, finely painted by Peter Paul Rubens; in which the various agitations of the mothers ſupplicating, lamenting, ſtruggling, and fainting, are incomparably expreſſed. But the grandeſt collection is in a particular apartment, covered with ſmall pictures; nothing has a place there, but what is eſteemed among the nobleſt productions of that art. In another chamber is Alexander's

firſt battle againſt Darius; a moſt admirable piece, painted by Albert Durer, who has beſtowed incredible labour on it: it contains ſeveral thouſand men, yet the hair of their heads and beards, with the ſmalleſt joints of their armour, and other minutiæ, are all diſtinctly expreſſed.

At the diſtance of half a league from Munich is the palace of Nymphenburg; which has not the grandeur of Sleiſheim; but its fine gardens and water-works render it a more agreeable ſummer reſidence. In ſome of the apartments are portraits of the beauties of the French court, views of ſeveral palaces of this dutchy, likewiſe a chimney-piece and two tables of white marble inlaid with gold, and colours, in imitation of enamel. In the garden is a grand caſcade and baſon, with ſeveral figures of braſs gilt. Among the fine walks and trees of this garden ſtands Bademburg, a delightful ſtructure, conſiſting of elegant grottos and a large bath, into which both cold and warm water may be conveyed. The floor is overlaid with copper, and the wall decorated with porcelain and conduits. Along the roof is an iron lattice, partly gilt, and of very curious workmanſhip.

Oppoſite to this place is the mall, and the bowling-green, by which ſtands a ſtructure called Pagodenburg, the chief uſe of which is for the elector, after violent exerciſe at thoſe games, to change his linen, and other apparel. Here are alſo ſeveral little cabinets in the Chineſe taſte, and other contrivances equally ornamental and convenient.

Nearer the palace ſtands a pretty hermitage, which is ſo natural an imitation of a ruinous building, that it never fails to raiſe the beholder's admiration. In ſome places it ſeems as if endeavours had been uſed to repair it with lime and ſtone; in another part you are afraid that the cracked walls and the bricks, which ſcarce hang together, will immediately give way and cruſh you in the ruins. In this ſtructure, which ſtands in a kind of deſart, is a large grotto, in which is a conſecrated altar, and on it a crucifix, and two candleſticks. The other rooms have no other ornament but a ſmall library of books of devotion in French bindings. Underneath is a kitchen and cellar, where the utenſils are only a neat ſort of earthen ware.

At the diſtance of nine miles from Munich alſo lies another electoral ſeat, called Starenberg, where the court ſometimes takes the diverſion of water-hunting A ſtag is forced into a neighbouring lake, the hounds purſuing him, followed by the huntſmen in boats, and their highneſſes in a ſplendid barge, which carries twenty-four braſs guns.

The court here alſo often take the diverſion of hunting the heron, and every year at the concluſion of this ſport, an heron that has the good fortune to be taken alive, is ſet at liberty, with a ſilver ring put on its leg, on which is engraved the name of the reigning elector. Mr. Keyſler mentions one of theſe birds being taken a ſecond time, that had on its ring the name of duke Ferdinand the preſent elector's grandfather; ſo that it had ſurvived its former adventure above ſixty years: they put a ring with the preſent elector's name on its leg, and reſtored the bird to liberty a ſecond time. Upon this occaſion the ſame author mentions an eagle that died at Vienna in 1719, after a confinement of one hundred and four years; and adds, that it is probable that theſe and the like birds in the enjoyment of their natural freedom reach to a much greater longevity.

Ingolſtadt is a fortified town, pleaſantly ſeated on the Danube. It is of an indifferent ſize and ſtrength, with broad, ſtraight, and well paved ſtreets. The houſes are moſtly painted white on the outſide; but the town is poor and ill peopled. It contains an upper and lower pariſh church, together with three others, a college of Jeſuits, two convents of monks, and one of nuns, and an univerſity founded in 1472, and enlarged in 1746, in which is a good library, and a cabinet of antiquities. This town was beſieged by the Swedes in 1632, without ſucceſs; but was taken by the Auſtrians in 1743.

Reichenhall, a town ſeated on the Sala, with a rich ſalt ſpring in it, the water of which is partly boiled here, and partly by means of a wheel, thirty-ſix feet in diameter, thrown up to the higher parts of a lofty houſe, and from thence conveyed by means of leaden pipes to the diſtance of three German miles to Trauenſtein, and there boiled; the latter of theſe places abounding much more in wood, and having greater conveniences for exportation. On the mountains over which theſe pipes run are ſmall houſes and water-works at proper diſtances, in order to throw the water higher. Near the ſalt ſpring is a ſtream of freſh water, by the ſwift current of which their wheels and water-engines are worked; but as both ſprings are ſurrounded with hills, and the place in danger of being overflowed by the conflux of theſe waters, an aqueduct was undertaken above three hundred years ago, and compleated at a prodigious expence. This is, indeed, a work that cannot be beheld without amazement; its channel runs under the town of Reichenhall, and under ſeveral gardens and fields at the depth of twelve fathoms in ſurface, and is a mile and a half in length to the place where the water breaks out to day-light, with great impetuoſity. One paſſes through this aqueduct, ſays Mr Keyſler, within a quarter of an hour in boats by candle-light, and the motion is ſo rapid, that the boat muſt often be checked. The water is uſually between three and four feet deep; but is frequently ſwelled by the rains, ſo as not to leave room for the paſſengers in the boat to ſit upright. This canal is five feet broad, and every eight or ten years the bottom is cleared of the ſtones carried thither by the floods or freſh water, or wantonly thrown down the ſpiracles or openings, which in the form of towers riſe into the open air, and through ſome of which one may ſpeak from the walls of the city with thoſe who are going along the aqueduct. The roof with reſpect to duration, appears to be an everlaſting work, it being not only of free ſtone; but in many places over-laid with a very hard kind of roſin, as with a varniſh, ſo that it looks like one entire ſolid piece. The deſcent to this ſubterraneous canal is by the ſteps of the tower near the ſpring of the Sala, whoſe water overflowing, runs about fifty paces before it diſcharges itſelf into the freſh-water ſtream, and then does not immediately mingle with it.

SECT. III.

Of the principal Places in Lower Bavaria, particularly of Landſhut, the imperial City of Ratiſbon, &c.

THE principal town in Lower Bavaria is Landſhut, which is ſeated on the Iſer, in the forty-eighth degree forty-one minutes north latitude, and in the twelfth degree twenty-five minutes eaſt longitude, forty-ſix miles to the north of Munich. It is not only well built and ſtrongly fortified; but ſtands in the richeſt and moſt pleaſant part of all Bavaria, and is the ſeat of the elector's lieutenant for Lower Bavaria, who has a court here and ſeveral offices. It has a bridge over the Iſer, and on the other ſide a ſuburb called Saldenthal, in which is an abbey of Ciſtercian nuns. The town contains an electoral palace ſeated on a hill, with another which ſtands in the midſt of the town. Its principal church, dedicated to St. Martin, has a tower, which is eſteemed the higheſt in the empire, and hence it obtained the name of Lands-hut, which ſignifies The hat of the country. The new buildings, added to the duke's palace, conſiſt of a neat piece of architecture in the Italian ſtile. There is here alſo a pariſh-church dedicated to St Job, a college of Jeſuits, three convents of monks, and the ſame number of nuns.

The imperial city of Ratiſbon, called by the Germans Regenſburg, is a large fortified and populous town, ſeated on the Danube, in the forty-ninth degree ten minutes north latitude, and in the twelfth degree eaſt longitude. This city is the capital of the popiſh biſhopric of Ratiſbon, yet both the magiſtracy and burghers are of the Lutheran religion. The river Regen runs through the town, and then falls into the Danube. The city is well fortified with a double wall, ditches, and ramparts,

parts, and ſtands in a ſoil abounding in corn, paſture, and vineyards, whoſe grapes produce a ſtrong and palatable wine. The largeſt church belonging to the Lutherans is that of the Trinity, and they have alſo an academy, in which are eight teachers. There are here four immediate ſtates of the empire, which conſiſt of the biſhopric, and the imperial foundations of St. Emmeran, with the abbies of Upper and Lower Munſter. There are here alſo a college of Jeſuits, a cloiſter of St. James, inſtituted by Scotſmen of the popiſh religion; the collegiate church of Altkapell, the nunneries of St. Clara and St. Paul, and the hoſpital of the Holy Croſs. Here the imperial diet often meet in a large upper room hung with tapeſtry, in which is the emperor's throne of cloth of gold. The elector Palatine has alſo two fine palaces in the city, and there are ſeveral others belonging to the neighbouring prelates. Among the other public buildings is a ſtone bridge of fifteen arches over the Danube, the moſt ſubſtantial ſtructure of the kind either on this river, or on the Rhine: it is twenty-three feet broad, and about one thouſand and ninety-one in length. It is ſupported by ſquare piers, and defended by buttreſſes againſt the force of the ſtream and ſhoals of ice.

The biſhop of Ratiſbon is a prince of the empire, and ſits on the bench of eccleſiaſtical princes between the biſhops of Freyſing and Paſſau, and on that of the circle of Bavaria, between the ſame prelates. The limits of this biſhopric comprehend two collegiate churches, twenty-eight abbies and prelacies, and twenty-nine rural deaneries, to which belong one thouſand three hundred and eighty-three pariſhes, chapels of eaſe, and chaplainries. This biſhop, who is a ſovereign prince, has his conſiſtory, his council, and treaſury; but the elector of Bavaria holds the biſhop's court in the city of Ratiſbon.

The abbey of St. Emmeran, which conſiſts of Benedictine monks, is under the government of an abbot, who has his ſeat at the diet of the empire on the Rheniſh bench of prelates, and has alſo a ſeat and voice in the diet of Bavaria. The church of this cloiſter boaſts of keeping the compleat body of St. Denis the Areopagite, which they ſay was ſtolen out of the abbey of St. Denis in France, though the latter maintain that they are ſtill in the poſſeſſion of it; yet in the palace chapel of Munich is one of his hands, and both in the cathedral church at Bamberg, and in that of St. Vitus, in the cathedral at Prague, the head of this ſaint is ſhewn.

The two princely abbies of Upper and Lower Munſter are under the government of two abbeſſes, who have the title of princeſſes, and have likewiſe a vote at the diets of the empire, and the circle of Bavaria; but the ladies of theſe foundations may marry out of them.

Within the circle of Bavaria is alſo the city of Freyſing, the capital and reſidence of the biſhop, who is a ſovereign prince. It ſtands on two hills on the little river Moſach, not far from the Iſer, and commands a moſt delightful proſpect into the electorate of Bavaria, the archbiſhopric of Saltzburg and Tirol. One of theſe hills is within the city walls, and upon it ſtands the biſhop's palace, with a cathedral, a Benedictine church, and the collegiate churches of St. John and St. Andrew, St. Peter's chapel, and other public edifices. In the other part of the city is a large market-place, in the center of which ſtands a beautiful marble ſtatue of the virgin Mary, with the church of St. George, a ſeminary of Benedictines, a Franciſcan convent, an orphan-houſe, and an hoſpital. Without the city are the biſhop's gardens, and a convent of Præmonſtratenſes. On the other hill, which lies to the weſt of the city, is a Benedictine abbey, and below it the collegiate church of St. Vitus.

SECT. IV.

Of the Upper Palatinate, or Palatinate of Bavaria, the Dutchies of Neuburg and Saltzbach, and the Biſhopric of Paſſau, with the principal Places in each.

THE Upper Palatinate, which lies on the Danube, belongs to the duke of Bavaria, and is ſometimes called the Nordgaw, from its lying to the north of the elector's other dominions. It is bounded on the north by Voigtland in Upper Saxony; on the eaſt by Bohemia and Auſtria; on the ſouth by the Danube, which ſeparates it from the dutchy of Bavaria, and by Swabia and part of Franconia on the weſt.

It is a mountainous, rocky country, but rich in mines of ſilver, copper, and iron; ſome of its valleys, however, produce corn and good paſture; and they have likewiſe ſome vineyards. But this dutchy does not entitle the elector to a particular ſeat, either in the college of princes, or the circle of Bavaria.

The capital of the Upper or Bavarian Palatinate is Amberg, which is ſituated on the little river Ilz, or Ils, which runs through it; and is ſo well fortified, that it is reckoned one of the ſtrongeſt towns in Upper Germany. Its principal ornaments are the caſtle and armoury, both which are handſome ſtructures, as are alſo the electoral palace, the cathedral dedicated to St. Martin, and the college of Jeſuits, which has a beautiful church. This city, which is ſeated in the forty-ninth degree twenty-ſix minutes north latitude, and in the twelfth degree four minutes eaſt longitude, is conveniently ſituated for traffic, it being almoſt in the centre between Ratiſbon, Ingolſtadt, and Nuremberg. Its greateſt trade ariſes from its iron-mines and manufactures, which are ſent down the Nabe to Ratiſbon and other cities.

In the year 1703, the Imperialiſts took this city from the elector, who was put under the ban of the empire, for joining with France in the war then carrying on againſt the emperor Leopold and his confederates. In the war of 1743, between the late elector, the emperor Charles VII. and the queen of Hungary, Amberg, with all the Upper Palatinate, was taken by the Auſtrians in the ſervice of that princeſs.

The principalities or dutchies of Neuburg and Sultzbach form the northern part of the Upper Palatinate, and are reckoned in Bavaria, though they are ſubject to the elector Palatine, who on account of Neuburg has a ſeat and voice both in the diet of the empire, and the circle of Bavaria.

Neuburg enjoys a government of its own, together with a chamber of juſtice, and a prefecturate-office. It has ſtill ſome Lutheran fiefs; but the prevailing religion is the popiſh. The bailiwics belonging to it lie diſperſed. The moſt remarkable places it contains are the following:

Neuburg, or Newburg, the capital of the whole dutchy, and the ſeat of the government, ſtands on a hill, in a good ſituation by the Danube. It is well built and fortified, and has a palace, with a college of Jeſuits, which was formerly a convent of ladies, and other public buildings.

Hochſtet, or Hochſtadt, is a ſmall town ſeated on the Danube; but is well provided with all ſorts of neceſſaries, and has rich corn-fields and good paſtures in its neighbourhood. In 1634, during the civil wars in Germany, the Croats barbarouſly cut off many of the inhabitants, and ruined moſt of the town; but it has been ſince pretty well rebuilt, and defended by a ſtrong caſtle on the Danube, over which is a wooden bridge, a little below the town. This place is moſt famous for the glorious victory gained near it on the ſecond of Auguſt 1704, by the united forces of the Imperialiſts, Engliſh, and Dutch, under the command of the duke of Marlborough and prince Eugene, over one of the compleateſt armies of French and Bavarians that ever took the field, commanded by the elector of Bavaria, and the French marſhals Tallard and Marſin, who were entirely defeated, about twenty thouſand being killed on the ſpot, or drowned in the Danube, and about thirteen thouſand taken priſoners; among whom was marſhal Tallard, who with many officers of rank were brought to England, and remained at Nottingham, where they were allowed their parole, till the year 1712. In remembrance of this victory a pillar was erected with a Latin inſcription; and in acknowledgement of the ſignal ſervices here performed by the duke of Marlborough, the emperor Leopold created him a prince of the empire, under the title of Mindelheim, a place in Bavaria, which in the year 1714, was reſtored to the elector by the treaty of Baden.

Blenheim,

Blenheim, a village ſeated on the Danube, not far from Hochſtet, and which alſo gives name to the above battle.

The principality of Sultzbach has alſo a particular government of its own, together with a tribunal. The inhabitants and churches are partly Lutheran and partly of the Romiſh religion, and the affairs of the Lutheran conſiſtory are managed by the government, in which two Proteſtant counſellors preſide.

The principal town in this diſtrict is Sultzbach, the capital of the principality, and the reſidence of the regency and tribunal, though the number of the inhabitants does not much exceed three hundred. It is, however, divided into two parts, and the upper, which ſtands on a hill, is ſeparated from the lower by a wall. The prince's palace ſtands on a rock oppoſite the upper town. The Lutherans have a church and a grammar ſchool, and the Roman catholics a Latin ſchool and a Capuchin convent.

The biſhopric or principality of Paſſau lies between Bavaria, Bohemia, and Auſtria, and is ſeated on the river Danube. The biſhops were formerly ſuffragans to the archbiſhops of Saltzburg; but are now made independent, and the biſhop of Paſſau in the college of imperial princes ſits on the eccleſiaſtical bench between the biſhops of Ratiſbon and Trent; but in the circle of Bavaria is the laſt among the prelates. To the epiſcopal cathedral, ſo far as its juriſdiction extends over Bavaria, belong two collegiate churches, with thirteen abbies and priories, and ten rural deaneries, containing three hundred and twenty-eight places of worſhip; it alſo extends a great way into Auſtria. The revenues of this biſhopric are ſaid to amount to eighty thouſand crowns a year.

Paſſau, the capital of this biſhopric, is ſeated on the Danube, which at this place receives into it the Inn, and on the other ſide the Ilz, a river famous for its beautiful pearls. It conſiſts of three towns, that properly called Paſſau, lying between the rivers Danube and Inn; the Inſtadt, which ſtands on the other ſide of the Inn, and is joined to the former by means of a bridge; and the Ilzſtadt, which is on the north ſide of the Danube, where it receives the Ilz. The laſt of theſe rivers runs between Ilzſtadt and the mountain of St. George, on which ſtands a caſtle. The city on thoſe ſides that are ſurrounded by the water is without walls; but towards the land ſide is fortified both with ramparts and ditches. The cathedral, which is dedicated to St. Stephen, was, together with the city, burnt down in the year 1662, but has been rebuilt with great ſplendor, and on an eminence near it ſtands the biſhop's palace. Beſides ſeveral pariſh-churches there is in this city a convent of Benedictines, a Franciſcan and a Capuchin convent, with a college of Jeſuits. On the hill, at the foot of which Inſtadt is ſeated, is the Pilgrim church, called Mariahulf, and near the town of Paſſau, properly ſo called, is the convent of St. Nicholas, in which are regular canons of the order of St. Auguſtine: Paſſau enjoys a very good ſituation for trade.

SECT. V.

The Archbiſhopric of SALTZBURG.

Its Situation, Extent, Produce, and Rivers. The Religion and Government of the Inhabitants; with the Power, Titles, Arms, Revenues, and Forces of the Archbiſhop.

THE archbiſhopric of Saltzburg, which is in the ſouthern part of Bavaria, is bounded on the eaſt by Auſtria and Stiria, on the ſouth by Carinthia and Tyrol, on the weſt by Upper Bavaria, and northward by the ſame part of that electorate. Its length and breadth are very differently repreſented by different authors; but by the loweſt computation it is a hundred and fourteen miles in length and breadth.

This country is on all ſides defended by mountains and narrow paſſes, or rather entirely conſiſts of mountains and valleys. No kind of grain is ſowed here, whence it is ſupplied with all its corn from Bavaria; but every part of it produces excellent hay, and a great number of fine cattle. The horſes in particular are eſteemed for their beauty, hardineſs, and vigour, being able to travel full ſpeed up the higheſt mountains with no other food than hay and graſs, without any oats.

At Hallein, which is about two hours diſtance from the city of Saltzburg, are ſalt-works belonging to the ſovereign, in which ſalt of all colours, as yellow, red, blue, and white, is hewn out from along the ſubterraneous caverns, and then diſſolved in freſh water; which being conveyed into pits, the fineſt ſalt is made of the brine: but theſe works are only carried on in ſummer, when a ſufficient quantity is made not only for home-conſumption, but to anſwer all the demands from Bavaria, where it is exchanged for corn. In this archbiſhopric are alſo conſiderable mines of ſilver, copper, lead, iron, and lapis calaminaris. A great deal of ſteel and braſs is alſo made here, and the plenty of theſe metals remarkably appears in the aſtoniſhing number of ſwords, ſabres, bayonets, muſkets, cannon, and mortars, to be ſeen in the armouries all over the country. In this biſhopric is alſo found a very good marble.

The principal river in this country is the Salza, or Salzach, which riſes in the valley of Crumbler, towards the county of Tirol, watering a great part of it; and, after receiving into it the little rivers of Saal and Gaſtein, which riſe in this country, continues its courſe into Upper Bavaria, where it falls into the Inn, which waſhes a ſmall part of the weſtern ſide of the archbiſhopric. Here alſo riſe the Ens and Muer, with many other little ſtreams, rivulets, and lakes; all which abound in fiſh.

Though the popiſh doctrines and worſhip are alone tolerated in this archbiſhopric; yet, at the time of the Reformation, Lutheraniſm was embraced by great numbers, whom archbiſhop Matthew Langins harraſſed and ſtrove to extirpate by oppreſſion and violence. But archbiſhop John James proceeded with greater mildneſs, and, in order to reconcile all tempers, obtained the pope's licence to adminiſter the ſacrament in both kinds. Archbiſhop Wolfgang Theodoric, in the year 1588, drove great numbers of his Lutheran ſubjects out of the country, and his ſucceſſor, Marcus Sittich, count of Hohenimbs, neglected neither fair means, menaces, nor violence, particularly by quartering troops on the Proteſtants, to bring them again to the church of Rome, inſomuch that it was ſuppoſed the whole country was become Roman. But ſucceeding times ſhewed that this was a miſtake, great numbers openly profeſſing Lutheraniſm. On this archbiſhop Maximilian Gandolph left them no other alternative than either to fly their country, or abjure their faith. But the moſt violent flame of perſecution blazed out under archbiſhop Leopold Anthony Eleutherius, baron of Firmian, whoſe cruel zeal for ſuppreſſing Lutheraniſm in his province was ſo great, that the oppreſſed party were obliged to apply for redreſs to the ſtates of that religion in the diet, who prevailed ſo far, that, in the year 1732, permiſſion was granted to the Lutheran Saltzburghers to withdraw quietly with their effects; on which above thirty thouſand perſons embraced this opportunity, diſperſing themſelves into the other proteſtant countries of Germany, Pruſſia, and even the Engliſh colonies in America: in all which places they were received with all that benevolence and encouragement which their magnanimity deſerved; and theſe emigrations have continued ever ſince.

In the archbiſhopric are ſix cities and twenty-five market-towns. The eſtates of the nobility enjoy a juriſdiction over the vaſſals. All peaſants are, however, allowed the uſe of fire-arms; and, being from their early years trained up at ſhooting at a mark, would on occaſion prove a very ſerviceable body. The nobility were here formerly very numerous; but the policy of the princes ſet ſo many ſprings at work to oppreſs and extirpate them, that not even one at preſent remains, and all their eſtates are in the hands of the church. With reſpect to the few nobles at court, or belonging to the cathedral, they are all foreigners, eſpecially Auſtrians, Bohemians, and ſome Bavarians. The nobility being therefore extinct, the prelates and commons form the ſtates of the country: the former of theſe are the biſhop of Chiemſee, the prior of the cathedral, the abbot of St. Peter at Saltzburg, the prince of Berchtolſgader, the abbot

abbot of St. Michael in Bavaria, the prior of Haglwerth, and the abbeſs of Nunnberg; the latter are compoſed of the cities and twenty-two market towns.

The titles of the archbiſhop are, By the grace of God prince of the holy Roman empire, and archbiſhop of Saltzburg, Legatus Natus of the apoſtolic chair of Rome, and primate of Germany.

His arms are in the dexter half or, party per pale a lion ſable; but the ſiniſter is damaſquined. His ſupporters are a ſword and a croſier ſurmounted, as it were, behind with a croſs.

Beſides his being the born and perpetual legate of the apoſtolic ſee, and primate of Germany, he alſo enjoys ſeveral other important honours. He wears a cardinal's habit, and all appeals from him lie to the pope alone in perſon, by whoſe permiſſion he diſpoſes of canonſhips. The emperor ſtiles him well-beloved; but all other eccleſiaſtics who are not of princely blood, have only the title of honourable, and your reverence. This archbiſhop has the following ſuffragan biſhops under him; thoſe of Freyſing, Ratiſbon, Brixen, Gurk, Chiemſee, Seckau, and Lavant. The four laſt are even nominated, conſecrated, and confirmed by his own power, without ſtanding in need of the pope's confirmation; and, indeed, he is the only archbiſhop who enjoys this privilege. His temporal pre-eminences are, that except the electoral archbiſhops, he is the only archbiſhop in all Germany who ſits and votes in the diet of the empire; and in the college of princes, he enjoys alternately with Auſtria, the firſt ſeat on the eccleſiaſtical bench, and likewiſe in the directory.

The principal colleges of the archbiſhop are the privy, or ſtate council, the conſiſtory, the court of juſtice, the treaſury, and the council of war.

His revenues, according to Keyſler, amount to eight hundred thouſand rixdollars a year. The military force of this archbiſhopric conſiſts of only one regiment of foot, containing a thouſand men, whoſe uniform is generally white faced with red. His fifty halberdeers and fifty horſe-guards are rather inſtituted for the ſplendor of the court than for the military eſtabliſhment; theſe, who are the life-guards, and the other officers, wear black with red facings and gold lace. A great number of ſoldiers, in a country ſo well defended from invaſions, by its mountains and narrow paſſes, would be needleſs and inconvenient, on account of the ſcarcity of corn, and the bravery and expertneſs of the peaſants. Every bailiwic has its rendezvous, to which on a ſignal being given, by means of cannon planted on the mountains and towers, they repair completely armed, and there wait the command for marching. There are ſaid to be twenty-five thouſand peaſants, who never fail to hit a mark of a hand's breadth.

SECT. VI.

Of the City of Saltzburg, and the ſeveral Palaces belonging to the Archbiſhop in that City and its Neighbourhood.

THE principal place in this archbiſhopric is the city of Saltzburg, in Latin Saliſburgum, the capital of the archbiſhopric, and the reſidence of the archbiſhop, which is ſituated in the forty-ſeventh degree forty-five minutes north latitude, and in the thirteenth degree five minutes eaſt longitude, ſeventy-one miles to the ſouth-eaſt of Munich. It is ſurrounded by three mountains called Imberg, Schloſberg, and Munchberg; but on one ſide is open to a large plain, through the midſt of which runs the Salza. It is computed to be five thouſand geometrical paces in circuit, and is well fortified: that part of the city which lies to the right of the river, is ſurrounded with eight baſtions; that on the left ſide with three: the mountain-caſtle which ſtands in the former is very ſtrong, both from its ſituation and its works, and in it is the principal arſenal. It is provided for a whole year with neceſſary proviſions, and the garriſon is never changed.

Saltzburg is a fine city, and the greateſt part of the houſes are five ſtories high; but the ſtreets are narrow, and being paved after the old faſhion, the courſe of the water and filth is in the middle, and the ſpouts conſequently project to ſome diſtance from the houſes. The roofs from the ſtreets appear entirely flat; but only conſiſt of ſeveral ſmall low ridges that are hid by the four main walls of the houſes. One part of the city ſtands on a ſteep rock. Before the palace fronting the new apartments is a fountain, eſteemed the largeſt and fineſt in all Germany; the figures are all of white marble; but in the groteſque taſte. The reſervoir is one hundred and ſeven feet in circumference, excluſive of the ſteps; four large horſes ſpout the water out of their mouths and noſtrils, though not in ſuch quantities as the ſtatues above them. The height of the whole work exceeds fifty feet, and is ſurmounted by a column of water eighteen feet high.

The palace, which is a magnificent ſtructure, contains one hundred and ſeventy-three rooms. The archbiſhop's apartment is very noble, the aſcent to it is by a large marble ſtair-caſe, and the ceilings are finely painted and gilt. The furniture is ſurpriſingly rich. Another apartment ſtill more magnificent, if poſſible, is uſed on days of ceremony. Indeed, the whole palace abounds with fine pictures, tables of inlaid marble, and ſuperb ſtoves of all colours, ornamented with ſtatues. But though the tapeſtries are valuable on account of the gold and ſilver they contain, yet age has deprived them of the greateſt part of their beauty. From the roof of the palace, which you may go quite round upon boards laid over the ſmall ridges, is a delightful proſpect. The new apartments, though not in the exact rules of ſymmetry, are a conſiderable ornament to the place, and contain all the offices of the archbiſhop. The ſtables are in three long and arched diviſions; the horſes, which amount to one hundred and fifty, eat out of white marble mangers; and twice a week a running water being turned in through both ſides of the ſtalls, carries away any filth that may have gathered there. Over this ſtable is the fencing ſchool, and before it a pond for watering the horſes ninety-three feet in length, in the midſt of which ſtands a very large horſe made of one piece of marble, with water guſhing out of its mouth.

The winter riding ſchool is very lofty, with ſeats placed between the windows on both ſides of the walls, for the accommodation of ſpectators of diſtinction, that the riders may not be incommoded in their exerciſe. The ſummer riding ſchool, which alſo ſerves for baiting wild beaſts, is in the open air, and has three galleries, one ſide of which are all cut out of the rock.

The cathedral of St. Rupert is built of free-ſtone, and has a ſtately front, adorned with four marble ſtatues of St. Peter, St. Paul, St. Rupert, and St. Virgilius; the two latter being formerly its biſhops, and the inſide of the building is adorned with pilaſters of the Corinthian order. It is built in the form of a croſs. Its high altar is of marble, which on grand feſtivals bears a ſun of gold, adorned with precious ſtones to the value of one hundred thouſand crowns, with a large croſs of gold, and four candleſticks of the ſame metal. All the other altars are of beautiful marble of different kinds, and under the cupola are four of them, with an organ over each; but the fifth and fineſt organ, which is over the chief entrance, conſiſts of three thouſand two hundred and ſixty-ſix pipes, the longeſt of which is thirty-three feet. To this organ belong four keys, and forty-two regiſters, of which ſeventeen are of clock-work. The roof of this church is covered with copper, and the gallery between the cathedral and palace is of white marble.

The new univerſity church of the immaculate conception of the Bleſſed Virgin is a noble building, and the inſide ornamented with very fine ſtucco-work. Before the Theatine convent ſtands a marble pillar of one ſingle ſtone twenty-four feet high.

A covered bridge leads from the lower part of the city to the archbiſhop's palace of Mirabella, whoſe fine chapel conſtitutes the middle part of the principal front: facing it is a mount Parnaſſus, with a Pegaſus on the top, from which the water falls in caſcades. In the palace is a grand marble ſtair-caſe finely painted, and the great hall is adorned with curious tables, and many beautiful landſcapes. The floors, as in the city-palace, are inlaid with

red and white marble, and the hangings are moſtly red embroidered with gold and ſilver. The garden is very beautiful, and the Salza, which runs cloſe by it, adds to the agreeableneſs of the proſpect. Within the garden is a large aviary, where, during the ſummer heats, the archbiſhop frequently takes a repaſt. The theatre decorated with green turf is very beautiful, and has four large marble groupes, the rape of Proſerpine, the rape of Helen, Hercules wreſtling with Antheus, and Æneas carrying his father out of Troy.

About a quarter of a league from Saltzburg is Hellbrun, another of the archbiſhop's ſeats. The building contains nothing remarkable; but the garden is extremely pleaſant, it being laid out in the manner of a wilderneſs, and abounding with the fineſt water-works, reſervoirs, ponds, and baſons, all ſo clear that you ſee the trouts and other fiſh ſporting in them. Among other beautiful grottos is one with an old decayed brick roof of curious workmanſhip. Over one of the many ſprings in this garden is the ſtatue of a monſter, which may be taken for a wild man, had it not a cock's comb, and the feet of an eagle. Under it is the following inſcription:

"The original of this monſtrous figure, called a "foreſt devil, was caught in hunting near Havenſburg, "Matthew Lang being then cardinal and archbiſhop. "His ſkin was yelloviſh, he had all the marks of a ſa- "vage diſpoſition, yet never looked at any one, but "hid himſelf in corners. He had the face of a man "with a beard, eagle's feet with lion's claws, the tail "of a dog, and on his head grew a large comb like that "of a cock. He ſoon died with hunger, as neither "allurements nor violence could bring him to eat or "drink."

CHAP. XV.

Of the Circle of FRANCONIA.

SECT. I.

Of Franconia in general, and firſt of the Biſhopric of Bamberg; its Situation, Extent, Produce, and principal Rivers. The State, Privileges, and Arms of the Biſhop; the Offices of the Government: with a particular Deſcription of the City of Bamberg, and the Palace of Pomersfeldt.

FRANCONIA, called by the Germans Frankenland, is bounded on the north by Thuringia, Saxony, and Heſſe; on the eaſt by the palatinate of Bavaria, and part of Bohemia; on the ſouth by Swabia; and on the weſt by the circle of the Rhine, part of Heſſe, and the Wetteraw; extending from eaſt to weſt about a hundred and thirty miles, and from north to ſouth a hundred and thirty-five; but is in both ways much indented.

The ſtates of this circle are divided into four benches: to the ſpiritual bench of princes belong the biſhoprics of Bamberg, Wurtzburg, and Eichſtadt, with the Teutonic order; to the ſecular bench of princes, Brandenburg-Bareith, Brandenburg-Anſpach, Henneberg-Schleuſingen, Henneberg-Romhild, Henneberg-Schmalkalden, Schwartzenberg, Lowenſtein-Wertheim, and Hohenlohe-Waldenburg; to the bench of counts and lords, Hohenlohe-Neuenſtein, Caſtell, Wertheim, Rieneck, Erbach, Limburg-Geildorf, Limburg-Speckfeld, Seinſheim, Reigelſberg, Wieſentheid, Welzheim, and Hauſen; and to the bench of imperial cities, Nurenberg, Rothenburg, Windſheim, Schweinfurt, and Weiſenburg.

The ſummoning princes for this circle are the biſhop of Bamberg, and the margraves of Brandenburg-Bareith and Anſpach, who take their turn in ſummoning every three years.

With reſpect to religion, this circle, which is one of the mixed, preſents one Roman catholic and one proteſtant aſſeſſor to the chamber-judicatory of the empire. The death of the former is notified by the chamber to the popiſh, and that of the latter to the proteſtant ſummoning-office of the circle.

The firſt country we ſhall deſcribe in this circle is the biſhopric of Bamberg, which terminates to the north on the principality of Coburg and the Voightland; to the eaſt on Brandenburg-Bareith and the territory of Nurenburg; to the ſouth on the territory of Nurenburg, Brandenburg, and the principality of Schwartzenberg; and to the weſt on the biſhopric of Wurtzburg. Its greateſt extent is about ſeventy-one miles in length, and its greateſt breadth above forty-eight miles.

The ſoil of this biſhopric produces all ſorts of grain, vegetables, and fruit, in abundance; particularly grapes, of which good wine is made. It likewiſe yields ſaffron, and an excellent ſort of liquorice, of which great quantities are exported; and near the city of Bamberg are ſuch numbers of laurel, fig, orange, and lemon-trees, that this ſpot has been ſtiled the Little Italy of Germany. It has alſo good woods, and a great number of cattle.

The Maine, which iſſues out of this country, traverſes the north part of it, and receives the Rotach, the Itz, or Its, and the Rednitz; the latter of which alſo riſes here, after which the Maine receives ſeveral ſmaller ſtreams.

Bamberg contains eighteen boroughs and fifteen market-towns, and the inhabitants are zealous papiſts.

The biſhop of Bamberg ſtands immediately under the papal ſee, and may act within his own dioceſe as an archbiſhop. King Henry, the founder of this biſhopric, appointed the king of Bohemia upper cup-bearer, the elector palatine upper ſewer, the elector of Saxony upper martial, and the elector of Brandenburg upper chamberlain of the biſhopric. Theſe electors inveſt four antient families of the nobility of Franconia with theſe offices, which they perform as their deputies.

The arms of this biſhopric are a lion ſable, in a field or, over which is a band argent traverſing the whole.

The biſhop has his ſeat and voice at the diet of the empire, and has the fourth place on the ſpiritual bench.

The epiſcopal vicar reſides among the clergy and determines their diſputes, and all appeals lie to him from the conſiſtory, which decides in matrimonial caſes; but from the vicariate appeals lie to Rome. The regency conſiſts of a preſident, a chancellor, and about twenty aulic counſellors. Under the regency are the inferior courts of St. Stephen, St. Gangolph, and St. James; with the provincial-court at Bamberg, the pupil-court, and police-court, the penal or criminal-court, and the office of under-bailiff.

The aulic chamber and upper receipt-office have the care of the biſhop's revenues. Each of theſe offices has a preſident, and the latter alſo repreſents the aulic military council, who have the management of military affairs.

The principal place in this biſhopric is Bamberg, antiently called Babenberg, which is ſeated upon hills near the river Rednitz in a fertile and delightful country, in the 50th degree 15 minutes north latitude, and the 10th degree 15 minutes eaſt longitude. The town itſelf, which is in moſt parts ſurrounded with a wall and ditch, is not large, but has extenſive ſuburbs, and is, in general, well built and populous. In the upper part, which ſtands upon a hill, is the princely reſidence of Peterſburg; and alſo the great cathedral church of St. George, a vaſt Gothic edifice, with a lofty ſteeple and four noble ſpires. In this church is the monument of Henry II. the founder of the biſhopric, and his conſort Cunigunda. The marble

German Miles 15 to a Degree.
1 2 3 4 5 6
British Miles 69 to a Degree.
50 100 200 400 600

An ACCURATE MAP of the CIRCLE of FRANCONIA, Drawn from the best Authorities.

UPPER RHINE
LOWER RHINE
UPPER SAXONY
BAVARIA
BOHEMIA
SWABIA

Fulda
Schmalkald
Hesse
Saxe-Weimar
Co. of Mansfield
Hildburghausen
HENNEBERG
DUTCHY of COBURG
Coburg
Gotha
Erfurt
Schwartzburg
Gravental
Geffel
Harra
Leichtenberg
Wickdorf
Hochberg
Kupferberg
Culmbach
MARQ. of Anhamberg
Swartzenburg
Monchberg
Leuten
Asch
Hoberg
Egra R.
Egra
Wonsidel
Waldenberg
CULMBACH
Wild Cronach
Ramsersdal
Alladorf
Beiruth
Stainach
Bareck
Gefres
Meyn R.
Beckerstat
Cullembach
Elbrus
Shire
Seidelwitz
Stenach
Cronach
Lahm
Lichtenfels
Zolf
Staffelstein
Weisman
Turna
Holfelde
Waischenfeld
Bamberg
BISHOP of BAMBERG
Hallstat
Eltman
Ebenberg
Altenburg
Gaisbach
Stublang
Straitberg
Pottenstein
Kleba
Wolfsbach
Kaustat
Kembach
Hohenpry
Leubs
Kirchenbach
Barnfelt
Pegnitz
Pegnitstein
Aurbach
Honstain
Velte
Hongsberg
Grafenberg
Seebach
Herspruk
TERRIT: of
Herolfsberg
Lauf
Sitenbach
Sconberg
Packetsfeld
Amberg
Rykersdorf
NURENBERG
Altorf
Feucht
Kreit
Kornburg
Poschbaur
Teming
Neumark
Hirpoltstam
Heydek
Berching
Laber
Distfurt
Riesenburg
RATISBON
Danube R.
Weissenburg
AICHSTAT
Dollnstein
Kipfenberg
Aichstat
Rebdorf
Beinfelt
Nassafels
Pappenheim
Oeting
Wernitz R.
Dinglespil
Limpurg
Hall
Gaisdorf
Blaufelden
Crailsheim
Gleit
Oringen
Co. of HOHENLOHE
Langenburg
Schillingsfurt
Inspelfingen
Jaxt R.
Jaxtberg
Krauthaim
Rotenberg
Rothenburg
Ansbach
MARQ. of ANSPACH
Weispach
Schwobach
Camerstein
Schnebach
Dachsfelt
Brithein
Ahnel R.
Herrieden
Lichtenau
Than
Ornbau
Pleinfelt
Gunzenhausen
Ramsb
Spalt
Roth R.
Roth
Hilpoltstam
Bishop of EICHSTAT
Swanington
Pleinfelt
Dachsbach
Auracb
Bergtheim
Hanburg
Schwartzenberg
Langenfels
Neustat
Possenheim
Kunstetten
Ippesheim
Aub
Rotting
Marcantheim
Ochsenfurt
Segnitz
Kitzingen
Schwartzach
Iphofen
Hochstat
Wurtzburg
Wurtz
Pidelbridt
Grunfelt
Hadingfelt
Steinbach
Heimstat
Schrimbar
Stainstat
Deutbach
Werthein
COUN: of WERTHEIM
Amorbach
Breitenbach
Mergentheim
Konigshofen
Grunfelt
Carolsheim
Co: of ERPACH to FRANCONIA
Erpach
Brewberg
Mudingfelt
Vitingen
Tettelbach
Detsbach
Remlingen
Mudelrist
Precelden
Sommeran
Aschaffenburg
Rossbach
Rechtenbach
Rettenpach
Cartbury
Mardstal
Carlstat
Co. of Bierstat
Castel
Volkach
Wipfelt
Arnstein
Werneck
Pimpach
Eltman
Ebenberg
Gerlachsen
Grastat
Gemund
Rainfelt
Bishop of WURTZBURG
Schweinfurt
Hassfurt
Ebern
Altenstein
Thundorf
Konigsberg
Hamelburg
Kissing
Seslach
Lauringen
Thul
Walbach
Bischofsheim
Neustat
Munerstat
Aschach
Konigshove
Rotbach
Eisfeld
Romhilden
Maltz
Osthaim
Reipeberg
Wustersaxen
Madingen
Meiningen
Wasungen
Frauenaw
Schwartzbach
Sonneberg
Nassnitz
Vistel
Gronach
Num
R. Rod
Hochberg
Kupferberg
Wickdorf
Leichtenberg
Harra
Hasslach
Graventhal
Schwartzburg
Hanau
Gelhausen
Salmunster
Schwartzfels
Orb
Burghausen
Maidsfin
Rheinecke
RHINECK COUNTY
Tessendorf
Schorrei
Lehaus
Rossbach
Rechtenbach
Aschaffenburg
Bomfels
Kunsbach
Mayn R.
Lohr
Hasfurt
Eid
Gastbach
Hallstat
Ebenberg
Altenburg
Pimpach
B. Ebrach
A. Ebrach
Volkach
B. Wirsun
Stussh
Stusfeld
Klusdorf
Adelsdorf
Mulhausen
Alpach
Hauster
Kirchenbach
Karsbach
Barnfelt
Pegnitz
Pegnitstein
Aurbach
Honstain
Velte
Hongsberg
Grafenberg
Seebach
Herspruk
Hochstat
Iphofen

ble image of the empreſs lies on the right ſide of her huſband, and the tomb is adorned with baſſo relievos repreſenting the moſt remarkable paſſages of Henry II's life, among which the circumſtance alledged in the bull for Cunigunda's canonization is not omitted, namely, that the emperor, on his death-bed, ſolemnly declared before ſeveral princes and other witneſſes, that he left Cunigunda a virgin, as he received her. In the treaſury belonging to this cathedral are a great number of jewels and relics; but what is moſt curious are the four Goſpels written on parchment in beautiful letters of gold, finely bound, and ſet with precious ſtones. There is here the bull of pope Boniface VIII. in which the credulous vulgar are aſſured, that the holy nail kept here is unqueſtionably one of thoſe that faſtened our Saviour to the croſs. Among the other public buildings are the cathedral of St. Stephen and St. James, with a Benedictine convent on the Monchſberg, which is a magnificent edifice, and the church belonging to it has an admirable frontiſpiece, a ſuperb arched roof, and three fine organs: it is alſo embelliſhed with ſculpture and paintings; among the latter, the altar-piece, which is adorned with the repreſentation of the aſſumption of the Virgin Mary, is moſt remarkable. Here is alſo the nunnery of St. Theodore. In the middle part of the town, which has a communication with the upper part, by means of a lofty ſtone-bridge, are many fine houſes; as alſo the antient palace of Geyerſwerth, which has a noble orangery; a fine church of the Jeſuits, who have the inſpection of the univerſity; the pariſh-church of St. Martin, that of St. Mary, three monaſteries, two nunneries, and an hoſpital. A long and broad bridge leads from the middle part of the town to the ſuburbs of Treuerſtadt, in which is the Dominican nunnery of the holy ſepulchre.

About three hours journey from Bamberg is the caſtle or palace of Pomersfeldt, which belongs to the biſhop, and ſtands in a delightful country. This is a magnificent ſtructure; but, inſtead of a grand entrance, or portico, it has three ſmall doors, and two more in the wings. Oppoſite the front of the palace are the menagery and ſtables, which are built in an oval form, with a colonade. On one ſide of the middle door ſtands the ſtatue of Julius Cæſar, and on the other that of Alexander the Great, with the Gordian knot at his feet. At the entrance of the biſhop's apartments, which are in the front, are on one ſide the ſtatues of Faith and Charity, and on the other Juſtice and Fortitude. The grand double ſtair-caſe has few equals; it is indeed but one ſtory high; but the roof is as high as the palace itſelf, and the cieling is finely painted by Bies, one of the gentlemen of the bed-chamber, and Marchini, an Italian. The ſtairs, with the ſculpture on each ſide, are of free-ſtone.

From the court at the foot of the ſtair-caſe you deſcend down ſome ſteps into a beautiful grotto, covered with ſtucco-work, ſo finely poliſhed that it reſembles marble. In this grotto are eight ſtatues, repreſenting the ſeaſons and the four elements; and between theſe are ſeveral elegant figures of ſhell-work, repreſenting ſea-animals. The luſtres are of glaſs of various colours; and on each ſide of the grotto is a ſmall colonade, where in ſummer orange-trees, &c. are ſet, which, by their verdure and fragrance, add to the agreeableneſs of this cool retreat.

In the ſtory where the grand ſtair-caſe ends, and exactly over the grotto, is a hall well worth ſeeing. It is adorned with capital pictures and family portraits, the cieling is curiouſly painted and adorned with gilt cornices, and it yields a charming view of the gardens, and a delightful proſpect of the adjacent country.

Moſt of the other apartments are ſmall; but the tapeſtry hangings and other furniture are very ſplendid. One room exhibits ten battles in which prince Eugene ſignalized himſelf by his conduct and courage; and in the biſhop's drawing-rooom is a copy of Corregio's night-piece, in which is repreſented the birth of Chriſt. Over the fire-place in the bed-chamber is a very fine picture of an old man praying to a crucifix, and in the ſame room is the birth of Chriſt in Moſaic work. Adjoining to this room is a looking-glaſs cloſet, in which is a great quantity of valuable China-ware, and ſome of the fineſt Dreſden porcelain. On the tables are placed cryſtal vaſes, cups made of precious ſtones, and other curioſities; among which is an exquiſite piece of workmanſhip in amber, repreſenting our Saviour in his agony in the garden, ſupported by an angel. The dining-parlour is hung with gilt leather, on which is repreſented David's triumphant entry, after he had killed Goliah. In this piece, which is very old, the figures are as big as the life, and well executed. The chapel is not anſwerable to the magnificence that appears in every other part of this palace. Before the altar are depoſited the bowels of the late elector of Mentz, whoſe heart lies buried at Bamberg, and his body at the city of Mentz. On the top of the palace ſtands an image of Atlas, with an armillary ſphere on his ſhoulders.

The garden is on a ſlope or gentle declivity, and on each ſide is a ſmall wood of linden-trees planted in viſtas.

SECT. II.

Of the Biſhopric of WURTZBURG.

Its Situation, Extent, and Produce; the Religion of the Inhabitants; the Titles, Arms, and Officers under the Biſhop; with a particular Deſcription of the City of Wurtzburg.

THE biſhopric of Wurtzburg is bounded on the eaſt by the biſhopric of Bamberg, the principalities of Schwartzenberg, Brandenberg, Onalzbach, and the ſigniory of Rothenburg; on the ſouth by the county of Hohenlohe; on the weſt by the archbiſhopric of Mentz, and the abbey of Fuld; and on the north by the county of Henneberg, and the principality of Coburg; extending about ſixty-five miles in length, and fifty in breadth.

The ſoil is very fruitful, and produces more corn and wine than the inhabitants conſume. The principal river in this country is the Maine.

The eſtabliſhed religion is that of popery, but there are alſo Lutheran and Calviniſt churches within the territory of Wurtzburg; but theſe frequently make the moſt grievous complaints of oppreſſion and injuſtice to the diets of the empire, from which they ſeek redreſs.

The title of the biſhop is, Of the holy Roman empire, prince, biſhop of Wurtzburg, and duke of Eaſt Frankenland.

His arms on account of the biſhopric are, an enſign gules and argent, obliquely waving, quartered, and ſupported on a lance or, in a field verte; and on account of the dutchy of Frankenland, a croſs ſtriped quarterly gules and argent, with three points terminating gules. Behind the ſhield armorial project a croſier and a ſword.

The biſhops of Wurtzburg cauſe a naked ſword to be carried before them, and in 1752 pope Benedict XIV. granted them the privilege of bearing the archiepiſcopal pall and croſs; but in other reſpects they are ſuffragans to the archbiſhop of Mentz. At the diet of the empire this biſhop is poſſeſſed of the fifth place on the ſpiritual bench in the council of the princes; but in that of Franconia he has the firſt voice.

The epiſcopal high colleges are the following: The ſpiritual regency, which has the management of ſuch affairs as relate to the epiſcopal juriſdiction; the vicariate, which determines all diſputes relating to religion; and the conſiſtory, which has the management of matrimonial affairs. From theſe two laſt an appeal lies to the metropolitan.

The temporal colleges are the privy council: the regency and Aulic council, which judge in all criminal and civil affairs: the Aulic tribunal, to which an appeal lies from the provincial: the provincial tribunal, which judges matters of inheritance, guardianſhip, and the like: the upper council, to which belong matters of police, and the town council.

The epiſcopal revenues are eſtimated at four or five hundred thouſand guldens. This prince and biſhop maintains five regiments of foot and horſe, and all military affairs are ſubject to the Aulic council of war.

In this principality are thirty-three boroughs, and about ten market towns, the principal of which is the following.

Wurtzburg, in Latin Wireeburgum, was antiently called Herbipolis, and is ſeated on the river Maine, in the

the forty-ninth degree thirty-nine minutes north latitude, and in the ninth degree forty-eight minutes eaſt longitude. It is the capital of the biſhopric, and is well fortified and defended by a caſtle that ſtands on a high and rocky mountain, and in which is an epiſcopal palace, and a well provided magazine. The above citadel is called Marienberg. The firſt gate is defended by two baſtions paved with hewn ſtone, and a deep broad moat. Over it are the arms of Philip of Schonborn, elector of Mentz and biſhop of Wurtzburg, who built it in 1652. It is adorned with eight ſtatues of ſtone, three without, in Roman armour, and five within, one in the middle repreſenting Hercules leaning on his club. The fortifications are all lined with hewn ſtone; but are irregular on account of the ſituation. The apartments in this caſtle are very commodious, and well furniſhed, and the tapeſtry, in particular, is very magnificent. The chapel is built in a fine taſte, and has a handſome dome, with four beautiful altars covered with ſtucco; two in imitation of porphyry, and two that reſemble jaſper. In the cellar belonging to this caſtle is an avenue, bordered on each ſide with fifty lofty tons, holding each about fifty hogſheads of wine, French meaſure. This avenue is ſo extenſive, that you can hardly ſee the end of it, though it is well lighted; for each ton has a great iron candleſtic that holds a flambeau of yellow wax. Theſe enormous tons are neatly adorned with grapes, glaſſes, and goblets in baſſo relievo.

The town is divided into four quarters and four ſuburbs, which lie on both ſides the Maine, over which is a ſtone bridge of eight arches, at the entrance upon which is a triumphal arch of hewn ſtone, adorned with two ſtatues of Pallas in niches on the outſide, and two of Mars in niches within. The city has a very gay aſpect: its public ſquares and ſtreets are very neat and agreeable; the houſes very commodious, the ſituation and air pleaſant and wholeſome, and enjoying every thing in plenty that human life requires.

Among the other public buildings the moſt remarkable are the new palace, the churches and convents; the former, in which the biſhop reſides, is a very noble building, the firſt ſtone of which was laid by biſhop John Philip Francis, count of Schonborn, in 1720.

The cathedral, dedicated to St. Kilian, is an antient Gothic ſtructure, with no other ornament on the outſide but four lofty ſpires, two to each front. The roof is ſupported by twenty pillars, which form two porticos, the cielings of which are ornamented with ſtucco divided into compartments. At each pillar is a ſculptured altar adorned with pictures, gilt columns, and ſtatues; each altar dedicated to ſome ſaint. The pulpit is of white marble, embelliſhed with the hiſtory of our Lord's ſufferings in baſſo relievo gilt, and the pedeſtal which ſupports it, is adorned with eight ſtatues of the four evangeliſts, and the four doctors of the church, incloſed within an iron baluſtrade very neatly wrought. At the two corners of the choir are two magnificent altars, with pillars of black marble, and much gilding: one is dedicated to St. Joſeph, ſpouſe to the virgin Mary, and to St. John Nepomuc; the other to St. Philip and St. Cunibert. The ſtatues of theſe ſaints, with thoſe of two angels, are all richly gilt. The pictures on one of theſe altars repreſents an Ecce Homo, and the other old Simeon holding the infant Jeſus in his arms. The principal altar in the middle is a magnificent dome, richly adorned with ſculpture and gilding, and ſupported by four large columns of black marble with white veins, the baſes, capitals, cornice and feſtoons richly gilt. Between theſe columns are five grand buſts gilt; one of the virgin Mary, another of St. Andrew, and the three others St. Kilian, St. Colonat, and St. Totnam, who are here called the apoſtles of Franconia. Among the treaſures in the ſacriſty are ſhewn, a large croſs of gold, enriched with a multitude of diamonds; another croſs of maſſy gold adorned with large ſaphires, rubies, and emeralds; a large chalice of ſolid gold, ſet with diamonds; five buſts of ſolid ſilver, repreſenting the virgin Mary, St. Andrew, and the three apoſtles of Franconia; and it is pretended that the heads of the three laſt are incloſed within their buſts.

To this cathedral belongs a chapter, conſiſting of fifty-four canons, twenty-four of whom are called capitulars, and the other thirty domiciliars; but the income is equal, each having three thouſand crowns a year; but no perſon is admitted who cannot give proof to his nobility for four generations, both on his father's and mother's ſide.

The collegiate church dedicated to St. John the Baptiſt is pretty, but ſmall. It is built of hewn-ſtone, and has a handſome front, with a high and well enlightened dome, under which are the ſtatues of our Saviour, the Virgin Mary, and the four Evangeliſts. Every part of this church is covered with carved work and gilding, as the pulpit, the organs, thirteen altars, including the principal one, of which the large fluted columns and paliſadoes are gilt from top to bottom, as well as the ſtatues of the twelve apoſtles as big as the life, which are placed between theſe columns. The painting of the altar-piece repreſents the aſſumption of the Virgin; and, in ſhort, the benches of the canons are alſo gilt, it having as many canons as St. Kilian's.

Here are alſo the pariſh-church, and foundation of St. Burchard, inſtituted for noblemen; the pariſh-church of St. Peter and St. Gertrude; the foundation of St. Anne; an abbey of Benedictine monks of the order of St. Stephen, and another of the order of St. James; a college of Jeſuits; a houſe and church of the Teutonic order; with a houſe and church of the order of St. John; a ſeminary dedicated to St. Kilian; and ſeveral other religious ſtructures. The great hoſpital of St. Julian, which is a vaſt edifice of hewn-ſtone, is ſaid to be built with greater magnificence than even the palace itſelf, and the gardens adorned with fountains and ſtatues; with the Aulic, the Theodorian, and the Burgher hoſpitals.

SECT. III.

Of the Principality of CULMBACH, *or* BRANDENBURG-BAREITH.

Its Situation, Produce, and Rivers: the Religion and Manufactures of the Inhabitants; the Titles and Arms of the Margrave, with the Orders of Knighthood; the Offices of the Government, and the Revenues and Forces of that Prince.

THE principality of Culmbach projects eaſtward from the circle of Franconia, to which it is in a manner only joined on the weſt. It is bounded on the north by Upper Saxony, on the eaſt by Bohemia, and on the ſouth by Bavaria, and a very ſmall part of the territory of Nurenburg; and on the weſt, by Bamberg.

Part of this country is very mountainous, and the reſt, which is ſandy, with good cultivation produces various ſorts of herbs and fruits; and in general this country affords every thing neceſſary for the ſupport of man, wine alone excepted.

With reſpect to its minerals, the principal of theſe are copper, lead, and iron; for its antient gold and ſilver mines are gone to decay. It has plenty of marble of all colours, together with cryſtals.

The principal of its mountains is the Fichtelberg, which extends nineteen miles from eaſt to weſt, and about the ſame diſtance from north to ſouth. It receives its name from the great number of pines with which it is covered, fichte ſignifying a pine, and berg a mountain; but it alſo produces fir and beech, and in ſome places oak, elm, and lime trees. From theſe woods the peaſants that live about the mountain derive moſt of their ſubſiſtence by making charcoal, and in winter bringing the timber down in ſledges to ſell. It is one of the higheſt mountains in all Germany, and contains many lofty rocks and deſarts, and a number of bogs and moraſſes.

The rivers of this country are the White and Red Maine, both of which riſe here, and having united their ſtreams, obtain the ſingle name of Maine, which, under that denomination, enters the biſhopric of Bamberg.

The other rivers are the Nabe, the Eger, the Roſlaw, the Thuringian Saale or Sala, and the Pegnitz, which all riſe in this country.

This

This principality contains ſix head towns, as they are called, with ten others, and twenty-ſix market towns.

The Lutheran church, which is the eſtabliſhed religion of this country, is under the inſpection of a general ſuperintendent, who reſides at Bareith; beſides whom there are nine other ſuperintendents, beſides the inſpector of Rednitz. There are alſo Calviniſts and Roman catholics, who are in ſome places permitted the exerciſe of divine worſhip.

With reſpect to the manufactures of this country, the principal of theſe are woollen cloth, ſtockings, and hats; a brown and white porcelain, into which ſilver and gold are very ingeniouſly and durably annealed; and the marble of this country is poliſhed and worked into a variety of forms. Of theſe articles large quantities are exported.

The princes of this country and that of Anſpach are of the family of Brandenburg, and hence the name of Brandenburg has been prefixed to Bareith and Anſpach. The electors of Brandenburg, ſeveral centuries ago, gave theſe countries to two of their younger ſons; but in length of time the want of iſſue made them more than once revert to the electoral line. This was the caſe for the laſt time in the year 1603, when Chriſtian, the ſecond ſon of the elector John George, obtained the principality of Bareith, and Joachim Erneſt, his third ſon, that of Anſpach; the lines founded by both of whom are ſtill in being. Erdman Auguſtus, ſon to the margrave Chriſtian, propagated the Bareith reigning line, which at preſent ſubſiſts in the margrave Frederic Chriſtian. On the other hand, Frederic and Albrecht, the ſons of the above margrave Joachim Erneſt, obtained ſucceſſively the regency of Anſpach; and in like manner three grandſons of the latter, of whom only the youngeſt had ſucceſſion.

The margraves of both lines bear the following titles: Margraves of Brandenburg in Pruſſia, of Sileſia, Magdeburg, Cleves, Juliers, the Berg, Stettin, and Pomerania; of the Caſſuben and Wenden, of Mecklenburg and Croſſen, dukes; burgraves of Nurenburg; princes of Halberſtadt, Minden, Camin, Wenden, Schwerin, Ratzeburg, and Mors; counts of Hohenzollern, the Mark, Ravenſberg, and Schwerin; and lords of Ravenſtein and the countries of Roſtock, Stargard, &c.

Their arms on account of the margravate of Brandenburg, are an eagle gules, together with trefoil-ſtalks of the ſame in the wings, all placed in a field argent. For Magdeburg, a ſhield quartered gules and argent. For Cleves, eight lilies or, ranged in form of a St. Andrew's croſs, and bordered in the middle by a ſhield argent in a field gules. For Juliers they bear a lion ſable in a field or. For the Berg, a lion crowned gules and azure, in a field argent. For Stettin, a griffin gules, crowned or, and weaponed, in a field azure. For Pomerania, a griffin gules, weaponed or, in a field argent. For Caſſuben, a griffin ſable turned to the ſiniſter ſide, weaponed or, in a field of the ſame. For Wenden, a griffin tranſverſely ſtriped, gules and verte, in a field argent. For Mecklenburg, a buffalo's head ſable, having horns argent, and crowned gules, with a ring argent running through his noſe. For Croſſen, an eagle ſable, with wings, tail, and weapons expanded in a field or, on whoſe breaſt is a creſcent argent, and over it a ſmall croſs of the ſame. For Jagerndorf, an eagle ſable, with a ſilver hunting-horn on his breaſt, in a field argent. For the burgravate of Nurenberg, a lion ſable, prepared for combat, with a red tongue exerted, weaponed and crowned in a field or, placed on another ſhield, which is interſected five times to the dexter point, gules and argent. For Halberſtadt, a ſhield divided, argent and gules. For Minden, two keys argent, placed in form of a St. Andrew's croſs, in a field gules. For Camin, an anchor-croſs argent, in a field gules. For Wenden in Mecklenburg, a griffin or, in a field azure. For Schwerin, a divided ſhield, in the upper part of which is a griffin or, in a field azure; but the under part green, with a ſilver border. For Ratzeburg, a croſs waving and argent, in a field gules. For Mors, a feſs ſable, in a field or. For Hohenzollern, a ſhield quartered ſable and argent. For the Mark, a feſs chequered, gules and argent, in a field or. For Ravenſberg, three chevrons gules, in a field argent. For Schwerin, an arm iſſuing out of a cloud bearing a ring. For Roſtock, a buffalo's head placed obliquely to the dexter ſide and crowned gules, with an exerted red tongue, and ſilver horns, in a field or: and for Stargard, a ſhield divided gules and or.

The margrave of Bareith has an order of knighthood termed the order of Sincerity, but commonly called the order of the Red Eagle; the ſymbol of which is a ſquare white enamelled croſs of gold worn pendant at a ſcarlet watered ribbon, reaching from the neck to the breaſt. In the ſtar which the knights of this order bear on their breaſt is ſeen the Brandenburg red eagle, and round it the words SINCERE ET CONSTANTER. The maſter of this order is always the reigning margrave.

The reigning prince has on account of the principality of Bareith a ſeat and voice in the council of the princes of the empire, and is alſo co-ſummoning prince of the circle of Franconia.

The princely colleges here are the privy-council, in which the margrave himſelf preſides, and under which are the privy-expedition and the privy-chancery; the regency-college, and regency-chancery; the aulic tribunal; the tribunal for noble fiefs; the chamber-college; the feudal-court; the conſiſtory, and the matrimonial-tribunal.

The prince's revenues, according to Keyſler, in the year 1730, ſcarce amounted to five hundred and fifty thouſand guldens; but he obſerves, that they might be improved to a much greater ſum.

This margravate always keeps up a guard of horſe, a ſmall body of huſſars, and two regiments of foot; beſides which a militia is maintained.

The principal places in this country are the following:

Bareith, the reſidence of the margrave, and the capital of the principality, is the ſeat of the above offices, and of the mint. It is ſurrounded with three ſtreams, the Red Maine, the Miſtelbach, and the Sendelbach; and is ſeated in the fiftieth degree of latitude. The prince's palace was burnt down in the year 1753; but has been rebuilt in a grand and beautiful taſte. The places of worſhip in this town are a Lutheran church, that of the Spital, a Calviniſt church, and a popiſh chapel. Here is a ſeminary founded by the margrave Chriſtian Erneſt in the year 1664, and alſo another ſeminary and an orphan-houſe.

St. George on the Lake, a town ſituated by the ſide of a lake, at the diſtance of two miles from Bareith. It was founded in the beginning of the preſent century by the margrave George William, and endowed with ſeveral important privileges. St. Sophia's church, which was dedicated in 1715, is called The chapel of the order and knights, that margrave allotting it for the meeting-place of the order of Sincerity, which he had inſtituted. The palace of the margrave is a noble edifice, and has a very fine pleaſure-garden belonging to it. In this town is alſo an orphan-houſe, and a manufacture of white and brown porcelain; in the latter of which gold and ſilver are very durably annealed. Mr. Keyſler obſerves, that a ſet, conſiſting of half a dozen cups and ſaucers, a ſmall tea-pot, a ſlop-baſon, a ſugar-diſh, and tea-caniſter, is ſold for twenty dollars. The art of poliſhing marble, which this country abounds with of all colours, is carried on here by an engine moved by horſes, or criminals taken out of the houſe of correction; and ſo well contrived, as to poliſh nineteen or twenty marble veſſels of different ſhapes at the ſame time. They alſo here make very beautiful ſnuff-boxes of yellow and white plaſter.

Culmbach, the ſecond of the ſix head towns, as they are called, and formerly the reſidence of the margraves, is ſeated in a fertile and beautiful valley on the banks of the White Maine; and is alſo the ſeat of the prefecturate captainſhip of Culmbach, of a ſuperintendent, revenue and cloiſter-office. This town has frequently ſuffered greatly by fire.

Erlang is ſeated near the Rednitz, which at this place receives into it the Schwabach, and conſiſts of two towns, the Old and the New; the latter of which is alſo called Chriſtian Erlang. Old Erlang is very antient, and about four hundred paces in length, but not near ſo wide; it has a peculiar magiſtracy of its own, and a Lutheran church. New or Chriſtian Erlang began to be erected

in the year 1686, by the margrave Chriſtian Erneſt, from whom it received its name: it lies cloſe to Old Erlang, and is diſtinguiſhed from it only by the ſtraitneſs of its ſtreets. This is one of the fineſt towns in all Germany. The houſes in the principal ſtreets are all of them two ſtories high, except thoſe at the corners, which are three ſtories. It has a ſquare eight hundred paces each way, and a market-place a hundred and ten paces in length and breadth, the eaſt ſide of which is taken up with the palace of the margrave, which is built of free-ſtone, and is three ſtories high. Behind it is a large and beautiful garden, planted with rows of cheſnut and lime-trees, ever-green hedges, fountains, and ſtatues. Here is a Lutheran church, which is a very handſome building, together with one for the French Calviniſts, and another for the German Calviniſts. Here is an univerſity, which has a church of its own. The French refugees have ſet up ſome conſiderable manufactories in this town, among which thoſe of ſtockings and hats are the moſt profitable.

Round the town are vaſt numbers of firs, and inſtead of vineyards and corn-fields are plantations of hops and tobacco.

SECT. IV.

Of BRANDENBURG-ANSPACH.

Its Situation, Produce, and Rivers: the Trade and Religion of the Inhabitants: the Offices of the Government: the Revenues and Forces of the Prince; with the principal Towns.

THE principality of Anſpach, Anſbach, or Onolzbach, is bounded on the north by the country of Schwartzenburg and the biſhopric of Bamberg; on the eaſt by the territories of Nurenburg, and a part of Bavaria; on the ſouth by the biſhopric of Aichſtadt, and a part of the circle of Swabia; and on the weſt by the counties of Hohenlohe and Limburg, the territory of the imperial city of Swabian Hall, the domain of the Teutonic order, and the biſhopric of Wurtzburg.

This country has ſome ſandy and mountainous tracts; but is in general more fertile than Bareith, it abounding in corn, fruit, and tobacco; and all along the Maine are vineyards that produce good wine. The richneſs of the paſtures render the breed of cattle excellent. There are likewiſe plenty of game and fiſh. In the earth are quarries of marble and iron mines.

The principal river in this country is at firſt called the Retzat, and riſes partly in this country, where it is termed the Under, or Franconian Retzat, and partly in Swabia, where it is termed the Upper or Swabian. Both theſe rivers here unite their ſtreams, and then obtain the name of Rednitz, which afterwards receives the Pegnitz; after which ſome give it the name of Regnitz, while others ſtill call it the Rednitz. The Altmuhl riſes in Brandenburg-Bareith, and paſſes into this country. The other rivers are the Jagſt, or Jaxt, the Wornitz, or Wernitz, the Sulz, and the Tauber.

The inhabitants ſubſiſt by the breeding of cattle, by tillage, and by the culture of their vineyards and plantations of tobacco. In the towns various branches of mechanic arts and manufactures are carried on, as the weaving of tapeſtry, cloth, ſtuffs, gold and ſilver lace, and ſtockings. The making of porcelain, looking-glaſſes, leather, wire, needles, &c.

The inhabitants are of the Lutheran religion, and their clergy are divided into nine decanates; but at the city of Schwabach is a colony of French Calviniſts, who have a church.

Of the family, title, and arms of the reigning margrave of Anſpach, we have given an account in treating of Bareith; and we have only to add, that he, as well as the margrave of Bareith, has, on account of this principality, a ſeat and voice in the council of the princes of the empire, and is alſo co-ſummoning prince of the circle of Franconia.

The princely colleges or offices of ſtate are the privy-council, the aulic and regency-college, as alſo that of the council of juſtice, the court of appeals, the chamber and provincial council-college, the war council-college, the fief-court, and the conſiſtory and matrimonial courts.

The yearly revenues of the prince are eſtimated at near a million of guldens, and his military force conſiſts of a life-guard of horſe, and one regiment of foot of ſeven companies.

This principality contains ſixteen boroughs and ſeventeen market towns, the principal places in which are,

Anſpach, or Onolzbach, in Latin Onoldum and Onoldinum, the princely reſidence and capital city, is ſituated on the Under Retzat, and is the ſeat of the abovementioned colleges, of the Aulic revenue office, and of a mint. The palace of the prince was chiefly built by the margrave George Frederic in 1587, and 1588; but ſuffering conſiderably by fire in 1710, was partly rebuilt in a much more beautiful manner than before, and alſo enlarged by the addition of ſome new and grand edifices. The public library was founded by the margrave Charles William Frederic in 1738. The princely chancery and regency-chamber are fixed in the old buildings belonging to the foundation of St. Gumbrecht, which have been repaired. This foundation was erected by one Gumbrecht in the eighth century, as a Benedictine monaſtery; but in the middle of the eleventh century was converted into a foundation of canons, and in 1563 ſecularized. In St. John's church is to be ſeen the new burying vault of the princes; this, with the new building of the Gymnaſium Illuſtre Carolinum opened in 1737, the Jews ſchool, and other public buildings, are to be ſeen in what is properly called the city. Without it are the porcelain manufacture, with the prince's garden and pleaſure-houſe. Behind Jager-ſtreet, which is well laid out, lies a large and beautiful garden belonging to the court, in which is a fine green-houſe and orangery. In one of the ſuburbs is the church-yard of the Holy Croſs, and in another the ſpital, the orphan-houſe, and the widows-houſe.

Schwabach is ſituated on a fruitful ſpot by a river of that name, and, though not large, is very populous. It has a Lutheran pariſh church, an hoſpital with a church in it, and a Latin ſchool. The French Calviniſts have alſo a church here, and the Jews a ſchool. In the market-place is a fine fountain adorned with caſcades and jets of water. The mint is commodiouſly laid out. The new ſuburb before the Zollner-gate is built with great regularity. There was formerly a letter foundery here, in which were caſt the Schwabach letters, which in the German tongue anſwers to our Italic; theſe were invented and took their name from this place. Here are artificers in gold and ſilver lace, workers in Leon or Spaniſh ſteel, iron wire-drawers, braſs turners, model cutters, needle-makers, who make above thirty different ſorts of needles, which are much admired, and exported to a great diſtance, ſtocking-weavers, tapeſtry-weavers, and cloth manufactories.

The Hofmark Furth is a large commercial and populous town, ſituated on the river Rednitz. It is built irregularly, except the new ſtreets; but contains many grand and fine houſes. In this town reſide an uncommon number of mechanics and artiſts: thoſe who cannot be received into the fraternities at Nurenburg, ſettling here, where every one is ſure of being well received. The Jews, who are very numerous, conſtitute one third of the inhabitants, and have a great ſchool in the printing-houſe. The inhabitants are partly ſubjects of Brandenburgh Anſpach, partly of Nurenburg, and partly of the chapter of Bamberg.

SECT. V.

Of the Imperial City of Nurenberg, its Government and Territories.

NURENBERG, or Nuremberg, a large and beautiful city, ſituated on the river Pegnitz, in the forty-ninth degree forty-one minutes latitude, and in the eleventh degree twelve minutes eaſt longitude, is the capital of the republic of the ſame name, and beſides four other towns, namely, Altdorf, Herſbruc, Lauff, and Graffen-

Graffenberg in the Upper Palatinate contains under its juriſdiction five hundred villages. This city contains one hundred and twenty-eight large ſtreets, forty lanes, and is adorned with twelve large and one hundred and thirty-three ſmall fountains. It has alſo ſixteen churches, forty-four religious houſes, twelve bridges, ſix of which are of ſtone; ten market-places, three hundred and ſixty-five towers, and about twenty-one thouſand houſes, ſaid to be inhabited by ſeventy-five thouſand families; and the Pegnitz, which runs through the city, puts in motion about one hundred and ſixty mills of different ſorts within the territory of Nurenburg.

The houſes are generally very lofty, built of hewn ſtone, and adorned with pictures on the outſide. The ſtreets are broad, clean, and well paved, but not ſtraight. The caſtle is ſeated on a high rock; but all the reſt of the city lies upon a level, and in one of the halls of this caſtle are to be ſeen four Corinthian columns forty-five feet high, which it is pretended were brought from Rome by the devil, upon a challenge made him by a monk.

The ornaments uſed at the anointing of the emperors are preſerved in the church of the hoſpital, among which is the diadem of Charlemagne, termed the inſula, which is of pure gold, weighing fourteen pounds, and is covered with precious ſtones. It is not cloſed on the top, as the imperial crowns are generally repreſented. The ſceptre and globe are of gold, and the ſword is ſaid to have been brought from heaven. The robe of Charlemagne is of a violet colour, adorned with pearls, and the imperial cloak is edged with them, ſcattered over with eagles of gold, and a great number of precious ſtones. Here are alſo the cope, the ſtole, and the breeches adorned with jewels, the ſtockings and the buſkins covered with plates of gold.

Among ſeveral other relics, they keep in the church of the hoſpital the iron head of St Longinus's lance; and as they are ſenſible that it is ſhewn in above ten other places, they maintain that all thoſe are counterfeits, and that their's was found by St. Andrew, and brought from Antioch to this city: indeed, they have the bulls of five popes to vouch for its authenticity.

The arſenal here is one of the moſt famous in Germany. In the two great halls, each of which is two hundred and fifty paces long, are three hundred pieces of cannon, among which are many of a very large bore, the biggeſt of them carrying a ball of three hundred pounds weight; but moſt of theſe arms ſerve only for ſhew, they being of greater antiquity than uſe.

The public library is in a cloiſter that formerly belonged to the Dominicans, and is ſaid to contain twenty thouſand volumes. The moſt antient manuſcript is nine hundred years old; this is a copy of the Goſpels, with the prayers and hymns uſed in the Greek church.

The town-houſe is a very large edifice of hewn ſtone; the front is very fine, and has a noble portal in the middle, adorned with ſeveral ſtatues; and the architecture of the whole is regular, and in a good taſte. There are two other very grand gates at equal diſtances, that are no leſs ſplendidly ornamented; but this building is too much crowded, it has no court before it, and that behind is ſo narrow, that it ſcarcely deſerves to be called one. There is an aſcent up a very indifferent ſtair-caſe to a long gallery, upon the cieling of which is repreſented in relievo a famous tournament held in this city about three hundred years ago. In one of the chambers deputies from the circle of Franconia meet every day on the affairs of the province. Over the door of this chamber is a picture, which contains the portraits of the three brothers John George, Frederic, and John Chriſtian, princes of Saxony, who ſupported Luther in promoting the reformation. The tapeſtry of this chamber contains the hiſtory of Nebuchadnezzar, in ſix pieces. Among the ſeveral pictures in the many chambers of this building are, a large painting which repreſents the homage rendered by the magiſtracy of Nurenburg to the emperor Leopold; a very antient Madona, given by Frederic elector of Saxony; a St. Luke painting the virgin Mary; Adam and Eve by Albert Durer, which is highly eſteemed: here Eve preſents the apple with a very arch inſinuating ſmile; another picture by Albert Durer, in which are the ſaints Peter, Paul, John, and Mark; the murder of Abel by Preiſler, where Cain kills his brother with a large flint ſtone; the hiſtory piece of Eſther and Ahaſuerus, a fine picture much eſteemed; but Ahaſuerus has the face and dreſs of king Francis I. and the queen is dreſſed like the ladies at Nurenburg. In the council-chamber, which is very ſmall, is a picture of the laſt judgment, ſaid to be ſix hundred years old, in which Joſeph is painted in the habit of a Carmelite.

The city of Nurenburg is divided into eight parts, and one hundred and thirty-one captainſhips: I. The quarter at the wine-market, which is divided into thirteen captainſhips. Here is the pariſh church of St. Sebald; in which the principal things to be ſeen are the braſs monument of St. Sebald, with the creation of the world by the celebrated Albert Durer, who was a native of Nurenburg. The Latin ſchool near it is ſupplied with eight teachers.

II. The quarter at the milk-market, which contains fourteen captainſhips. In this quarter is the imperial fortreſs, ſeated on a mountain. What is moſt remarkable here is the emperor's chapel, with the old tower belonging to it, as alſo the chapels of St. Walburg and St. Margaret, together with the obſervatory. The church of St. Mary, which is alſo called the Predicant, or Dominican church, in which is kept the great library belonging to the town. In this part alſo ſtands the chapel of St. Maurice.

III. The quarter at the Gilben-hof, which conſiſts of fourteen captainſhips; there is here St. Giles's church, which is built in the modern taſte, and is the fineſt in the whole city. In an old cloiſter near it is a ſeminary, in which the upper claſſes are under the care of a certain number of profeſſors, and the lower under one rector and four preceptors.

IV. The quarter at the ſalt-market, which contains twenty-two captainſhips. Here is the council-houſe juſt deſcribed, with the church of our Lady. Near the Spital, in which four hundred people are conſtantly maintained, is the church of the Holy Ghoſt.

V. The quarter near the Bare-footed Fryars contains in it twenty-one captainſhips, in which is the pariſh-church of St. Laurence, near which is a Latin ſchool under the direction of eight teachers. In this quarter is the church of the Bare-footed Fryars, an hoſpital for foundlings, the church of St. Catharine, that of St. Martha, with a ſmall hoſpital, the church of St. Clare, and the building belonging to the academy of painting.

VI. The quarter at the corn-market conſiſts of ſeventeen captainſhips, containing the church of St. Salvator and the arſenal, which contains two hundred and ſeventy-four braſs cannon, and two of iron, with ſmall-arms ſufficient for eighteen thouſand men; the largeſt cannons are forty-eight pounders, except two pieces of ordnance that carry balls weighing eighty pounds. One of the cannons is charged at the breech, and may be fired eight times in a minute. Here are alſo fifty field-pieces that are called by the names of the twenty-four letters of the alphabet, the twelve months, the twelve ſigns of the zodiac, and of Mars and Pallas. The ſmall-arms are very beautifully diſpoſed in columns, ſhields, trophies, ſuns, and the arms of the city; being curiouſly arranged, like thoſe in the Tower of London. All theſe implements of war are kept in two large halls, one of which is a hundred and ſeventy, and the other two hundred and twenty common paces in length.

VII. The quarter near the Carthuſians conſiſts of fifteen captainſhips, and contains the church of Marienzell and the chapel of the twelve apoſtles.

VIII. The quarter near St. Elizabeth conſiſts of fifteen captainſhips. Here is the church of St. James, a Latin ſchool, which has three maſters, and the Teutonic-houſe, which is the reſidence of the commandery of Nurenburg. In the church of St. Elizabeth in this quarter the Teutonic order celebrate their form of worſhip, and the deacons of St. Jacob have their maſs or hours of prayer there every day early in the morning.

One of the greateſt beauties of this city is its fountains; theſe we have juſt mentioned; but it will be proper to give a more particular account of them. In the new ſquare are three fountains, the moſt remarkable of which

which is that in the middle. In a large oval baſon is a rock, on the top of which four large dolphins ſpout water, and ſupport a large ſhell, out of which riſes a triton, which jets a plentiful ſtream into the air, through his marine trumpet, and from the bottom of the baſon riſe four ſmaller water-ſpouts, which throw their water into the triton's ſhell, through the hollow ſlopings of which it returns into the baſon. The whole is incloſed within a fine iron baluſtrade.

Our author mentions another magnificent fountain, which when he was at Nurenburg was nearly finiſhed, but not erected. In the middle of a vaſt marble baſon, ſays he, will be placed a large rock, in which are two caverns oppoſite to each other. From theſe grottos ſpring with great fury two ſea-horſes, of braſs, with riders, who manage them with large ſea-reeds. Above theſe grottos are little infants of the ſame metal, each ſounding a marine trumpet. Upon the rock ſit two naiads, with oars in their hands, in large baſons, and four dragons mounted by little children. All the figures are of braſs, as big as the life, and the attitudes admirable. Out of the middle of this rock riſes a pedeſtal, adorned with feſtoons compoſed of coral and various ſhells, with cartouches, &c. and with all theſe ornaments are intermixed ſome dolphins heads. The fineſt figure in the whole is a Neptune ſtanding on the pedeſtal. This beautiful ſtatue is nearly ten feet high, and weighs two thouſand two hundred pounds. This fountain will throw out two hundred hogſheads of water in an hour, and is valued at between thirty and thirty-five thouſand crowns.

Among the ſtone bridges is one of a ſingle arch, fifty paces in length, over the river Pegnitz. At one extremity is a large fleſh-market, built of hewn-ſtone, and on its gate is a vaſt ox of ſtone lying on its belly, with gilt horns and hoofs; under which is a Latin couplet in gold letters, "that every thing has its beginning and increaſe; "but the ox you ſee here never was a calf."

On the new bridge, which is ſaid to have coſt the city a hundred thouſand guldens, are two pyramids, on the apex of one of which is the imperial black eagle, and on the other a dove with an olive branch in its beak, with a diſtich in Latin to the following purpoſe:

"In paſſing over this bridge, dedicated to Charles, "pray that his imperial race may flouriſh while the "waters flow under it."

Here are many noble muſeums belonging to private perſons, and which are viſited by all travellers of taſte and learning. There is alſo an anatomical theatre founded at the expence of the city, in which are about a hundred ſkeletons of different animals, eſpecially of the winged ſpecies. This anatomical theatre, Mr. Keyſler obſerves, is under the management of Dr. Treu, whoſe houſe is near it; and in his cabinet is a collection of about ſix thouſand kinds of plants, ſeveral petrifactions, a ſet of all kinds of ſeeds, ſome delicate and curious ſkeletons of leaves and fruit, and ſeveral pieces ſhewing the curious mechaniſm of the human body. In this muſeum is ſet up an elegant Latin inſcription, which may be thus tranſlated:

"Mortal, if ignorant of the ſtructure of thine own "body, and of that of the animals, &c. created for thy "uſe, if thy ſight be good, and thy mind inclined to "knowledge, ſtop here a while. Hither, for thine, and "his own benefit, an abſtracted mind and curious hand "has collected the ſkeletons of men, animals, and ve"getables; with the various kinds and forms of mine"rals. Every particle of theſe is a kind of natural "hieroglyphic, which delineates the infinite goodneſs, "bounty, and glory of the Creator much more diſtinctly "than thoſe invented by the Egyptians; and at the ſame "time teaches thee to celebrate the unſearchable power "of the Deity, to admire the inimitable and wonder"ful formation of all things, to confute the abſurdity "and obſtinacy of the wicked atheiſt, to obſerve the ſud"den change of vain beauty into loathſomeneſs, and "from thence, and the frailty of human life, to learn "true wiſdom."

It is remarkable that the principal clocks in this city ſtrike the hours from one to twelve progreſſively from the riſing of the ſun, and begin again after ſun-ſet, which at firſt puzzles ſtrangers; but by the table of the equation of time publiſhed here, this may be eaſily reduced to the common method of calculation.

There are ſeveral other cuſtoms which ſeem very extraordinary, particularly the manner of celebrating marriage: the bridegroom, attended by his relations and friends, walks to the church, and is ſoon after followed by the intended bride and her friends. Mr. Miſſon, who was preſent upon one of theſe occaſions, ſays, that on their entering the church the bridegroom ſat down with his relations on one ſide, and the bride on the other oppoſite to him; and over each of their heads againſt the wall was painted the figure of Death. From thence they both walked up to the miniſter, who ſtood in the midſt of the choir; and he had no ſooner performed the ceremony, than four or five trumpets ſounded from the top of the ſteeple. Upon this the new-married couple returned in the ſame manner to the place from whence they came.

The bridegroom appeared all in black, with a cloak trimmed with lace, with a large ruff, and a little crown of gold plate lace upon his periwig. But the bride's dreſs is not ſo eaſily deſcribed: the beſt way to form an idea of it is, to fancy a head-tire compoſed of gilt wire like a bob periwig half a foot higher than the forehead, and frizzled out on the ſides; theſe threads or wires are ſo cloſe together, that there is no more diſtance between them, than is juſt ſufficient to faſten to them an infinite number of very ſmall, thin, round plates of gold, which hanging both within and without waved with the leaſt motion. Her habit was a kind of black veſt with long ſkirts; but the body was very ſhort, and had the ſeams covered with gold lace, as the ſkirts were with ſmall knots of black ſattin ribbon. She had ſtraight ſleeves and cuffs that reached down below her wriſts. About her neck ſhe wore a handkerchief of very fine lace ſhaped before like a clergyman's band, but reaching down to the middle of her back, ended in a point. She had alſo a gold chain about her ſhoulders, and another about her waiſt, inſtead of a girdle. The petticoat was pretty ſhort, and trimmed towards the bottom with black bone-lace and gold fringe. This bride danced at the wedding with one of the ſenators, who wore a great ruff. Indeed the cuſtoms I obſerved, ſays our author, at this feaſt were ſo very different from any I had ſeen before, that I rather fancied myſelf in China than in Europe.

Nurenburg boaſts of having better artizans, and in greater numbers, than moſt cities in Europe: particularly the curious works made here in wood, ivory, alabaſter, and even of paper and ſtarch, are very famous; and thoſe who are fond of mechanical arts and manufactures, may here abundantly gratify their curioſity. The toys of Nurenburg are indeed exported all over the world; but their trade is not now ſo conſiderable as it was formerly.

The few Calviniſts here have a preacher of their own, and perform divine ſervice out of the town, in a houſe ſeated in a garden, and fitted for that purpoſe. The papiſts are allowed the public exerciſe of their religion in the Teutonic-houſe: but the Jews are obliged to live in a village near the city, from whence they have the liberty of coming daily into the town, on paying a ſmall piece of money; but they are not ſuffered to ſtay all night, and muſt therefore return before the gates are ſhut.

The nobility here took their riſe in 1198, when the emperor Henry VI. aſſiſting at a tournament, raiſed thirty-eight burghers families to the degree of nobility. The council of Nurenburg conſiſts of thirty-four noble and eight handicraft counſellors. The former are divided into twenty-ſix burgomaſters, and eight old ſenators, called Alt Genanten. Theſe twenty-ſix burgomaſters conſiſt of thirteen old and thirteen young ones, and every four weeks an old and a young one preſide. Out of the thirteen old burgomaſters are choſen the ſeven firſt counſellors, who are ſtiled the ſeptemvirate, and manage the moſt important and ſecret affairs of the city; together with the ſix next to them, who compoſe the council of appeal. Of the former the three firſt are ſtiled the ſupreme head people, and are always imperial counſellors:

and

A Nuremburg Marriage.

and the first of these is also imperial bailiff; he resides at the imperial fort, and is stiled the castellan. Out of the thirteen younger burgomasters, as well as out of the older ones, all the offices of the government are filled up. The eight counsellors chosen out of the tradesmen go annually at certain times to council; and these are selected from the goldsmiths, the brewers, the tanners, the taylors, the cutlers, the clothiers, the bakers, and the furriers, who are nominated the lesser council. The great council, which must consist of two hundred persons, is composed of those elected by the burghers.

The judicatories in Nurenburg are the appeal and upper court, together with that of the town and marriage-court; the country peasant-court; the under-court, instituted for the recovery of small debts; the quinquevirate-court, for the reparation of injuries; the forest-court, belonging to the wood of Sebald; the forest-court of Laurence wood; and the wild honey-court in the latter.

The jurisdictions here are the bailiff-office, the tax-office, the administratory-office for the county, the war-office, the supreme guardian and ecclesiastical-office, the building-office, the toll-office, the brewery-office, the office for levying of toll upon wine, the pawn-office, or lending-house, the corn-office, the censor-office, established for the government of the artizans, the tallow-office, the rent-master's-office, the sheriff's or inquisition-office, the office belonging to the town charity, the arsenal-office, the chest-office, the mint-office, and several others.

The military force of this town consists of seven companies of foot, each of which in time of peace contains a hundred men, but in time of war a hundred and eighty-five; of two troops of cuiraffiers, each consisting of eighty-five men; and two companies of invalids, amounting to two hundred and twenty-six. Besides these, which are regular troops, the burghers form themselves into twenty-four companies of about three hundred and fifty men each, who are all well disciplined, and go through the several evolutions and manual exercise with great exactness and activity. Two hundred men also belong to the train of artillery; and the city selects two troops of horse out of such of the burghers as are remarkable for their height and comeliness. The latter, on the breaking out of a fire in the city, have their particular stations assigned them, to which they immediately repair; and the men belonging to the artillery secure the arsenal. They have here an excellent regulation with respect to fires, in order to excite the people to activity and vigilance; a ducat is given as a reward to that person who brings the first pail of water, two guldens to the second, one gulden to the third, eight groschs to the fourth, and to every one of the rest fifteen crutzers.

The tract called the Nurenberg circle is surrounded by the rivers Schwartzbach, Pegnitz, and Schwabach, to which the Nurenbergers give the title of the border-waters. It comprizes within it two considerable imperial forests, called the Sebald and Laurence forests, which are covered with pines; and in this compass are a considerable number of towns subject to Nurenburg, one of the principal of which is

Altorf, or Altdorf, a small town that consists principally of one large street, and several little ones. At the parish-church a professor of divinity always preaches, and the two deacons belonging to it are likewise professors of divinity. The citadel is an antient stone building, that has twelve large courts, in which the administrator of Altorf resides. Here is also an university; the building consists of three stories, and has two wings; and contains in it a valuable library, an anatomical theatre, a chemical laboratory, and an observatory. Without the town is a large botanical garden, which is kept in good order.

SECT. VI.

Of the Bishopric of Aichstadt; its Situation, and Rivers. The Arms of the Bishop, and the Offices by which the Government is administered; with a Description of the City of Aichstadt. Of the Teutonic Order, and particularly the Masterdom of Mergentheim; with an Account of that Town.

THE bishopric of Aichstadt, or Eichstett, terminates on the Upper Palatinate, Upper Bavaria, the dutchy of Neuburg, the county of Pappenheim, and the principality of Anspach, by which also several detached parts of it are surrounded.

The principal rivers by which this country is watered are the Altmuhl, which flows out of the principality of Anspach, and here receives the little rivers of Anlauter, Schwartzach, and Sulz; after which it enters Bavaria. The Upper and Under Retzat also runs through some parts of this bishopric.

The episcopal title is, By the grace of God, bishop and prince of Aichstadt.

The episcopal arms are a crosier argent, in a field gules. A bishop's mitre crowns the shield, and behind it appears a sword and crosier.

These bishops formerly stiled themselves arch-chancellors of the holy see of Mentz, and maintained that, in virtue of this dignity, they had several privileges during the vacancy of that archbishopric. The bishop of Aichstadt is perpetual chancellor of the university of Ingolstadt. He sits in the council of the princes of the empire, on the spiritual bench, between the bishops of Worms and Spire, and at the diets of the circle of Franconia between the reigning margraves of Brandenburg-Bareith and Anspach.

The chapter consists of fourteen capitulars and fourteen domicelli, who must be all of a nobility suitable to the foundation, and swear to sixteen degrees of descent.

The principal offices here are the spiritual council, the regency, the aulic council, and the aulic chamber.

The inhabitants are of the popish religion. The episcopal territories are divided into eleven upper prefecturates, the principal place in which is

Aichstadt, or Eichstett, the episcopal residence, which lies in a valley on the banks of the Altmul, in the forty-eighth degree fifty-six minutes north latitude, and in the eleventh degree ten minutes east longitude. It has an antient cathedral, to which one of its bishops presented a fine pyx for the host, which is of pure gold, in the form of a sun, and weighs forty marks; it is adorned with several diamonds, rubies, and other precious stones; the whole being valued at sixty thousand guilders. Besides the great choir, there is the choir of St. Willibald, in which it is pretended the bones of that saint were found in the year 1744, in honour of whom John Anthony II. caused a new and expensive high altar to be raised, which was dedicated in 1745. At St. Walburg's church is an high altar as broad as the church itself, and above it is a small cavity, the sides and bottom of which are lined with gold, and covered with a stone. This is called the coffin, and is said to contain the breast-bones of St. Walburg, out of which an oil is said to flow and force itself through the stone, where it is collected in drops, which are received into a golden trough, and from thence conveyed into a golden bowl, and deposited in small vials for the use of pilgrims and benefactors resorting thither, and employed in miraculous cures. This holy flux happens twice a year, that is in the spring and fall; but it frequently appears at different seasons. To this church belongs a Benedictine nunnery. In this town is also a college of Jesuits, a parochial and collegiate church of our Lady, in which is a foundation consisting of a provost, a dean, a cathedral and town minister, and some canons. Here is also a Dominican convent, a cloister of regular canonists of the congregation of our Lady, a Capuchin cloister and church in the east suburbs, and another church dedicated to the Holy Ghost.

We shall now give an account of the Teutonic order in general, and in particular of the masterdom of Mergentheim.

The Teutonic order was founded in Palestine in the year 1190, and those who entered into it were called knights of the virgin Mary, or brothers of the Teutonic house of our Lady of Jerusalem. They bound themselves by a vow to defend the Christian religion and the Holy Land, and to serve the poor and sick; to be all of

them Germans, and of true antient nobility. The knights of this order were driven from Jeruſalem by the Saracens, and afterwards gradually ſubdued all Pruſſia, Courland, Semigallia, and Livonia; but again loſt thoſe countries.

The ſuperior of this order, or the grand and Teutonic maſter, ſtiles himſelf adminiſtrator of the grand maſterdom of Pruſſia, maſter of the Teutonic order in Germany and Italy, and lord of Freudenthal and Eulenberg. He is a ſpiritual prince of the empire, and enjoys a high rank in the council of the princes, ſitting on the ſpiritual bench next after the archbiſhops, and preceding all the prelates; but in the circle of Franconia, he is the laſt of the ſpiritual princes.

The arms and enſigns of this order are an erect croſs ſable in a field argent, granted by pope Celeſtine III. In the field is a croſs or, conferred by king Henry of Jeruſalem, and in its center is ſeen the imperial eagle beſtowed by the emperor Frederic II. On each of the four corners is a lilly or, which was added to theſe arms by St. Lewis of France.

Theſe knights muſt be of old German nobility, and prove their deſcent. Both the proteſtants and papiſts may be inveſted with the order, and the proteſtant knights are permitted to marry. On ſolemn occaſions the knights wear a white mantle with a black croſs upon it, edged with ſilver; but their dreſs in other reſpects reſembles that of other ſeculars, though it is not ornamented, or of the gayeſt colours.

Did the ſigniories and eſtates which the Teutonic order ſtill poſſeſs in Germany lie contiguous, they would form a conſiderable principality. Theſe eſtates conſiſt, in general, of what is properly called the maſterdom of Mergentheim and twelve bailiwics.

The regency at Mergentheim is compoſed of a vice-ſtadtholder, preſidents, houſe commendaries, and purveyors, with a certain number of privy, regency, ſpiritual, and chamber counſellors.

To the circle of Franconia belongs only the proper maſterdom of Mergentheim, and the bailiwic of Franconia, the principal place in which is,

Mergentheim, Mergenthal, or Marienthall, a ſmall city ſeated on the Tauber, twenty-five miles to the ſouth-weſt of Wurtzburg; the reſidence of the grand maſter of the Teutonic order, and alſo the ſeat of the regency. In this town is an academy, and a ſeminary. Here is alſo a rural deanery belonging to the eccleſtical juriſdiction of Wurtzburg, and on a mountain near the town ſtands a citadel, in which the grand maſter uſually reſides. It was taken by the Swedes under the command of general Horn in 1681; but was ſoon after retaken by the French and the duke of Saxe-Weymar; but has been ſince reſtored to its antient proprietor, the grand maſter.

SECT. VII.

Of the Counties of Hohenlohe, Wertheim, and Erbach. Their Situation, Extent, Produce, and Rivers; with a conciſe Account of the Princes of each, their Arms, Government, and principal Towns.

THIS country borders on the maſterdom of Mergentheim, the biſhopric of Wurtzburg, the principality of Anſpach, the territories of the imperial cities of Rotenburg and Swabian-Hall, the dutchy of Wurtemburg, and a part of the electorate of Mentz. Its greateſt extent from eaſt to weſt is about eight and twenty miles, and from north to ſouth about thirty. It was antiently much larger, and formed nearly one third of all Franconia.

The ſouth ſide of the country furniſhes the traveller with a proſpect of fine vineyards, which, in ſome places, join to each other for ſeveral miles together. The north ſide is proper for agriculture, and on the tops of the mountains are commonly found valuable woods of oak, fir, pine, beech, and birch, in which a variety of game find ſhelter; and in the valleys is good meadow ground, which feeds an excellent breed of cattle.

The principal rivers are the Kocher, which iſſuing out of the territory of the imperial city of Swabian-Hall, enters the county of Hohenlohe, and runs into the dutchy of Wurtemburg. The Jagſt, which flows into this country from the principality of Anſpach. The Tauber, and the Wernitz, both which riſe in this country.

With reſpect to the religion of this country, it is neceſſary to obſerve, that the reformation which was begun here in 1540, was thoroughly completed in 1556, and ever ſince the whole country has been of the Lutheran church. But in 1667, count Lewis Guſtavus embracing the Romiſh religion, and his elder brother count Chriſtian of Hohenlohe-Bartenſtein, ſoon after following his example, the proteſtants were oppreſſed, and ſuffered various grievances, which have been in a great meaſure removed by the interpoſition of the empire.

The counts of Hohenlohe are of a very antient family, and are divided into the principal branches of Neuinſtein and Waldenburg; the former is alſo ſubdivided into thoſe of Weckerſheim, and Lagenburg, and the latter into thoſe of Pfedelbach and Schillingsfurſt. The whole of this capital line was raiſed in the year 1744, to the dignity of princes of the empire; but tho' the princely dignity was at the ſame time offered to the collateral branches of the line of Neuinſtein, they have as yet ſcrupled to accept of it.

The princes of the younger Waldenburg capital line, ſtile themſelves princes of the holy Roman empire, counts of Hohenlohe and Waldenburg, lords of Langenburg, &c. but the counts of the elder Neuinſtein line, ſtile themſelves counts of Hohenlohe and Gleichen, and lords of Langenburg Cranichfield, &c.

The arms of the princely capital line of Waldenburg are, for Hohenlohe, a ſhield quarterly, in whoſe firſt and fourth quarters argent, are two leopards ſable, running directly againſt each other: and in the ſecond and third upper quarters, a lion advancing and crowned or, with an open throat, a red exerted tongue, and a double rolled up tail, in a field ſable; and in the lower ones, on account of Langenburg eight ruſtres ſable, in a field or.

The arms of the Neuinſtein capital line, are alſo a ſhield quarterly, in whoſe firſt and fourth quarters are to be ſeen in a field argent two leopards ſable running at each other; and in the ſecond and third, above, a lion crowned or, in a field ſable, and below it eight ruſtres ſable in a field or. In a middle ſhield is a lion crowned or, in a field verte.

At the diet of the empire the princes and counts of Hohenlohe belong to the Franconian college of counts; and at the diet of counts are poſſeſſed of ſix voices with the right of precedency in the Franconian college; but at the Franconian diets they have only two voices, which follow directly after thoſe of the princes.

This county contains in it ten cities, three market-towns, and twelve citadels, the principal place in which is,

Oringen, the capital of the country, ſeated on the rivulet of Ohrn, which runs between the old and new town. One half of this place belongs to the Oringen line, and the other to the whole princely line of Waldenburg. The former reſides at a magnificent caſtle in this city, to which adjoins a beautiful pleaſure garden. The building called the ſtone houſe is a grand ſtructure encloſed by a wall, with a ſpacious court before it, and belongs to the princely line of Waldenburg. At this place is alſo a building allotted for the reſidence of the counteſs dowager. The churches and preachers are alſo in common. Of the former there are two, the principal church, and that of the Spital. The Lazar-houſe has a chapel, and the burial-place without the town has alſo a church. The ſeminary here was in the year 1735 formed on the plan of a Gymnaſium Illuſtre. In this town are alſo kept the common archives. In the neighbourhood of this city are ſeveral eminences that yield excellent fruit, and fine wine.

The county of Wertheim, which we ſhall next deſcribe, lies between the archbiſhopric of Mentz, and the biſhopric of Wurtzburg, a part of it being alſo bounded by

by the county of Erbach. The Maine runs through it, and in this county receives the Tauber. It produces a variety of fruit, and of the grapes a good wine is made.

At the diet of the empire the princes and counts of Lowenſtein Wertheim, are poſſeſſed, on account of this county, of two voices in the Franconian college of counts, and at the circle of Franconia, they enjoy a ſeat and voice between Caſtell and Rieneck.

The capital of this county is Wertheim, which is ſeated on the Maine, where it is joined by the Tauber. It contains two reſidentiary palaces, and alſo a pariſh church, which both the Lutherans and Roman catholics make uſe of in common, and alſo a Latin ſchool. The magiſtracy here are, however, all Proteſtants.

The county of Erbach is ſeated on the Odenwalde, and is ſurrounded by the archbiſhopric of Mentz, the electoral palatinate, and a part of the county of Wertheim, extending about twenty-four miles in length, and about nineteen in breadth.

It is a mountainous country; but well cultivated and pretty fruitful. The more barren lands are ſometimes ſuffered to reſt between five and ten years, after which the buſhes, heath, and whatever elſe they are over-run with, are cut down in time of harveſt, dug up by the roots, and theſe, with a part of the turf, being laid together on heaps, as ſoon as they become dry, are ſet on fire, and the aſhes being ſpread abroad, the land is ploughed up and ſown; by this means the land is rendered fruitful, and the inhabitants procure a ſufficient quantity of corn for their ſubſiſtance; they cultivate abundance of potatoes, and alſo prepare a great deal of pot-aſh. The foreſts, however, become thin, and many pieces of ground which were formerly covered with woods, have been converted into arable land; but at preſent they begin again to plant trees. The beſt paſtures and meadows lie in the valleys, and the breeding of cattle is here pretty conſiderable.

This country has ſome good quarries of ſtone and marble, and it has alſo ſome good mines of iron.

The rivulets which riſe in this country, among which the Mumling is the principal, all diſcharge themſelves into the Maine, the Rhine, and the Neckar, and abound in fiſh.

The inhabitants amount to near twenty-four thouſand ſouls; they are of the Lutheran church, and export fine meal made of ſpelt, with oats, buck-wheat, wood, coals, pot-aſh, cattle, iron, nuts, honey, and wax. The wool produced here is manufactured into cloth.

The county of Erbach is for the moſt part a fief of the elector Palatine, and on the raiſing of the houſe of Erbach to the dignity of counts, the feodal rites were expreſly reſerved to that of the elector. Theſe counts are poſſeſſed of two voices at the diet of the empire in the college of the counts of Franconia.

Within this county are nine prefecturates, one of the principal places in which is,

Erbach, an old citadel, and a ſmall town ſituated on the Mumling, in a narrow valley amidſt high mountains, and contains only a few houſes which ſtand by the citadel, and are ſurrounded with a wall; but other houſes have been built on the out-ſide of this wall, which have the appearance of a ſuburb; but the place is ſo inconſiderable as to have only one church. At a ſmall diſtance from the town is the village of Erbach; through this place runs a rivulet, which in a meadow near the town, ſinks into the earth, and paſſes through a mountain, on the other ſide of which it iſſues out again, and at length runs into the Mumling.

SECT. VIII.

Of the Counties of Henneberg and Schwartzenberg, with a conciſe Account of the free imperial City of Rottenburg.

THE county of Henneberg is bounded on the eaſt by Coburg, and Schwartzenburg; on the north by Gotha and Eiſenach; on the weſt by the landgravate of Heſſe, and the biſhopric of Fulda; and on the ſouth by the biſhopric of Wurtzburg, extending from north to ſouth near twenty-eight miles, and from eaſt to weſt about twenty-five.

In moſt of its diſtricts the inhabitants apply themſelves to agriculture, with tolerable ſucceſs, and in ſome places cultivate tobacco. It has mines of ſilver and copper; but thoſe of iron are by far the moſt numerous. In ſome parts of this county ſalt is made, and it has alſo ſome medicinal ſprings.

The principal river is the Werra, which after its entering into this county, divides itſelf into two parts, and receives into it ſeveral ſmall ſtreams.

No other religion than that of the Lutherans is tolerated here, except at Schmalkalden, where is a church belonging to the Calviniſts.

The manufactures of this county chiefly conſiſt of fuſtian, and the making of arms and hard-ware.

At preſent the princely county of Henneberg has the following lords for its poſſeſſors, namely, the elector of Saxony, the dukes of Saxe-Weimar, Meinungen, Gotha, Coburg Saalfeld, and Hilburghauſen, and the landgrave of Heſſe-Caſſel.

The principal places in this county are the following:

Schleuſingen, formerly the reſidence of the princes of Henneberg, and at preſent the ſeat of the electoral Saxon ſuperintendency, is ſeated on the little river Schleuſz, forty miles to the north-weſt of Bamberg, at the foot of a hill, upon which are the ruins of a caſtle or palace. The town is not large, and on account of the adjoining Thuringian wood, has but little land fit for tillage; it has, however, a ſeminary, which belongs in common to all the dukes of Saxony, who are poſſeſſed of any ſhare in this county. Schleuſingen alſo contains a commandery belonging to the order of St. John, founded in the year 1291.

Meinungen, or Meiningen, a town ſeated on the river Werra, amidſt high mountains, which duke Bernhard of Saxony, on his obtaining it in 1681, choſe for his reſidence, and cauſed a new palace, with a chapel to be built, naming it from his conſort Elizabethenburg. In this palace are the princely library, a cabinet of medals, and the archives of Henneberg, which belong in common to the princely and electoral houſes of Saxony. In this town is one pariſh church, a Latin ſchool, an orphan-houſe, a houſe of correction, and a ſpinning-houſe. It had formerly a very conſiderable manufacture of fuſtian, which is now leſs flouriſhing, and the burghers chiefly apply themſelves to the culture of tobacco.

Smalkald, a town ſituated at the foot of the Thuringian wood, on a rivulet of the ſame name, which here receives into it the Stille. It is a pretty large, thriving, and populous town. On a hill near it ſtands the citadel of Wilhelmſburg, thus called from its being rebuilt by the landgrave William IV. In the center of the town ſtands an old palace of the prince of Heſſe-Caſſel, called the Heſſenhof. In this town is alſo a collegiate church, in which were formerly twelve canons, with a town-church poſſeſſed in common by the Lutherans and Calviniſts, and a Latin ſchool. The ſalt-pits here, in conjunction with the neighbouring mines of iron and the forges, are of great advantage to the town, which has a conſiderable trade in hardware. The numerous meetings held by the proteſtant princes in this town, with the league they concluded here in 1531, and the theological articles drawn up by Luther, which they cauſed to be confirmed by their teachers, have rendered this town famous in the German hiſtory.

The county of Schwartzenberg is for the moſt part ſurrounded by the biſhopric of Bamberg, the county of Caſtell, the ſignory of Speckfeld, the principalities of Bareith and Anſpach, and the biſhopric of Wurtzburg. This county in its greateſt extent is about nineteen miles long; but in ſome parts it is only two miles, tho' in others about three miles broad. The inhabitants of this narrow ſlip of country are partly of the Lutheran and partly of the Romiſh church.

The prince of Schwartzenberg is poſſeſſed of ſeveral other diſtricts in Bohemia and Stiria. His title is prince of Schwartzenberg, of the holy Roman empire princely landgrave in the Klettgau, count of Sulz, duke of Crumau, and lord of Gimborn, of the holy Roman empire

pire hereditary aulic judge of Rothweil, and lord of the ſigniories of Murau, Wittingau, Frauenberg, Poſtelberg, Wildſchutz, Worlic, &c.

His arms are a ſhield quarterly, the firſt and fourth fields of which are argent and azure, divided eight-fold lengthways for Schwartzenberg; and in the third and fourth quarter is a black raven picking out the eyes of a Turk's head, in memory of the fortreſs of Raab in Hungary, which was taken from the Turks by count Adolphus in 1598.

In this little diſtrict are ſix prefecturates; but no town worthy of notice, moſt of them being villages, and the reſt only little market-towns, with only one pariſh-church.

There are ſome other little diſtricts in the circle of Franconia, as the counties of Caſtell and Reinec; the ſeigniories of Limburg, Seiſheim, Reichelberg, Weiſſentheid, Welzheim, and Hauſen, which, though their poſſeſſors have a ſeat and voice in the diet of the empire, are too inconſiderable to merit any farther notice.

There are alſo ſeveral free imperial cities in the circle of Franconia that have a voice in the diet of the empire, the principal of theſe, next to Nurenburg, which has been particularly deſcribed, is

Rothenburg, or Rotenburg, which is ſeated on an eminence by the Tauber, in the forty-ninth degree twenty-ſix minutes latitude, and in the tenth degree eleven minutes eaſt longitude, thirty-five miles to the weſt of Nurenburg. It receives the water for its neceſſary uſes out of the river Tauber, by means of an engine, by which it is forced up the mountain, and from thence aſcends in a direct line to what is called the Klingenthurn, from which it falls down again, and produces three fountains in the town. Rotenburg is ſurrounded with walls that are fortified with towers, and defended by ditches. The inhabitants who are Lutherans have five churches in the city; but there is generally no preaching but in two of them, that is, in the pariſh-church of St. James, and in the church near the hoſpital. The academy here conſiſts of ſeven claſſes, and the like number of teachers.

At the diet of the empire this city poſſeſſes the eighth place in the college of the imperial cities on the Swabian bench, and the ſecond at the circle of Franconia on the bench of the imperial cities. To this city belong ſeveral villages.

CHAP. XVI.

The ELECTORAL RHENISH Circle, or the Circle of the LOWER RHINE.

SECT. I.

Of the electoral Rheniſh Circle in general; and firſt of the Electorate of Mentz: its Situation, Extent, and Produce. The Religion of the Inhabitants; their Arts, Manufactures, and Commerce. The Dignity, Titles, Arms, and Prerogatives of the Archbiſhop, and of the high Chapter of Mentz. The Offices by which the Government is adminiſtered; with the electoral Revenues and Forces.

THIS circle extends from the circle of Swabia, which bounds it on the ſouth, to that of Weſtphalia, which lies to the north; to the eaſt it is bounded by Franconia, and the lower part of the circle of the Upper Rhine; and to the weſt by the upper part of the circle of the Upper Rhine, Lorrain, and Luxemburg. It divides the circle of the Upper Rhine; but its extent is difficult to determine.

It includes the three archbiſhoprics and electorates of Mentz, Triers, or Treves, and Cologne, with the Palatinate.

The elector of Mentz is the ſummoning prince and director of the circle, the diets of which have ever ſince the middle of the ſeventeenth century been held at Francfort on the Maine. This is one of thoſe called the anterior circles, which, in the years 1697 and 1702, entered into a mutual compact with each other for their defence againſt the attacks of an enemy.

With reſpect to religion, this circle is reckoned among the mixed.

The archbiſhopric of Mentz is ſeated on the Rhine, and is bounded on the north by Wetteravia and Heſſe, on the ſouth and eaſt by Franconia and the palatinate of the Rhine, and on the weſt by the electorate of Triers; extending about fifty miles in length, and twenty in breadth.

This country affords ſufficient ſubſiſtence for the inhabitants; for, beſides corn and excellent wine, it produces fine garden-fruit, and plenty of cattle; in ſome parts are raiſed large quantities of flax and tobacco, and in others are iron mines.

The principal rivers with which this electorate is watered are, the Rhine, the Maine, the Jaxt, and the Lahn.

The countries ſeated on the Rhine and Maine, which, ever ſince the Reformation, have been in the power of the elector of Mentz, have invariably adhered to the Romiſh church; but on the Eichsfeld, as alſo at Erfurt, Cronberg, and ſome other places, there are many Proteſtants; and at Bonnigheim the proteſtant worſhip is alone uſed. In ſeveral places the Jews are alſo tolerated.

In this archbiſhopric are ſome woollen and other manufactures, in ſome places looking-glaſſes, and in others fine porcelain is made; while in other parts the inhabitants apply themſelves with great diligence to the cultivation of flax and tobacco. With reſpect to commerce, they carry on an important trade in wines, ſerge, linen, tobacco, almonds, cheſnuts, nuts, &c. The late elector, John Frederic Charles, has not only eſtabliſhed two annual fairs at Mentz; but has endeavoured to make commerce flouriſh both in that city, and in all the archiepiſcopal countries; for which purpoſe commiſſioners of commerce are appointed there. The electoral exchequer of Lohnec expedites all mercantile affairs, and examines into complaints relating to exchange and all commercial ſubjects of diſpute. The electoral magazine here has a preſident, four magazine maſters, and two brokers.

The archbiſhop obtains his dignity by the free choice of the chapter, and muſt ſwear to an election-capitulation. The papal confirmation is very expenſive; the pallium is alſo obtained at a high price, and the annalis, which each new archbiſhop is obliged to pay to the pope, amounts to ten thouſand florins. This prelate is, however, the firſt archbiſhop in Germany, and the archiepiſcopal dignity is inſeparably connected with that of elector; and indeed he is eſteemed the firſt among all the ſpiritual and ſecular electors.

His title is J. F. by the grace of God of the holy ſee of Mentz archbiſhop, of the holy Roman empire throughout all Germany arch-chancellor and elector, &c.

The archiepiſcopal arms are a wheel argent, in a field gules, to which each elector alſo adds his family arms.

The elector of Mentz has great prerogatives with reſpect to the ſupreme judicatory of the empire. At the imperial aulic council the vice-chancellor of the empire, who is nominated by him, follows immediately after the imperial preſident. He has alſo the nomination of all the ſecretaries; and the imperial aulic chancery, which is appointed by him, expedites all matters of which cognizance has been taken. He likewiſe collects, and has the direction of the money received for all diſpatches; keeps

the acts of the imperial aulic council, and the aſſeſſors of the elector are poſſeſſed of the firſt place among all thoſe of their order. The chancery of the chamber-court is likewiſe appointed and regulated by him alone.

The high chapter of Mentz conſiſts of twenty-four perſons; that is, of five prelates, and nineteen capitulars. The former have the privilege of wearing a mitre; but the latter need not be prieſts, though they generally are. This chapter has ſeveral ſyndics and other officers. The electoral ſtadtholder, together with the preſidents of the aulic council, with the chamber and town juriſdiction, are always choſen from among the capitulars; and in all ſtipulations with the neighbouring ſtates, and other important affairs in which the privileges of the archbiſhopric are concerned, the conſent of the chapter is alſo mentioned. A capitular is always vicar-general to the archbiſhop in ſpiritual matters. Theſe capitulars muſt be born in the Rheniſh province, and prove by oath their being deſcended from noble anceſtors for ſix deſcents. At the electoral court of Mentz is held no regular privy-council; but important affairs of ſtate are propoſed in what is called the privy-conference. The privy-chancery conſiſts of the aulic-chancellor, the privy-ſecretary, the ſecretaries, privy-regiſters, and privy-clerks of the chancery. The aulic council, or the electoral regency-council college, is under the direction of a preſident, a great ſteward, an aulic chancellor, a chancery, director, privy-aulic, and regency counſellors, &c. The reviſion-judicatory has a director, reviſion-counſellors, a ſecretary, and proctors. At this court a perſon may ſue, within thirty days, for reviſion of the ſentences of the aulic-judicatory, the offices of appeal, commiſſion, and works. The other colleges are, the aulic-judicatory, whoſe ſentences are notified in four general aulic-judicatory days, the aulic-chamber, the military conference, the chamber-office, and town judicatory at Mentz, the poor-houſe commiſſion, and the office of works.

The electoral revenues are eſtimated at about one million two hundred thouſand florins. The military forces conſiſt of the elector's life-guard of horſe, and a number of dragoons, with three regiments of foot, and the like number of provincial regiments, eſtabliſhed on a regular footing. The city of Mentz being reckoned a barrier fortreſs of the empire, the circle of the Upper Rhine conſiders it as one of its fortreſſes, and frequently keeps in it, under certain reſtrictions, a number of troops belonging to the circle.

In the electorate of Mentz are forty-one cities and twenty-one boroughs.

SECT. II.

A particular Deſcription of Mentz, Cronberg, and Aſchaffenburg, in that Electorate.

WE ſhall begin the deſcription of the cities of this electorate with Mentz, or Mayence, called in Latin Moguntia and Moguntiacum, which is ſeated at the confluence of the Rhine and Maine, in the forty-ninth degree ſixteen minutes north latitude, and in the eighth degree ſixteen minutes eaſt longitude from London. The city is pretty large and populous; but conſiſts for the moſt part of narrow ſtreets and old faſhioned houſes belonging to the burghers. In the year 1735 two Roman months were granted for the better fortifying of this city; but though the fortifications that were afterwards begun are excellent, they are ſtill unfiniſhed.

The archbiſhop's palace is built of a kind of red marble, in a very magnificent manner. It is only two ſtories high; but the apartments are very fine, the ceilings richly adorned, and the furniture very ſplendid. The ceiling of the hall where the elector dines, contains in different apartments the hiſtory of St. Martin, the patron of Mentz; and the tapeſtry with which it is hung repreſents the ſtory of Æneas and queen Dido. At the end of this firſt apartment is a large and ſumptuous cabinet of looking-glaſſes, enchaſed in little gilt ſquares; the baſes are adorned with cartouches, upon which are painted fine landſcapes, which are amazingly multiplied by the reflection of theſe mirrors. From hence you have a proſpect of the Rhine, the Maine, and all the adjacent country, which is extremely delightful.

The ſecond ſtory has nothing remarkable, except the elector's bed-chamber, which is a very ſmall one for a prince, but magnificently furniſhed. The tapeſtry is exquiſitely fine, and repreſents in ſix pieces the whole fable of Perſeus and Andromeda. The bed is of crimſon brocade with a gold ground, and the canopy is covered with pearls. The chairs are carved, gilt, and covered with embroidered crimſon velvet and gilt fringe; even the frame of the looking-glaſs, which is eight feet high, is covered with crimſon velvet laced with gold.

The arſenal kept in the palace is no more than a large cloſet lined with fuſils, muſkets, carabines, and piſtols, made by the moſt famous gunſmiths in Europe, and many of them are of exquiſite workmanſhip. Here are alſo ſome air-guns. This palace, in the year 1750, received the addition of a beautiful new wing, and has the advantage of fine gardens.

The cathedral is a vaſt pile of reddiſh marble: immediately on entering it you ſee the ſepulchral monuments of ſix antient archbiſhops of Mentz, whoſe ſtatues ſtand leaning againſt the pillars that ſupport the arched roof. On the other ſide are thoſe of the two laſt electors; the ſtatue of one of them ſtands in his epiſcopal robes, and is as large as the life: the tomb of the laſt elector is of black marble, and his ſtatue, which is of white marble, is ſitting: two little angels of white marble ſtand, one before him, preſenting him an open book, which he ſeems to read; the other at his feet, playing with the archiepiſcopal mitre. On each ſide of him is a croſs of white marble, on one of which is an inſcription. This work is eſteemed here a finiſhed piece; but there is nothing in it very extraordinary. In the choir are two other monuments, one of George Chriſtian landgrave of Heſſe, the other of a count of Lamberg, who was killed the ſame day that the marquis d'Uxelles, who defended Mentz againſt the allies, cauſed a parley to be beaten, and capitulated, which was on the ninth of September 1689. The ſtatue of this count has ſomething very particular, it being of white marble, and covered with armour, except a helmet and gantlets. He is in the attitude of one uſing all his efforts to get out of his coffin, which is of black marble, and puſhes up the lid with one hand, while he ſupports himſelf with the other againſt the bottom of the coffin. The ſculptor, beſides making a man in a coffin with his armour on, has alſo ridiculouſly given him a full bottomed peruke, quite in buckle. The high altar of this cathedral is ſo contrived, that the prieſt faces the people, and need not turn about at mentioning the words *Dominus vobiſcum*. The principal thing worth ſeeing here is the treaſury, which is ſhewn for a ducat or two, by two officers nominated by the dean, and conſiſts of jewels, rich veſtments, and other church furniture, particularly an oſtenſorium valued at twenty-four thouſand dollars.

The Auguſtine nuns of St. Agnes have a very elegant church, and the Carthuſian monaſtery without the city is worth ſeeing, on account of the beauty of the church; in which are thirty-two ſtalls of a fine ſort of wood, curiouſly inlaid with ivory. Theſe ſeats were made by a Hamburgher, and the monks value them at no leſs than a thouſand dollars each.

There is a bridge of boats over the Rhine at Mentz, which is ſeven hundred and ſixty-ſix paces in length, and leads to a little town on the other ſide, named Caſſel.

The religious foundations here are, that of St. Alban's, the *eccleſiæ collegiatæ inſignes B. M. V. ad gradus*, with thoſe of St. Peter, St. Stephen, St. Victor, the Holy Croſs, St. Gangolph, St. John, and St. Maurice. It has an archiepiſcopal ſeminary, dedicated to St. Boniface, with ſeven pariſh churches, and a Benedictine prelature, ſeated on Jacob's mount; as alſo a college of Jeſuits, ſix monaſteries and five nunneries; with a chartreuſe, and two other nunneries near the city. There is alſo an univerſity, and ſix hoſpitals.

About a mile from the city is the elector's palace, called la Favorita, which is a modern edifice, and is a moſt elegant and delightful place, both on account of its ſituation and proſpect over the Rhine and Maine, the architecture, and the diſpoſition of the garden, which

is adorned with pyramids, ſtatues, caſcades, and other water-works. The building deſigned for the orangery belongs to the main body of the palace, and the three pavilions on each ſide, ſerve for lodgings for the gentlemen of the court, officers and domeſtics, when the elector is here; but the apartments in which he reſides, are void of all ſymmetry and elegance, and except one hall, have nothing to recommend them.

This city was beſieged and taken by Guſtavus Adolphus king of Sweden in 1631. Among the other booty which this prince found here, was a maſſy crucifix of gold, as large as the life. Frederic V. elector Palatine, and king of Bohemia, died here the year following of grief for the death of that prince, who was killed at the battle of Lutzen; being perſuaded that had he lived a year longer, he would have reinſtated him in his dominions. Prince Charles of Lorrain, with the electors of Saxony and Bavaria, laid ſiege to the city in 1689, and took it forty days after their opening the trenches.

Cronberg, or Kronberg, a ſmall town ſeated on a mountain. About the year 1528, the Proteſtant doctrine was introduced here by the landgrave of Heſſe, who then poſſeſſed the place; but in the year 1541, the landgrave ceding the town to the lords of Cronberg, they promiſed to leave religious worſhip in the ſtate in which they found it. A part, however, of the inhabitants embraced the doctrines of the Romiſh religion, while the reſt continued Proteſtants. After the peace of Weſtphalia the proteſtant religious worſhip was alone reſtored; but it afterwards falling to the elector of Mentz, the immunities which the Proteſtants alone enjoyed, were ſhared with the Roman catholics; and in 1738 the antient citadel, which ſtood in the middle of the mountain, was in a great meaſure pulled down, and the ſtones belonging to it uſed for the new popiſh church. In this diſtrict are ſome fine woods, a variety of fruit, and a vaſt quantity of cheſnuts.

Aſchaffenburg, one of the beſt towns in the archbiſhopric, is ſeated on the Maine, in the fiftieth degree fifteen minutes north latitude, and in the ninth degree five minutes eaſt longitude, and takes its name from the rivulet of Aſchaff, which in its neighbourhood falls into the Maine. The citadel, in which the elector frequently reſides during harveſt, as long as the hunting ſeaſon laſts, is grand and beautiful. It is a vaſt ſquare building of red ſtone flanked by four large towers, with a platform in the middle; over the firſt gate is an equeſtrian ſtatue of St. Martin, patron of the archbiſhopric of Mentz, and quite at the top the ſtatue of Chriſt. On paſſing through the ſecond gate you enter a ſpacious ſquare court, ſurrounded with buildings three ſtories high. To the left is a portico of twelve columns, upon which reſts a terrace railed breaſt high, and from hence you enter a chapel, the altar of which is of white marble, adorned with columns of jaſper, and baſſo relievos, repreſenting the hiſtory of our Saviour's paſſion, in ſeveral compartments, with a large crucifix of white marble at the top. On each ſide of the altar is a fine ſtatue of the ſame marble, as large as the life; one of St. Martin cutting off a part of his cloak, in order to cover the nakedneſs of a poor beggar: the other of St. Wichard, archbiſhop of Mentz. The pulpit is alſo of white marble, and is adorned with ſtatues of Jeſus Chriſt, St. Peter, St. Paul, the four evangeliſts, and the four doctors of the church, St. Jerom, St. Ambroſe, St. Gregory, and St. Auguſtine, all finely executed. In four niches of the pedeſtal ſupporting the pulpit are ſtatues of Moſes, David, Iſaiah, and Daniel.

The apartments in the caſtle are ſpacious and richly furniſhed. In the great church dedicated to St. Peter are two altars adorned with excellent ſculptures; one repreſenting the crucifixion, and the other the adoration of the wiſe-men. The author of this piece, though well ſkilled in his profeſſion, has given the king, who uſually preſents a large gold cup to the infant, nothing but a little box, into which the infant is going to put through a chink, a ſmall piece of ſilver, which he holds between his finger and thumb.

In this town is alſo a college of Jeſuits and a Capuchin cloiſter. The town is walled, and has a fine bridge of nine arches.

In the above caſtle, or palace, king George II. took up his quarters the night before the battle of Dettingen, in the year 1743, when being attacked the next day by the French, who croſſed the Maine, they were repulſed, and the king continued his march to Hanau.

Aſchaffenburg ſtands in a fine ſporting country, about a league from the entrance of the Black Foreſt; and near it is a pleaſant vale planted with vines and tobacco, beſides ſome corn.

SECT. III.

Of the other Territories ſubject to the Elector of Mentz, namely, the Eichsfeld, and the City of Erfurt, with the Country belonging to it.

THE Eichsfeld, frequently called Eisfeld, antiently belonged to Thuringia, and is environed by Heſſe, Thuringia, and the principalities of Grubenhagen and Calenberg, it being in its greateſt extent from north to ſouth about thirty-ſix miles, and from eaſt to weſt about twenty-four.

This country, agreeably to its natural ſituation, is divided into Upper and Lower Eichsfeld; both which are in a manner ſeparated by the mountains of Duhn. The Lower Eichsfeld conſtitutes the northern part of the country, and is ſmaller than the Upper, but more level, warm, and fertile. It affords a ſufficient quantity of corn, together with a good breed of cattle, and a great deal of flax and tobacco. The Upper Eichsfeld, which lies to the ſouth, is for the moſt part mountainous, and has a cold, though wholeſome air; but as it does not produce a ſufficient quantity of corn, the inhabitants are ſupplied with what they want from Thuringia. This diviſion is, however, very populous; and there are made here great quantities of ſerge and linen.

The high ſituation of this country is the reaſon that no river enters the Eichsfeld; though ſome run out of it, as the Leina, the Lutter, which on leaving this country ſoon falls into the Weſel, the Unſtrut, the Wipper, and the Rume.

In the ſixteenth century there were many Proteſtants in the Eichsfeld; but their number has gradually decreaſed, and the prevailing religion is the Popiſh. Such of the inhabitants as devote themſelves to the ſtudy of the ſciences, are inſtructed either at Heiligenſtadt by the Jeſuits, or at Duderſtadt by the clergy; after which they viſit foreign univerſities. In the Lower Eichsfeld the Lower Saxon language is ſpoken, and in the Upper the Thuringian.

The provincial ſtates conſiſt of the prelates, with the abbeſſes of the nunneries, whoſe places are filled by the provoſts; of the nobility, and of the towns of Heiligenſtadt, Duderſtadt, Stadt-Worbis, and Treffurt. Their provincial diets are held in the open air, about four miles from Heiligenſtadt; or, when the weather is very unfavourable, in the council-houſe at Heiligenſtadt, in the preſence of an electoral envoy and two commiſſioners.

The elector governs the Eichsfeld by a lieutenant, whoſe place is ſupplied by an adminiſtrator. At Heiligenſtadt are the ſupreme temporal courts, namely, the provincial regency, which manages matters political, public, and criminal; the upper land-court, to which appeals lie from the prefecturates of the noble and clauſtral-courts, in both which the lieutenant, or his adminiſtrator, preſides; together with the electoral provincial tax-office, and the electoral foreſt-office. In this country are alſo ſix clauſtral and fifteen noble judicatories.

Heiligenſtadt, the capital of the country, is ſeated at the confluence of the Leina and the Geiſled; it is the ſeat of the lieutenancy and the ſupreme temporal judicatory, and contains in it a caſtle finely built of free-ſtone, where the regency and provincial judicatory hold their meetings; together with an electoral town-judicatory, a town-council, and a collegiate foundation dedicated to St. Martin. It has alſo a Jeſuit's college, a ſchool, and three churches. In 1739 this town was almoſt wholly deſtroyed by fire, but has been again rebuilt.

We now come to the city and territory of Erfurt. This city is ſituated in Thuringia, of which it is eſteemed the capital, though it was never owned by the circle

of Upper Saxony as a ſtate of that circle. It was founded in the beginning of the fifth century, and much diſpute has ariſen concerning the right of the elector of Mentz to that city; but thoſe electors maintain, that from antient times they have had the ſovereignty over it, and that they have granted the inhabitants all their immunities and privileges. However, in virtue of the ſtipulations between thoſe electors and the houſe of Saxony, the proteſtant doctrine and worſhip has been agreed to be maintained in the ſtate they were in when thoſe ſtipulations were made; and this has been confirmed by the elector and chapter. Hence the greateſt part of the inhabitants, both of the city of Erfurt and of the whole country, are Proteſtants.

The city of Erfurt is ſeated on the Gera, in the fiftieth degree forty-nine minutes north latitude, and in the eleventh degree fourteen minutes eaſt longitude. It is large but not ſufficiently populous, and is for the moſt part built in the old faſhioned taſte. It is fortified and defended by the citadels of Peterſburg and Cyriacburg, and has a garriſon of two battalions of imperial and electoral troops; and a number of noblemen reſide in the town, on whom ſeveral privileges have been conferred by an ordinance publiſhed in 1755. It has a large cathedral, which is a ſecular foundation, conſiſting of a provoſt, a dean, ſix canons, and ſix vicars, which was founded as a cloiſter by St. Boniface in the year 752. The whole of this large ſtructure reſts on vaults, without any pillars to ſupport the roof. The celebrated great bell in this church weighs two hundred and ſeventy-five centners, or thirty thouſand two hundred and fifty pounds. The towers of this church have been demoliſhed by fire. Here is alſo a collegiate church dedicated to St. Severus, which has ſix canons and four vicars. Here are likewiſe a college of Jeſuits, and a rich monaſtery of Benedictines, under the direction of a mitred abbot; with ſeven other cloiſters, four popiſh churches, and three chapels. The Lutherans perform their worſhip in ſix churches, and have five others which they make no uſe of. They have alſo a ſeminary in a building which was formerly an Auguſtine cloiſter. Here is likewiſe a celebrated univerſity, which has five colleges. The theological faculty is entirely Roman catholic, but the ſenior of the Lutheran clergy is profeſſor of the Augſburg confeſſion, and receives a yearly ſalary of two hundred rix-dollars from the elector. The other faculties are filled up equally with the Lutheran and popiſh profeſſors. To this univerſity belong a botanical garden, an anatomical theatre, an aſtronomical obſervatory, and a riding academy. In the year 1754 an academy of the uſeful ſciences was alſo founded at Erfurt.

The territory belonging to the city is for the moſt part fertile, and abounds with corn-fields and vineyards; but wood is ſcarce. This territory includes in it two towns and ſeventy-three villages.

SECT. IV.

Of the Electorate of TRIERS, *or* TREVES.

Its Situation, Extent, Produce, and Rivers. Of the Archbiſhop, his Election, Titles, Arms, and Power: the Offices by which the Government is adminiſtered; his Revenues and Forces; with a Deſcription of the Cities of Treves and Coblentz.

TRIERS, or Treves, is bounded on the weſt by the dutchy of Luxemburg, on the ſouth by the dutchy of Lorrain, on the eaſt by certain territories which belong to the elector Palatine in the circle of the Upper Rhine, and on the north by the archbiſhopric of Cologne; extending in length about ninety-five miles, but its breadth is very different.

The country is pretty mountainous and woody, yet contains good paſtures for cattle, and in many places fruitful arable land; but does not produce corn ſufficient for the inhabitants: however, the growth of wine on the Moſelle is very conſiderable. The country alſo abounds with game, and has mines of ſilver, tin, copper, lead, iron, calamy, and coal.

The Moſelle is the principal river of this country, where it receives the Saar and the Kyll, after which it runs through the greateſt part of the country of Triers, with ſeveral windings, particularly between the mountains, and at length, having received the Lahn, falls into the Rhine.

The people of this archbiſhopric are of the Romiſh church, and the whole of the archiepiſcopal juriſdiction is divided into five archidiaconates, to which belong twenty decanates or provincial deaneries.

The archbiſhop of Treves is elected by the chapter, and ſwears to a capitulation, which the canons of that chapter propoſe to him; and the pope confirms ſuch election in the uſual manner, impowering one of the new elected biſhops, allotted for that purpoſe, to conſecrate him.

The archiepiſcopal titles are, By the grace of God archbiſhop of Treves, of the holy Roman empire throughout Gaul and the kingdom of Arles arch-chancellor and elector, and alſo adminiſtrator of Prum.

The arms of the archbiſhop are, on account of Treves, a ſhield quartered, bearing in the upper dexter field and alſo in the lower field ſiniſter a croſs gules in a field argent; and, on account of Prum, in the upper field ſiniſter and the lower field dexter, a lamb argent, bearing a ſmall trophy, on which is depicted a croſs on a mount verte in a field gules.

This archbiſhop is in rank the ſecond ſpiritual elector. At the election of an emperor he delivers the formula of the election-oath to the elector of Mentz, to be ſworn to by him; and he has the firſt voice at the election of the emperor. As elector he enjoys both a ſeat and voice in the electoral council at the diets of the empire, and, as archbiſhop of Treves, obtains the ſecond place in the electoral Rheniſh circle. The ſuffragans of this archbiſhop are the biſhops of Metz, Tull, and Verdun.

The chapter of Treves conſiſts of forty canons, among whom are ſixteen capitulars, and twenty-four domicelli. All theſe canons muſt, at leaſt, be deſcended from antient noble families, and have it in their power to exhibit ſixteen anceſtors capable of being admitted to tournaments. The regency of this country conſiſts of a chancellor, a privy and regency counſellors. The court of reviſion conſiſts of a director, four reviſion counſellors, and one actuary: before this court proceſſes are brought from both the aulic judicatories, one of which is at Treves in the upper archbiſhopric, and the other at Coblentz; and to theſe aulic-courts appeals lie from the ſeveral courts in the towns and prefecturates.

The revenues of the elector are ſaid to amount annually to about ſeventy thouſand pounds ſterling. The taxes raiſed are agreed to at the land diets by the land ſtates. In the year 1714 theſe ſtates mutually agreed in what manner and proportion the aids to be granted yearly to the ſovereign ſhould be levied from each ſtate: namely, that there ſhould be annually paid by each married couple one Rheniſh florin; but by widowed perſons only half a florin: and that a certain ſum ſhould be annually paid by perſons of every occupation; as for inſtance, by haberdaſhers, manufacturers, innkeepers, &c.

The archbiſhop has regular forces and a militia: the former generally conſiſt of the circle troops, which the elector of Treves is bound to maintain, and which amount to between eleven and twelve hundred men. The elector has alſo a life-guard of forty perſons.

The principal places in this electorate are the following:

Treves, or Triers, the capital of the upper archbiſhopric, is ſeated between two mountains on the river Moſelle, over which it has a coſtly ſtone bridge. This city is ſituated in the forty-ninth degree fifty-eight minutes north latitude, and in the ſixth degree ten minutes eaſt longitude, and is ſo antient, that it was inhabited by the Treveri long before the birth of Chriſt. The antient Roman emperors afterwards reſided here; and in the days of Conſtantine the Great, it was the capital of all Gaul. Here are ſome remains of an antient Roman theatre. The archiepiſcopal court or palace was rebuilt by the elector Francis George, and ſtands near the cathedral

thedral church of St. Peter, which is ſeated on a hill, and is a large building. There are alſo three collegiate and five pariſh churches, with three colleges of Jeſuits, and thirteen monaſteries and nunneries; a houſe of the Teutonic order, and a manſion belonging to the order of St. John. Here is alſo an univerſity.

Coblentz, in Latin Confluentia, the capital of the lower archbiſhopric, is ſeated near the influx of the Moſelle into the Rhine, in latitude fifty-ſix degrees thirty-nine minutes, and in longitude ſeven degrees twenty-three minutes. Here was a citadel in the time of the Romans, and the kings of the Franks kept their court here. The Rhine on the one ſide, and the Moſelle on the other, render the ſpot on which the city ſtands a ſort of peninſula, and ſerve it for ditches. Over the latter is a ſtone-bridge of fourteen arches; but it is ſo narrow, that two coaches can hardly go a-breaſt. At its extremities are double gates, towers, and port-culliſes, with ſome pieces of cannon to command the paſſage. The fortifications of the city conſiſt of ſtrong baſtions, provided with cavaliers, ravelins, half-moons, large and deep ditches, a good counterſcarp and covered way, all well paved, paliſadoed, and mounted with braſs guns. The Moſelle is very rapid, as well as the Rhine, and when the two rivers meet, you may eaſily diſtinguiſh the water of the one from the other; that of the Rhine being yellowiſh, and the Moſelle ſo clear, that you may diſtinctly ſee the bottom; but what is ſurpriſing is, that they have ſuch ſcarcity of fiſh in this place, that there is hardly enough for the elector's table on faſt days.

Beſides the principal church, here are two collegiate churches, an epiſcopal ſeminary, a college of Jeſuits, and a ſeminary, with ſeven monaſteries and nunneries.

The citadel, which is named Ehrenbreitſtein, is an important fortreſs, ſeated on a mountain oppoſite to Coblentz; the aſcent to which is pretty difficult, it being by a winding road cut out of the rock. There are three gates to be paſſed before you can enter the citadel, and upon the outermoſt is a ſtatue of braſs repreſenting the Virgin Mary with the infant Jeſus in her arms, and holding a lily in her hand: this figure is about fifteen feet high. On paſſing through this gate, you come to a ſquare, on one ſide of which is the governor's houſe, and the magazines and barracks occupy the three others. Here among other curioſities is a cannon of a prodigious magnitude, it being eighteen feet and a half long, its bore a foot and a half in diameter, and its breech three feet four inches: it carries a ball of one hundred and eighty pounds weight, and conſequently its charge is ninety-four pounds of powder. From this ſquare you proceed to another, in which is a fine fountain. In the middle of a large ſtone baſon ſtands a marble pillar upon a braſs pedeſtal, adorned with the elector's arms, and ſurrounded with four dolphins of the ſame metal. On the top of this column is a ſtatue of the Virgin Mary bruiſing the ſerpent, which is alſo of braſs, about twelve feet in height. The well of this fortreſs is ſaid to be five hundred and fifty feet deep, and to have coſt great ſums, they being obliged to dig it out of the ſolid rock.

The fortifications of this citadel are good; but irregular, from the inequality of the rocks on which they are built, and indeed it may be eſteemed impregnable; for in it is all that art can add to nature. The gate is covered by a vaſt horn-work, with a ditch before it, beyond which is a large half moon. There is no advanced work, or ſally port, but what is flanked. On the ſide toward the river, there are lines of communication to the right and left, worked through the ſteepeſt parts of the mountain; and where the ſituation would admit of it, they have built well-faced redoubts, which render the acceſs to it very difficult. The fort below is on a ſtraight line, and conſiſts of three baſtions, with their curtains commanding the river.

From this citadel is the moſt delightful proſpect in all Germany. Firſt, one ſees at the foot of the mountain the elector's palace, which ſtands on the brink of the Rhine, this river and the Moſelle, with the whole city of Coblentz from one end to the other built upon a neck of land at the confluence of theſe two rivers. You ſee in the middle of the Rhine two little iſlands, one about half a league above the town, ſhaped like a heart, about a quarter of a league long, and in it is a very fine convent of Benedictines: the other, about a league below the town, is twice as long as the former, and upon it ſtands a pretty conſiderable village, and a convent of Bernardines: the chartreuſe, ſeated on a riſing ground, adds greatly to the beauty of the proſpect; and the farther part of the landſcape preſents a pleaſing variety of little hills, vineyards, plains, valleys, villages, caſtles, convents, and pleaſure-houſes. In ſhort, this fortreſs commands all the adjacent country, and is juſtly reckoned one of the ſtrongeſt places in Germany, and called the key of the Rhine and Moſelle.

The apartments of the elector's palace are not very large; but they are adorned with beautiful tapeſtries. There is, however, a hall above one hundred feet in length, on the ceiling of which are painted in ſeveral compartments, ſeveral events in the hiſtory of Marcus Aurelius and Ælius Verus. It is alſo adorned with many good portraits: among others are thoſe of the emperor Leopold, and Charles VI. with Frederic the Great, elector of Brandenburg. Among the principal tapeſtry hangings, are the hiſtory of Joſeph and his brethren, in twelve pieces: that of Beliſarius, in eight pieces; but the fineſt of all repreſents the ſtory of Meleager and Atalanta, in ſix large pieces. His highneſs's chamber is hung with red damaſk, the bed and arm-chairs are of the ſame, and the whole adorned with gold fringe.

The chapel is ſmall, but very elegant, and beautified with paintings in ſeparate compartments, repreſenting the moſt remarkable paſſages in our Saviour's life, ſome of them by Baptiſta, an Italian maſter, and the reſt by Hector, a famous German painter. The ceiling is adorned with gilt ſculptures.

The garden is of no great extent, there being but little earth between the rock and the Rhine; it is, however, embelliſhed with ſtatues, fountains, and a fine orangery. A large harbour which extends along the river, is one of its moſt conſiderable ornaments, it being above three hundred feet in length; and from the openings of this bower you ſee the Rhine, the Moſelle, the town of Coblentz, the bridge acroſs the Moſelle, the chartreuſe, and a very fine country to the diſtance of three or four leagues.

The chartreuſe is delightfully ſituated, about the diſtance of three quarters of a league from the town: in the way to it you continually meet with chapels in the manner of oratories, adorned with ſtatues repreſenting the principal actions of Jeſus Chriſt from his birth to his reſurrection.

SECT. V.

Of the Electorate of COLOGNE.

Its Situation, Extent, and Produce. The Prerogatives, Titles, Arms, Revenues, and Forces of the Elector; with a particular Deſcription of the Imperial City of Cologne, and the other remakable Places in that Electorate.

COLOGNE, the laſt of the three ſpiritual electorates we have to mention, extends along the weſtern bank of the Rhine, between the dutchy of Cleves on the north, the electorate of Treves on the ſouth, the dutchy of Juliers and the Netherlands on the weſt, and the dutchy of Berg, from which it is ſeparated by the Rhine, on the eaſt, extending above ninety miles in length, but hardly any where above ſeven or eight in breadth. The archiepiſcopal countries, however, do not lie together; but many of them are ſeparated by other countries. The longeſt connected part is that juſt mentioned; but another portion of it lies chiefly between the dutchy of Juliers and the archbiſhopric of Treves; and another is in Weſtphalia, and terminates to the eaſt on the biſhopric of Paderborn, Waldec, and Heſſe; to the ſouth on the counties of Witgenſtein and Naſſau, and on the dutchy of Berg; to the weſt on the ſame, and the county of Mark; to the north on the biſhopric of Munſter and the county of Lippe; extending from north to ſouth forty-ſeven miles, and from eaſt to weſt thirty-eight.

The

The countries ſubject to the archbiſhopric are of a very different nature and goodneſs: one part of them is very mountainous and woody, another ſandy, and another fruitful. The woody tracts afford much game, the country ſituated on the Rhine abounds with vineyards, and the rivers with fiſh.

In this archbiſhopric none but thoſe of the Romiſh church enjoy the public exerciſe of their religion; but, notwithſtanding this, there are many Proteſtants in it.

This country was a biſhopric in the year 314, and was made an archbiſhopric in the eighth century. The archbiſhops early obtained the honour of the *pallium*, and that of bearing the croſs, and in the tenth century they were deemed equal to the archbiſhops of Mentz and Triers, and they ſtill bear the title of arch-chancellor throughout all Italy, though they have no opportunity of exerciſing their office. Beſides the prerogatives which this prelate enjoys in common with all the other electors, he is poſſeſſed of ſome peculiar to himſelf. Thus, at the election of the king of the Romans, and of the emperor, he has the next voice after the elector of Treves; and ſits at public aſſemblies, when held within his eccleſiaſtical juriſdiction, or out of it in Italy and Gaul, at the emperor's right hand; and both he and the elector of Treves, ſhare the honour of precedence alternately.

The conſtant title of the elector of Cologne runs thus, By the grace of God, archbiſhop of Cologne, and arch-chancellor of the holy Roman empire throughout all Italy, as alſo elector and *legatus natus* of the holy apoſtolic ſee, duke of Engern and Weſtphalia, &c.

His arms on account of the archbiſhopric of Cologne are, a croſs ſable in a field argent; for the dutchy of Weſtphalia, a white horſe ſaliant in a field gules; for the dutchy of Engern three hearts or, in a field gules; and for the county of Arenſberg, an eagle argent in a field azure.

The chapter has its reſidence at the archiepiſcopal cathedral in the imperial city of Cologne, and conſiſts of twenty-five canories, and a number of domicelli.

The elector of Cologne has the following offices, the privy-conference, the aulic council, or regency-college, and the aulic judicatory.

The electoral revenues ariſing from the archiepiſcopal countries, according to Mr. Buſching, are not very conſiderable; but others ſay, that in time of peace thoſe of Cologne amount to one hundred and thirty thouſand pounds ſterling per annum, and that of his other territories to nearly as much more; but he cannot commence a war without the conſent of the chapter, who may convene the ſtates in order to oppoſe him. The elector maintains a life-guard of halberdiers and yeomen, together with a regiment of foot guards.

The land-ſtates here conſiſt of the prelates, nobility, and towns; and the land-diets in the proper archbiſhopric are uſually held at Bonne.

In the archiepiſcopal countries are fifty-two towns and above ſeventeen boroughs, the principal places in which are the following:

Bonne, a ſmall, but well inhabited city, in which the elector reſides, is ſituated on the weſt ſide of the Rhine, in the fiftieth degree thirty-five minutes north latitude, and in the ſeventh degree five minutes eaſt longitude, twelve miles to the ſouthward of Cologne. It ſtands in a fruitful country that produces good wine, and the woods with a ridge of mountains abound with game. The fine palace in this city was begun in the year 1718. Beſides the principal church, which is a ſtately building, there is a collegiate and pariſh church. The Jeſuits have likewiſe a college, and ſeveral orders have their convents. In the years 1673, 1689, and 1703, this city was beſieged and taken by the Imperialiſts and their allies: in the laſt mentioned year it was taken by the duke of Marlborough, and upon its reſtitution by the treaty of Utrecht, its fortifications were to be demoliſhed.

The imperial city of Cologne, by the Germans called Keulen, in Latin Colonia Agrippina, is one of the oldeſt and largeſt cities of Germany, and is ſeated on the Rhine, in the fiftieth degree fifty minutes north latitude, and in the ſixth degree forty-five minutes eaſt longitude. It was originally built by the Ubii, who were taken into the protection of the Romans, and removed to the weſt of the Rhine, where they founded a town, to which, by order of the empreſs Agrippina, conſort to Claudius, who was born there, a Roman colony was ſent; whence aroſe the name of Colonia Agrippina, from the firſt word of which the appellation of Cologne received its origin. It was the chief town of Germania Secunda, and continued under the power of the Romans till the Franks put an end to their dominion in the fifth century. At preſent it is the reſidence of the chapter of the archbiſhopric of Cologne, as alſo of a pope's nuncio.

This city affords a very agreeable proſpect at a diſtance, and being ſituated in a plain and level country, the vaſt number of its ſteeples make a fine appearance. It is built in the form of a half moon, and has one ſtrong wall on the ſide next the Rhine, with out-works, half-moons, and ravelins; the walls of the city have alſo eighty-three towers, and three deep ditches round them; they are planted with rows of fine trees, and the roofs of the houſes are ſlated. A flying bridge extends over the Rhine to the town of Duits, which is on the oppoſite ſide of the river. This flying bridge, as it is called, is well contrived; it is built on large flat boats, ſo well belayed with ropes and iron chains, that it is impoſſible they can be looſened, and there are five or ſix boats of a ſmaller ſize, that lie at anchor in a ſtraight line, in the middle of the river, at equal diſtances from each other, and two muſket-ſhot above the bridge. To theſe boats are faſtened two ſtrong cables, the ends of which paſs through pullies fixed at the top of poſts within the bridge, and make it when looſened tack and veer merely by the current of the water, without any need of rowing, or any other working, except ſteering. It is ſaid that the continual paſſage by this bridge brings into the chapter of the cathedral a revenue of above ten thouſand crowns a year.

Among the buildings of this city, the cathedral of St. Peter deſerves particular notice, and it would be very magnificent were it quite finiſhed; for a part of it is extremely fine. The ſteeple is two hundred and fifty feet high, and affords a fine view of the city. The choir is ſaid to be the higheſt in Germany, and the chancel is ſupported by four rows of large pillars. Upon the principal altar in the choir, lies in a ſilver coffin the corpſe of St. Englebert, archbiſhop of Cologne, who ſuffered martyrdom under Diocleſian and Maximian. His ſtatue of white marble, in his pontificals, lies upon a table of black marble, leaning his head upon his hand, and at his feet ſtand two angels of white marble, the one holding a crown, the other a branch of palm gilt. There are ſeveral other antient tombs; but the moſt celebrated of them all are thoſe of the three kings, or eaſtern magi, who came to offer preſents to the infant Jeſus; for it is pretended that their remains were removed hither from Milan in the year 1162, when Frederic Barbaroſſa laid waſte that city. Theſe bodies are depoſited in a large purple ſhrine ſpotted with gold, upon a pedeſtal of braſs, in the midſt of a ſquare mauſoleum of marble. This mauſoleum is in a ſmall chapel behind the choir, and the ſhrine is opened every morning at nine o'clock, when theſe kings are ſhewn lying at full length; but two of the canons muſt always be preſent. They here report abundance of miracles wrought by them, and among the reſt, that there being a great drought in Hungary, many people came from thence to implore the aſſiſtance of theſe three magi, who are ſaid to have promiſed them rain, which falling ſoon after in great plenty, a body of the Hungarians, in remembrance of this miracle, come every ſeven years in pilgrimage to Cologne, where they are entertained by the magiſtrates for a fortnight in a handſome houſe built for that purpoſe. The heads of theſe pretended kings have each a crown of gold adorned with precious ſtones of various kinds, and their names Gaſpar, Melchior, and Balthazar, are in purple characters upon a little grate before the ſhrine; which is immenſely rich, it being adorned with an infinite number of large and valuable pearls, beſides other precious ſtones of all colours, among which is an oriental topaz, as big as a pigeon's egg. A little above the ſhrine hang two large golden cups, and

a man on horſeback of the ſame metal, votive pieces offered to the three kings. Oppoſite to them are ſix large ſilver branches, with tapers of virgin wax, which burn day and night. Under a vermillion grate before the ſhrine are two Latin verſes cut on marble, that "here "three bodies of the magi lie entire, and no part of them "any where elſe." At the top of the front of the mauſoleum the hiſtory of their adoration is repreſented in baſſo relievo upon white marble; over the ſculpture is a large ſtar gilt, and in another part of the mauſoleum are ſix Latin lines, alluding to their three offerings, and the three devotional uſes to be made of them; namely tears, a pure heart, and prayers offered to Chriſt from an humble ſoul. Upon the back of the mauſoleum is repreſented in baſſo relievo, upon white marble, the hiſtory of the tranſlation of the three magi from Milan to Cologne, with the proceſſion made on that occaſion.

In the church of St. Urſula are ſhewn the tombs of the eleven thouſand virgins maſſacred by the Huns at Cologne. This idle ſtory has been fully refuted by archbiſhop Uſher, and even by learned men of the church of Rome, who all agree, that it is founded on a miſtake with relation to the antient manner of ſetting down the names and titles of the ſaints. The above learned proteſtant divine ſuppoſes that St. Urſula's companion was named Undecimilla, and that her name was miſtaken for Undecim millia, or eleven thouſand, a conjecture which is ſupported by an antient Miſſal in the Sorbonne, where the feaſt of St. Urſula, patroneſs of the Sorbonne, is thus expreſſed, *Feſtum S. S. Urſula Undecimillæ & ſociarum Virginum & Martyrum.*

But to return, it is pretended that the earth is here rendered ſo holy by theſe virgins, that it will not receive any other corpſe; as a confirmation of which they ſhew the tomb of the daughter of a certain duke of Brabant, who, on their going to bury her, they ſay, raiſed herſelf up, and remained ſuſpended in the air; this obliged them to put her into this tomb, which is fixed upon iron ſupporters two or three feet from the ground, againſt one of the pillars of the church. In a large chapel on one ſide of the ſame church are to be ſeen the bones of thoſe eleven thouſand legendary ſaints; the walls are adorned with rows of buſts gilt, in which they pretend the heads of many of theſe virgins are preſerved; and ſome of them have caſes of cloth of gold, velvets, and rich ſilks. Beſides, their bones are hung up in as decent a manner as the ſwords and piſtols are ranged in an armoury; and among theſe ſome appear to have belonged to children five or ſix years old: but a celebrated phyſician of this place was treated as a heretic for ſaying there were among them two or three bones of large maſtiff-dogs, and boaſting he could inconteſtibly prove it; for which he was condemned to pay a conſiderable fine, and baniſhed the dioceſe of Cologne. The church is full of the tombs erected for theſe virgins: that of St. Urſula is of black and white marble, about two palms long and ſix in breadth; her ſtatue of white marble lies at full length crowned with a garland of flowers, and at her feet is a dove. The revenue of this church, which muſt be very conſiderable from the offerings made by pilgrims, and other devout perſons, belongs entirely to an abbeſs and ſix canoneſſes, who, to do honour to St. Urſula, muſt be all counteſſes.

The collegiate church of St. Gerion has ten canons, and a great number of chaplains, all of whom enjoy a very handſome revenue. The choir of this church is covered with tapeſtry, and with nine hundred heads of Mooriſh cavaliers, the companions of Gregory, an Ethiopian prince. Theſe were all Chriſtians, and going to the emperor Conſtantine's army, when they were taken and ſlain. They are ranged in little niches, between every two of which is a gilt foliage of carved work; and a cap of ſcarlet, adorned with pearls, upon every head. In a corner of this church is ſhewn one of the pillars of the ſcaffold on which all theſe holy martyrs were beheaded; and this pillar of a ſcaffold is of fine jaſper ſpotted with blood, and about a foot in diameter.

The church belonging to the Jeſuits-college is a very lofty and elegant building, and againſt the pillars which ſupport the ceiling are ſtatues of the twelve apoſtles, and of many other ſaints, as large as the life. The pulpit deſerves attention on account of the ſculptures with which it is adorned. Before the principal altar hangs a ſilver lamp of exquiſite workmanſhip, ſix feet in height: the figures of Chriſt, with the five wiſe and five fooliſh virgins in the parable, are repreſented in relievo with great delicacy. This church has few good pictures; but its wealth is immenſe; one altar is upon occaſion entirely covered with a kind of embroidery with gold wire and pearls; another is enriched with a vaſt number of rubies, ſome of them very large; another is of maſſy ſilver, and contains in baſſo relievo the hiſtory of the aſſumption of the holy Virgin, with St. Ignatius upon one ſide, and St. Francis Xavier on the other. There is alſo one of maſſy ſilver, with a border of gold embelliſhed with pearls; another of gold brocade, with pearls and emeralds, among which are many of great value; another of crimſon embroidered with gold, and decorated with carved figures of Jeſus Chriſt, St. Joſeph, the Virgin, Ignatius, and Xavier. The laſt is of exquiſite workmanſhip, and of a very extraordinary magnitude; theſe ornaments being only uſed to adorn the great altar on certain ſolemn feſtivals, and are therefore kept in the veſtry, where is an innumerable quantity of branches, candleſticks, luſtres, buſts, vaſes, as well as rich chalices, pattens, cups, plates, and other utenſils for maſs; and all the latter are of gold enriched with precious ſtones.

The refectory belonging to this college is very large and well wainſcotted, the ceiling is adorned with ſculpture, and is hung all round with pictures repreſenting the principal events of our Saviour's life.

The church of the Maccabees has on the outſide of the gate a picture repreſenting Salomone, the mother of thoſe martyrs, trampling Antiochus Epiphanes under her feet. She holds her ſeven ſons crowned with laurel under her gown, four on one ſide and three on the other. Their hiſtory is painted on the wall in the corner of the church, in eight different pieces. The heads of the Maccabees are kept in the tabernacle of the principal altar, which is of purple embroidered with gold; and each of theſe heads has a crown richly adorned with pearls, rubies, and emeralds. They likewiſe ſhew here the pretended head of St. Joachim, the father of the Virgin Mary, and that of St. Anne her mother, with numberleſs other relics. The hiſtory of the martyrdom of the eleven thouſand virgins is alſo painted on ſeveral parts of the walls, and near the church is a well into which they pretend their blood was poured. The Benedictines, to whom this church belongs, pretend, contrary to a tradition among the Urſulines, that the princeſs Urſula was maſſacred on the ſpot where the principal altar ſtands.

The church of St. Pantaleon is adorned with pictures of the hiſtory of that ſaint, who was a phyſician in Nicomedia, and is repreſented in eighteen pieces. The emperor Galerius Armentarius ordered him to be put to a variety of torments, on account of his adherence to his religion. In the tenth piece he is plunged into a cauldron of melted lead, which one would have thought would have burnt him to the very bone; but the legend ſays he came out unhurt. In the two laſt paintings he is precipitated from a high rock into the ſea, with a mill-ſtone tied about his neck; but he does not ſink. After all this they were obliged to cut off his head, which was no ſooner done than they pretend there ſprung out two fountains, the one of blood and the other of milk. They alſo ſhew here a gold box, which they ſay contains the aſhes of St. Pantaleon, his body having been burnt at Nicomedia. In this church is alſo the hiſtory of St. Alban, in twelve capital paintings; and behind the great altar they pretend to ſhew his bones depoſited in a fine ſilver ſhrine.

The entrance of the church of the Apoſtles is particularly remarkable for the ſtory it repreſents, which is that of a burgomaſter's wife of this city, who being buried here in 1571, with a valuable ring on her finger, the ſexton, reſolving to ſteal the ring, paid a viſit to the grave; but was ſo extremely frightened when he found the ſuppoſed deceaſed lady graſp him by the hand, that he made a precipitate retreat. The lady, however, roſe from her tomb, and returning home, knocked at the door, and calling to a ſervant, told him the whole adventure; but the fellow, taking her for a ghoſt, ran in a great fright to his

his master, and informed him of what had happened; when the gentleman immediately cried, that he would as soon believe his horses were in the garret. These words were no sooner uttered, but a great noise being heard in the garret, the servant ran up, and to his great amazement found six coach-horses there. By this time the lady had made a shift to get in, and by the care of her servants was soon so well recovered, that there was no great appearance of her returning to the grave for that time, and the next day the horses were let down out of the garret by certain machines prepared for that purpose. Absurd as this story is, it is here firmly believed, and to this day there are shewn in the same garret several wooden horses, said to be covered with the skins of those that were seen there; and in the church of the twelve Apostles is a large piece of linen cloth spun by the lady after her being released from the grave, which she survived seven years. We find some authentic testimonies of the truth of this memorable story; but in these no notice is taken of the horses, as being an evident, and very ridiculous fiction, invented to heighten the wonder.

The town-house is a vast Gothic structure, which those who shew it say was built after the model of the antient capitol at Rome. In the front is a basso relievo representing a man fighting a lion; and in the great hall are five pictures, with several Latin inscriptions in verse on each, to perpetuate the memory of the celebrated battle of Hochstet, gained by the bravery and conduct of the duke of Marlborough and prince Eugene over the French and Bavarians; with elogiums both on queen Anne, those generals, and the English and Dutch. The entrance of the chamber where the city-council meet is a vestibule of inlaid work, after the antique taste, and on each side is a Latin distich, advising the counsellors to leave all partiality behind them, and declare their judgment freely, and, at their going out, to observe fidelity in execution, and a prudent taciturnity. Upon the inside of the chamber-door are six verses, intimating the duties which belong to the office of a ruler. In this apartment is a picture of the last judgment, sixteen feet in breadth, and eight in height. On the chimney-piece is a very fine crucifixion by Van Dyke; on one side of it is the portrait of the emperor Leopold, and on the other that of the empress his consort. In this structure are several rooms, in which are deposited a vast number of bows, arrows, cross-bows, bucklers, and other antique arms. One of these cross-bows is of whalebone, and is said to be twelve feet long, eight inches broad, and four inches thick. From the tower of this building is a very fine prospect of the whole city and the adjacent country.

In short, there are in this city ten collegiate and nineteen parish churches, with four abbeys, seventeen monasteries, thirty-nine nunneries, sixteen hospitals, and about fifty chapels. The numerous protestants who dwell in the city resort to Mulheim, where they publicly perform their religious worship. The Jews live chiefly at Duits, a mean borough entirely dependent on the elector; its houses are of wood plaistered with white clay, and its few streets extremely filthy and ill paved. In the town, says our author, one sees more swine than men, three fourths and upwards of the inhabitants being Jews, who, for the sake of profit, fatten whole herds of those animals, which their law forbids them to eat, in order to sell them at a high price to the Christians. The Jews are indeed not permitted to lie one night at Cologne, nor so much as to enter the city about their affairs, without paying a gold florin for every hour they stay, and being escorted by one of the town guards, whom they are obliged to pay for his trouble. This is done as a punishment, their ancestors having, it is said, intended to kill the inhabitants by poisoning the wells and fountains. This, however, serves for a pretence, which the magistrates probably make use of to prevent the Jews undermining them in their trade.

Cologne is one of the Hanse towns, and pretends to have preserved its liberty without interruption for many centuries; but the calamities of war have often occasioned great disorders in its government and commerce. The Dutch make use of it as a magazine for their trade upon the Rhine, and this has engaged that state to defend Cologne on all occasions against the pretensions of the elector. Cologne is governed by the chapter and magistrates, the latter consisting of two burgomasters and forty-nine counsellors. The elector has also some power, and nominates a magistrate who is judge in criminal causes; and the city swears allegiance and homage to the new elector, so long as he continues to protect them in their just rights and privileges, and confirms their immunities. As a free imperial city, it has a seat and voice at the diets of the circle of Westphalia, and at those of the empire in the college of the imperial cities, and enjoys the first place on the Rhenish bench. Cologne maintains four companies of soldiers, but in time of war the emperor, or an ally, usually places a garrison in the city.

Near Rense, a small town seated on the Rhine, is to be seen a remarkable piece of antiquity, called the Konigstuhl, or Regal throne, consisting of a round vault built of free-stone, resting upon nine stone pillars, one of which stands in the middle. This vault is eight German ells and a quarter high, above forty in compass, twelve and a quarter in diameter, and furnished with seven seats, agreeable to the antient number of electors. The ascent to it is by twenty-eight stone steps, and it has two strong doors. In this place the electors formerly held previous consultations on the election of a king and emperor, and whenever the election, on account of any impediments, could not be performed at Franckfort, it was done here; the electors here also consulted on the weighty affairs of the empire, and here the emperors confirmed their privileges. At this place was established the electoral league concluded in 1338. It was particularly chosen by the electors, because the four electors of the Rhine have places belonging to each of them lying near it; the elector of Cologne being possessed of Rense, the elector of Mentz of Upper Lahnstein, the elector of Treves of Capelle, and the elector Palatine of Brauhach.

SECT. VI.

Of the PALATINATE OF THE RHINE.

Its Situation, Extent, Produce, and Rivers. The Revolutions the Palatinate has undergone with respect to Religion. The Titles and Arms of the Elector; the public Offices of the Government, with the Elector's Revenues and Forces, and a Description of the Cities of Manheim and Heidelberg.

THE country of the elector Palatine, also called the Palatinate of the Rhine, and the Lower Palatinate, to distinguish it from the Upper Palatinate, in the circle of Bavaria, is bounded on the east by the archbishopric of Mentz, the bishopric of Worms, and a part of the territory of the Teutonic order in Franconia; to the south by the dutchy of Wurtemberg and the bishopric of Spire; on the west by Alsace, the dutchy of Deuxponts, and certain districts belonging to the elector of Mentz; and on the north by a part of that archbishopric and Triers; extending about a hundred miles in length, and seventy in breadth.

This country is indeed partly mountainous, but yet uncommonly fertile, producing in abundance all sorts of corn, pulse, fruit, chesnuts, and walnuts; with fine pastures, and a good breed of cattle; together with plantations of tobacco, and vineyards which produce Neckar and Rhenish wine. The Bergstrasse is an agreeable highway between Heidelberg and Darmstadt, which is planted with walnut-trees, and on both sides has fruitful fields and meadows, intermixed with hills and mountains, which on the right side of the road, in travelling from Heidelberg to Darmstadt, extends to a considerable length, and are covered on their summits with woods; but towards the plain with vineyards. The numerous walnut-trees on the Bergstrasse and the Odenwalde, as well on account of their fruit as wood, are of great advantage to the country. On all parts of the Bergstrasse grow almonds in great plenty, and in the vineyards are chesnut-trees.

With respect to the rivers of this country, the Rhine runs partly through its borders, and partly through its center. Near Germersheim and Selz, out of the sands

of

of this river is washed the best Rhenish gold, to which the Rhenish gold florins owe their original. The gold thus washed is looked upon by the elector as a royalty, and accordingly farmed out by him. There are several rivers which here fall into the Rhine, particularly the Neckar and the Nahe. These rivers, as well as the smaller ones, abound in fish.

The state of religion has been here subject to alterations unheard of in other nations. The people were prepared for the reformation when, in the year 1518, Luther held his disputation with much approbation in an assembly of Augustine monks at Hiedelberg, and the pacific measures of the elector Lewis contributed to promote it. The reformation was carried on by his brother and successor Frederic II. but under Frederic III. some French and Swiss divines coming into the palatinate, a warm dispute arose between the Protestants concerning the Lord's Supper, which gave occasion to the electors joining the Calvinists in 1560, and he was the first German prince who introduced the religion of Calvin into his country. But, notwithstanding the zeal he shewed for the doctrine of the Calvinists, Lewis VI. his son and successor, with equal zeal brought in again Lutheranism, dismissed the Calvinist preachers, and appointed Lutherans in their stead. After his death John Casimir, guardian to his son Frederic IV. reversed all he had done, and with such zeal introduced the Calvinist doctrines, that only a few churches remained to the Lutherans; and in the following reigns Calvinism still more prevailed: the popish doctrines and worship were afterwards introduced in several places, and the Protestants oppressed by the Bavarian troops, till affairs were settled by the peace of Westphalia. At length the Calvinist line of princes becoming extinct, and the succession falling to the Roman catholic line of Neuburg, the popish doctrines and worship were gradually more and more introduced, and the Protestants deprived of the power they had hitherto enjoyed. The French afterwards ravaged the Palatinate, and oppressed the Protestants.

In the year 1705 the elector John William tolerated the three religions, and declared that they should enjoy full liberty of conscience; and, in particular, that the Calvinists and the Lutherans should be permitted the public and private exercise of their religion, together with the spiritual jurisdiction. To the Lutherans were confirmed their peculiar consistory, erected in 1698, independent of the Calvinist church-council. To their use alone were left all the churches, which belonged to them in the year 1624, as also those which since that time had been built or should be built by them for the future; and that they should likewise have whatever they could prove belonged to them in spiritualities, schools, rents, and incomes in 1624. To the Calvinists all churches and schools were confirmed in the manner they enjoyed them in 1685; except only that in the towns where they had two or more churches, and the Roman catholics none, they were to give up one of them to the latter: in such towns where there was only one church they were to give up to them the choir, and two out of every seven country churches, and also two-sevenths out of their revenues. The estates and incomes arising from the suppressed foundations, provostships, cloisters, &c. were to be administered by a spiritual administration, consisting of two popish and the like number of Calvinist counsellors, with other necessary officers. Something certain was also settled with respect to the popish holidays, mixed marriages, and other affairs which till then had been subjects of dispute. But, notwithstanding this agreement, and the small number of the Papists, alterations have been continually made, and the grievances of the Protestants greatly increased. To the disgrace of the Reformation the two Protestant churches have themselves been for a long time the zealous enemies of each other, to their mutual detriment, and the no less advantage of the Roman catholics. The Lutherans, according to their own computation, amount to about fifty thousand, and are possessed of eighty-five parishes; but one-half of their preachers and school-masters still want a competant maintenance. The number of Calvinist clergy is estimated at five hundred, and those of the Roman catholic at four hundred.

The titles of the elector are as follow: Palsgrave of the Rhine; arch-treasurer and elector of the holy Roman empire; duke in Bavaria, Juliers, Cleves, and the Berg; prince of Mors; marquis of Bergen-op-Zoom; count of Veldens, Sponheim, the Mark, and Ravensberg; and lord of Ravenstein.

The arms on account of the Palatinate on the Rhine are, a lion or, in a field sable: on account of Bavaria, lozenges or fusils: on account of Juliers, a lion sable, in a field or: on account of Cleves, eight regal sceptres conjoined in one small shield, in a field purple: on account of Berg, a lion gules, crowned verte, in a field argent: on account of Mors, a fesse sable, in a field or: on account of Bergen-op-Zoom, a shield damaskeened: on account of Veldenz, a lion verte, in a field argent: on account of the Mark, a fesse consisting of three checquers gules and argent, in a field or: on account of Ravensberg, three chevrons gules in a field argent; and on account of Ravenstein, a red deer's attire in a field argent.

The elector has an order of knighthood of St. Hubert, first founded in the fifteenth century; but revived by the elector John William in 1709. The badge of this order, is a quadrangular cross worn pendant at a red ribbon, and on the breast a star. The elector is supreme master of this order, and the knights consist of princes, counts, and barons.

The high colleges here are the privy state-conference, and the privy-chancery, the regency, the upper court of appeals, the aulic-jurisdiction, the aulic-chamber, and the war-council.

The annual revenues of the elector arising from the countries of the electoral and Upper Rhenish circle are estimated at nine hundred thousand guldens, exclusive of the large sums received from the administration of the spiritualities. The revenues of the dutchies of Juliers and Berg, together with those of the signiory of Ravenstein, also amount annually to about the same sum, to which is to be added the revenue arising from the dutchies of Neuburg and Sultzbach.

The elector maintains two regiments of horse-guards, and another of Swiss, with a body of horse and foot, amounting in the whole to about six thousand men.

The Palatinate contains forty-one towns, and several boroughs, the principal places in which are,

Manheim, the electoral residence, and the second town in the electorate, is a strong fortress seated in a low plain near the influx of the Neckar into the Rhine, in the forty-ninth degree thirty-six minutes north latitude, and in the seventh degree thirty-two minutes east longitude. In the year 1606, the elector Frederic IV. began to convert the old village and citadel of Manheim into a town, receiving into it some of the inhabitants of the Netherlands who had quitted their country, in order to enjoy liberty of conscience. And though it was dreadfully laid waste in 1622, when besieged and taken by the Bavarians, and in 1688, entirely demolished by the French, yet the electors John William and Charles Philip caused it to be rebuilt and fortified in such a manner, that it is now become one of the finest towns in Germany, and a place of great strength; but requires ten thousand men to defend it.

It has three fine gates, of which that of the Neckar is the most magnificent, and best adorned, it having basso relievos very beautifully executed. This gate opens into a long and spacious street, at the end of which is the elector's palace. The streets here intersect each other at right angles; so that at each corner the spectator has a view of four streets. Before the palace is a large square, in which is a considerable number of lodging-rooms, with a great and high pavilion in the middle, and two advanced wings, with ample pavilions at the ends, where two other very extensive wings rise on both sides, which are also terminated by pavilions, behind which are other lodging-rooms; and before the palace is an equestrian statue of metal, of the elector John William.

Within the palace are two great courts separated by an open gallery, very much adorned with architecture. The apartments are beautified with noble cielings and floors, and have the finest prospect imaginable to Spires,

Frankendahl, Worms, and over all the country, as far as the mountains of Alſace. The collection of paintings in this palace is very grand, and, in what is called the treaſury, is a conſiderable number of antiquities relative to the Palatine-houſe, and among others the golden crown of Frederic the unhappy elector and king of Bohemia.

In the great market is the popiſh church, and the council-houſe, between which ſtands a tower, that is a great ornament to this ſquare, as is alſo a fine fountain, which has four pillars, on which ſtands a lion. The Lutherans and Calviniſts have alſo each a church, and the Jeſuits a fine college, with a very beautiful church. There are here alſo a Capuchin and a Carmelite convent, and alſo a Jewiſh ſynagogue. The Jews indeed are very numerous, and two thirds of the houſes are ſaid to be theirs, either from their building them, or on account of mortgages; for ſome of them are very rich, and drive a great trade with thoſe of their own nation at Mentz, Francfort, and Amſterdam.

The people of both ſexes are here of a very amiable character, being extremely ſocial and civil to ſtrangers. The nobility here maintain a company of French comedians, who act in a very ſmall theatre; but both the townſmen and foreigners pay for admittance. Mainheim has ſome manufactures, and carries on a conſiderable trade.

Heidelberg, the principal town of the electorate, is ſeated in a pleaſant ſpot on the river of the Geiſberg near the Neckar, in the forty-ninth degree thirty-ſix minutes north latitude, and in the eighth degree fifty-five minutes eaſt longitude, enjoying a wholeſome air, and very good water. It is ſurrounded with hills covered with vines; except on the weſt, where is a large and fruitful plain, through which the Neckar runs. The town at preſent is but ſmall, though finely built. It is adorned with an univerſity, managed by an academical ſenate, conſiſting of three divinity profeſſors, four for law, three for phyſic, and ſix for philoſophy. They have a rector magnificentiſſimus, who is a kind of chancellor, and is commonly the elector himſelf; and likewiſe a rector magnificus, like the vice-chancellor of Oxford or Cambridge, who is preſident of the ſenate, and choſen annually out of the profeſſors. The firſt chair inſtituted for publicly teaching the law of nature and nations, was founded here for the famous Puffendorf, who here began his ſyſtem, which he finiſhed in Sweden.

This city has ſuffered much by wars, eſpecially from the French; ſo that ſince the diſgrace of Frederic elector Palatine, it has been taken, plundered, and burnt four times. The elector's library, which was kept in the church of the Holy Ghoſt, was, according to Scaliger, better filled with valuable books than even the Vatican at Rome, and exceeded all in the empire for the number of its curious manuſcripts; but when count Tilly, the imperial general, took this city in the year 1622, and put five hundred Palatines in it to the ſword, great part of this library was ſent to the Vatican. In 1688 the French again ſeized this city; but upon the approach of the imperial army, they, contrary to the capitulation with the Dauphin, blew up the caſtle, and laid the town in aſhes, together with the elector's noble palace, the churches, and other public buildings. The French, to add to their brutality, would not ſuffer the citizens to leave the city; but ſhut them up in the great church till they burnt the city; and then alſo conſumed that. Heidelberg was afterwards rebuilt, and had a conſiderable garriſon; but the French under marſhal de Lorge attacked it again in 1693, and by the treachery of the governor, the city was ſoon taken, and the people brutiſhly murdered, except thoſe who could get into the caſtle. Upon the firſt entrance of the French, the ladies and others ſent to ſollicit the general to ſpare their honour. This he promiſed, and ordered them all to retire into the great church, where, contrary to his promiſe, they were brutally raviſhed and ſtripped. The French at this time laid the city in aſhes, broke up the electoral tombs, and turned the inhabitants, who amounted to about fifteen thouſand out of the town by night, when being deprived of all they had, many died of want, particularly women with child, who fell in labour with the fright.

After this the elector encouraged the people to rebuild the city, promiſing them exemption from taxes for thirty years, with full liberty of conſcience; but being of the Romiſh religion, he was ſoon prevailed on by the Jeſuits to make one of their ſociety a profeſſor in the univerſity, and oppreſſed his proteſtant ſubjects, till the elector of Brandenburg and other proteſtant princes, interpoſed in their behalf.

In 1709 the French again ſeized Heidelberg, and laying the neighbouring country under contribution, the inhabitants were ſo impoveriſhed, that ſeveral thouſands of them fled to foreign countries, particularly England, from whence they were ſent to Ireland and the Britiſh colonies in America. This city, however, began to recover itſelf, when the elector being diſguſted at the Calviniſts, for refuſing to deliver up to him the body of the great church, which had been allotted them by the peace of Weſtphalia, the choir being in the poſſeſſion of the Roman catholics, quitted Heidelberg, and went to reſide at Manheim, ſince which this city has ever ſince been decaying.

The principal beauty of Heidelberg conſiſts in one large handſome ſtreet, with a ſpacious ſquare, and uniform market. The elector's caſtle, or palace, on the aſcent of a neighbouring hill called Conigſtahl, which overlooks the whole city, was remarkable for its ſtrength, and was beautified with fine gardens and grottos. Near it is a ſtrong tower, which ſince the peace of Weſtphalia was called the Star-fort. This palace is encloſed with a wall hewn out of the rock.

Several towns have been already mentioned as famous for their having tons of an uncommon magnitude, which proceeds not only from the fondneſs of the Germans for drinking; but to ſhew that wine is one of the moſt profitable branches of their trade in the provinces near the Rhine and the Danube, and none of theſe tons is more famous than that of Heidelberg. In a cellar under one of the towers of the elector's palace ſtood one of an extraordinary ſize, it being capable of holding five hundred and twenty-eight hogſheads, or twenty-ſix thouſand two hundred and fifty gallons Paris meaſure. This was rebuilt, and made to hold ſix hundred hogſheads Engliſh meaſure. The old one had iron hoops; but the new one had large ones of knee timbers, like the ribs of a ſhip, with ſeveral inſcriptions, and was very neatly adorned with carved work and gilding. On one ſide was a handſome ſtair-caſe of forty-three ſteps leading to the top, on which was a gallery encompaſſed with baluſtrades, and on this platform the electors have had frequent carouſals. This ton having been firſt emptied, was knocked in pieces by the French in 1688; but the elector has had a new one made which is larger; this is alſo decorated with variety of ornaments; but is inferior in ſize to that of Konigſtein in Saxony.

The palace bears the marks of the ravages committed there by the French, a great part of it being ſo ruinous, that of four conſiderable manſions, of which it conſiſted, only one eſcaped undamaged. The remains of the palace are in a ſtile neither Gothic nor modern; but all the orders are jumbled together, without either fancy or judgment. It has a magnificent terrace towards the town, whence there is a proſpect of the plain, and of the country for ſeveral leagues round. The inſide is ſcarcely more regular than the outſide, and the elector's apartment conſiſts of a long ſuite of rooms, without beauty or proportion.

The Calviniſts are in the poſſeſſion of St. Peter's church, which ſtands in the ſuburbs, and the Lutherans of the church of Providence. The Jeſuits have a fine college and a church; and there are alſo ſix convents in the town, with churches in them. The univerſity of Heidelberg was founded in the year 1346, and entertains fourteen profeſſors in ordinary, among which ſix Jeſuits teach divinity, natural philoſophy, mathematics, and moral philoſophy. Mr. Keyſler obſerves, that the number of proteſtant ſtudents amount to about a hundred and eighty; but the popiſh ſtudents do not exceed a hundred. The *collegium ſapientiæ* was formerly an Auguſtine cloiſter,

which, in 1553, was appointed for the reſidence of poor ſtudents: it at preſent belongs to the Calviniſts, and in it are twelve ſtudents, who are provided with lodging and board.

One of the moſt remarkable ſtructures in the city is the town-houſe, once famous for its curious clock, which had a variety of movements, with ſeveral figures of men fighting, and a cock which crowed when the hour ſtruck.

The city is divided into five juriſdictions, and the inhabitants ranked under ſo many claſſes, the members of each not being obliged to appear before any court but their own. It is alſo divided into four wards under a burgomaſter. The generality of the inhabitants being Calviniſts, church affairs are uſually managed by a preſbytery, conſiſting of twenty-one deputies.

About a mile from Heidelberg are three ſtreams, which ſpring from a hill, down which they flow; and, after filling five ponds, and paſſing three water-falls, run with ſo ſtrong a current through the adjacent plain, as to turn ſeveral mills.

Among the principal places in the Palatinate of the Rhine are generally reckoned Worms and Spire; but as both theſe are in the Upper Circle of the Rhine, and neither of them ſubject to the elector Palatine, we ſhall defer treating of them till the beginning of the next chapter.

The moſt conſiderable towns in this electorate, next to thoſe that have been deſcribed, are Frankenthal and Oppenheim.

CHAP. XVII.

The Circle of the UPPER RHINE.

SECT. I.

Of this Circle in general; and firſt of the Biſhopric of Worms: Its Situation, Extent, and Produce. The Religion of the Inhabitants; with the Dignity, Titles, Arms, and Prerogatives of the Biſhop; and a particular Deſcription of Worms, the Capital of the Biſhopric.

FROM this circle moſt of the lands and ſtates ſituated on the other ſide of the Rhine, have been gradually taken away by France; as the greateſt part of the biſhoprics of Straſburg, Mentz, Tull, and Verdun, with the archbiſhopric of Beſançon, the dutchy of Lorrain, &c.

This circle is at preſent terminated by the electoral circle of the Rhine, by which it is alſo interſected: it is likewiſe bounded by the Weſtphalian, the Lower Saxon, the Upper Saxon, the Franconian, and Swabian circles; together with Alſace and Lorrain.

The circle of the Upper Rhine at preſent comprehends the biſhoprics of Worms, Spire, Straſburg, Baſil, and Fulda; the dutchy of Deux-Ponts, the landgravate of Heſſe, Hersfeld, Sponheim; as alſo the margravates of Naſſau-Weilburg, Naſſau-Uſingen, Naſſau-Ideſtein, Waldec, Hanau, &c. with the imperial cities of Worms, Spire, Francfort, Friedberg, and Wetzlar. Heſſe-Caſſel and Hanau-Munzenberg have been for ſome time ſeparated from the circle.

The diets of the circle of the Upper Rhine were formerly held at Worms; but during the preſent century they have been conſtantly held at Frankfort, yet the chancery-circle of the archives belonging to it are kept at the directory at Worms. This circle, with reſpect to its religion, is reckoned among the mixed.

After this ſhort introduction we ſhall begin with the biſhopric of Worms, which is about twelve miles long, and is, for the greateſt part, ſurrounded by the Lower Palatinate, and the reſt by the territory of Mentz.

This country is for the moſt part mountainous and woody, but has ſome fruitful arable lands, meadows, and vineyards. It is likewiſe plentifully watered; for the Rhine running through it, receives ſeveral ſmaller rivers in its courſe.

The Proteſtant churches in this biſhopric retired in 1705 from the Palatinate of the Rhine to the biſhopric of Worms, where they are at preſent in an oppreſſed ſtate. They have no longer any particular church-government of their own; but are ſubject in eccleſiaſtical and matrimonial affairs to the regency of Worms, and that regency nominates the paſtors and ſchool-maſters. However, one of the Proteſtant preachers is inſpector over the reſt.

The arms of this biſhopric are a ſilver key, with the wards turned upwards, having on each ſide four golden ſtars in a black field.

The biſhop of Worms is ſubject to the archbiſhopric of Mentz. In the circle of the Upper Rhine, he is the ſummoning prince and director; and in the council of the princes of the empire, he exchanges place on the ſpiritual-bench with the elector of Wurtzburg. The chapter is ſeated in the imperial city of Worms, and conſiſts of thirteen capitulars and nine domicelli.

The princely regency here conſiſts of a preſident, a chancellor, aulic and regency-counſellors, and ſecretaries; the aulic-judicatory, of a preſident, an aulic-judge, commiſſaries, and counſellors, who are all members of the regency, together with the ſecretary; the aulic-chamber, of a preſident, provincial-clerk, counſellors, ſecretary, and fiſcal-general; and the epiſcopal vicarſhip, of a vicar-general, official and ſpiritual counſellors.

The principal places in this biſhopric are the following:

The imperial city of Worms, which is the capital of the biſhopric of the ſame name, is ſeated on the weſt ſide of the Rhine, within the limits of the Palatinate, in the forty-fourth degree thirty-ſix minutes north latitude, and in the eighth degree ten minutes eaſt longitude.

The magiſtracy here is Lutheran, the city being accounted one of the free Lutheran imperial cities, with toleration and freedom of worſhip to the Catholics. The Lutherans have a church which they have rebuilt in a handſome manner, in which Luther is repreſented as appearing at the diet in 1521. They are alſo in poſſeſſion of the old church, as it is called, St. Magnus's now in ruins, and St. Leonard's a little way out of the town. Thoſe of the Romiſh church are very numerous, and are in poſſeſſion of all the reſt. The Calviniſts have a church at Neuhauſel, about half a league out of the town, where the Lutherans ſometimes bring their children to be baptized. The Roman catholics do not here carry the Hoſt in public, nor make any proceſſion except on the day after Eaſter.

The antient cathedral which was a long, lofty, and ſtrong building erected in the Gothic taſte, had a tower at each of the four corners. Over one of the doors was a figure of the ſize of an aſs, with four heads, thoſe of a man, an ox, an eagle, and a lion: the right foot was alſo that of a man, the left that of an ox, and the two hinder feet reſembled thoſe of an eagle and a lion. Upon the back of this figure ſat a woman. The people here related very odd ſtories of this animal, which the learned ſuppoſed to be an hieroglyphic, compoſed of the four beaſts in the viſion of Ezekiel, and that the woman was deſigned to repreſent the Goſpel. This cathedral, ſince its deſtruction by the French, has been rebuilt with great magnificence.

Near the entrance of St. Martin's church is a picture, juſt over a moveable altar, which, from the oddneſs of the conceit, and the low and profane idea of the painter, has not eſcaped the notice of travellers. It is about five

feet ſquare, and at one of the corners on the top is repreſented the Almighty, whom the heaven of heavens cannot contain, in the figure of an old man, who ſeems to addreſs himſelf to the Virgin Mary, who is placed on her knees in the midſt of the picture, holding the infant Jeſus by the feet, and ridiculouſly putting the head of the Redeemer into the hopper of a mill, which is turned by the twelve apoſtles, by the help of a wheel, aſſiſted by the four beaſts of Ezekiel, who are on the other ſide; while the pope is drawn upon his knees, receiving the hoſts that fall from the mill into a golden chalice, one of which he preſents to a cardinal, who gives it to a biſhop, the biſhop to a prieſt, and the prieſt to a layman.

In ſhort, the Romans have, beſides the cathedral, four collegiate, and the ſame number of pariſh-churches, in or near the city, a Jeſuits college and ſeminary, three monaſteries, and three nunneries.

Here are two public halls, in one of which the magiſtrates aſſemble twice a week upon matters of ſtate, and in the other for the adminiſtration of juſtice. In the firſt of theſe Luther made his ſolemn appeal, in relation to which the people here ſay, that the doctor being much heated by the eagerneſs with which he diſcourſed, and alſo by a fire that was near him, deſired a glaſs of wine, which being brought, he forgot to drink it; but being ſtill eager in purſuing his diſcourſe, ſet it down upon a bench, when it ſoon after broke without being touched by any body; whence it currently paſſed, that ſome poiſon was mixed with the wine, of which the Lutherans were ſo fully perſuaded, that they broke the bench on which the glaſs ſtood into ſhivers, and kept ſome pieces of it, which are ſtill preſerved in memory of Luther's deliverance.

The biſhop's palace was rebuilt in the year 1719, at the expence of Francis Lewis, the biſhop.

The mint is a noble ſtructure, with a ſpacious portico, where vaſt numbers of bones and horns hang between the arches; the former are ſaid to be thoſe of giants, and the latter the horns of the oxen that drew the ſtones of which the antient cathedral was built.

Since this city has been laid in aſhes by the French, it has little left beſides the ſhadow of its former beauty. The richeſt traders, conſidering how much both they and their anceſtors had ſuffered on account of their lying ſo open to France, retired to Frankfort and Holland; ſo that the principal trade of the city, and the ſupport of the inhabitants, depends on the biſhop and his chapter. The citizens are, however, very complaiſant to ſtrangers. It is ſaid that there is ſo much vacant ground in the city as, by being planted with vines, annually yields fifteen hundred fodders of wine, each containing two hundred and fifty Engliſh gallons; and it is ſo much eſteemed, that the magiſtrates make preſents of it, with ſome fiſh, to princes and other travellers of quality. The fine plain in which the city ſtands abounds with corn, vineyards, and fruit-trees; and here grows that Rheniſh wine, which, from its delicious taſte, is called our lady's milk.

The ſenate, or ſupreme council of Worms, is compoſed of twenty-five members, thirteen of which are for life. The city has the fourth ſeat on the bench of the imperial cities of the Rhine, and likewiſe votes in the diet of the circle of the Upper Rhine. The biſhops of Worms have often conteſted its independence, and both by hoſtilities and excommunication have extorted conventions, among which that of 1519 is particularly remarkable, it being agreed, that in ſuits exceeding fifty guilders, an appeal lies from the city-court to that of the biſhop; but if, before the appeal be entered upon, the appellant petitions for the removal of his cauſe to the emperor, or the aulic-council, the biſhop muſt not only comply, but tranſmit the papers.

There is ſcarce any place ſo famous for interviews of ſovereigns, the nuptials of kings and princes, and other ſolemnities; ſeveral diets have alſo been held here. This was the place where the reformation began in 1525, and in the year 1743 king George II. took up his quarters in this city, and lodged at the biſhop's palace after the battle of Dettingen.

SECT. II.

Of the Biſhopric of SPIRES.

Its Situation, Extent, and Fertility. The Arms, Privileges, and Colleges of the Biſhop; with a conciſe Hiſtory and Deſcription of the Cities of Spires and Philipſburg.

THE biſhopric of Spires, or Spire, is ſeated on the banks of the Rhine, and is for the moſt part environed by the electoral Palatinate; but is in ſome places bounded by the margravate of Baden Durlach, extending thirty-two miles in its greateſt length, and twelve in breadth.

It is partly woody and partly mountainous, but enjoys good arable lands, and has groves of cheſnuts, almonds, and vineyards. It is a pleaſant country; but the natives wanting a vent for their commodities, the Palatinate by which it is encloſed being equally fertile, are very poor; beſides, the people have frequently ſuffered the calamities of war.

The arms of the biſhopric are a croſs argent in a field azure.

The biſhop of Spires is ſubject to the archbiſhop of Mentz, notwithſtanding which he is a prince of the empire, and in the council of the princes has a ſeat and voice on the ſpiritual-bench between the biſhops of Aichſtadt and Straſburg, and takes the ſecond place at the diets of the circle of the Upper Rhine.

The ſeat of the cathedral and chapter is in the imperial city of Spire. The chapter conſiſts of fourteen capitulars and thirteen domicelli.

The colleges here are the regency, the epiſcopal vicarſhip, the aulic-juriſdiction, and the aulic-chamber.

The principal places in this biſhopric are the following:

The city of Spire, or Spires, is ſeated in a delightful plain, on the eaſt ſide of the Rhine, where it receives the ſmall river of Spirebach, in the forty-ninth degree twenty minutes north latitude, and in the eighth degree twenty minutes eaſt longitude, ſixteen miles to the ſouth-weſt of Heidelberg. Its German name is Speir, and in Latin it is called Spira, Noviomagus, or Numetum, and is thought to have been built by the Belgæ. The Romans after its falling into their hands augmented and walled it, on account of the convenience of the paſſage into Germany; but it was taken and plundered by Attila in 451, and never recovered this diſaſter till the time of Charlemagne, who built here a royal palace. The emperor Henry IV. encloſed it with walls and ditches, kept his treaſure here, made it an imperial city, and built many noble ſtructures, particularly the cathedral, in which he and ſeveral biſhops were buried. At length the Spaniards took this city; but ſoon abandoned it on the approach of the Swedes, and carried off the artillery, gun-powder, and ſalt-petre, after having exacted eight thouſand rixdollars from the inhabitants. The Swedes took poſſeſſion of it; but not being able to ſpare troops for garriſoning the place, they demoliſhed it. In 1688 it was taken by the French, who the next year, upon the approach of the Germans, burnt moſt of the city, with the cathedral, ſince which diſaſter it has not recovered its priſtine ſplendor; for after its total deſtruction by the French in 1689, and lying waſte ten years, on the peace of Ryſwic it was rebuilt, but with leſs beauty.

The choir of the cathedral is beautifully repaired; but the ſuperb marble monuments of eight emperors and three empreſſes were broken in pieces by the French, who alſo opened and pillaged the vaults, and threw about the bones of the illuſtrious dead. This church has a large revenue; but its expences are alſo large. Beſides three other foundations, among which is a college of Jeſuits, there are ſeveral popiſh pariſh churches, convents, and nunneries. The Lutherans, indeed, out-number the other inhabitants; but have only two churches and an academy; and the Calviniſts, whoſe number is not conſiderable, have only one church. The magiſtrates of the city are of the Lutheran perſuaſion.

This

This city has the fifth ſeat among the imperial cities of the circle of the Rhine, and votes in the diet of the Upper Rhine.

The burghers are divided into fifteen companies, out of which a certain number is choſen, who have the executive power.

A new biſhop, before his entrance into the city, is obliged to redreſs the complaints of the inhabitants; and afterwards ſitting on horſeback in the open air, between the two outermoſt gates, which during the ceremony are ſhut, with one hand in his left breaſt, he pronounces a bleſſing on the city; then binds himſelf not to infringe its privileges; but rather to vindicate and increaſe them, and to live in harmony with the inhabitants. He then makes his public entry, and the citizens pay him homage.

Before the deſtruction of this city by the French, the imperial chamber was held here; and in 1529, a diet was held in this city that was peculiarly remarkable, as having given riſe to the name of Proteſtants.

Philipſburg was at firſt a ſmall town called Undenheim; but lying conveniently for commanding the adjacent country, Philip, biſhop of Spires, choſe it for his reſidence, fortified it with ſeven royal baſtions, and at length gave it his own name. But the combined electors and princes, particularly Frederic V. elector Palatine, as ſuperior, with the margrave of Baden-Durlach, ſuſpecting the biſhop's deſign in fortifying this place, ordered him to deſiſt; but he refuſed, alledging, that he had the emperor's placart to warrant what he had done. Upon which theſe princes agreed at an aſſembly ſummoned at Heilbrun, to ſend thither four thouſand horſe and foot, with twelve hundred pioniers, and the neceſſary artillery, who on the fifteenth of June 1618, demanded and took poſſeſſion of the place, and upon this razed all its fortifications; for which the emperor ſummoned theſe princes before the chamber of Spires, and deſigned to proceed againſt them with the utmoſt ſeverity. This was one of the cauſes of the thirty years civil war in Germany.

This city has ſuffered ſeven memorable ſieges in the ſpace of an hundred years, and its works have at different times been greatly increaſed; particularly Lewis XIV. of France in 1666, extended its fortifications to the Rhine, which lies a quarter of a league from the town, and over the great gate cauſed an inſcription to be put up, "That this fortreſs he ſtrengthened as a "monument of his own valour, and of the recovery of "the liberty of the Germans, for the terror of his ene-"mies, the ſupport of his allies, and the ſecurity of the "French;" concluding with theſe words, "What he "ſhuts no man opens, and what he opens no man "ſhuts." But in 1678, it was retaken by the Imperialiſts, when the emperor ordered that inſcription to be erazed, and another to be put up, "That Leopold, the "emperor, having undertaken a neceſſary war, took "this fortreſs by ſiege, that it might be a monument "to poſterity of his breaking off the yoke of ſlavery "from the neck of Libery," concluding with "What "the French ſhut, the Germans open." The Germans having thus regained it after a ſiege of four months, it was granted them by the peace of Nimeguen. But in 1688, the French retook it, and it was reſtored to the empire by the treaty of Ryſwic in 1697, with its fortications on the right ſide; but thoſe on the left, together with the bridge, were demoliſhed. This place was taken again by the French in 1734, after a long and bloody ſiege, in which the famous duke of Berwick, natural ſon to king James II. was killed by a cannon ball, between his two grandſons, as he went to take a view of the trenches; but it was reſtored in 1739.

The town belongs to the biſhop of Spires, who has an office here; but it is conſidered as a fortreſs of the empire, and has a governor and commandant appointed by it. The caſtle, which is the reſidence of the biſhop of Spires, is ſaid to be a noble pile which ſtands in a plain ſurrounded with marſhes; but the town is much fallen to decay.

SECT. III.

The Biſhopric of FULDA.

Its Situation, Extent, and Rivers. The Religion of the Inhabitants. The Titles, Arms, and Prerogatives of the Biſhop; with a Deſcription of the City of Fulda.

FULDA is ſurrounded by Heſſe, the counties of Iſenburg and Hanau, the biſhopric of Wurtzburg, and the princely county of Henneburg, extending in its greateſt length ſixty-two miles, and in its greateſt breadth upwards of forty-ſeven miles.

It is a mountainous and woody country; but has rich arable lands, and ſalt ſprings. Its principal rivers are the Fulda, which riſes here, and the Sala, which iſſues out of the territory of Wurtzburg.

It contains ſixty pariſh, and ninety-four filial churches, among which nine of the pariſh, and a few of the filial churches are Lutheran; but the reſt popiſh.

The title of the biſhop of Fulda runs thus, Biſhop and abbot of Fulda, prince of the holy Roman empire, arch-chancellor of the reigning Roman empreſs, primate of all Germany and Gaul.

The arms of Fulda are a black croſs, in a field argent.

The biſhop and abbot has a ſeat and voice in the council of the princes of the empire, and is alſo a member of the circle of the Upper Rhine. The high chapter conſiſts of fifteen perſons, and the high college is compoſed of the regency and the feudal court, the ſpiritual vicarſhip, and the aulic chamber.

The biſhop, who is ſubordinate to the pope alone, has four great officers of ſtate, rich equipages, a magnificent houſhold, a company of horſe guards well cloathed and mounted, and a regiment of foot guards.

This biſhopric is divided into twenty little bailiwics, the principal place in which is,

Fulda, the capital and reſidentiary town of the biſhopric, is ſeated on the river Fulda, and owes its original to the abbey, near which was at firſt a village, which being enlarged, was about the year 1162, ſurrounded with walls, and erected into a town. It has a royal palace built with free-ſtone, and the principal church is dedicated to Chriſt. The collegiate church of St. Boniface was antiently called the pariſh church of St. Blaiſe; but in the year 1650, the chapter of St. Boniface, which till that time had continued at Great Borſla, was tranſlated to Fulda; it has alſo a college of Jeſuits, with a gymnaſium and papal ſeminary, a nunnery of Benedictines, and an univerſity founded by the biſhop in the year 1734.

SECT. IV.

The Landgravate of HESSE.

Its Situation, Extent, Produce, and Rivers. Of the Diets of the Country, the Prerogatives of the Houſes of Heſſe-Caſſel and Heſſe-Darmſtadt; their Titles, Arms, public Offices, and Courts, Revenues, Forces, and principal Towns.

THE landgravate of Heſſe terminates on the biſhopric of Fulda, the principality of Hersfeld, Thuringia, and Eichsfeld, as alſo on that of Calenberg, the biſhoprics of Paderborn and Waldec, and the dutchy of Weſtphalia. This landgravate is above ninety-five miles in length.

The country is for the moſt part hilly and woody; but has pleaſant valleys, and is interſperſed with good corn and paſture-lands. It alſo produces plenty of excellent wine, and particularly abounds in cattle. With reſpect to minerals, ſilver, copper, lead, and iron are at preſent found in great quantities in this country; as alſo allum, vitriol, pit-coal, ſulphur, boles, a porcelain earth, marble, and alabaſter. It has likewiſe ſalt ſprings, baths, and mineral waters, with an uncommon plenty of game and fiſh.

With

With reſpect to the rivers, the principal are the Rhine and the Maine, with the Lan, or Lahn, which after being joined by many ſmaller ſtreams, falls into the Rhine: the Fulda, which proceeds from the biſhopric of that name, and falls into the Werra; and the Diemel, which runs into the Weſer.

The ſtates of Heſſe-Caſſel conſiſt firſt of the prelates, theſe are compoſed of the commandery of the Teutonic order for Heſſe, at Marburg: of the rector and ſenate of the univerſity of Marburg: of the four provoſts of the canonries of Kunffungen and Wetter, and the governors of ſeveral hoſpitals. The other parts of which the ſtates are compoſed, are the nobility, who are diſtinguiſhed by the five rivers Lahn, Schwalm, Fulda, Werra, and Diemel: and laſtly, the towns, which are alſo divided according to the countries lying on theſe five rivers, in each of which is a ſummoning town that ſends two repreſentatives to the general and particular diets; but the other towns aſſiſt at them only in turns, according to a ſettled rotation.

In the diets of Heſſe Caſſel and Heſſe-Darmſtadt preſides the hereditary marſhal. The ſovereign of both houſes may aſſemble at pleaſure any particular diet, and then the landgrave of Heſſe-Caſſel ſends orders throughout his whole country for them to appear by their deputies. Caſſel is generally the place of aſſembly for thoſe of Heſſe-Caſſel; but they ſometimes meet at Treyſa. The diets of Heſſe-Darmſtadt are invariably held at Gieſſen, and in both the ſovereign is repreſented by a commiſſioner.

The houſe of Heſſe-Caſſel forms one of the ſtates of the Calviniſt religion, and that of Heſſe-Darmſtadt of the Lutheran; of the collateral lines Rothenburg is Popiſh, and Homburg and Philipſdale Proteſtants. It being known in the year 1754, that Frederic the hereditary prince of Heſſe-Caſſel had, in 1749, embraced the Romiſh religion, that prince voluntarily drew up and confirmed by oath an inſtrument declaring, that his preſent and future children ſhould be brought up and inſtructed only in the Proteſtant religion; and that on his acceſſion to the government, no manner of alteration ſhould be made with reſpect to religion; but that he would preſerve it in every particular as it then ſtood unmoleſted and entire.

In Heſſe are two ſovereign families, between whom all the Heſſian territories are divided, namely, thoſe of Caſſel and Darmſtadt; but many articles have continued in common, as, 1. The feudal power and inveſtiture of the princes of Waldec, which has ever been performed in the name of both landgraves. 2. The joint court of juſtice at Marburg, which has its judge and aſſeſſors, from whom, in proceſſes of above a thouſand guldens of gold, an appeal lies to the aulic-council; but if it exceeds only one hundred, to the court of reviſions. 3. The court of reviſion, or appeals, held alternately ſix years at Marburg, and ſix at Gieſſen. 4. The portioning of the princeſſes, to which the ſubjects of both ſovereigns contribute. 5. Both ſovereigns have arbitrators, which are choſen in diſputes betweeen them, and to whoſe verdicts they ſubmit.

Their titles are alſo nearly the ſame; as landgrave of Heſſe, prince of Hersfeld, count Katzenellenbogen, Dietz, Ziegenhayn, Nidda, and Schomberg; to which Heſſe Caſſel adds Hanau and Heſſe-Darmſtadt, Iſenburg, and Budingen.

The arms of Heſſe are a ſhield twice longitudinally divided, and three times tranſverſely, with a ſcutcheon of pretence azure, the Heſſian lion argent, and three diadems gules. In the firſt dexter ſhield argent, is a patriarchal croſs gules, for the principality of Hersfeld. In the ſecond ſhield, party per feſſe, ſable and or, with a ſtar argent, for the county of Ziegenhayn. The third field has a lion rampant gules, crowned azure, for Katzenellenbogen. The fourth field gules, two lions paſſant or, for the county of Dietz. The fifth field party per feſſe, or and ſable, two ſtars with eight points argent, for the county of Nidda. The ſixth field party per bend, gules and argent, within a nettle leaf on three ſegments, in each of which is a carnation argent, for Schomberg.

The landgrave William added the Hanau ſhield, which is quarterly; in the firſt and fourth fields or, three chevrons gules, for the county of Hanau; but in the ſecond and third field or, three bends gules, for the county of Reinec; likewiſe a ſcutcheon of pretence party per feſſe, or and argent, for the lordſhip of Munzenberg. The landgraves of Heſſe-Darmſtadt alſo add to the arms of Iſenburg and Budingen a ſhield argent, two bendlets ſable. The two collateral princes of Heſſe-Caſſel bear the Heſſian ſhield alone; but thoſe of the line of Darmſtadt add to it the arms of Iſenburg.

Both Heſſe-Caſſel and Heſſe-Darmſtadt have a privy-council. In the former are two regencies, viz. one at Caſſel for Lower Heſſe, and the other at Marburg. In Heſſe-Darmſtadt are alſo the ſame number, one at Gieſſen and one at Darmſtadt.

With reſpect to the courts at law, there are the joint-court of juſtice held at Marburg; beſides which eccleſiaſtical and matrimonial caſes come before the two conſiſtories of Heſſe-Caſſel, held at Caſſel and Marburg; and thoſe for Heſſe-Darmſtadt at Gieſſen and Darmſtadt. For the trial of noblemen, or perſons of eminence guilty of any geat crime, a particular criminal court, if deſired, is erected.

With reſpect to the taxes, ordinary and extraordinary; the country ſeats of the nobility, with the lands and effects belonging to the clergy and the ſchools, are exempt from the ordinary taxes; but with regard to the extraordinary ones, the four hoſpitals, with the tenants and lands of the prieſts and ſchools, are excepted. The provincial cheſt is under the management of four receivers-general, who enjoy their office for life, and theſe nominate the collectors. The annual revenue of the landgrave of Heſſe-Caſſel is computed by ſome authors at a hundred and twenty thouſand pounds a year, and that of Heſſe-Darmſtadt at about half this ſum.

Caſſel and Darmſtadt have each their war-office, and the landgrave of Heſſe-Caſſel conſtantly keeps on foot twelve battalions and eight ſquadrons, with a troop of huſſars and three hundred matroſſes. Heſſe-Darmſtadt maintains a body of horſe guards, two ſquadrons of dragoons, and four battalions of regular militia.

The principal city belonging to the ſovereign-houſe of Heſſe-Caſſel is the city of Caſſel, which is ſeated on the river Fulda, and flows between the Old and New Town, in the fifty-firſt degree eighteen minutes north latitude, and in the ninth degree thirty-eight minutes eaſt longitude, and has a ſtone-bridge erected over the river. The Old Town, which is the largeſt and moſt conſiderable, forms a ſemicircle on a hill, and, like the Lower New Town, is old-faſhioned; but the French, or Upper New Town, is very regular and handſome; and between it and the Old Town lies the eſplanade, which is delightfully planted with rows of trees. The palace of the prince is of free-ſtone and very handſome both within and without; it ſtands in the Old Town, on the banks of the Fulda, but is a diſtinct fortification. In the Lyceum is an anatomical theatre, a muſeum, a *collegium Carolinum*, a cabinet of antiques and natural curioſities, and an obſervatory well furniſhed with inſtruments. Over the ſtable is the ſovereign's library. As all the public offices meet here, the building deſigned for their uſe is a noble piece of architecture. The arſenal is of free-ſtone, and contains arms for twenty-five thouſand men, and in the room under it are two hundred cannon; it has a foundery, which ſtands at a ſmall diſtance. In the French New Town the landgrave William VIII. has added to the houſe in which he formerly lived, a fine gallery of paintings. In this Upper New Town is alſo a beautiful church; but the principal church in Caſſel is that of St. Martin's abbey in the Old Town, in which lies the burial-place of the princes, and near it is a public Latin ſchool. In the Old Town are likewiſe two churches, one of which belongs to the garriſon; and on the ramparts a third belonging to the Lutherans, the firſt ſtone of which was laid in the year 1734. The way from the palace-bridge over the leſſer Fulda leads to the prince's flower-garden, near which is a large green-houſe, and an elegant marble bath. In the center of the garden is a ſpacious baſon, in the midſt of which is a beautiful mount. This delightful place is ſurrounded by the Great and Little Fulda.

At Caſſel are manufactures of cloth, ſtuffs, gold-lace, hats, ſilk and worſted ſtockings, and other commodities.

The pleaſure-houſes belonging to the prince are Freyenhagen, which lies at the end of a road leading from Caſſel, planted on each ſide with trees: Weiſſenſtein-houſe, alſo near Caſſel; and at a ſmall diſtance from it is Carlſberg, where is an admirable caſcade, begun by the landgrave Charles. On each ſide are eight hundred ſteps leading up a hill, and at the top is a grand pyramid of huge ſtones arranged in a tranſverſe and vertical poſition, and ſurmounted by a Hercules of copper thirty feet high. The proſpect here is inexpreſſibly fine. The caſcade has four platforms, with a ſpacious baſon in each. Near the upper baſon is a ſplendid grotto of large rough hewn-ſtones, that look as if only placed upon each other without cement. In the ſecond is a rock conſiſting of heaps of ſtones diſpoſed in a muſt beautiful confuſion, and under it a giant lying on his back, and ejecting a ſtream of water ſix inches in diameter, to the height of forty feet; while the cryſtalline water falling nearly perpendicular, winds through apertures which are almoſt imperceptible in innumerable meanders. The deſcent of the caſcade on each ſide the baſon conſiſts entirely of large ſquare ſtones, over which the water runs about an inch in depth, and a little way forward over a thin ſheet of lead about three inches broad, precipitating itſelf from one platform-ſtone to another, and having the appearance of cryſtalline mirrors; but by a ſpectator ſtanding at the bottom, the brilliancy, when the ſun plays his beams upon it, cannot be viewed without admiration. The water for this work is brought from ſeveral ſtreams up the mountain, and collected in a reſervoir one hundred feet deep, and of conſiderable extent.

Marpurg, or Marburg, the capital of Upper Heſſe, is ſeated on a hill near the river Lahn, in the fiftieth degree forty-four minutes north latitude, and in the eighth degree fifty-three minutes eaſt longitude; and above it is a fortified caſtle that was once the reſidence of the landgrave of Heſſe. Beſides the ſovereign courts and public offices, it has an academy for claſſical learning, with three churches, one of which is French, and the Lutheran church of St. Elizabeth, in which it is pretended that ſaint lies interred. Her monument is plated over with ſilver gilt, adorned with a profuſion of pearls. In this church have alſo been buried ſeveral of the landgraves of Heſſe. The German-houſe is the reſidence of the provincial commander of the Teutonic order for Heſſe, and the commander of Marburg; and near it ſtands Elizabeth's hoſpital, the care of which St. Elizabeth, they ſay, recommended to the above order. The provincial commander, by the convention of Caſſel, is choſen alternately from each of the three religions. The prince of Heſſe has a fine ſtud of horſes here.

Marburg has been twice deſtroyed by fire, and in 1529 a ſolemn but fruitleſs conference was held here between Luther and Melancthon on the one ſide, and Zuinglius and Œcolampadius on the other. Towards the cloſe of the year 1645, and the beginning of 1646, this town and caſtle were taken, after a furious cannonading, by the troops of Caſſel, which the princeſs Amelia Elizabeth, at that time regent of Caſſel, ſent againſt it.

Gieſſen is a fortified town on the river Lahn, and has an old caſtle and arſenal. In this town, alternately with Marburg, is held the joint court of appeals: it is likewiſe the ſeat of the regency, a conſiſtory and ſuperintendency, and has alſo a Lutheran univerſity founded here in 1607, a claſſical academy, and two churches. It is ſubject to the houſe of Heſſe-Darmſtadt, and is defended by a ſtrong wall and regular fortifications.

Darmſtadt is ſeated on a river of the ſame name, in a fruitful and pleaſant country, and has a very ſtately palace belonging to that branch of the Heſſian houſe to which it gives name. It has alſo a regency, a court of appeals, a conſiſtory, and a grammar ſchool, and in the church are the vaults of the princely family. It is encompaſſed with a wall, and has ſeveral ſuburbs, near which is an orphan-houſe.

Homburg, a town ſubject to the houſe of Heſſe-Homburg, by whom it was built, and inhabited by two French colonies, contains a palace in which that prince reſides. Both the Lutherans and Calviniſts here enjoy the public exerciſe of their religion. The landgrave Frederic II. has added a handſome new town, in which an orphan-houſe and alms-houſe have been erected by the prince, who is proprietor of three prefecturates in the territories of Magdeburg and the Halberſtadt, excluſive of other perſonal rights and revenues.

SECT. V.

The County of WALDEC.

Its Situation, Extent, and Produce. The Religion and Manufactures of the Country. The Titles and Offices of the Prince, and a Deſcription of the principal Towns.

THE county of Waldec is bounded on the north by the dioceſe of Paderborn; to the eaſtward by Heſſe, and the electorate of Mentz; to the ſouthward alſo by Heſſe; and to the weſtward by the dutchy of Weſtphalia; extending, according to Dr. Buſching, about twenty-eight miles in length, and twenty-three in breadth.

This country abounds in grain and cattle. It has alſo large woods, and the mountains contain iron, lead, copper, and even ſome gold, which is eſteemed equal in value to that of Hungary. Of the gold gathered out of the Eder the prince has cauſed medals to be ſtruck, and a magnificent ſide-board of plate to be made. Some parts alſo afford alabaſter, marble, and ſlate.

This country contains thirteen towns and a market village. The ſtates are compoſed of the nobility and towns. It is only on extraordinary occaſions that the whole body of the ſtates are convened; for on ordinary occaſions, none meet but the nobility and the repreſentatives of the three deputy towns.

The greateſt part of the inhabitants are Lutherans, and the reſt Calviniſts, except a few who are of the popiſh religion.

The manufactures of this country are coarſe cloth, barragons, calamancos, dimity, ratine, and other ſtuffs; paper, and great quantities of hard-ware.

The titles of the Waldec family are, Prince of the ſacred Roman empire, count of Pyrmont and Rappoltſtein, lord of Hoheneck and Gerolſeck, &c.

The prince of Waldec has not yet obtained a ſeat and vote in the college of princes; but enjoys a ſeat at the diet of the circle of the Upper Rhine.

The prince has a privy-council and court of fiefs, a regency, a chamber of finances, a foreſt court, and a court of law. The two laſt courts are compoſed of the ſame members, who alſo, in conjunction with the general, and one ſuperintendant, form the conſiſtory. From the court of law an appeal lies to the chancery. Over the prefecturates preſide four judges, who are ſubordinate to a rural chief juſtice.

The principal places in this county are the following:

Corbach, the capital, and the firſt of the three deputy towns, is alſo the ſeat of the high court of juſtice, and conſiſts of the Old and New Town, each of which has its church. In that belonging to the New Town is a moſt ſtately monument of marble and alabaſter, that takes up one ſide of the choir, and was erected by the republic of the United Provinces to George Frederic of Waldec, who was field-marſhal of their forces. In the New Town is alſo a gymnaſium of ſix claſſes, and ſeven maſters.

Wildungen, a town ſeated on a hill, and the ſecond deputy town, is both larger and better built than Old Wildungen; it has a Latin ſchool, containing five claſſes, and an orphan-houſe. In the choir belonging to the church, the republic of Venice here erected a fine monument of alabaſter to the memory of Joſias prince of Waldec, who commanded their armies with great reputation.

Arolſen, a regular built, thriving town, ſeated near the river Aars. The prince's palace, of which prince Frederic Anthony Ulric was himſelf architect, makes a grand appearance. All the above-mentioned offices and colleges, except the chief court of juſtice, are held here. Beſides the Lutheran church, the Calviniſts and Romans have alſo theirs. This town ſtands at the end of a noble

ble avenue, formed by ſix rows of trees, two thouſand paces in length.

SECT. VI.

Of the County of HANAU.

Its Situation, Extent, Produce, and principal Rivers; the Religion of the Inhabitants; with a Deſcription of the City of Hanau.

HANAU is encompaſſed by the electorate of Mentz, the dioceſe of Fulda, with the territories of Heſſe and Francfort; extending about forty-two miles in length; but ſome parts of it lie ſeparate.

The ſoil is remarkably fertile in corn, wine, fruit, and vegetables, all which are excellent in their ſeveral kinds. It has alſo a ſilver and a copper mine, both of which are very rich, and likewiſe ſome cobalt-works and ſalt-pans. Great advantage is likewiſe made of the woods.

This country lies chiefly on the Maine, into which run all the ſmaller rivers by which it is watered. Among theſe the chief are the Kinzig and the Nidda, the latter of which is joined by the Nidder.

In the ſixteenth century the inhabitants embraced Lutheraniſm; but in 1594, count Philip Lewis introduced the opinions of Calvin, which have prevailed, though there are ſtill ſome Lutherans and perſons of the Romiſh church, who are permitted the free exerciſe of their religion. Trade and manufactures flouriſh here, particularly in the city of Hanau.

The ruling count of Hanau-Munzenberg was a member of the college of the imperial counts of the Wetterau; but the landgrave William VI. ſeparated himſelf from them, and in 1741 alſo from the circle of the Upper Rhine. The income ariſing to the laſt count of Hanau from his ſeveral territories, is ſaid to have amounted to above five hundred thouſand florins.

In this county are five towns and ninety-ſix villages, the principal place in which is the following.

Hanau, the capital of the county, is ſeated in a large plain on the river Kinzig, near the place where it runs into the Maine, and is compoſed of the Old and New Town, both of which are fortified. The Old Town which from time immemorial has belonged to the Hanau family, is ill built; but the palace called the Burg makes a good appearance, and has a fine flower-garden. Both the Lutherans and Calviniſts have their particular church, and here is an univerſity built by count Philip Lewis. The Jews dwell in a particular quarter, and are allowed ſchools. To this Old Town belongs a large ſuburb.

The New Town is not only of greater extent, but the ſtreets are ſtraight, broad, and clean; moſt of the houſes on both ſides are very regularly built; and it comes very near the Dutch towns in neatneſs. The ſtreets terminate in a grand ſquare in the centre of the town, where the public markets are kept. At each of the four corners of this ſquare is a well of tolerable depth, walled round with marble, and adorned with ſome foliage and iron-work, on the top of which is a large lamp, that is lighted every evening. The church in which they preach both in Flemiſh and French is but one edifice, divided by a wall from top to bottom into two ſeparate apartments. The gallery in the French part is very ſpacious, and is an amphitheatre ſupported by twelve columns of red ſtone upon which the roof reſts, and the cieling is of ſtucco, very well adorned. The Catholics have no church here; but perform their devotions at a village ſeated about a mile from Hanau.

The New Town was built in the year 1597, by the Walloons, or Flemiſh refugees, who enjoy extraordinary privileges; they have their own magiſtrates, and the diſpoſal of all the town offices, which the members of the French and Dutch congregations can alone poſſeſs, though at preſent the German Calviniſts conſtitute one half of the inhabitants, and the Lutherans a fourth. Here are ſeveral woollen manufactures, particularly of grograms, ſtockings, both ſilk and worſted, linen and porcelain. Hanau is more particularly famous for the great quantities of roll tobacco made up here; wax-bleaching is alſo carried on in this city; but the greateſt article in its imports is timber, which is brought down the Maine to this city, as is alſo rough and caſt iron, corn, and meal.

In the neighbourhood of Hanau is Philipſruhe, a beautiful ſeat near the village of Keſſelſtadt on the Maine. It was built by count Philip Reinhard; but received very great improvements from count John Reinhard, his brother and ſucceſſor.

SECT. VII.

Of the free Imperial Cities of Francfort, Friedberg, and Wetzlar.

FRANCFORT, or Frankfort on the Maine, the uſual place of the election and coronation of the kings of the Romans; alſo the place where the ſtates of the Rheniſh circles meet, and a celebrated Hans-town, is ſituated in the fiftieth degree ſixteen minutes north latitude, and in the ſeventh degree thirty-ſix minutes caſt longitude, ſeventeen miles to the weſtward of Hanau, in a delightful, healthy, and fertile country along the Maine, by which it is divided into two parts, diſtinguiſhed by the names of Francfort and Saxenhauſen. The former of theſe being the largeſt, is divided into twelve wards, and the latter into two, and both are reckoned to contain about three thouſand houſes. The fortifications, which are both regular and ſolid, form a decagon, or figure conſiſting of ten baſtions, faced with hewn ſtone, the ditches are deep and filled with freſh water, and all the out-works are placed before the gates. There are, however, few cannon on the works. At Saxenhauſen there is little worth notice, except its fortifications, which are tolerably good. There is in particular a large horn-work, a ditch full of water, and a covert-way very judiciouſly contrived, ranging on the head of the ditch, which muſt be paſſed in order to go to Saxenhauſen on the land ſide. There are ſix baſtions in all; but they are very irregular.

The town-houſe of Francfort is a vaſt building worth ſeeing. The hall where the emperor is choſen is not very large; but it is adorned with pictures, among which are one of Eſther and Ahaſuerus: the figures are clothed according to the mode about one hundred and fifty years ago; that is, with fardingales, ruffs, doublets, &c. Here is likewiſe the hiſtory of Suſannah and the two Elders; that of Dionyſius the tyrant and his favourite Damocles, with a noble repaſt before him, which he does not touch for fear of a ſword that hangs by a ſlender thread directly over his head; Seſoſtris king of Egypt, with his chariot drawn by captive kings; Eghinard, ſecretary to Charlemagne, and Emma his ſpouſe, that emperor's daughter; Scipio Africanus reſtoring a young captive princeſs inviolate to her bridegroom; and Bathſheba in the bath.

The fore part of this ſtructure is ſupported by arches, under which during the fair of Francfort are toy-ſhops of all kinds and over theſe arches is a hall, where the emperor uſually dines after his coronation, and into which opens the chamber where the election of the new emperor is canvaſſed. In the above hall the emperor eats at a table by himſelf, and the electors have alſo their ſeparate tables. The floor is covered with black and yellow cloth, the livery of the houſe of Auſtria, and upon the cieling is painted the ſtory of Ganymede carried away by Jupiter's eagle; and the hiſtory of a falſe witneſs who had accuſed a perſon of murder; but when he had confirmed his evidence by an oath, a large raven, it is ſaid, having forced his way through one of the windows of this hall, perched on the villain's head, and tore out his eyes with his beak; on which the miſcreant being touched with remorſe, confeſſed his crime, and had his head ſtruck off.

In the back part of this ſtructure are the city offices, and the diet chamber of the circle of the Upper Rhine, as likewiſe that of the dictature of the circle. Among the archives of the town-houſe is kept the celebrated golden bull of the emperor Charles IV. which is a parchment book of forty-three quarto leaves, containing the funda-

fundamental inſtitutes of the empire written in Latin with capital letters. This famous piece is, according to ſome authors, kept in a gold caſket: but Mr. Keyſler ſays, it is in a tortoiſe-ſhell ſnuff-box ſet with mother of pearl, and lined with yellow velvet; and that the book is very much ſoiled.

The cathedral of St. Bartholomew is a large building, but there are only two or three things that render it worthy of notice. The firſt is a ſmall, long, and narrow chapel, which is dark and without any ornaments, except the red cloth with which it is hung near the altar in that part where the electors or their repreſentative ſit. This altar is very mean for ſo celebrated a place, and the ſeats on which the electors ſit, when they chooſe an emperor, are benches of very common wood placed againſt the walls. The other thing that deſerves notice is a chapel, to which the elected emperor is conducted, in order to be crowned by the elector of Mentz, and is nothing more than an iron cloiſter, without any ornament, joined to the baluſtrade of the choir, and has ſome reſemblance to a parrot's cage. The altar in it has no other ornament than a braſs crucifix of very indifferent workmanſhip.

The above places attract the attention of travellers on account of the important buſineſs performed in them; but the curious clock in this cathedral, which conſiſts of three parts or diviſions, is perhaps more worthy of notice. In the loweſt, which reſembles a calendar, are ſeveral circles, the firſt of which ſhews the day and month; the ſecond the golden number, with the age and change of the moon; and the third the dominical letter. The fourth and fifth circles repreſent the antient Roman calendar. On the ſixth are the names of the apoſtles and martyrs, the length of the days and nights, and the entrance of the ſun into the twelve ſigns of the zodiac. The ſeventh and eighth circles exhibit the hours and minutes when the ſun riſes and ſets. In the other circles within theſe are the diviſions of the twelve ſigns of the zodiac, the four ſeaſons, the moveable feaſts, &c. The figures which ſtrike the hours repreſent two ſmiths with hammers in their hands. This curious piece of clock-work was put up in the year 1605, and repaired for the firſt time in 1704.

This cathedral belongs to the Catholics, though moſt of the inhabitants are Lutherans. It is ſaid to have been built by Pepin, king of France, and greatly enriched by his ſon Charlemagne; but the emperor Lewis of Bavaria took away the greateſt part of its revenues, to puniſh the chapter, who had ſided with the pope againſt him.

The churches of St. Leonard and Our Lady are both collegiate. In the church of the Predicants are two altars, ſtanding oppoſite to each other, which are decorated with two pieces of painting by Albert Durer. One of them repreſents our Saviour's Aſcenſion, and the other the Aſſumption of the Virgin Mary: but the latter is only a copy, the original having fallen into the elector of Bavaria's hands. There is here alſo a convent, with a church of the order of St. John; together with others belonging to the Carmelites, Dominicans, Capuchins, and two Romiſh chapels.

The Lutheran churches and convents are the Great church; that of St. Catharine, where, in 1522, the firſt Lutheran ſermon was preached, and to which is annexed a nunnery of ladies of noble birth; the church of the White Women, ſo called from the convent belonging to it inſtituted for ladies, and other young women of high birth; St. Peter's church; together with the chapel of the Glauburg; the hoſpital church; St. Nicholas's church; as alſo the church in Saxenhauſen.

Here is likewiſe a ſeminary of divines founded by Dr. Pridius, and completed by Dr. Munden; and a Lutheran gymnaſium, which conſiſts of ſeven claſſes, and ſtands contiguous to the church of the Bare-footed friars, and in it is the city library. The alms, orphan, and work-houſe is a well contrived building under good regulations, that are ſtrictly executed. The hoſpital of the Holy Ghoſt is one of the wealthieſt foundations in the whole city.

Francfort is of a circular form, without any ſuburbs; but the ſtreets are generally narrow, and the houſes are moſtly built of timber and plaiſter, and covered with ſlate; but there are ſome handſome private ſtructures of a kind of red marble that juſtly deſerve the name of palaces; as the buildings called the Compeſtel and Fronhof, the Trierſhof, the Cullenhof, the German-houſe, an auguſt edifice ſituated near the bridge over the Maine, the Heſſe-Darmſtadthof, the palace of the prince de la Tours, and the houſes of the counts of Solms, Schauenberg, and Schonborn; and there are three principal ſquares.

The bridge which forms the communication between Francfort and Saxenhauſen is four hundred and fifty paces in length; and over a gate as you enter upon it is a Latin inſcription in gold letters to the following purpoſe: "In "the reign of Leopold I. the moſt auguſt emperor of the "Romans and Germany, king of Hungary and Bohe-"mia, the true father of his country, under whoſe happy "auſpices the empire enjoys an uninterrupted pro-"ſperity, this fortified gate was repaired by the city of "Francfort." The Jews quarter conſiſts of a very narrow ſtreet about an Engliſh mile in length, and extremely dirty. At each end of it is a gate, which is carefully ſhut every evening, and the keys carried to the magiſtrates. The houſes are moſtly four, five, or ſix ſtories high; but the apartments are extremely filthy. This quarter is ſaid to contain three or four thouſand perſons; but, according to the Jews themſelves, they amount to ſome thouſands more. The principal commerce they carry on here is in buying and ſelling old goods, in going from inn to inn to ſell toys to ſtrangers, and in exchanging ſuch money as is not current here. They are obliged, under ſevere penalties, to fetch water when a fire happens in any part of the city, however diſtant it may be from their quarter; and in return the magiſtracy permit them to chooſe twelve judges out of their own body for deciding the differences and quarrels that happen among them; but thoſe who will not ſubmit to their deciſions, are allowed to appeal to the tribunals of the Lutherans. As to their dreſs, it is ſuitable to the filthineſs of their dwellings. The men generally wear cloaks, that are extremely coarſe and thread-bare, with flapped hats, old greaſy ruffs, and thick pointed beards. Their women indeed are not quite ſo ragged and dirty as the men; they wear over their cloaths ſhort cloaks of black crape, bound about their necks by claſps of gilt copper, and round their ſhoulders a border of tinſel about a foot broad, ſhining like gold. Their head-dreſs formerly reſembled that of the Chriſtian women; but the magiſtrates have obliged them to wear a coarſe wrapper about their heads, ending at their forehead in two large horns about four fingers in breadth, one of which is covered with black gauze, and the other with a piece of lawn dyed blue. Girls are not permitted to enter the ſynagogue, and are diſtinguiſhed from the married women by their head-dreſs, which is a piece of red taffety bordered with gold gauze. Many Jeweſſes wear earrings that repreſent the ſigns of their houſes, or ſhops; as for inſtance, if a cat be the ſign, the wife or girl of the houſe carries dangling at her ears two cats in miniature of copper gilt.

But though the Jewiſh worſhip and that of the Papiſts is tolerated in this city, and the latter in particular have many churches and convents; neither the French nor German Calviniſts are permitted to have one place of religious worſhip within the walls, and are obliged to go every Sunday to Bockenheim, which lies about a league from the city in the territory of Hanau. The wealthy perſons among them have frequently offered a large ſum to the magiſtracy, for leave to aſſemble for public worſhip in Francfort, were it in ever ſo mean a place; yet ſuch is their unchriſtian partiality againſt their brother reformers, and ſuch enemies are they to religious liberty, that this privilege has been obſtinately refuſed them. However, Mr. Buſching ſays, that it is thought they will at laſt be permitted to build a church juſt without the town. The number of coaches which generally go to the two churches at Bockenheim every Sunday amount to about two hundred and fifty, many wealthy perſons in Francfort being of the reformed church; and it is there a common ſaying, "That the Roman catholics have the "churches, the Lutherans the magiſtracy, and the Cal-"viniſts the money."

Among

Among the natural curioſities at Francfort, that of the hazel-tree, mentioned by Mr. Keyſler, is highly worthy of notice: it is to be ſeen in Mr. Haſſel's garden in the city, and is mentioned in the Francfort Chroniicles above two hundred years ago. "The lower part of its trunk, "ſays that gentleman, is ſeven Francfort ells in circum- "ference, that is, fifteen feet nine inches: its height is "equal to that of the houſes near it, and it ſtill bears "nuts every year. The ſhells of the nuts it pro- "duces are very thick; but the kernel has the ſame "flavour as thoſe of other nuts. The emperor Leopold "dined twice under this tree. The ſoil of this garden, "he adds, muſt be particularly favourable to hazel-trees; "for though the adjacent ground yields only common "ſhrubs, four hazel-trees planted within theſe fifteen "years in Mr. Haſſel's garden, are already above twenty "feet high. Theſe recruits are the more neceſſary, as "the above-mentioned old tree begins to decay."

The fairs held at Francfort are famous all over Europe; and Mr. Keyſler obſerves, that ſome merchants, who are competent judges, aſſured him, that ten millions of dollars would hardly purchaſe the merchandize expoſed to ſale at one of theſe fairs, the goods in the ware-houſes and ſhops included. Of the manufactures carried on here, thoſe of ſilk and porcelain are the moſt conſiderable.

This has always been an imperial city. In the diet it holds the ſixth place among the imperial cities of the Rhine, and alſo votes in the diet of the Upper Rhine.

The magiſtracy here conſiſts of a judge, the bench of ſchoffen or aldermen; the ſecond bench of the council; together with the third, which is compoſed of artificers and tradeſmen. The laſt is alſo ſummoned in affairs of general concern, and executes the offices relating to the police; but the direction of important affairs is lodged in the two former, out of whom the two burgomaſters are annually choſen. Law-ſuits are here determined by the ſchoffens and ſyndics. The members of the conſiſtory are two ſchoffen, the *ſenior miniſterii*, the two eldeſt paſtors, and two civilians. The territory belonging to the city contains a number of villages, ſeats, and farms; and the ſides of the Maine are adorned with a vaſt number of gardens and vineyards, in which ſome of the vines are propped up by ſtakes, and others ſupported in the form of arbours; but the wines they produce are not very ſtrong.

We ſhall now take notice of the imperial cities of Friedberg and Wetzlar.

The imperial city of Friedberg ſtands near the Uſbach, on a very fertile ſpot on the ridge of hills called the Hohe, and was formerly much larger than it is at preſent. This city enjoys the twelfth ſeat on the bench of the imperial towns of the Rhine. The magiſtracy, with the greateſt part of the burghers, are Lutherans. It is governed by a burgrave and ſix nobles, who are members of the general council, and of that of the ſtates; and when any affairs relating to the empire and circle come on the carpet, notice is given them of it by the magiſtracy, that they may jointly agree on the perſon to be deputed, and on the nature and extent of his powers.

The imperial town of Wetzlar is ſeated on the Lahn, near its confluence with the Wetzbach, and on the other ſide the Dill. The magiſtrates and moſt of the burgherans are Lutherans. Beſides the cathedral, which the Proteſtants hold in common with the Catholics, they have a chapel, and a grammar-ſchool in a building that was originally a Franciſcan convent, and the church of the hoſpital of the Holy Ghoſt. The Catholics have not only the uſe of the cathedral, but a Franciſcan convent, with a church, and a Jeſuits college. The Calviniſts have likewiſe a church here. In the town-houſe are held the meetings of the imperial-chamber, which in the year 1693 was removed hither from Spires.

Wetzlar was an imperial city ſo early as the days of the emperor Frederic I. and has the thirteenth bench of the imperial cities of the Rhine, and alſo a vote in the diets of the Upper Rhine.

SECT. VIII.

Of the Dutchy of Deuxponts, and the Principality of Naſſau. An Account of the Family of Naſſau, and the Titles, Arms, and principal Places belonging to each of thoſe Princes.

THE dutchy of Deuxponts, which is ſituated in the moſt ſouthern part of the circle, is in general a mountainous barren country; yet is interſperſed with ſome fertile valleys. It extends in its greateſt length about forty miles, and from eight to twenty-five in breadth. It belongs to the duke of Deuxponts, whoſe annual revenue ariſing from this dutchy is computed at three hundred thouſand florins.

Deuxponts, the capital of this dutchy, is called by the Germans Zweybrucken, and in Latin Bipontium, all which ſignify Two Bridges, a name which it received from its two bridges over the rivulets of Bliſe and Swolb, on which it ſtands; and this name it gave to the whole dutchy. It is ſituated in the forty-ninth degree thirty minutes north latitude, and in the fourth degree thirty-one minutes eaſt longitude. It is a ſmall, but neat well-built town, and has a fine palace erected in the modern taſte. Of the great church here, the Calviniſts have the nave, and the Catholics the choir. The Lutherans have likewiſe a church, and in this town is alſo a gymnaſium. During the thirty years war it ſuffered extremely, as it alſo did in 1677, when it was taken by the French.

In a vale at a ſmall diſtance is Schuſlic, a pleaſure-houſe erected by Staniſlaus, the dethroned king of Poland, during his reſidence at Deuxponts; but it is now gone to ruin.

The principality of Naſſau, which we ſhall next deſcribe, is bounded on the north by Weſtphalia, on the eaſt by Solms, on the ſouth by the biſhopric of Mentz, and on the weſt by the electorate of Treves. The length of the whole principality is computed at fifty-ſeven miles, and its breadth at thirty-two.

Though it is for the moſt part mountainous and woody, it is not without fine arable and meadow land.

The founder of the preſent princes of Naſſau was count Henry I. ſurnamed the Wealthy, who, in the thirteenth century, left to his two ſons, Walram and Otho I. the county of Naſſau, with its feudal, patrimonial, and hereditary lands.

With reſpect to the firſt line, William Henry, prince of Naſſau-Uſingen, left two ſons, who were the founders of the two preſent ruling lines; namely, prince Charles, of the Naſſau-Saarbruck-Uſingen line, and prince William Henry, of that of Naſſau-Saarbruck, who, on the twenty-third of September, 1735, agreed to a partition, by which the laſt gave to the former all the inherited and eſcheated land on this ſide the Rhine, and the former gave to the latter thoſe lying on the other ſide of that river.

The only remaining line of the deſcendants of Otho is that of Naſſau-Dillenburg-Dietz, which ſubſiſts in the prince of Orange, hereditary ſtadtholder of the United Provinces.

The titles of the prince of the elder line deſcended from Walram are, Prince of Naſſau, count of Saarbruck and Saarwerden, and lord of Lahr-Wiſbaden and Idiſtein.

His arms for Naſſau are a lion, in a field azure, ſemée of billets or: for the county of Saarbruck, azure, a lion argent ſemée of croſslets argent: for the county of Saarwerden, ſable, a ſpread-eagle argent: for Mors, or, a feſſe ſable: for Weilnau, or, two leopards paſſant gules: for Mehreinberg, verte, a ſaltier croſs or, ſemée with croſslets or: for Mahlberg, or, a lion ſable: for Lahr, or, on a feſſe gules.

The titles of William V. prince of Orange, and ſtadtholder of the United Provinces, with reſpect to the territories of Naſſau are: Prince of Naſſau, count of Katzenellnbogen, Vianen, and Dietz, and lord of Beilſtein. His arms for Naſſau are, azure, a lion or, ſemee of billets or; for Katzenellnbogen, or, a lion rampant gules; for

Vianen, or, a feſſe argent; for Dietz, gules, two lions paſſant or.

The princes of the antient line of Walram have no ſeat or voice in the college of princes; but have five votes at the diet of the circle of the Upper Rhine. The princes of the younger branch acquired a ſeat and vote in the college of princes in 1659, and have two other votes, both which are inherent in the ſtadtholder of the United Netherlands, who has alſo two votes in the diet of Weſtphalia.

The county of Naſſau-Dietz lies on the river Lahn, and was formerly called the Golden Country, on account of its fertility, and conſiſts of nine prefecturates, the principal places in which are the following:

Dietz, the capital of a prefecturate of the ſame name, is ſeated on the Lahn, over which it has a bridge of ſtone, and is divided into the Old and New Town. The prince has a palace here which ſtands on a hill. The Calviniſts have two churches here, and the Lutherans one. At a ſmall diſtance from the town is Oranienſtein, a ſeat belonging to the prince ſeated on the Lahn.

Weilburg, a handſome town which ſtands on an eminence by the river Lahn, over which it has a bridge of ſtone. The prince's palace here contains ſome very elegant apartments, with a fine garden belonging to it, and a magnificent chapel. All the roads near the town form beautiful viſtas, they being laid out in a direct line, and each planted on both ſides with a row of trees. In the neighbourhood is a large menagerie, with a pleaſure-houſe.

In the country belonging to Naſſau-Saarbruck-Uſingen is Wiſbaden, a handſome, populous, and thriving town, ſeated in the lordſhip of the ſame name, and in a good wine country. The prince's palace in this place was built in the beginning of the preſent century. The warm baths here were known to the antient Romans, and are ſtill famous. This town ſuffered greatly in the wars of the ſeventeenth century; but has been ſince conſiderably improved by prince George Auguſtus.

The prince of Naſſau-Uſingen has a beautiful ſeat in the village of Biberich, which is ſituated on the Rhine: it was erected by prince George Auguſtus, and embelliſhed by prince Charles: the building is large and magnificent, and ſtands in a delightful ſituation.

The lands belonging to Naſſau-Saarbruck, are ſituated between Lorrain, which lies to the weſt, and Deux-ponts to the eaſt; but though it is for the moſt part ſandy and woody, it abounds in iron and pit-coal, and the ſoil in ſome places produces good corn.

Saarbruck, the capital of this little diſtrict, lies on the river Saar. It was ſet on fire, and its walls deſtroyed by the Imperialiſts, on their recovering it from the French in 1676; but was again rebuilt, and at preſent conſiſts of about two hundred houſes, with a Lutheran and Calviniſt church. The prince's palace in this place was erected by prince William Henry. Oppoſite to this town on the other ſide of the river is St. Johann, with which it has a communication by means of a bridge. It is equal to Saarbruck in extent, and is defended by a rampart and moat. The Catholics are in the poſſeſſion of the old church, and ſince the year 1727, a new one has been erected for the Lutherans.

SECT. IX.

Of the Principality of Herſfeld, the Counties of Solms, Upper Iſenburg, and Witgenſtein; the Lordſhip of Weſtburg, and the other ſmall States in the Circle of the Upper Rhine.

BESIDES the countries already deſcribed in the circle of the Upper Rhine, there are a conſiderable number of others, moſt of which are very ſmall and inconſiderable, and are only remarkable for having a ſeat and voice in the college of princes, and in the diets of this circle.

One of the chief of theſe is the principality of Herſfeld, or Hirchfeld, which borders on Upper and Lower Heſſe, and is about twelve miles long, and the ſame in breadth. It is ſubject to the houſe of Heſſe Caſſel, who on that account have an additional vote in the college of princes, and at the diet of the circle of the Upper Rhine.

Herſfeld, its capital, is ſeated on the Fulda, forty miles to the ſouth of Caſſel, and is a neat but ſmall city, in which is a palace, a cathedral, a town church, a ſeminary, and a wealthy hoſpital.

The county of Solms is chiefly ſituated on both ſides the Lahn, and borders on the territories of Heſſe and Naſſau, and the diſtrict of the city of Wetzlar. It abounds in corn and cattle, and has many iron mines, which employ ſeveral founderies and other works.

The counts of Solms, which are ſuppoſed to be a branch of the family of Naſſau, are divided into the two principal branches, that of Solms-Braunſels, and that of Solms-Lich, each of whom has the following title, Lord of Munzenberg, Wildenfels, Sonnenwald, &c. and their arms are, for Solms, or, a lion azure; for Munzenberg, party per feſſe or and gules; for Wildenfels, ſable, a lion argent.

The counts of Solms have four votes in the college of the imperial counts of Wetteravia, and a like number in the diet of the circle of the Upper Rhine.

The principal place in the whole county is Braunfels, which is ſeated on a hill, where is a handſome caſtle or palace belonging to the prince, fortified after the antient manner, and is a place of great ſtrength. It contains within it a church that alſo ſerves the inhabitants of the town, which ſtands on the outſide. Both the caſtle and town are ſupplied with water by works erected at the foot of the hill. In the ſeventh century this town was twice deſtroyed by fire.

Upper Iſenburg is thus called to diſtinguiſh it from the county of Lower Iſenburg, in the Palatinate, and properly conſiſts of the lordſhip of Budingen. It is a fine corn-country, that has alſo ſome conſiderable woods, paſtures, and vineyards; and is watered by ſeveral little ſtreams, as the Kinzig, the Semen, and the Nidder.

The four princes of the houſe of Iſenburg govern different parts of this country, and ſit in the college of the imperial counts of Wetteravia, and in the diets of the circle of the Upper Rhine.

The principal places in this county are the two following:

Offenbach on the Maine, a ſmall town, which contains a palace, a German Calviniſt, a French Calviniſt, and a Lutheran church; and has ſeveral flouriſhing manufactures.

Budingen, though a ſmall town, is the capital of the whole country. The palace here has a fine parterre, contiguous to which is an orphan-houſe, in which a woollen manufacture is carried on. Here is alſo a free-ſchool.

The county of Witgenſtein is nineteen miles in length, and its greateſt breadth is ſomewhat above thirteen. It borders on Heſſe-Darmſtadt, the principality of Naſſau-Dillenburg, and the dutchy of Weſtphalia. Some parts of it are very mountainous, but yield plenty of wood, with mines of ſilver, copper, and iron. It has good paſtures; but produces little grain, except oats.

This county is divided between the two houſes of Sayn-Witgenſtein of Witgenſtein, and Sayn-Witgenſtein of Berleburg. Each houſe has a diſtinct vote both in the college of the counts of the empire, the diet of the Upper Rhine, and the college of Wetteravia. The joint revenue of theſe counts is computed at fifty thouſand rix-dollars a year.

The principal places in this county belonging to each of the counts are the following:

Witgenſtein, ſeated on a high mountain, and the patrimonial-houſe of the antient counts of Witgenſtein, and where thoſe of Sayn-Witgenſtein ſtill reſide.

Berleburg, a ſmall town ſeated on the little river Berlen, near the place where it falls into the Eder. In this town is a fine palace, and two other houſes belonging to the count.

There are alſo the counties of Falkenſtein and Wartemberg, whoſe counts enjoy the ſame privileges; but as they have no towns worthy of notice, we ſhall not trouble our readers with a dry deſcription of theſe ſmall diſtricts.

The

A New MAP of the CIRCLE of WESTPHALIA &c. Drawn from the best Authorities.

References.

A. County of E. Friesland.
B. County of Oldenburg.
C. Lower Bishop.k of Munster.
D. Bishop.k of Munster.
E. County of Hoy.
F. County of Bentheim.
G. Bishop.k of Osnabrug.
H. Bishop.k of Minden.
I. Duchy of Cleves.
K. Bishop.k of Paderborn.
L. Bishop.k of Liege.
M. Duchy of Juliers.
N. Arch Bishop.k of Cologne.
O. To Hesse.
P. County of Diepholt.
Q. To Hesse.
R. County of Scamburg.
S. County of Coppenburg.
T. County of Stanford.
U. County of Ravensburg.
W. County of Tiddenburg.
X. County of Ritberg.
Y. County of Lip.
Z. County of Mark.
a. Duchy of Westphalia.
b. Duchy of Berg.
c. Duchy of Ferden.

THE NORTH SEA OR GERMAN OCEAN

LOWER SAXONY

SEVEN UNITED PROVINCES

AUSTRIAN NETHERLANDS

DUCHY OF LOWER RHINE

CIRCLE OF THE UPPER RHINE

PART OF FRANCE

LUXEMBURG

British Miles 69 to a Degree

German Miles 15 to a Degree

Long.de E. from London

B. Williams Sculp.

The lordſhip of Weſterburg is a ſmall territory ſeated between the electorate of Treves and the territory of Naſſau, and contains fine paſtures, and conſequently ſheep and horned cattle. It alſo produces barley, rye, oats, and pulſe, with plenty of very fine earth-nuts. The woods are thinned, but it has a remarkable mine of what is called wood-coal, which is alone ſufficient to furniſh that neighbourhood with fuel. The colour, filaments, and twigs of this coal, nearly reſemble thoſe of wood, and the depth of the pit is about twenty feet. In this country are alſo deer and other game; the rivers abound with trout and cray-fiſh, and the ponds with pike, carp, and other kinds.

This lordſhip belongs to the counts of Weſterburg, of which there are ſeveral branches: it only contains the little towns of Weſtburg and Walterſburg, and ſeveral villages.

There are alſo a few other lordſhips, as thoſe of Kirchingen, Bratzenheim, &c. but they and ſome other little ſtates are too inconſiderable to deſerve a particular deſcription in a work which has for its ſubject not a particular country, but the whole terraqueous globe.

The biſhopric of Straſburg is alſo juſtly conſidered as a ſtate of the empire, on account of a part of this biſhopric lying in the Upper Circle of the Rhine; as is alſo the biſhopric of Baſil, for the ſame reaſon; and both theſe biſhops have a ſeat on the ſpiritual bench of the council of the princes of the empire, and at the diets of this circle; but as the principal part of the biſhopric of Straſburg, and the city of Straſburg itſelf, is in Alſace, and the chief part of the biſhopric of Baſil, with its capital, is in Swiſſerland, they will be more properly deſcribed in treating of thoſe countries.

CHAP. XVIII.

The Circle of WESTPHALIA.

SECT. I.

Of Weſtphalia in general; and firſt of the Biſhopric of Paderborn. Its Situation, Extent, Produce, and Rivers: the Prerogatives of the Biſhop. A Deſcription of the City of Paderborn, and ſome remarkable Springs.

THE people who inhabit the country between the Weſer and the Rhine were antiently called Weſtphalians, and from them that territory received the name of Weſtphalia; but the circle of Weſtphalia, which conſtitutes a part of that country, compriſes in it other territories; and we ought carefully to diſtinguiſh between the circle of Weſtphalia, Weſtphalia itſelf, and the dutchy of that name.

This circle is ſurrounded by the Burgundian circle, the United Provinces, the Northern or German Sea, the Upper Rheniſh, and the Electoral Rheniſh circles; it being two hundred miles long, and between a hundred and fifty and two hundred broad.

Certain ſtates were formerly reckoned in this circle, which at preſent no longer belong to it, as Utrecht, Guelders, and the biſhopric of Cambray; in other reſpects alſo the antient and modern liſts of the countries of the Weſtphalian circle differ greatly from each other. We ſhall include under it the biſhoprics of Paderborn, Munſter, Liege, and Oſnabrug, the dutchy of Verden, the principality of Minden, the dutchy of Cleve, Juliers, and Berg, &c. the principalities of Eaſt Frieſland and Mors, &c.

The ſummoning princes and directors of the circle are the biſhop of Munſter, and with him the electors of Brandenburg and the Palatinate, as dukes of Cleve and Juliers, both of whom, in this directory, enjoy together but one voice. The diets of the circle were uſually appointed at Cologne; but none have been held ſince the year 1718. The archives belonging to it are kept at Duſſeldorf.

With reſpect to religion, this circle is one of the mixed, and both the catholic and proteſtant ſtates nominate two aſſeſſors, to aſſiſt at the imperial and chamber-court of the empire.

We ſhall begin this circle with the biſhopric of Paderborn, which is bounded on the eaſt by Heſſe, and by the river Weſer, which divides it from the principality of Calenberg; on the north by the county of Lippe; on the weſt by the counties of Rietberg and Lippe, and the dutchy of Weſtphalia; and on the ſouth by the ſame, and the county of Waldec. Its greateſt extent from eaſt to weſt amounts to fifty-two miles, and from north to ſouth about forty-two miles.

It is for the moſt part a very fertile country, and in particular produces a good breed of cattle. It has alſo iron mines, ſalt and medicinal ſprings, with rivers that abound in fiſh; but it is moſt remarkable for its bacon and veniſon.

The Weſer waſhes a ſmall part of the country to the eaſt, and the Diemel, after traverſing a great part of the biſhopric, diſcharges itſelf into it. The Bever and the Nette receive their ſource in this country, as does alſo the Great Hemmer, the Hee, the Nieſe, and other little ſtreams, which fall into the Weſer: the Lippe, which riſes here, runs by Weſel into the Rhine. The other rivers are the Alme, the Pader, and the Ems.

In the whole biſhopric are twenty-three towns, three boroughs, ſixty-four pariſhes, and ſixteen monaſteries, all ſubject to the biſhop.

The inhabitants are in general of the Romiſh religion; but there are many Lutherans among them, who frequent the churches of that perſuaſion in the neighbouring countries.

The biſhop is a prince of the empire, and ſits at the diets of the empire between the biſhops of Hildeſheim and Freyſingen, and as a prelate is under the archbiſhop of Mentz. The epiſcopal chapter conſiſts of twenty-four prelates and capitulars, who muſt be twenty-one years of age before they are admitted, and muſt prove their noble extraction four degrees backwards.

The revenues of this ſee, which is ſuffragan to Mentz, is thought to be about twenty-five or thirty thouſand pounds.

The arms of the biſhopric are, a croſs or, in a field gules.

The high colleges here are the general-vicarſhip, the privy-council, the regency-chancery, the aulic-chamber, the officialſhip, and the temporal aulic-court.

This biſhopric is divided by high mountains, called the Egge, into the Fore and Upper Foreſt diſtrict.

Paderborn is the capital of the biſhopric, and is an antient city that ſtands in a pleaſant fruitful country, in the fifty-firſt degree forty-five minutes north latitude, and in the eighth degree twenty-five minutes eaſt longitude, and takes its name from the river Pader, which riſes in the center of it. Five of the largeſt ſprings riſe under the cathedral and the adjacent houſes, diſcharging ſo copious a ſtream that at twenty paces diſtance ſeveral mills, and afterwards a ſtill greater number in the town, are driven by it. In the cathedral formerly ſtood the images of the twelve apoſtles made of the fineſt ſilver; but in 1622 duke Chriſtian of Brunſwic took them away, and cauſed rixdollars to be ſtruck from them, with this inſcription, GOD'S FRIEND, THE PRIEST'S ENEMY. He alſo took the ſilver coffin of St. Liborius, which he likewiſe converted into money. Here is a collegiate church, two pariſh-churches, a Benedictine abbey, a college of Jeſuits, five other cloiſters, an univerſity erected in the year

1615, and a gymnaſium. This city antiently enjoyed the immunities belonging to a city of the empire; it was reckoned among the Hanſe-towns, and carried on a great trade; but this trade is decreaſed, and the inhabitants, for the moſt part, ſubſiſt by agriculture and the breeding of cattle.

At Metborn, two miles from Paderborn, are three ſprings, two of which are not above half a yard aſunder, and yet are of very different qualities: the one is limpid, of a bluiſh colour, luke-warm, and contains ſal-armoniac, ochre, iron, vitriol, allum, ſulphur, nitre, and orpiment: the other is as cold as ice, turbid and whitiſh, yet has much the ſame contents; but the water has a ſtronger taſte, and is heavier than the other. It is ſaid to be a perfect cure for the worms, yet the fowls that drink of it are immediately thrown into convulſions; but are ſoon recovered by an infuſion of common ſalt and vinegar. The third ſpring, which is about twenty paces diſtant from the other two, is of a greeniſh colour, but very clear; the taſte has a mixture of ſweet and ſour.

In this territory is the famous field of battle, where the brave prince Arminius, general of the German forces, defeated and ſlew Quintilius Varus, and routed the Roman army under his command; a moſt important victory, which freed the Germans from the Roman yoke.

SECT. II.

Of the Biſhopric of Munster.

Its Situation, Produce, and Rivers; the Religion of the Inhabitants; the Arms, Prerogatives, and Revenue of the Biſhop; with a Deſcription of the City of Munſter, and Coesfeld.

THE biſhopric of Munſter is bounded on the north by the principality of Eaſt Frieſland, the county of Oldenburg, and the prefecturate of Wildeſhauſen, which belongs to the electoral houſe of Brunſwic; to the eaſt by the biſhopric of Oſnabrug, with the counties of Tecklenburg, Lingen, and Ravenſberg; to the ſouth by a ſmall part of the dutchy of Weſtphalia, the county of Mark, and the dutchy of Cleve; and to the weſt by the United Provinces, the county of Zutphen, and the provinces of Upper Uſſel, Groningen, and the county of Bentheim; and is the largeſt of all the Weſtphalian biſhoprics.

This country is generally level, yet is interſperſed with ſome agreeable eminencies, but has no high mountains. The extenſive heaths ſerve for the breeding of cattle; it has alſo fruitful plains, fine woods, and good quarries of ſtone.

The rivers here abound with fiſh; the principal of them are the Ems, which traverſes the whole length of the biſhopric, and is increaſed by ſeveral ſmaller ſtreams, particularly by the Aa, which riſes in this country; the Lippe, which forms its boundary to the ſouth; the Vecht, which riſes here; and the Berkal. The lake of Dummer, which is near five miles in length, and half a one in breadth, lies between this biſhopric and the county of Diepholz.

Munſter, beſides its capital, contains twelve towns that are ſummoned to the land diets, with twelve others that have not this privilege, and the ſame number of ſmaller towns.

At the Reformation the doctrines of Luther gained ground in this country; but the exerciſe of that religion was afterwards ſuppreſſed. There are ſtill, however, ſeveral nobles, among whom ſome are of the Lutheran, and others of the Calviniſt church; and at Weerdt both are tolerated: the popiſh religion, however, prevails.

The principal commerce of the inhabitants is in hogs and Weſtphalia hams. They generally endeavour to preſerve a neutrality, when their neighbours are at war; and though there are ſeveral fortreſſes in the dioceſe, they pay twelve thouſand crowns per annum for the protection of the ſtates of Holland, who have uſually a great ſway in the choice of a biſhop.

The provincial ſtates of this biſhopric conſiſt of the clergy, the nobility, and the above-mentioned towns, and are uſually held at Munſter.

The arms of this biſhopric are, a feſſe or, in a field azure.

The biſhop is a prince of the empire, and in the college of the princes takes place alternately with the biſhop of Liege; but in ſuch a manner that Oſnabrug always ſits between both. He is the firſt ſummoning prince and director of the circle of Weſtphalia, and at the diets of the circle, enjoys the firſt ſeat and voice. As biſhop he ſtands under the archbiſhop of Cologne. The chapter conſiſts of forty members, who are all nobles, and muſt prove their nobility; and once a year the ſhield and helmet of the youngeſt canon are carried in proceſſion with public beat of drum, that every one may enquire into his pedigree. The epiſcopal domains are more conſiderable than thoſe of Oſnabrug; and the chapter maintains ſeven regiments. The revenues of the biſhop are ſaid to amount to ſeventy thouſand ducats. He becomes heir to ſuch ſtrangers as die here without children; a very unjuſt cuſtom, unknown in any other part of the empire.

This biſhopric is divided into four quarters, each of which is ſubdivided into a number of prefecturates, the principal places in which are the following.

Munſter, in Latin Monaſterium, the capital of the biſhopric, is ſeated in a very fruitful and pleaſant ſpot on the river Aa, in the fifty-ſecond degree ſixteen minutes north latitude, and the ſeventh degree twelve minutes eaſt longitude, thirty-eight miles ſouth-weſt of Oſnabrug. It is ſurrounded with double ditches and ramparts, and has alſo a citadel called the Brille, erected by biſhop Chriſtopher Bernhard, in order to curb the town. The city is almoſt of a circular form, and has eight gates. The houſes are moſtly in the antique taſte, and the principal of them are in the four market-places, particularly the ſenate-houſe, and the halls belonging to the companies. In the ſouth-eaſt part of the city is a large ſquare, where the fronts of the houſes reſt upon pillars, and form handſome piazzas. This city has five collegiate and ſix pariſh churches, beſides a college belonging to the Jeſuits, a great number of convents, and other religious houſes, moſt of them ſtately piles, and ſome of them very delightfully ſituated in the midſt of beautiful gardens.

This city is famous for the peace concluded there in the year 1648, between the Swedes and the emperor, and the princes of the empire, by which an end was put to a war which had laſted thirty years, with vaſt profuſion of blood; a treaty which eſtabliſhed the fortune of many ſovereigns, the liberties of the empire in general, and the free exerciſe of the Proteſtant religion in the empire; and a treaty upon which thoſe that have been ſince made with Germany and the northern parts, have in a great meaſure been founded.

Coesfeld, a town ſituated in a fine plain, is, next to Munſter, the principal town in the whole biſhopric. It was formerly one of the Hanſe-towns, and at preſent contains two pariſh churches, one college of Jeſuits, four nunneries, and one monaſtery, and has likewiſe a princely judge. In the year 1591, it ſuffered greatly by fire, and in 1631, it was taken by the Heſſians.

SECT. III.

Of the Biſhopric of Liege.

Its Situation, Extent, Produce, and Rivers. The States of the Country; the Religion and Commerce of the Inhabitants; with the Titles, Arms, and Prerogatives of the Biſhop; the Offices by which the Government is adminiſtred; and a particular Deſcription of the City of Liege, as alſo of Huy, Dinant, and Spa.

THE biſhopric of Liege lies in the Netherlands, and is bounded on the north by Brabant; on the eaſt by Limburg and Juliers; on the ſouth by Champagne and Luxemburg; and on the weſt by Brabant, Namur, and Hainault, extending from north to ſouth above ninety-five miles; but dividing and running much to the ſouthward, is of very different breadth: ſome ſmall diſtricts of this biſhopric lie within the juriſdiction of Brabant and Luxemburg.

This is a delightful tract, abounding in corn-fields, paſture grounds, and cattle: the hills are covered with vineyards, which produce wines that reſemble the middling

dling wines of Burgundy and Champagne, and the country has conſiderable foreſts, with many quarries of marble and free-ſtone; alſo mines of copper, lead, and iron, brimſtone, vitriol, and pit-coal. This biſhopric is likewiſe celebrated for its mineral waters, as thoſe at Spa and Chau-Fontaine.

The principal rivers by which the country is watered, are the Maeſe and the Sambre.

The provincial ſtates conſiſt of the chapter of the nobility, and the burgo-maſters of the towns; theſe have two general treaſurers and ſix receivers. Each of the two firſt ſtates chooſe four deputies annually. The burgomaſters of the city of Liege are born deputies of the third ſtate; but have four deputies of the ſmaller towns to aſſiſt them. Theſe deputies meet in the epiſcopal palace of Liege.

The principal exports of this country, and particularly of the city of Liege, conſiſt of beer, arms, nails, ſerge, leather, and pit-coal, all which are exported from hence in prodigious quantities.

The titles of the biſhop of Liege are the following. By the grace of God, biſhop and prince of Liege, duke of Bouillon, marquis of Franchimont, count of Looz, Hoorn, &c.

His arms on account of Liege, are a pillar argent, on a pedeſtal of the ſame, with a crown or, in a field gules: on account of Bouillon, a feſſe argent, in a field gules: on account of Franchimont, three lions in a field argent; and on account of Looz, four feſſes gules in a field or.

The biſhop of Liege in the council of the princes of the empire, takes rank alternately with Munſter; but ſo that Oſnabrug always ſits between them. This biſhopric is the third in rank in the circle of Weſtphalia. The eccleſiaſtical juriſdiction of the biſhop is divided into ſeven archidiaconates, and the chapter conſiſts of ſixty perſons.

The prince's privy council, which is filled with ſpiritual and ſecular counſellors, decides all affairs relative to the ſuperiority and immunities of the country, and the rights and prerogatives of the prince. The aulic and rent-chamber determines all matters with reſpect to his revenues. The officialſhip has the direction of every thing relating to religion. The court of the ſcoffen, or high judicial court, determines all criminal cauſes. The ordinary council examines every thing that comes before it by appeals from the feudal and allodial court, as alſo all cauſes inconſiſtent with the privileges of the emperor. The feudal court judges in all feudal diſputes, and the allodial court in all allodial controverſies. The court of the twenty-two judge ſuch officers as abuſe their power.

This biſhopric contains twenty-ſix towns, which are divided into the Walloon and Flemiſh, and has fifteen hundred pariſhes, ſeventeen abbies for monks, who muſt be gentlemen, and eleven for ladies: ſo that the annual revenues of the biſhop are computed at three hundred thouſand ducats, and he is ſaid to be able to maintain eight thouſand troops, without oppreſſing his ſubjects, the bulk of whom are of the Popiſh religion.

The principal places in this biſhopric are the following:

Liege, by the Germans called Luyck, is ſeated on the river Maeſe, in the fiftieth degree forty-ſix minutes north latitude, and the fifth degree twenty-eight minutes eaſt longitude, in a vale between two mountains, one of which ſtands to the north, and the other to the eaſt. The city itſelf is generally divided into the Old or Upper, and into the New or Lower Town, and the laſt is ſubdivided into two parts, namely, into the iſland and the quarter beyond the Maeſe. The Upper Town ſtands on the declivity of the northern mountain, which is called the Holy Walburg, and extends on the ſouth to an arm of the Maeſe, by which it is ſeparated from that part of the Lower Town called the Iſland; but to the north terminates on the Great Maeſe, which divides it from the quarter beyond that river. The Lower Town, alſo called the Iſland, is encompaſſed by two branches of the Maeſe, which unite at the point of the iſland; and the quarter beyond the Maeſe is a peninſula ſituated between the river and the eaſtern mount named Cornillon. Theſe ſeveral parts of the town have a communication with each other by bridges.

This city is well fortified, and defended by a citadel, erected on the mountain of the Holy Walburg. At the foot of this mountain ſtands the grand epiſcopal palace, part of which was burnt down in the year 1734; but was rebuilt in 1737, at the expence of the provincial ſtates, in a regular and fine taſte. In it are not only held the meeting of the ſtates; but the high colleges. The council-houſe, which was ruined by a bombardment in 1691, was magnificently rebuilt in 1714, and contains a public library. This city has ſixteen gates, ſeventeen bridges, ſome of which are very handſome, twelve public ſquares, one hundred and fifty-four ſtreets, moſt of which are broad and ſtraight, a cathedral, and ſeven collegiate churches, thirty-two pariſhes, five abbies for men, and the ſame number for women, thirty-two cloiſters of both ſexes, two colleges of Jeſuits, one ſeminary, ten hoſpitals, and a chartreuſe. The endowments of the eccleſiaſtics are ſo rich, and the ſituation ſo pleaſant, that Liege is commonly ſtiled the paradiſe of the clergy. The houſes are high, and generally built of bluiſh marble. Here are alſo two fine quays adorned with rows of trees, and the city is four miles in circuit.

The cathedral of St. Lambert is extremely large; but is a heavy ſtructure: it contains a great number of pretended relics, beſides buſts and ſtatues of ſilver, and a St. George on horſeback, which is ſaid to be of gold. Among the many collegiate and pariſh churches, that of St. Paul is remarkable for its ſtructure and fine ornaments. All the regular orders have very beautiful convents, and among the reſt is the college of Engliſh Jeſuits, and a fine nunnery for Engliſh ladies. In St. William's convent lies Sir John Mandeville, the famous romantic Engliſh traveller, and near his grave are kept the ſaddle, ſpurs, and knife he uſed, and on his tomb is an inſcription in old French, requeſting paſſengers to pray for him.

The city of Liege is not only called the paradiſe of the clergy, but the hell of women, they being obliged to drag the boats, carry burthens, and work harder than in any other place; as a conſequence of this it is termed the purgatory of men, as their wives generally domineer over them.

In this city are a multitude of brewers, who export great quantities of beer. The manufacturers of arms and nails in this city have a great demand for them. Its leather and ſerge is alſo famous; and from this town, and its territory, the Dutch receive moſt of their pit-coal. The magiſtracy have been ſeverely handled by their biſhop for pretending that Liege is a free imperial city, and diſputing his authority. In the year 1691, it was bombarded by the French, and in 1702, taken by the duke of Marlborough.

About two miles from the city is the epiſcopal palace of Sering, in which the biſhop uſually reſides during a conſiderable part of the ſummer; and near it, on the Maeſe, is a well built village, that contains many pleaſure-houſes.

Hui, or Huy, is ſeated on the Maeſe, which at this place receives into it the little river Huy. It lies in a pleaſant vale, and is divided by the Maeſe into two parts, that have a communication with each other, by means of a ſtone bridge. The ſmall river Huy alſo dividing into ſeveral branches, forms a number of little iſlands in the town, that are inhabited and joined together by bridges. To the north of the town lie five or ſix ſuburbs. Huy was once well fortified; but it has been frequently beſieged and taken, particularly in the year 1715, when its fortifications were deſtroyed; but tho' it has undergone various misfortunes, it has ſtill many fine houſes, with one collegiate, and fourteen pariſh churches; an abbey, a cloiſter of regular canons of the order of the Holy Croſs, ſixteen convents of both ſexes, and a number of chapels and hoſpitals. On the river Huy are ſeveral paper-mills and iron-works, and the adjacent country yields corn, wine, allum, ſulphur, and pit-coal.

Dinant, in Latin Dionantum, a city ſeated on the Maeſe, amidſt hills and rocks, and conſiſting of the Town properly ſo called, of the Lower Town, the Iſland quarter,

quarter, and ſome ſuburbs. It contains one collegiate, and ſeven other churches, a college of Jeſuits, with ſix cloiſters and hoſpitals. Before the town are ſome fine quarries of marble, and other ſtone. The principal trade carried on here conſiſts in leather. In 1554 it was ſeverely handled by the French. In 1674 it was taken by the Auſtrians, and the following year by the French, who did not reſtore it till the peace of Nimeguen.

Spa, or Spaw, a town celebrated for its mineral waters, is ſeated in a valley ſurrounded with mountains, and contains three hundred houſes. The part called the Old Spa, which is properly only a ſuburb to the other, conſiſts of miſerable cottages, and when ſtrangers arrive, the poor inhabitants ſend out a ſwarm of children to get what they can by begging. The houſes of New Spa are little, dark, old faſhioned wooden buildings, and yet it is affirmed, that they can make twelve hundred beds for ſtrangers. The church of the Capuchins, and the pariſh church are both ſeated upon eminences, and make a good appearance at a diſtance. The inn called the court of London is very large, and as it is the beſt in the place, is moſt frequented by ſtrangers. The name of the five principal wells are Tunnelet, Watpotz, Savliniere, Geronſlerd, and Pouhon. The inhabitants are employed in making toys, and other things for ſtrangers, to whom they are very civil, and ready to do them all good offices. Near the city there are excellent fiſh, and good game, to accommodate thoſe who go to the Spa.

SECT. IV.

The Biſhopric of OSNABRUG.

Its Situation, Extent, Produce, and Rivers. Of the Inhabitants, their Employments, Religion, and Trade. The Regulations eſtabliſhed with regard to there being alternately a Proteſtant and Popiſh Biſhop. Its Revenue, Arms, public Offices, and Chapter: with a particular Deſcription of the City of Oſnabrug.

THE biſhopric of Oſnabrug is ſeated in the center of the circle of Weſtphalia, and is bounded on the north by the biſhopric of Munſter; on the ſouth by Munſter and the county of Ravenſburg; on the eaſt by the ſame county and the principality of Minden; and on the weſt by Munſter, and the counties of Lingen and Tecklenburg; but the prefecturate of Rechenberg lies ſeparate. This biſhopric extends forty-ſeven miles from north to ſouth, and between nineteen and twenty-eight from eaſt to weſt.

Almoſt one-half of this biſhopric conſiſts of heath-lands that yield paſturage, and above ten ſorts of turf. The country, however, produces as much rye as ſupplies the neceſſities of the inhabitants and five hundred ſtills. Conſiderable quantities of wheat, oats, and moſt of the barley uſed here, are imported from the principality of Minden and the county of Schauenburg; and, as there are but few cattle bred in this biſhopric, great numbers are brought from Eaſt Frieſland. The country has but little wood, but, beſides their turf, they have ſome coal-pits. Marble is alſo found here.

The principal rivers are the Haſe and the Hunte, both which riſe in this country.

The inhabitants are diligent and laborious, and the country people here ſeldom ſit, as in other parts of Germany, by ſtoves; but uſually by the fire-ſide, where they perform their principal work, which is ſpinning; and about ſix thouſand peaſants go every year to Holland, in order to mow, cut turf, and do other work for hire; and it is ſaid that the meaneſt of them bring home twenty, and the beſt workmen ſeventy florins; ſo that the ready money thus brought into the country may be reckoned at two hundred thouſand florins a year.

There are in this biſhopric many vaſſals who belong partly to the chapter and popiſh clergy, and partly to the burghers. The number of Catholics and Proteſtants is thought to be nearly equal, though the former have thirty-two churches, and the latter only twenty; but no Jews are tolerated in the country.

The moſt beneficial employment of the inhabitants conſiſts in ſpinning yarn, and manufacturing a coarſe kind of linen, which is conveyed by the Engliſh, Dutch, and Spaniards to their ſettlements in Africa and America: there are alſo ſome coarſe woollen cloths made in this country.

At the peace of Oſnabrug, in 1648, it was ſettled that this biſhopric ſhould alternately have a catholic and a Lutheran biſhop, and in conſideration that the houſe of Brunſwic had for the ſake of a general peace made ſeveral valuable ſacrifices, namely, of the coadjutorſhips of Halberſtadt and Magdeburg to the elector of Brandenburg, of that of Bremen to the king of Sweden, and of the biſhopric of Ratzeburg to the dukes of Mecklenburg, the Lutherans, who were to have the alternative, were to be a younger prince of the houſe of Brunſwic-Lunenburg, the preſent royal family of Great Britain; and on failure of that, the alternative was to paſs to Brunſwic-Wolfenbuttle, now Brunſwic-Bevern: ſo that the proteſtant alternative has been enjoyed by prince Erneſt, grandfather to his late majeſty, and afterwards the next turn by another prince Erneſt, the late king's uncle, who was created duke of York; and upon the deceaſe of the archbiſhop of Cologne, who was the laſt incumbent, Frederic, the ſecond ſon of the king of Great Britain, was elected biſhop in 1764.

But though this biſhopric is alternately hereditary in the houſe of Hanover, it is not ſo with regard to its popiſh biſhops, who are choſen out of different families by the chapter, which conſiſts of twenty-five canons, the revenues of eighteen of whoſe prebends are enjoyed by the Romiſh eccleſiaſtics; thoſe of four, by the Jeſuits, for the ſupport of their college; and the other three by Lutheran canons only, who are capable of electing, but not of being elected biſhops, as the catholic canons are. When there is a popiſh biſhop, he is ſuffragan to the archbiſhop of Cologne as metropolitan; but when there is a proteſtant biſhop, the exerciſe of the metropolitan juriſdiction is to be ſuſpended. Since the reformation introduced here in 1534, the biſhop of either denomination has, with the dignity and power of a temporal prince, little more than the name of a biſhop.

The revenue of this biſhopric amounts to between twenty and thirty thouſand pounds.

The arms of this biſhopric are an orb gules, ſet with ſix ſpokes in a field argent.

The biſhop is a prince of the empire, and may ſit in the diet of the empire in the council of the princes between the biſhops of Munſter and Liege.

The public offices are the prince's privy-council, which has the care of the epiſcopal board-lands, and the ſupreme inſpection of the country. The prince's chancery of lands and juſtice, conſiſting of two catholic and two Lutheran counſellors, one of whom is at the ſame time a director; as alſo of a catholic and Lutheran ſecretary. From this court an appeal lies immediately to the ſupreme court of the empire. The epiſcopal officialſhip enjoys, in civil cauſes, a juriſdiction jointly with the chancery; but, with reſpect to ſuch eccleſiaſtical matters as belong to the catholics, jointly with the archdeacons, from whom, notwithſtanding, an appeal may lie to the official. The prince's Lutheran land-conſiſtory is compoſed of a ſecular preſident, two ſpiritual counſellors, and a ſecretary.

The biſhopric is divided into prefecturates, each of which has a noble ſeneſchal, together with a rent-maſter, who collects the revenues belonging to the biſhop; a rural count, or judge, a court clerk, and a fiſcal. Theſe prefecturates conſiſt of pariſhes, and the pariſhes of peaſantſhips, which are properly ſmall villages that have no churches, and frequently only certain little diſtricts in which many peaſants reſide together.

All the officers muſt ſwear to be true to the ſovereign and the chapter. On the deceaſe of a biſhop the chapter takes poſſeſſion of all, and fills up, in conjunction with the magiſtrates of the city of Oſnabrug, the vacant offices; for almoſt all the officers, the rural counts excepted, loſe their poſts on the deceaſe of a biſhop, till they are again reinſtated in them by the chapter, which retains or diſcards them at pleaſure; but the new biſhop again makes a change in the officers.

The

The principal city in this biſhopric is Oſnabrug, or Oſnabruck, in Latin Oſnabruga, which is ſeated in a vale by the river Haſe, in the fifty-ſecond degree forty-two minutes north latitude, and the ſeventeenth degree thirty-eight minutes eaſt longitude. It is a neat well built city; but the buildings are antique. It has ſeveral handſome public ſtructures, and is encompaſſed with walls and ditches, but commanded by a mountain within cannon-ſhot, upon which is an abbey or rather a place for men of quality to retire to for devotion. The number of houſes, excluſive of the public buildings, amounts to twelve hundred; but the place is not populous. The epiſcopal palace was built by biſhop Erneſt Auguſtus, and belongs to the electoral houſe of Brunſwic-Lunenburg, who uſually reſigns it to the catholic biſhop for his uſe. This palace is well fortified, and ſeparated from the town by a bridge. This ſtructure is erected in the form of a hexagon, and at each corner is a turret, with a court in the middle. It was in one of the apartments of this palace that king George I. expired, on the eleventh of June, 1727, in the arms of his brother prince Erneſt; and, it is ſaid, in the very room where he was born.

The chancery is but an indifferent building. In the hall of the council-houſe, where the celebrated peace of 1648 was concluded, are the pictures of the ſeveral ambaſſadors who aſſiſted at it. There are alſo ſhewn here, in a thin folio, the portraits of the biſhops of Oſnabrug, which George Bergen drew with his pen. In St. Peter's cathedral are ſhewn the ſilver coffins in which lies St. Criſpin and Criſpinian; and here are alſo interred ſeveral biſhops. The cathedral church of St. John is the ſecond pariſh-church belonging to the Romans. The Lutherans have two pariſh-churches, which are thoſe of St. Mary and St. Catharine.

The Romans have not yet the privilege of making proceſſions in the city. In their church-yards the Lutherans are buried, but the catholics are not interred in thoſe belonging to the Lutherans.

There is here a college of Jeſuits, with a monaſtery of Dominicans, and a nunnery of Auguſtines; alſo a commendry belonging to the Teutonic order of St. George, with a ſmall church, and a ſeat of the order of St. John. Till the year 1595 the Lutherans and Papiſts had a ſchool here in common, at the *Collegium Carolinum*, in which were teachers of both churches; but in that year a ſeparation was made, when the Lutheran gymnaſium aroſe, in the poſſeſſion of which the town was confirmed in 1603, by the aulic-chamber of the emperor and empire. In the *Collegium Carolinum* the Jeſuits have their ſeminary.

The church belonging to the cloiſter of Auguſtines, which was deſerted at the time of the reformation, has been converted into a priſon and houſe of correction. There are here alſo three well built hoſpitals, and ſome ſmaller ones, with a Romiſh and Lutheran orphan-houſe.

The principal ſubſiſtance of the inhabitants depends upon the linen trade, and the foreign manufactures retailed here. The magiſtracy are Lutheran, and re-choſen annually on the ſecond of January. This was the firſt town in Weſtphalia that received the Lutheran doctrine, Dr. Herman Hecker, a monk of the order of St. Auguſtine, and former maſter to Luther, preaching it here from the pulpit in the year 1519. This city denies the power of the biſhop in affairs relating to the church and police; and is alſo poſſeſſed of the criminal juriſdiction, with the right of fortification, and has a conſiſtory of its own, as alſo the exciſe, and the privilege of collecting the rates of the burghers, with an annual revenue of about eight or nine thouſand rixdollars. It is poſſeſſed likewiſe of the right of coining copper money, which it exerciſed for the laſt time in the year 1740.

SECT. V.

Of the Principality of MINDEN.

Its Situation, Extent, and Produce: the Religion and Trade of the Inhabitants: the ſeveral Offices by which the Government is adminiſtered: the Revenues received by the King of Pruſſia from this Country; and a particular Deſcription of the Cities of Minden and Lubbecke.

THE principality of Minden lies to the weſt of the biſhopric of Oſnabrug, and is nearly a hundred and fourteen miles in circuit. It conſiſts for the moſt part of good corn-land, and agriculture being carried on with great diligence, the inhabitants ſupply the neighbouring countries with corn, and particularly with wheat and barley; flax alſo is cultivated with ſuch ſucceſs, that they are likewiſe able to ſupply their neighbours with it. The meadows and paſtures breed a conſiderable number of cattle. They have alſo wood, pit-coal, turf, and an important ſalt-work, which ſupplies both the Pruſſian and the adjacent countries with that commodity. The Weſer traverſes the country, and is of great advantage to its commerce.

With reſpect to the religion of the inhabitants, thoſe of the Romiſh church enjoy only in the city of Minden, and the Calviniſts every quarter of a year at the citadel of Peterſhagen, their public worſhip; and all the other churches in the country belong to the Lutherans; yet the Jews are allowed their ſchools at Minden and Lubbecke.

The inhabitants are chiefly employed in agriculture, the breeding of cattle, the ſpinning of linen, and weaving of buckram. They alſo make a kind of half linen and half woollen ſtuffs: conſiderable quantities of yarn are exported from this principality, and the coarſe linen made here is ſent to England and Spain. There are here conſiderable breweries, a great trade in corn, ſope, horſes, and all ſorts of cattle.

Charlemagne erected this country into a biſhopric; but the preciſe year of its foundation is not known, though it is ſuppoſed to be about the year 803, from which time, to the peace of Weſtphalia, are reckoned ſixty biſhops: but at the peace of Oſnabrug, in 1648, the biſhopric of Minden was reſigned as a principality to the electoral houſe of Brandenburg, inſtead of the ceded countries of Pomerania. On the fifteenth of October, 1649, the elector Frederic William cauſed the citadels of this principality to be poſſeſſed by his officers; and on the twelfth of February, 1650, received the homage of the inhabitants.

Over this principality and the county of Ravenſberg a regency is appointed, which alſo, in conjunction with the two ſuperintendents of theſe countries, and the Proteſtant court-chaplain of Minden, conſtitutes the conſiſtory. Both colleges conduct in common ſuch affairs as relate to the ſovereign; but the regency alone enjoys the adminiſtration of juſtice, that over the knights in the firſt inſtance, and over the others in the ſecond. The war and domain-chamber manage all affairs relating to war, trade, and manufactures. Out of theſe colleges, or offices, another of health is appointed, which, when any infectious diſeaſe prevails among the inhabitants, or cattle, makes the neceſſary proviſion for putting a ſtop to it. Here is alſo a provincial medicinal-college, in which a member of the war and domain-chamber preſides, and takes care that the country be provided with ſkilful phyſicians, apothecaries, ſurgeons, and midwives. At Minden and Lubbecke the civil power is adminiſtered by the magiſtrate, but in the country by officers appointed for that purpoſe; and it is alſo in ſome meaſure exerciſed by the chapter, the provoſt of the chapter, and ſeveral religious foundations.

The annual revenue ariſing to the ſovereign from the domain-lands are, according to Dr. Buſching, rated at ſomewhat more than a ton and a half of gold in rixdollars; and the revenues of the war-cheſt, ariſing from this principality and the counties of Ravenſberg, Tecklenburg, and Lingen, are eſtimated at about two tons and a half of gold.

The principal places in this country are the following:

Minden, the capital of the principality, is ſeated on the weſt ſide of the Weſer, in the fifty-ſecond degree thirty-one minutes north latitude, and in the eighth degree thirty-eight minutes eaſt longitude. It is a neat and well fortified town, environed with ramparts and ditches,

ditches, and has a ſtone-bridge over the Weſer. Its commodious ſituation for trade and navigatien, its brewery of a pleaſant white beer, and in ſome meaſure alſo its agriculture and breed of cattle, ſupply its inhabitants with the means of procuring a comfortable ſubſiſtence. The cathedral is a noble and large, though dark ſtructure, and near it is a handſome chapter-houſe. The chapter conſiſts of eighteen perſons, who are partly Roman catholic and partly Lutheran, and has a chapter-croſs which hangs at an azure ribbon, and was conferred by the king in 1756. The church of St. John alſo belongs to the Papiſts, and contains a collegiate foundation of ten catholics. St. Martin's, the principal church belonging to the Lutherans, has alſo a collegiate foundation of nine perſons, who are partly Roman catholic and partly Lutheran, together with ſix vicars. Near St. Martin's church is a female foundation for twelve perſons, the abbeſs of which has a pretty extenſive feudal ſeat. The third Lutheran church is that of St. Simeon. The churches of St. Paul and St. Nicholas alſo belong to the Lutherans; but it is ſeldom, and only at certain times, that divine ſervice is performed in them. It has likewiſe an orphan-houſe, and three alms-houſes.

This city has ſuffered greatly by war, and has ſeveral times been beſieged and taken. Upon the plain in the neighbourhood of this city a memorable battle was fought on the firſt of Auguſt, 1759, in which the confederate army under prince Ferdinand of Brunſwic totally routed the French, when the troops of the allied army, particularly the Britiſh foot, ſignalized their valour in ſo extraordinary a manner, againſt much ſuperior numbers of the enemy, as gained them immortal honour.

Lubbecke, a ſmall town, which ever ſince the year 1279 was encompaſſed with walls, ramparts, and ditches. It enjoys conſiderable immunities, and in particular the juriſdiction over a conſiderable diſtrict. In it are thirteen gentlemen's ſeats, and one of the order of knighthood is always firſt burgomaſter; hence the magiſtracy bear the title of knights, burgomaſter, and council. The inhabitants, moſt of whom are of the Lutheran religion, trade in yarn and linen; they alſo carry on agriculture, and the breeding of cattle, brew beer, and diſtil ſpirits. Near the pariſh-church is a collegiate foundation, conſiſting of one dean and four canons, among whom there muſt be always a Roman catholic.

SECT. VI.

Of the Dutchy of Verden.

Its Situation, Extent, Produce, and Rivers: the Religion of the Inhabitants: the Offices by which the Government is adminiſtered; with a Deſcription of the City of Verden.

THE dutchy of Verden terminates on the dutchy of Bremen and Lunenburg, and is computed to be about twenty-eight miles in length and breadth. It conſiſts, for the moſt part, of heath and high land, as alſo of foreſts; but on the rivers Weſer and Aller is good marſh land.

The Aller waters almoſt all the ſouth part of this dutchy; but the Weſer only ſome of the weſterly boundaries, where it receives the former into it. The other rivers of this dutchy are the Wumme, which riſes on the borders of Lunenburg, and traverſing the dutchy from eaſt to weſt, receives the ſmaller rivers that riſe here, as the Fintau, the Veerſe, the Werdau, and the Rodau; after which it enters the dutchy of Bremen.

The inhabitants are of the Lutheran religion, and the country has the ſame conſiſtory with Bremen, and alſo one and the ſame general ſuperintendent; but at Verden is alſo a ſpecial ſuperintendent, who is a member of the royal conſiſtory, and has under his inſpection the twelve provincial pariſhes of this dutchy.

Verden was a biſhopric founded by Charlemagne; but at the peace of Weſtphalia, in 1648, the crown of Sweden obtained the biſhopric as a dutchy. It was afterwards taken by the Danes; but by virtue of the alliance concluded at Wiſmar in 1715, it was ceded, together with Bremen, by the king of Denmark, to the electoral houſe of Brunſwic-Lunenburg; and in the year 1718 the king of Sweden made the ſame ceſſion.

In the council of the princes of the empire the king of Great Britain, as duke of Verden, has a ſeat on the temporal bench, after the prince of Halberſtadt, and alſo at the diets of the circle of Weſtphalia.

This dutchy has the ſame regency with that of Bremen, namely, a chancery, and an aulic-court; in the latter of which an aſſeſſor ſits, both for the nobility of this dutchy, and for the town of Verden. The land ſtates of this dutchy conſiſt of the nobility and town of Verden. Both the council of nobles here, and that of the town of Verden, appear, in conjunction with the land-ſtates of Bremen, at their diet at Baſdel, when any affairs are to be diſcuſſed there that have a relation to both dutchies.

The city of Verden is ſeated on the Aller, which here divides itſelf into two branches, and is at preſent only frequented by the ſhips that go up and down the Aller. There are here four churches; the cathedral, near which is the church of St. Andrew, that of St. Nicholas, and that of St. John. In this town is alſo a Latin-ſchool.

SECT. VII.

Of the Dutchy of Cleve.

Its Situation, Extent, Produce, and Rivers: the Religion of the Inhabitants: the Offices by which the Government is adminiſtered: the Revenues the King of Pruſſia receives from this Dutchy; with a Deſcription of the Cities of Cleve, Emmeric, and Weſel.

THE dutchy of Cleve, or Cleves, terminates to the eaſt on the biſhopric of Munſter; to the ſouth on the dutchy of Berg, the principality of Mors, the archbiſhopric of Cologne, and Pruſſian Gueldres; to the weſt on Brabant and Gueldres; and to the north on Gueldres and Munſter; extending forty miles in length from north to ſouth, and fifteen in breadth from eaſt to weſt.

This country abounds in corn, fruit, and all manner of plants: it has very fat meadows, in which are bred a conſiderable number of horned cattle and horſes. In general it is well cultivated, and has many delightful ſpots, particularly near the city of Cleve: all kinds of game are here in plenty, particularly on the weſt ſide of the Rhine. This river divides the country into the eaſtern and weſtern parts, receiving into it the rivers of Roer, the Emſer, and the Lippe. The Maeſe touches alſo on a part of the dutchy, and receives into it the Niers, which riſes in the dutchy of Juliers. The Old Iſſel alſo traverſes a part of this dutchy. All theſe rivers abound pretty much in fiſh; and the ſalmon, pike, and carp of the Rhine, are particularly admired.

The inhabitants are moſtly of the Romiſh church; but the Calviniſts, Lutherans, Mennonites, and Jews, are allowed the free exerciſe of their religion. There are ſix collegiate churches, two commanderies of the Teutonic order, one *commendam* belonging to the order of St. John, the abbey of Elten and Hamborn, ſeventeen monaſteries, and about thirty nunneries.

The voice of Juliers, Cleve, and Berg in the council of the princes of the empire has been dormant ever ſince the death of duke John William. In the circle of Weſtphalia the elector of Brandenburg, and the elector Palatine, as dukes of Cleve, Juliers, and Berg, bear alternately the office of ſending the circular letters to ſummon the ſtates to vote; but in the *directorium* have but one voice between them.

In the city of Cleve is the royal regency appointed over this dutchy and the county of Mark, to which the antient aulic-judicatory has been united, and in it too is a conſiſtory held monthly; ſo that this high college regulates all the affairs of church and ſtate, and appeals lie to it from all the other courts. The war and domain-chamber of Cleve, Mors, and the Mark, take cognizance of every thing relating to œconomy, the foreſt, tolls, contributions, exciſe, mines, war, &c. and under it is the provincial council eſtabliſhed in 1563, that regulates every thing relating to the police; but civil and criminal affairs are adminiſtered by the provincial judicatories appointed

pointed in the year 1753 at Cleve, Xanten, Weſel, and Dinſlacken; and to theſe the ſubjects of the adjoining prefecturates are referred.

The annual revenue ariſing to the king of Pruſſia from the domains of Cleves and the Mark, are eſtimated at about three hundred fifty-ſix thouſand rixdollars, and the ſum brought to the war cheſt from Cleve, the Mark, and Mors, to about three hundred forty thouſand.

The principal places in this dutchy are the following:

Cleve, in Latin Clivia, is ſaid to derive its name from its ſituation among cliffs and the declivity of a hill, where it ſtands between the Rhine and the Maeſe, in one of the fineſt countries in Germany. It is ſeated in the fifty-firſt degree fifteen minutes north latitude, and in the ſixth degree twenty-four minutes eaſt longitude. It is ſmall but pleaſant, well built, and well peopled, having ſeveral fine houſes belonging to perſons of quality; but thoſe of the ordinary burghers are mean. The caſtle is large, and delightfully ſeated on the top of a hill; but is irregular and not very ſtrong. It has ſtately apartments, and there the king of Pruſſia reſides when he comes to this city. The inhabitants chiefly ſubſiſt by the circulation of money occaſioned by the reſidence of his deputies, who govern the dutchy, and by the meeting of the ſtates, who aſſemble in the caſtle. There are here a German Calviniſt and a French Calviniſt church, one belonging to the Lutherans, and another to the Mennonites, together with an academy belonging to the Calviniſts, with a popiſh collegiate church, two monaſteries, and a nunnery. The river Hel, which runs by the foot of the caſtle, is navigable by ſmall veſſels to the Rhine; and on the weſt ſide of the city are what is called prince Maurice of Naſſau's park, in which are many ponds, canals, fine water-works, grottos, and the like. Above them is the high hill of Sternberg, from whence may be ſeen Utrecht, though it is fifty miles diſtant, with near forty other cities and great towns, twelve of which are ſeen through ſo many walks cut through the woods. The prince's houſe ſtands in a wood on the eaſt ſide, and, among other curioſities, has a noble collection of old Roman urns, and ſeveral other monuments of antiquity.

Emmeric, or Embric, in Latin Emerica, or Embricum, is a large, rich, and beautiful town, pleaſantly ſituated on the eaſt ſide of the Rhine, four miles to the eaſt of Cleve. It is a very antient city, and has a pretty good trade, and was formerly one of the Hanſe-towns. Here is always a ſmall garriſon; but though the fortifications were formerly very conſiderable, they have of late been neglected. The governor, with the magiſtrates, and many of the burghers, are Proteſtants, and have a church here. The Roman catholics have two churches, one of which is collegiate, with two monaſteries, a nunnery, and a college of Jeſuits.

Weſel, in Latin Weſalia, is the largeſt and beſt built town in the dutchy, it being populous and well ſeated for trade. It was formerly one of the Hanſe-towns, and an imperial city; but was exempted by the dukes of Cleve from the contributions paid by thoſe towns to the military-cheſt of the empire. It grew rich by the concourſe of merchants, who fled hither from the perſecution in the Spaniſh Netherlands, and was garriſoned by the Dutch, to whom it was mortgaged by the elector of Brandenburg. It was taken and plundered by the French in 1672; but was reſtored two years after to the elector, after it had been diſmantled. Though this place ſubmits to the king of Pruſſia as its ſovereign, it is governed by its own laws. Both the town and its two ſuburbs are well fortified, after the modern way, with baſtions, half-moons, and ditches; and in the middle curtains there are galleries which run into the ditch, and have ſeparate places for the men and women in caſe of a ſiege; and it is eſteemed one of the ſtrongeſt towns in all Europe. It has a good citadel towards the Rhine, a ſmall harbour for veſſels that trade on that river, and an arſenal well filled. The Calviniſts, Lutherans, and Roman catholics have all churches here. There are here a Lutheran academy, three monaſteries, a foundation for ladies, called Averdorff, who are for the moſt part Lutherans, and a commendam of the order of St. John. The city has a ſeat and voice at the provincial diet.

SECT. VIII.

The County of the MARK.

Its Situation and Produce: the Religion and Trade of the Inhabitants: the Offices by which the Government is adminiſtered; with a Deſcription of Ham, Unna, Iſerlon, and Saeſt.

THE county of the Mark is bounded on the north by the biſhopric of Munſter, on the eaſt by the dutchy of Weſtphalia, on the ſouth by the dutchy of Berg, and on the weſt by the dutchy of Cleve; and is eſteemed the largeſt county in all the circle of Weſtphalia.

It enjoys a fertile ſoil that produces wheat, rye, barley, oats, buck-wheat, peas, vetches, lentils, beans, rape and turnip ſeed, as alſo ſuch plenty of flax and hemp as to ſupply the neighbouring countries with them. It alſo produces plenty of fruit, together with good kitchen-roots and herbs. It has fine meadows and paſtures, with a good breed of cattle, and all manner of game. In the mountains are mines of ſilver, copper, lead, iron, and coal, with quarries of ſtone.

The inhabitants of this country are Lutherans, Calviniſts, and of the Romiſh church; all being allowed the free and public exerciſe of their religion, and no reſtraints laid upon the conſciences of the people. There are many manufactures here, the produce of which not only ſupplies the country, but great quantities are exported, particularly of iron and ſteel worked in a variety of ways.

This country is ſubject to the electoral houſe of Brandenburg, who in 1753 appointed ſix judicatories over the whole county, each of which has its own juſtice, aſſeſſors, and clerks: at the ſame time, for the regulation of affairs relating to the police, four circles are appointed, in each of which was placed a provincial-council.

The principal places in this county are the following:

Ham, in Latin Hammona, is the capital of the whole county, and is ſeated near the borders of the biſhopric of Munſter, by the influx of the Aſſe into the Lippe. It has no walls, but is encompaſſed with ditches, ramparts, and paliſadoes. This city is pretty large and well built. It has a citadel in which a commandant reſides, and contains alſo a *gymnaſium illuſtre* belonging to the Calviniſts, in which are three profeſſors, and a Latin ſchool, with a large church that alſo belongs to the Calviniſts, a Lutheran church, and a cloiſter of Obſervants, with noble appointments for the poor. Juſt before the north gate is the Norder hoſpital, a noble foundation for proteſtant and popiſh ladies; but the ſmall church near it is only uſed by the Catholics.

This town has a conſiderable trade, and was formerly one of the Hanſe-towns. It has frequently ſuffered very much by fire, particularly in 1741, when three hundred and fifty houſes were burnt down, with the council-houſe and the church belonging to the Calviniſts; but better buildings have been erected in their ſtead.

Unna, the ſecond town of the county, is ſeated in a fine plain, on a rivulet called the Kottelbecke, and is ſurrounded with walls and ditches. It has a Lutheran pariſh-church, and hoſpital church, in which the Calviniſts perform divine worſhip, as a Lutheran preacher does on Saturdays. Here is likewiſe a nunnery, together with a Romiſh chapel and a Lutheran ſchool. The town is poſſeſſed of a very extenſive and profitable territory; and moſt of the burghers ſubſiſt by agriculture, diſtilling, and brewing. This was alſo antiently one of the Hanſe-towns.

At no great diſtance is the mountain of Haſlo, on which is the free ſecular foundation of Frondenberg, belonging to the Ciſtercian order, which has an abbeſs and twenty-four ladies belonging to it, and into which both the Proteſtants and Roman catholics are received: beſides ſeveral tythes and corn-rents, above a hundred farms belonging to the peaſants are ſubject to it.

Iſerlon, alſo called Lon, is a conſiderable town well inhabited, and ſeated in a mountainous tract. The Lutherans have here three churches, with a Latin ſchool;

the Calviniſts have one church, and the Roman catholics, in 1746, erected one for themſelves. The principal employment of the inhabitants conſiſts in manufactures and trade; for here are made all works in iron and braſs, woollen ſtuffs, velvets, and ribbons. This town has been frequently laid waſte by fire.

Soeſt, in Latin Suſatum, is a city of conſiderable circuit, in which are extenſive courts and gardens, but is meanly built. It is ſituated twelve miles to the eaſt of Ham, and is fortified with double walls, on which are thirty towers, and is alſo defended by a large deep ditch. The Catholics are in poſſeſſion of the cathedral and two monaſteries; but the Lutherans have ſeven churches, in one of which the Calviniſts perform public worſhip. The Lutheran Latin ſchool is one of the three archigymnaſia (as they are called) of Weſtphalia. To this town belongs a conſiderable extent of arable land, and its principal trade conſiſts in corn.

This was formerly one of the Hanſe-towns, and the inhabitants choſe their own magiſtrates; but, in 1752, the king aboliſhed the old magiſtracy, and appointed a ſtanding one. They had here an antient body of laws, which was the foundation of thoſe of Lubec.

We ſhall conclude this account of the Mark with a conciſe account of the imperial city of Dortmund, in Latin Tremonia, which is ſituated twenty-ſix miles to the weſt of Soeſt, and was antiently one of the Hanſe-towns. It is pretty large, but ſlightly built, and contains four Lutheran churches, one nunnery, and two monaſteries. It has likewiſe one of the three archigymnaſia of Weſtphalia, and enjoys a ſeat and voice on the Rheniſh bench of the college of the imperial cities. The territory belonging to this city is an antient county, that contains many villages.

SECT. IX.

Of the Dutchies of JULIERS *and* BERG.

Their Situation, Extent, Produce, and Rivers: the Offices by which theſe Dutchies are governed: the Revenues the Elector Palatine receives from them; with a Deſcription of the Cities of Juliers, Duren, Duſſeldorp, Benſberg, and Eſſen.

THE dutchy of Juliers is bounded on the north by the dutchy of Gueldres, on the eaſt by the archbiſhopric of Cologne, on the ſouth by Luxemburg and Treves, and on the weſt by Liege and Limburg, extending about ninety miles in length, and in breadth in ſome parts above forty-three, but in others much leſs.

This dutchy has a fruitful ſoil, that produces all ſorts of corn in abundance, and has alſo good meadow and paſture lands. The breed of cattle is conſiderable, particularly of horſes, which are ſent to the neighbouring countries, and alſo into France. Much wood is cultivated here, and in ſome parts pit-coal is found.

With reſpect to the rivers, the Maeſe terminates this country on the weſt ſide, and the Rhine on the eaſt. The Roer riſes here, and having traverſed a great part of the country, receives into it the little rivers Worm and Dente, alſo called Inda or Inga. The Erfft alſo riſes here, and traverſes the country to the eaſt. The other rivers are the Niers and the Ahr.

The provincial ſtates of Juliers united in the laſt century for the maintenance of their privileges: theſe united ſtates conſiſt of the nobility of both countries, and the four principal towns of each dutchy. The inhabitants aſſert, that they do not depend on the unlimited arbitrary will of their ſovereign; but were always governed according to their antient cuſtoms, rights, and immunities.

The inhabitants are partly of the popiſh and partly of the proteſtant church, and both enjoy the free exerciſe of their religion, and perfect liberty of conſcience.

Theſe dutchies are ſubject to the elector Palatine, whoſe arms on account of the dutchy of Juliers, bear a lion ſable, in a field or; and for the dutchy of Berg, a lion gules, crowned azure, in a field argent.

The provincial colleges of Juliers and Berg, with the privy-council, the aulic-council, the chancery, and the aulic-chamber, are held at Duſſeldorf, in the dutchy of Berg. An annual ſum is granted to the ſovereign by the ſtates of Juliers and Berg, which in the year 1755 amounted to five hundred and eighty thouſand rixdollars, to which was added a free gift of fifty thouſand florins.

The dutchy of Juliers is divided into twenty-nine prefecturates and ſigniories, the principal places in which are the following:

Juliers, or Julich, alſo called Gulich, and in Latin Juliacum, is the capital of the country, and is ſituated on the Roer, in the fiftieth degree forty-eight minutes north latitude, and the ſixth degree forty-ſix minutes eaſt longitude. The river here is very ſubject to overflow its banks: the city is well fortified, and has a citadel, which is ſaid to be as ſtrong as the beſt engineers in Germany could make it; it being thirty years in building. Within it is a ſpacious piazza, with the palace of the antient dukes. The ſtreets are broad and regular, and the houſes neatly built of brick. It has a Roman catholic collegiate church, with one belonging to the Calviniſts, and the Lutherans have another before the town. In the ſuburbs is a Carthuſian monaſtery, nobly endowed by the dukes. This city is very antient, and obtained its name in the time of the Romans.

Duren is reckoned the ſecond among the towns that have a voice and ſeat among the diets. It is ſmall, uniform, and well built, with ſtreams of water running through the ſtreets. It was made an imperial city by Charles IV. but ſubdued by the duke of Juliers in 1407. Charles V. took it by ſtorm, put the garriſon to the ſword, and burnt it in 1543; but it was afterwards rebuilt and reſtored to the duke. The handſomeſt ſtructure in this town is St. Martin's church, where they pretend to have the head of St. Anne, the mother of the Virgin Mary, which formerly brought abundance of pilgrims to this place.

The dutchy of Berg, ſo named from its mountains, is ſeated on the eaſt ſide of the Rhine, oppoſite to the electorate of Cologne, and is bounded on the north by the dutchy of Cleve and the principality of Mors, from which it is ſeparated by the Rhine; on the eaſt by the dutchy of Weſtphalia and the county of the Mark; on the ſouth and weſt by the archbiſhopric of Cologne. In its greateſt extent it is above ſeventy miles, and in its greateſt breadth twenty-eight.

It is a very mountainous country, but has ſome fruitful tracts, as alſo good meadow and paſture lands, with great quantities of timber, pit-coal, iron, and other ores. In the upper parts near the Rhine are vineyards.

The Rhine, which flows to the eaſt of this country, receives into it all the other rivers, as the Sieg, into which the Agger pours itſelf, and the Wipper: the Roer, which flows out of the county of Mark, runs to the northward through the narroweſt part of this dutchy, and in Cleve falls into the Rhine.

There are here eleven towns, and the ſame number of boroughs, in which are manufactures of cloth, linen, and ſteel. The ſtate of religion here is the ſame as in the dutchy of Juliers.

This ſtate is divided into ſixteen prefecturates, the principal places in which are the following:

Duſſeldorf, or Duſſeldorp, a city ſeated on the Rhine, in the fifty-firſt degree thirteen minutes north latitude, and the ſixth degree fifty-eight minutes eaſt longitude, twenty-three miles to the north-eaſt of Juliers. It has its name from the rivulet of Duſſel, which runs through it, and afterwards falls into the Rhine, over which is a bridge of boats at this place. This city is not large, though it is populous and ſtrongly fortified. The New Town, which the elector John William cauſed to be built before the gate of Berg, conſiſted of one broad fine built ſtreet; but it has fallen to decay. In the town is the old princely citadel ſeated on the Rhine, and commands a fine proſpect. It has two galleries, the uppermoſt of which conſiſts of five rooms, which are adorned with paintings by the greateſt maſters, as Titian, Julius Romanus, Rubens, Van Dyck, Paul Veroneſe, &c. and alſo with excellent ſtatues of braſs, antiques, and the like. Under this gallery is another which contains ſtatues in marble and plaiſter, which are copies of the moſt celebrated ſtatues at Rome and Florence. In

the citadel is the ſeat of the aulic-chamber, and in the ſquare oppoſite to it is an equeſtrian ſtatue of metal erected to the honour of the elector John William. In the collegiate and pariſh-church are the tombs of the antient dukes of Juliers and Berg. The Jeſuits have alſo a college, a gymnaſium, and a ſeminary, together with a beautiful chapel. In the town are likewiſe ſome monaſteries and nunneries, as alſo a Lutheran and a Calviniſt church. Before one of the gates is a chapel built after the model of the houſe of Our Lady at Loretto, and adorned with fine paintings; and in the year 1752, a riding-academy was founded here.

Benſberg, a fine pleaſure-houſe belonging to the ſovereign, built by the elector John William. It ſtands three leagues from the Rhine, and is built with a very hard ſtone; but the ornaments, particularly the columns that ſupport the gallery in the front, are a kind of grey marble, dug out of the neighbouring quarries. The apartments are large, and adorned with the fineſt paintings; beſides which they have a moſt extenſive proſpect as far as the city of Cologne, over the Rhine and all the flat country. This ſeat is ſaid to have much the air of Verſailles, though it is neither ſo large nor ſo lofty. The ſtructure was deſigned by an Italian; but the outſide is cenſured, on account of the multiplicity of its ornaments.

Fifteen miles to the north of Duſſeldorf is Eſſen, an imperial city famous for a noble and rich abbey, founded about the year 877. The abbeſs is a princeſs of the empire, and to her the greateſt part of the city is ſubject, as are alſo ſeveral large manors; and her deputy has a place in the diet among the prelates of the Rhine. Their revenues were at firſt ſettled for the abbeſs, fifty-two nuns, and twenty canons; but they are ſince retrenched, and none admitted but the daughters of noblemen, who may marry at pleaſure. The king of Pruſſia is protector of the abbey, and both in the city and cloiſter the people are allowed the free exerciſe of religion. The magiſtrates are Lutherans; but it has alſo ſome Roman catholic churches, and a commandery of the Teutonic order. The city is pretty large, and is a place of trade; ſome good cloths are made there; but the making of fire-arms, for which it was once famous, is fallen to decay.

SECT. X.

Of the Principality of Mors: the Counties of Tecklenburg, Lingen, and Ravenſberg; with the principal Places in each.

THE principality of Mors is encompaſſed by the dutchies of Cleve and Berg, the archbiſhopric of Cologne, and the dutchy of Gueldres; it being little more than nine miles in length, and as many in breadth.

It abounds in corn, cattle, and veniſon. Its limits are waſhed by the Rhine, and it is likewiſe watered by ſeveral ſmall rivers and brooks. It belongs to the king of Pruſſia, who on account of this principality has a particular ſeat and voice in the council of the princes of the empire.

This principality has its own peculiar regency, who manage every thing relating to the affairs of the ſovereign; together with civil, criminal, and eccleſiaſtical concerns: but what relates to war and the police, is conducted by the tax-council, which is under the direction of the war and domain-chamber. From the territories of this principality the king annually receives about thirty thouſand rixdollars.

The principal place in this little principality is Mors, a ſmall fortified town which contains a citadel, and is the place where the provincial colleges hold their meetings. It has a Calviniſt church, and a Latin ſchool.

Crefeld is alſo a ſmall town, in which is a citadel; but has manufactures of velvet, ſilk, linen, and other articles.

The county of Tecklenburg terminates to the north and eaſt on the biſhopric of Oſnabrug, and to the ſouth and weſt on that of Munſter, extending about twenty-three miles in length, and about ten in breadth.

It has a ſufficient quantity of land capable of bearing all ſorts of corn, with a good breed of cattle, and plenty of fowl and veniſon. Its rivers and brooks abound with fiſh: theſe are the Haſe and the Date; and in the mountains are quarries of ſtone. A great deal of linen is made and exported from this country.

In the beginning of the Reformation count Conrad introduced the Lutheran doctrine; but count Arnold, of Bentheim and Tecklenburg, his daughter's ſon, bringing in the Calviniſts, the whole country embraced their ſentiments.

The king of Pruſſia, on account of this country, enjoys an additional ſeat and voice in the Weſtphalian college of imperial counts, and alſo at the diets of the circle of Weſtphalia. The ſovereign's domains in this county bring in annually about twenty-four thouſand rixdollars. The amount of the taxes, exciſe, &c. is included in the ſum mentioned above under Minden.

The places in this county are too inconſiderable to deſerve deſcription.

The county of Lingen is ſurrounded by the biſhoprics of Munſter and Oſnabrug, and in part by the county of Tecklenburg. The ſoil of the country is in general not very fertile. In the upper country are ſome coal-pits and quarries of ſtone.

The prevailing church here is the Calviniſt; but the greateſt number of the inhabitants of the country are Roman catholics; for at the time of the Reformation count Conrad was obliged to reſign this part of the country to popiſh lords, and it became entirely under the Spaniſh dominion.

Lingen is under one common government with the county of Tecklenburg; and with reſpect to the police and other affairs, it is under the domain-chamber of Minden, which has a deputation college at Lingen.

The royal annual revenues ariſing from the domains, contributions, and exciſe, are eſtimated at about eighty thouſand florins.

This country is divided into the Upper and Lower County, the principal place in which is

Lingen, the capital, which is ſeated near the Ems, was formerly fortified, but at preſent is barely ſurrounded with a ditch. It is the ſeat of the regency of the united counties of Lingen and Tecklenburg, and of the deputation of the war and domain-chamber of Minden. It has a church belonging to the Calviniſts, another belonging to the Lutherans, and a third poſſeſſed by the Roman catholics. It has alſo a ſeminary, founded in the year 1697 by William III. king of England.

The county of Ravenſberg is environed by the biſhoprics of Munſter and Oſnabrug, the principality of Minden, the counties of Schauenburg and Lippe, the biſhopric of Paderborn, and the county of Rittberg.

Its ſoil is in ſome parts ſandy; but in others bears corn, flax, and hemp; and the paſtures are in ſome places very good.

The Weſer ſeparates this county from the principality of Minden, and is of great advantage to the commerce of the inhabitants. Its other rivers are the Rehme, the Werre, the Aa, the Elſe, the Warmenau, the Heſſel, and the Lutterbach.

Moſt of the inhabitants are Lutherans, who have thirty-three pariſh-churches; but the Calviniſts enjoy the public exerciſe of their religion only at Herford and Bielefeld; though the Papiſts are poſſeſſed of churches not only in thoſe towns, but in three others. A certain number of Jews are alſo tolerated.

The moſt profitable employment of the inhabitants conſiſts in ſpinning and weaving of linen. There are not only many thouſand weavers in this county, but conſiderable quantities of linen are alſo brought from the neighbouring countries to Herford and Bielefeld, where they are bleached and ſold. Both the fine and coarſe linen made here is exported all over Europe, and alſo to America. At Bielefeld is alſo a manufacture of ſtockings, and at Herford of ſtuffs.

This county is ſubject to the electoral houſe of Brandenburg, and in 1716 was placed under the regency of Minden. Its principal towns are the following:

Bielefeld,

Bieleſeld, the capital of the county, is ſeated at the foot of a mountain, and on the banks of the Lutterbach, which runs through the town. It is well built, and contains near eight hundred dwelling-houſes; with two principal churches belonging to the Lutherans, viz. that of St. Nicholas, at which the ſuperintendant of the county is upper preacher; and that of St. Mary, in which is a chapter, conſiſting of ſeven Lutheran and five Roman catholic capitulars. There are here alſo a Calviniſt church, a Popiſh chapel, and a Franciſcan monaſtery, with a church in it; an infirmary, in which is a Lutheran chapel; an orphan-houſe, in which is a ſtocking manufacture; a ſpinning-houſe, a houſe of correction, and a Latin ſchool. In the town are alſo ſeventeen ſquares. The nobility hold their provincial diets here, and in this place keep their archives. It was formerly a Hanſe-town; at preſent the principal employments of the inhabitants conſiſt in weaving and bleaching of linen.

Herford, formerly Hervorden, is watered by the rivers Werra and Aa, which run through the city, dividing it into three parts. That in the middle is called the Altſtadt, and contains three hundred and ſixty-two burghers houſes, a Lutheran church, and a cloyſter of Grey friars. About one-third of this part is called the Liberty, and contains the abbey, which is an imperial, free, ſecular foundation, and its abbeſs, who is ſtiled a princeſs and prelateſs of the holy Roman empire, ſits at the diet among the abbeſſes on the Rheniſh bench, and at the diets of the circle of Weſtphalia. This foundation is Lutheran, and the chapter conſiſts of a deaconeſs, a female churchwarden, and a number of canoneſſes of the ſtate of princeſſes and counteſſes, of whom the abbeſs may receive any number ſhe pleaſes. The abbeſs Johanna Charlotte, princeſs dowager, erected an order at this place, in the year 1729. The croſs is pendant to a ſcarlet ribbon, bordered with ſilver, hanging from the right ſhoulder to the left ſide. On one ſide is the Virgin Mary ſtanding, with the child Jeſus, and the inſcription MEMINISSE ET IMITARI; and on the other the name of the abbeſs. The canoneſſes alſo bear a ſtar on their left breaſt, in which is repreſented the Virgin with the child Jeſus.

In the Altſtadt are alſo the court-chapel, the chapel of St. Anthony, and the Juliers and Weſtphalian courts.

The ſecond part of the town, which lies to the north-eaſt, is called the Neuſtadt, and contains three hundred and nineteen houſes belonging to the burghers; the Lutheran church of St. John the Baptiſt, in which is a chapter of twelve capitulars, one of whom muſt be a Roman catholic; the brother-houſe, the ſiſter-houſe, with the commandery-court of the order of St. John, in which is a chapel.

The third, and ſmalleſt part of the city, which lies to the weſt, is called the Radewig, and contains a hundred and twenty-ſix houſes belonging to the burghers, with the Lutheran church of St. James. Thus there are eight hundred and ſeven houſes of the burghers in the different parts of the city. within the walls are alſo ſpacious courts and gardens, many vacant places where the houſes have been burnt down, ſome paſture ground, and a ſmall corn-field.

On the mountains oppoſite to Herford, at the diſtance of about ſix hundred paces from that city, is the collegiate church of St. Mary, a noble, free, and ſecular foundation, conſiſting of a female dean and provoſt, with a female churchwarden, and nine other ladies of the foundation, all of noble birth, the ſuperior of whom is the abbeſs of the above foundation in the city. Theſe ladies alſo wear the ſign of the order, with the ſtar on the left breaſt.

SECT. XI.

Of the Counties of Schauenburg, Hoya, and Pyrmont; with the principal Places in each.

THE county of Schauenburg is ſeated on the Weſer, and is ſurrounded by the principality of Hanover, the counties of Lippe and Ravenſberg, and the principality of Minden; extending near thirty miles from north to ſouth, and twenty from eaſt to weſt.

It is in many places very mountainous; but yet contains a great deal of fertile land, with ſome excellent paſtures, and conſiderable quarries of free-ſtone. It has alſo an allum mine, and pits of excellent coal. Its rivers abound with fiſh: theſe are the Hamel, the Caſpaw, the Weſer, and the Exter. It has alſo a lake, which is five miles long, two broad, and about ſixteen feet deep.

In the whole country are only ſeven little towns, and three boroughs. The inhabitants chiefly ſubſiſt by agriculture and the breeding of cattle; moſt of them are Lutherans; but the Calviniſts are allowed the public exerciſe of their religion.

This country belongs to the king of Great Britain, the landgrave of Heſſe-Caſſel, and the count of Schauenburg-Lippe; the two laſt are poſſeſſed, by virtue of this county, of an additional ſeat and voice in the college of the Weſtphalian counts of the empire, and in the circle of Weſtphalia. The whole county brings in annually about a hundred thouſand rixdollars to its princes.

The principal places in this county are the following:

Stadthagen, in Latin Haga-Schauenburg, is ſeated in a level and pleaſant ſpot, and is encompaſſed with ditches, a rampart, walls, and ſeveral towers. The citadel is at preſent the reſidence of the princeſs Charlotte Frederica Amelia, counteſs dowager of Schauenburg-Lippe. Prince Erneſt founded a ſeminary in this town, which in 1619 was raiſed to an univerſity, which in 1621 was removed by that prince to Rinteln. To the eaſt of the Lutheran church ſtands the coſtly mauſoleum of prince Erneſt, conſiſting of an heptagonal tower of hewn-ſtone covered with plates of copper, in which is to be ſeen an excellent monument of marble and braſs, repreſenting Chriſt's tomb guarded by the watch, and out of it our Saviour riſing triumphant. Here is an orphan-houſe, founded in 1738 by Johanna Sophia, counteſs dowager to count Frederic Chriſtian, and for the moſt part formed after the model of the orphan-houſe at Hall. Here was alſo a Franciſcan cloiſter, of which nothing now remains but the church, one-half of which has been repaired, and allowed the Calviniſts, for the uſe of their public worſhip.

Buckeburg, a ſmall town, defended by a citadel, is ſeated twelve miles to the weſt of Schauenburg. It has a large and beautiful church, and of late years has been much adorned with fine houſes. It has a fountain in the market-place, and the count has a palace erected in a magnificent taſte after the Italian manner. Here is a ſchool belonging to the town, and the Calviniſts have a peculiar church and an orphan-houſe.

Schauenburg is an old ruinous citadel, ſeated on a high mountain between the towns of Rinteln and Oldendorf. This fort gave name to the whole country; but the fort itſelf obtained the name from the extenſive proſpect it affords, the word Schauenburg ſignifying, in German, Seeingtown, and the hill on which it ſtands is named Oelberg, or Eye-mount.

Rinteln is a fortified town, ſeated on a tract environed by mountains, and lying between the Weſer and the Exter. Over the former is a bridge of boats from March till the beginning of December. The univerſity, as well as the town, belongs at preſent to Heſſe-Caſſel. The profeſſors of divinity are of the Lutheran religion; but thoſe in the other faculties are Calviniſts. The Lutherans have the town-church, but the Calviniſts and the garriſon make uſe of that which belongs to the univerſity. The town is environed by ramparts, ditches, and bulwarks. The inhabitants chiefly apply themſelves to agriculture, the breeding of cattle, and brewing.

The county of Hoya is bounded on the north by the county of Delmenhorſt, the territory of the city of Bremen, and the Weſer; on the eaſt by Lunenburg and Hanover; on the ſouth by the principality of Minden; and on the weſt by the county of Diepholz; extending about thirty-eight miles in length, and about thirty-three in its greateſt breadth. It has ſome large heaths, and its ſoil is for the moſt part ſandy; but it contains arable land and paſture, and yields as much rye, oats, and buckwheat as the inhabitants have occaſion for; and in ſome parts are produced good wheat, barley, and flax.

The

The rivers are the Weſer, the Aller, the Delme, and Hunte. This county has only one city, and ſeventeen boroughs. The inhabitants in general apply themſelves to agriculture, the breeding of cattle, and the keeping of bees; to ſpinning, the weaving of linen and woollen ſtuffs, and the knitting of ſtockings. They are all of the Lutheran church, and the country contains fifty-four pariſhes.

The electoral houſe of Brunſwic poſſeſſes, on account of Hoya, an additional ſeat and voice in the college of the counts of Weſtphalia.

In this county are no places of any conſequence, and therefore we ſhall not trouble our readers with any account of them.

The county of Pyrmont is bounded on the north and eaſt by Hanover, and on the ſouth and weſt by Hanover, Wolfenbuttle, and the territory of Paderborn. The lower part of the county conſiſts of an uncommonly beautiful and pleaſant vale, through which runs the Emmer, and all around it is environed by lofty green mountains; and in it are the celebrated mineral ſprings. The religion of the inhabitants is the Lutheran, and they have a ſuperintendent that reſides at the capital.

The arms of this county are an anchor-croſs in a field argent. The prince of Waldeck, on account of this ſmall country, enjoys both a ſeat and voice in the Weſtphalian college of the counts of the empire, and alſo at the diets of the circle of Weſtphalia. His annual revenues ariſing from this county are eſtimated at near thirty thouſand rixdollars, to which the mineral ſprings and ſalt works chiefly contribute.

This county contains the citadel and New Town of Pyrmont, with ten villages.

The citadel of Pyrmont is fortified with a broad ditch, high ramparts, and ſubterraneous paſſages. From the ditch of the citadel a canal has been carried quite down to the ſpring, where is a mineral fountain, which riſes about twenty feet high. A little above is a houſe in which an aſſembly is held, and near it is the houſe that incloſes the ſpring: about forty feet diſtance from this fountain-head riſes the great bubbling ſpring, which is uſed for bathing, and makes a great noiſe; and at a hundred and twelve feet diſtance to the weſt lies the lower ſpring, which is the weakeſt of them all.

The New Town of Pyrmont is ſeated between the ſpring and the village of Oeſtorf. To the ſouth of it ſtands an orphan-houſe, and on the north is a good ſtone-quarry, in which is a pit reſembling the grotto del Cane near Naples, from which ſtrong ſulphureous fumes aſcend, and over which, in the year 1720, a ſtone-vault was built. About thirty rods from this ſulphureous cavern riſes a briſk ſpring, the waters of which are of a pleaſant, vinous, acid taſte.

SECT. XI.

Of EAST FRIESLAND.

Its Situation, Extent, Produce, and Rivers. The Languages and Trade of the Inhabitants. The Manner in which it became ſubject to Pruſſia: its Arms; the Revenue the Prince receives from it, and its principal Towns.

THE principality of Eaſt Frieſland receives its name from its ſituation with reſpect to Frieſland, one of the United Provinces, and is bounded on the north by the German ſea, on the eaſt by the county of Oldenburg, on the ſouth by the biſhopric of Munſter, and on the weſt by the province of Groningen and the German ſea, extending from north to ſouth forty-five miles, and from eaſt to weſt about forty-two. This principality has a moiſt and thick air; but it is frequently purified by the ſea breezes. Spring and ſummer appear here ſomewhat later than in other parts of Germany. The country throughout is level and low, whence it is ſecured by expenſive dykes againſt the inroads of the floods. Along the ſea-coaſt lies a marſh that is uncommonly fertile; but is more uſed for meadow and paſture than for agriculture. Indeed the paſtures here are remarkably good, and produce horned cattle, horſes, and ſheep in great numbers, and of an extraordinary ſize. The milk of the cows, which is remarkably rich, is yielded in great quantities, and of it is made excellent butter and cheeſe. In the heart of the country the ſoil is for the moſt part ſandy, and in ſome places fenny; but yields turf for burning, which, from the great ſcarcity of other fuel, is of the higheſt advantage. The produce of the earth, and particularly kitchen-herbs, here grow to a larger ſize than in other countries; but are ſeldom ſo good. Veniſon and fowl are alſo to be had here, and in this country are geeſe that weigh twenty-four pounds and upwards. In harveſt a great number of fieldfares and ſnipes generally appear.

The principal river of this country is the Ems, which here receives into it the Leda, or Soeſta, and at laſt runs into the German ſea. Near the place of its efflux it is very broad, and, dividing into two branches, ſurrounds the iſland of Borcum. The ebb and flood are to be obſerved here nine miles up in the country, and ſo high the ſalt-water comes.

Between Eaſt Frieſland and Groningen is a bay called the Dollart, which roſe out of a conſiderable tract of country that was ſwallowed up by the ſea, on which were many villages; but the Dollart now decreaſes greatly on the Eaſt Frieſland ſide, yielding much new land, which has been gradually dyked in. The ſea here affords oyſters, muſcles, crabs, and a variety of other fiſh.

The languages ſpoken here are the Eaſt Frieſian, the German, and Dutch; and in the laſt ſermons are preached in many places near Groningen. Next to the Lutherans the Calviniſts are the moſt numerous. In the town of Embden, and in the lordſhips of Godens and Lutzburg, the Roman catholics enjoy the quiet exerciſe of their religion; as do the Mennonites at Embden, Leer, and Norden. In this county are alſo a number of Jews.

Trade and navigation are briſkly carried on here. The produce of the country and the commodities exported from hence are large horſes, numbers of which are ſent by ſea even to Rome, and ſold by the pair for coach-horſes, for three or four hundred dollars, and more, according to their ſtrength and beauty; horned cattle, butter, cheeſe, rape-ſeed, winter-barley, and fine linen made at Leer and Godens. On the other hand, every thing wanted in the country, that is either neceſſary or convenient, is conveyed thither in ſhips; and at Embden the king of Pruſſia has eſtabliſhed an Aſiatic company.

The princely houſe of Eaſt Frieſland becoming extinct by the death of prince Charles Edward in 1744, the king of Pruſſia, in conſequence of the expectancy granted to the houſe of Brandenburg by the emperor Leopold in the year 1694, took poſſeſſion of the country; but the illuſtrious houſe of Brunſwic-Lunenburg declared and made known to the regency of Eaſt Frieſland, and the whole body of the ſtates, its rights obtained, by means of a brotherhood, and an hereditary union entered into in 1691 with prince Chriſtian Eberhard; and alſo made proper declarations to the aulic-council of the empire againſt the ſuit of the king of Pruſſia, for being inveſted with the poſſeſſion he had ſeized.

The arms on account of Eaſt Frieſland Proper are, an harpy or, bearing a coronet, with wings expanded in a field ſable, and having two ſtars or, in the four corners of the field.

The prince of Eaſt Frieſland has a ſeat and voice in the council of the princes of the empire, and at the diets of the circle of Weſtphalia.

The revenues of Eaſt Frieſland, it is ſaid, greatly exceed a hundred thouſand rixdollars. The regency conſiſts of two ſenates, and is held at Aurich. Theſe ſenates, with the aſſiſtance of the general ſuperintendent and town miniſter of Aurich, conſtitute the conſiſtory. The other officers are the war and domain-chamber, the provincial-college, which collects, adminiſters, and computes the taxes and contributions, and a provincial medicinal-college.

The principality of Eaſt Frieſland conſiſts at preſent of three towns, and nine prefecturates that were formerly lordſhips; but are now, as well as the towns, become hereditary ſtates of the ſovereign prince: it has alſo lordſhips that have their own hereditary lords; but are ſubject to the ſupreme juriſdiction of the prince.

The principal places of this principality are,

Aurich, the antient reſidence of the prince, and ſtill the ſeat of the provincial colleges, ſtands in the center of the country. The antient reſidentiary caſtle is environed with ramparts and ditches, and the Calviniſts at preſent perform their religious worſhip in the garriſon church. There is here alſo a Lutheran church, a provincial houſe, a Latin ſchool, and a public alms-houſe. The magiſtracy conſiſts of two burgomaſters, two counſellors, and one ſecretary.

Embden, a large and ſtrong ſea-port town, ſeated on the Ems, in the fifty-third degree five minutes north latitude, and in the ſeventh degree twenty-ſix minutes eaſt longitude. On the land-ſide it is fortified by a double ditch, bulwarks, and baſtions, and on the other by a ſtrong wall and the river; it has alſo an old fort and a citadel, and by means of ſluices the country around it may be laid under water. The harbour is one of the largeſt and moſt convenient in Germany, which renders Embden a place of great trade. The houſes are neat and lofty. It has a fine council-houſe, to which ſhips may arrive by means of a broad canal drawn from the Ems, called the Dolf. Among the public buildings are what is named the Great church, the Gueſt-houſe, in which is a church, and the New church, all which belong to the Calviniſts, and a Latin ſchool. Here are alſo many Lutherans, and likewiſe Roman catholics, Mennonites, and Jews. The town has annexed to it ſeveral lordſhips which lie to the eaſt; the inhabitants of which are Calviniſts.

Norden is ſeated at a ſmall diſtance from the German ſea, and is the oldeſt town in Eaſt Frieſland. It is open, but pretty large; it has a good harbour, and is a place of trade. It has a Lutheran church, with a Latin ſchool, and a gueſt-houſe, that was formerly a cloiſter; there are here, likewiſe, ſome Calviniſts and Mennonites. Its juriſdiction is under the prince's adminiſtrator, the burgomaſter, and council.

SECT. XII.

Of the Counties of Oldenburg, Delmenhorſt, Bentheim, and Steinfurt.

THE county of Oldenburg is bounded on the weſt by Eaſt Frieſland, on the ſouth by the biſhopric of Munſter, on the eaſt by the county of Delmenhorſt and the Weſer, and on the north by the ſigniory of Jever and the Jade; extending forty-eight miles in length, and thirty-eight in breadth. In ſome parts it is pretty fertile, and has excellent paſturage, which produces a good breed of horned cattle and horſes; but has a great deal of mooriſh land of no other ſervice but for producing the turf which is here uſed for burning. The land is ſecured againſt inundations by large and expenſive dykes and dams.

This country is ſubject to the king of Denmark, who on this account is poſſeſſed of a ſeat and voice in the Weſtphalian college of the counts of the empire, and in the diets of the circle of Weſtphalia.

Oldenburg, the capital of the county, is ſituated on the river Hunte, which receives into it the Haare, as it paſſes through the town, in the fifty-third degree eight minutes north latitude, and in the eighth degree thirteen minutes eaſt longitude. The town ſtretches out in length, and is well fortified with walls and ditches. It has alſo a handſome round caſtle, in which its antient counts uſed to reſide, and is built of free-ſtone three ſtories high. In the principal church, which is that of St. Lambert, is the burial-place of the counts of Oldenburg, and there are two other churches. The town conſiſts of what are termed free houſes, free inhabitants, and the garriſon. The free inhabitants are exempt from all ſuch burthens as thoſe to which the burghers are ſubject, as the quartering of ſoldiers and keeping watch; theſe conſtitute nearly one-third of the inhabitants, and are ſolely ſubject to the chancery of the royal regency eſtabliſhed here; but the burghers are under the town magiſtracy, and the garriſon under the commandant.

The county of Delmenhorſt, which lies between the county of Oldenburg and the Weſer, is about ſeventeen miles long and ſeven broad, and likewiſe belongs to the king of Denmark, who on this account alſo enjoys a particular ſeat and voice in the college of the Weſtphalian counts of the empire, and alſo at the Weſtphalian diet.

Its principal town is Delmenhorſt, which is ſeated on the little river Delme, from which it received its name. It had antiently a college of canons, the revenues of which were applied in 1575 to the maintenance of the churches, ſchools, and the poor.

The county of Bentheim has the United Provinces on the north and weſt, and the biſhopric of Munſter on the eaſt. It is about forty-five miles in length, and eighteen in the greateſt breadth.

This country is both fertile and pleaſant. In the mountains are excellent quarries, from which ſtones are conveyed to the Netherlands and the biſhopric of Munſter. In the plains are fruitful fields, with good meadow grounds. The woods afford excellent timber and game; and there is here a good breed of cattle. The principal river of this county is the Vecht, which runs through its whole length, and may be navigated for the greateſt part of the year with ſmall craft and floats of timber, and is very rich in fiſh.

The inhabitants are laborious and deal in yarn, wool, linen, cattle, honey, ſtones, wood, and other articles, which are chiefly exported to Holland. Some of the inhabitants are of the Calviniſt religion, and others Lutherans; but the former are the moſt numerous: there are alſo a conſiderable number of Roman catholics; but they are permitted the public exerciſe of their religion only at Bentheim.

The count of Bentheim-Bentheim enjoys a ſeat and voice in the college of the Weſtphalian counts of the empire, and in the diets of the circle of Weſtphalia.

The principal town in this county is

Bentheim, which ſtands partly on a mountain, and partly on a river of the ſame name. The place of reſidence for the counts ſtands on a remarkable high rock, and is ſurrounded with towers. In this town is a Calviniſt pariſh-church, and a church belonging to the Roman catholics.

The county of Steinfurt is nearly twenty-three miles long, and the ſouth tract only ſeven, but the northern twelve miles broad. The Aa, which riſes on its ſouthern limits, traverſes the whole country, and at length diſcharges itſelf into the Vecht.

The count of Bentheim-Steinfurt, who is deſcended from the ſame family as the count of Bentheim-Bentheim, has alſo a ſeat and voice among the counts of the empire in the Weſtphalian college, and in the diets of that circle.

The only town in this county is Steinfurt, which is ſituated on the Aa. The inhabitants are for the moſt part Calviniſts, who have here a church, and the Roman catholics another. The celebrated ſeminary in this town, called *Arnoldinum*, from its being founded by count Arnold in 1591, has five profeſſors, with ſix preceptors, and was formerly very flouriſhing. Juſt by the town is a commandery of the order of St. John.

SECT. XIII.

Of the free imperial City of AIX LA CHAPELLE.

THE imperial city of Aix la Chapelle, called by the Germans Aachen, or Acken, and in Latin Aquiſgranum, is ſeated between the dutchies of Juliers and Limburg, in a valley ſurrounded by hills, woods, and vineyards, in the fiftieth degree forty-four minutes north latitude, and in the ſixth degree twenty-eight minutes eaſt longitude. The circuit of the whole city is a league and a half. It is encompaſſed with two walls; the inner wall has ten gates, and the outer eleven. The town-houſe is a noble ſtructure of free-ſtone, and one of the fineſt in Germany. It is adorned with all the ſtatues of the emperors ſince Charlemagne, and with curious hiſtory paintings,

paintings, among which is a fine piece of the reſurrection, and another of Charlemagne's giving the city her charter. The uppermoſt ſtory conſiſts of one hall a hundred and ſixty feet in length, and ſixty in breadth, in which the emperors uſed to entertain the electors and other princes, who aſſiſted at their coronation.

In the market-place, oppoſite the town-houſe, is a noble fountain, with four ſprings, which run from above into a copper ciſtern thirty feet in diameter, and weighing twelve thouſand pounds. On the top of the fountain is a large braſs ſtatue gilt of Charlemagne in armour. As the city lies in a valley ſurrounded with mountains, there are twenty other public fountains of clear water, beſides many private ones. Without St. James's gate are ten hot mineral ſprings, and ſome cold ones, beſides ſeveral in the adjacent fields. The ſtreams that run through the city keep it very clean, and drive ſeveral mills.

With reſpect to the celebrated baths of this city, there are three within the inner walls, which are called the Emperor's, St. Quirinus's, and the Little Bath. Charlemagne was ſo much delighted with the firſt, that he frequently invited his ſons and nobles to bathe and ſwim there with him; but it is now divided into five bathing-rooms. The Little Bath joins to it, and the ſprings of both riſe ſo hot, that they let them cool ten or twelve hours before they uſe them. They are ſtrongly impregnated with nitre and ſulphur, and ſometimes cakes of brimſtone and ſalt-petre of a conſiderable thickneſs are taken out of them. Their taſte is at firſt unpleaſant, and their ſmell reſembles that of a rotten egg. Near theſe baths is a ſpring of warm water, much reſorted to in ſummer mornings, and drank for chronical diſeaſes. Thoſe in the New Town, which are the Roſe Bath, the Poor's Bath, and St. Corneille's, are not near ſo hot and clear as the former; but they are of much the ſame nature, and their ſmell offenſive. Near the hot ſprings lie many cold ones, by which their heat might be tempered, and with a little expence they might be made ſome of the moſt delightful baths in the world.

Here are thirty churches, beſides the cathedral, which is a large Gothic pile conſecrated by pope Leo III. in the preſence of the emperor Charlemagne, and three hundred and ſixty-five biſhops. The ſteeple at the weſt end is adorned with ſeveral pyramids, and on the top is a large globe and croſs. The inſide of this ſtructure has a vaſt number of marble and braſs pillars, gilt ſtatues, braſs doors and partitions, and a great deal of Moſaic work. Over the place where Charlemagne was interred hangs a large crown of ſilver and gilt braſs, adorned with ſixteen ſmall towers, ſurrounded with forty-eight little ſtatues a foot high, and thirty-two that are ſtill leſs, all of ſilver; among which are commonly placed forty-eight candleſticks, and at certain grand feſtivals no leſs than four hundred and fifty tapers. The four principal relics ſhewed here at the jubilee, which happens once in ſeven years, are firſt, what they call the gown or ſhift worn by the Virgin Mary at our Saviour's birth, made of a kind of flax which ſeems to be neither linen nor calico; but as it is only expoſed from the top of the high tower, it may be either linen, calico, or any other ſtuff, without the people being able to diſcover the difference, or what garment it is. The ſecond is a coarſe linen cloth, which, they pretend, was girt about our Saviour when he hung on the croſs. The third is a piece of the cord with which he was bound; and the fourth ſome of the earth on which the blood of St. Stephen dropt at his martyrdom, encloſed in a veſſel of gold adorned with precious ſtones, on which the emperors were uſually ſworn at their inauguration.

At the end of the cathedral our Saviour is repreſented ſitting in majeſty on a throne, dreſſed in a long robe. Round the throne are the four animals repreſented in Ezekiel's viſion. Over his head is a circle of golden ſtars, and underneath the ſymbol of the croſs that appeared to Conſtantine when he defeated Maxentius. Here is alſo a repreſentation of the twenty-four elders, mentioned in the Revelations, riſing from their ſeats, laying aſide their crowns, and falling proſtrate before the throne.

The windows are curiouſly gilt, and the pavement is of chequered marble. This church contains an immenſe treaſure, conſiſting of veſſels of gold and ſilver gilt, copes embroidered with pearls, and other rich veſtments. Over the chief altar is a ſilver cheſt adorned with gold, of antique workmanſhip, and curiouſly engraved, in which are kept the four relics above-mentioned. A pulpit at the entrance of the choir is covered with plates of gold and ſilver, and adorned with precious ſtones; among which is a very large agate, the gift of the emperor Henry II. The altar of the choir is covered with plates of gold repreſenting our Saviour's paſſion. In the upper part of the church, oppoſite the prince's altar, between the pillars, is a throne or chair of white marble, ſuppoſed to have been placed there by the emperor Charlemagne, in which the emperors uſed to ſit when conſecrated, and receive the firſt homage of the electors and the chapter of the cathedral, in quality of king of the Romans. It is not poliſhed, it being formerly covered with plates of gold.

This city was for a long time reckoned the capital of the empire, and the proper reſidence of the emperor; and in it ought to be performed the coronation of the king of the Romans, and of the emperor. Hence in the foundation of St. Mary in this city, is a part of the jewels of the empire commonly uſed at theſe coronations, as a ſword of the emperor Charlemagne, a manuſcript book of the Goſpels, in a cover of ſilver gilt; St. Mary's church has alſo the honour of having every emperor one of its ſworn canons. In general there are twenty one religious orders of both ſexes in this city, who take up almoſt one third of what is called the Little Town.

The greateſt part of the inhabitants are of the Romiſh religion, and though there are alſo many Proteſtants, yet they are not permitted to enjoy the benefit of public worſhip; but both the Lutherans and Calviniſts are obliged to go for that purpoſe to Vaels, in the dutchy of Limburg, an hour's journey from the city. This city claims the firſt place on the Rheniſh bench in the college of the cities of the empire, and has the ſecond among the imperial cities that have a ſeat and voice at the diets of the circle of Weſtphalia.

The title of its magiſtracy is that of burgomaſter, ſheriff, and council of the holy Roman imperial free city of Aix la Chapelle, and its arms are an eagle diſplayed ſable, with the head, crown, feet and claws or, in a field argent.

In this city are manufactures of cloth, copper, and braſs. In 1656, it was almoſt entirely deſtroyed by fire; in 1668 and 1748, it was diſtinguiſhed by celebrated treaties of peace concluded there, and in 1756, was damaged by an earthquake.

About the diſtance of a furlong from the ſouth gate of Aix la Chapelle, lies the delightful village of Porcet, or Borcet, which is ſaid to have derived its name from the wild boars that formerly abounded in the neighbouring woods. Here are many hot ſprings, on both ſides of a ſmall cool rivulet that runs through the village, and are conveyed by pipes and conduits into fourteen houſes, in which are formed twenty-eight baths, ſome of which are much hotter than thoſe in the town, and muſt be cooled eighteen hours before they can be uſed. They are for the moſt part five or ſix yards ſquare, and their water is clear and pleaſant. One quite open to the air, called the Poor Man's bath, has a ſpring ſo hot that the people ſcald pigs, and boil eggs with it; but it is obſerved, that it only hardens the yolks and not the whites. Theſe baths are not ſo ſtrong as thoſe in the city, and conſequently better for weak people; and thoſe of all ages and conditions bathe in them for their diverſion, without any danger. The village of Porcet is well built, has four handſome churches, and a nunnery of Bernardines, whoſe abbeſs is a princeſs of the empire; but there lies an appeal from her court to the Echevins or ſheriffs of the city.

The adjacent country abounds with corn, fruit, and paſturage; the woods furniſh the people with materials for building, as the quarries do with ſtone. They have alſo rich coal mines, beſides others of iron, lead, vitriol, ſul-

ſulphur, and lapis calaminaris; and are well ſupplied with neceſſaries by the Rhine and the Maeſe. The territory of the city called the kingdom of Aix la Chapelle, are large and contains a conſiderable number of villages, and about three thouſand ſubjects. It is incloſed on all ſides with mountains; and the nobility who dwell in this territory are ſubject to the juriſdiction of the city.

SECT. XIV.

Of the Principalities of Naſſau-Siegen, and Naſſau-Dillenburg; with the Counties of Lippe, Sayn, and Wied-Runkel.

THE principality of Naſſau-Siegen lies in a tract called the Weſterwalde, or Weſt Foreſt, and is fourteen miles in length; but in the broadeſt part ſcarcely five. This principality is very mountainous and woody; yet contains ſome good arable land, and particularly good paſtures, whence it has a conſiderable breed of cattle; but it is moſt famous for its iron and ſteel manufactories.

This principality contains one town, two boroughs, and about one hundred and fifty villages. In 1624 the Calviniſts were in poſſeſſion of all the churches, ſchools, and religious revenues: but in 1626, count John the Younger embracing the Popiſh religion, ſought to introduce it not only into his ſhare of the country; but alſo throughout the whole dutchy; however, he was never able fully to accompliſh it. The line of Naſſau-Siegen becoming extinct, this principality devolved to the line of Naſſau-Dietz, and is poſſeſſed by William V. prince of Orange, and hereditary ſtadtholder of the United Provinces; who on this account has a particular ſeat and voice in the council of the princes of the empire, and at the diets of the circle. His revenue ariſing from this principality is eſtimated at one hundred thouſand rixdollars.

This country is divided into ſeven prefecturates, the principal place in which is,

Siegen, a town ſeated on the river Sieg, has an old and new citadel, the former of which was antiently the reſidence of the Popiſh, and the latter of the Calviniſt princes. The Papiſts perform their religious worſhip in St. John's church, and the Calviniſts in the church of St. Nicholas alone. In this town is a college of Jeſuits; and in its neighbourhood are many mines and ſmelting-houſes.

The principality of Naſſau-Dillenburg is ſeated near the former, and is nineteen miles long, and fourteen broad. It has profitable woods, and good quarries of ſtone, and from its iron founderies and forges, with the trade carried on in that metal, moſt of the inhabitants derive their ſubſiſtence, there not being a ſufficiency of arable land. In this principality riſe the rivers Sieg and Dill.

This country contains five towns, and two boroughs, the inhabitants of which are of the Calviniſt church.

The princes of this country had the ſame origin as the other princes of Naſſau, and this principality is alſo ſubject to the ſtadtholder of the United Provinces, who likewiſe enjoys an additional vote on account of this principality, in the council of the princes at the diet of the empire, and in the diet of Weſtphalia. His revenues from this principality amounted in 1731 and 1732, to one hundred and ſixty-one thouſand florins.

The principal town in this principality is,

Dillenburg, which is ſeated on the Dill, and after its being burnt down in 1724, was better built than it was before. The palace, or citadel, is a fortification in the old taſte. In the pariſh church are the burial places of the antient counts, and the ſucceeding princes. In the large park are two royal ſeats, and near the town is a copper foundery erected by prince Chriſtian, in which are annually ſmelted about one hundred and fifty centners of copper.

We now come to the county of Lippe, which is ſurrounded by the counties of Rietberg, Ravenſberg, Schauenburg, and the principality of Hanover. It is mountainous; but contains ſome arable land. Its principal rivers are the Emmer, and the Weire, and here riſes the Humme and the Bever.

The inhabitants conſiſt of Calviniſts and Lutherans; but the former are the moſt numerous. In the whole county, according to the Rev. Dr. Buſching, are five towns, four boroughs, and fifty-two villages and hamlets.

The houſe of Lippe is divided into ſeveral branches, between whom the country is divided. They all ſtile themſelves counts and noble lords of Lippe, and their arms for the county are a roſe gules, in a field argent; and on account of Schwalenberg, a prefecturate in this county, a ſwallow in its natural colours, ſtanding on a ſtar or, in a field gules. Theſe counts have together but one voice in the college of the counts of Weſtphalia at the diets of the empire, and at the diets of the circle of Weſtphalia.

The principal places in this county are the following:

Detmold, a town ſeated on the Werre, and defended by a citadel, the uſual reſidence of the regent houſe of Detmold. The town is divided into the Old and New, and has a Latin ſchool belonging to the Calviniſts that has ſix teachers.

Lemgow is ſeated on the Vega, and is the largeſt town in the county. The Lippehof, one of the count's palaces, was erected by count Chriſtopher Lewis. In this place is an abbey, the abbeſs of which is always a counteſs belonging to the regent houſe of Lippe. There are here two Lutheran churches, one belonging to the Calviniſts, and a flouriſhing Lutheran ſeminary that has ſeven teachers. This was formerly one of the Hanſe-towns; but its antient manufactories of cloth and ſtuffs are much decayed.

The county of Sayn is a ſmall diſtrict that lies chiefly in the Weſterwalde, containing two prefecturates, in which are three principal towns and as many boroughs. The inhabitants are a mixture of Lutherans, Calviniſts, and ſome of the Romiſh religion. The margrave of Brandenburg-Onolzbach, on account of the prefecturate of Sayn-Altenkirchen, and the burgrave of Kirchberg, on account of the other prefecturate named Sayn-Hachenburg, have a voice in the college of the Weſtphalian counts of the empire; but in the circle of Weſtphalia both houſes have only one voice among thoſe of the counts.

The principal places in this county are, the little town of Altenkirchen, in which is the council-college of Onolzbach-Sayn, and alſo a chancery, with a Lutheran and Calviniſt church; and

Hachenburg, a ſmall town, defended by a citadel, in which the burgrave of Kirchberg reſides; both the town and citadel are fiefs of the elector of Cologne.

The county of Wied is divided into two parts, each enjoyed by a different branch of the ſame family; theſe are the Upper county, or the county of Runkel, and the Lower county, alſo called the county of Wied. Hence the two counts are diſtinguiſhed by the titles of Wied-Wed, and Wied-Runkel, and are poſſeſſed of a voice at the college in the diets of the empire belonging to the college of the Weſtphalian counts, and in the circle of Weſtphalia.

In the Upper county are the following places:

Runkel, a borough ſeated in a valley on the river Lahn, conſiſting of about a hundred and twenty houſes, defended by a citadel which ſtands on a high hill, and was formerly the reſidence of the counts. A chancery is ſtill kept here, and here reſides the ſuperintendent, who has the inſpection of the preachers. The inhabitants ſubſiſt by agriculture, gardening, and the breeding of cattle; and

Dierdorf, a town alſo defended by a citadel, in which the count of Wied-Runkel at preſent reſides. In the year 1755 the Capuchins of the Rheniſh circle were allowed to build a cloiſter in the new built ſuburbs.

In the Lower county is New Wied, a ſmall but regular built town ſeated on the Rhine, over which the count of New Wied and the elector of Cologne, in 1742, cauſed a flying bridge to be laid.

The dutchy of Weſtphalia terminates to the eaſt on the biſhopric of Paderborn, Waldec, and Heſſe; to the ſouth on the counties of Witgenſtein and Naſſau, and likewiſe on the dutchy of Berg; to the weſt on the ſame

and the county of the Mark; and to the north on the biſhopric of Munſter and the county of Lippe; extending fifty-five miles from north to ſouth, and forty from eaſt to weſt; but the dimenſions both of length and breadth are unequal. It gives the title of duke to the elector of Cologne, to whom it is ſubject; though the duke is not reckoned among the ſtates of this circle. This country has many woods and much veniſon, and in ſome parts abounds with corn and paſturage, and its rivers run with an impetuous torrent from the mountains: but the towns in this dutchy, and particularly the city of Cologne, are already deſcribed in that electorate, to which they more properly belong, in treating of the electoral Rheniſh circle.

There are ſeveral little counties in this circle, which we purpoſely omit, and alſo ſeveral lordſhips that are too inconſiderable to be mentioned in a work of this kind.

CHAP. XIX.

Of SWABIA.

SECT. I.

Of Swabia in general, and more particularly of the Circle of that Name. Its Climate and Produce. The Regulations with reſpect to the Diets of the Circle, to Religion, military Forces, and the general Government of the Country.

SWABIA, called by the Germans Schwaben, and by the French Souabe, derives its name from the Latin Suevia, the country inhabited by the antient Suevi, who were ſo called from their long hair, which they braided and tied, ſays Dr. Buſching, like a ſchweif, or train. The greateſt part of Swabia at preſent belongs to the circle of that name, which we ſhall now deſcribe. It borders on the Upper circle of the Rhine, Franconia, Bavaria, Auſtria, and Swiſſerland, and contains about ſeventeen hundred and twenty-nine ſquare German miles; it extending a hundred and ten Engliſh miles from north to ſouth, and a hundred and thirty from eaſt to weſt.

It is divided between ſeveral princes, biſhops, and free cities; as the houſe of Auſtria, the dukes of Wirtemburg, the elector of Bavaria, and the princes of Baden; beſides the imperial cities of Augſburg, Ulm, &c.

The air is healthy, and the ſoil in general fertile; and though ſome parts are mountainous and woody, yet the hills afford mines of ſilver, copper, and other metals; and the foreſts a great deal of pine or fir timber, beſides great ſtore of game, and a good breed of horſes, horned cattle, and ſheep; while the other parts yield conſiderable quantities of corn, wine, and flax: but we ſhall give a more particular account of the produce of this circle in treating of the different ſtates into which it is divided.

The princes ſummoned to the diets of the circle are the biſhop of Conſtance and the duke of Wirtemberg; but the latter is ſole director, though he previouſly communicates to the former the deliberations that are to come before the circle. Theſe diets are commonly held at Ulm, in time of peace twice a year. Each of the five benches has its director, who ſets his ſeal to all the acts of the circle and other diſpatches. The biſhop of Conſtance is the perpetual director of the bench of eccleſiaſtical princes, as the duke of Wirtemberg is of that of the temporal princes. The directors of the benches of prelates and counts are choſen only for life. Ulm is perpetual director of the bench of the imperial towns; but Augſburg always votes firſt. The leſſer aſſemblies here always conſiſt of ten ſtates of the circle, including the two princes nominated to it who frequently meet during the general convention of the circle, when affairs too prolix for the general aſſembly are to be diſcuſſed, and then they are ſtiled the ordinary deputation. The chancery and record-office belonging to the circle are at Stutgard, the reſidence of the directory of Wirtemberg. It has alſo ſtated diets, in conjunction with the circles of Franconia and Bavaria, for the aſſaying of coin.

In the year 1681 the military force of the empire, by a decree of the diet, was ſettled in time of peace at forty thouſand men, and the quota of the circle of Swabia alone came to one thouſand three hundred and twenty-one horſe and two thouſand ſeven hundred and ſeven foot; a like aſſeſſment was alſo paſſed for the circles of Upper Saxony, Lower Saxony, Burgundy, Lower Rhine, and Weſtphalia. The number of troops in this circle conſtantly kept on foot conſiſt of four regiments of infantry, each compoſed of twelve companies, one regiment of dragoons, and one of cuiraſſiers, each conſiſting of eight ſquadrons. The commander of the circle is ſtiled general field-marſhal.

With reſpect to religion, this circle is reckoned among the mixed. It at preſent nominates to the imperial chamber two aſſeſſors, one of whom is a Catholic, the other a Lutheran. On the death of a catholic profeſſor, his death is certified by the imperial chamber to the biſhop of Conſtance, who acquaints the catholic ſtates with this event, and by a majority of votes they elect one of the perſons propoſed by the biſhop, or refer the nomination to him; after which the biſhop preſents the perſon to the imperial chamber. But when a Lutheran aſſeſſor dies, the imperial chamber makes it known to the duke of Wirtemberg, who certifies it to the margrave of Baden-Durlach, and the city of Ulm, by a writ from the imperial chamber, upon which, in conjunction with the other proteſtant ſtates and members, they hold a meeting for the nomination of another perſon, who is propoſed to the duke of Wirtemberg; and that prince not only preſents to the imperial chamber the perſon thus nominated by the proteſtant ſtates, but when he cannot concur with their nomination, may, as ſummoning prince of the circle, preſent another; or, when he approves the perſons nominated to fill this dignity, preſents them both in his own name and that of the proteſtant ſtates to the imperial chamber, leaving the choice to thoſe who are the beſt judges of their abilities.

Under the emperor Frederic III. the circle of Swabia was divided into four quarters, which diviſion ſtill continues, and on many occaſions has been found to be beneficial. The head of the firſt is the duke of Wirtemberg, of the ſecond the margrave of Baden, of the third the biſhop of Conſtance and the abbot of Kempten, and of the fourth the biſhop of Augſburg.

SECT. II.

Of the Biſhopric of CONSTANCE.

Its Situation, Extent, and Soil. The Titles and Arms of the Biſhop: his hereditary Officers and Revenue. A Deſcription of the Lake of Conſtance, and the Iſland Reichenau; with the Curioſities in the Abbey on that Iſland. Likewiſe a Deſcription of the Cities of Merſburg and Conſtance.

THE biſhopric of Conſtance lies on both ſides of the lake of that name, and the borders of Swiſſerland, and is commonly reckoned among its allies; for indeed a part of it lies in Swiſſerland, as well as a part of it in Germany. It is ſeated to the ſouth-eaſt of Furſtenberg, and to the eaſt of the canton of Schaffhauſen, extending about thirty miles from eaſt to weſt, and twenty-four from ſouth to north. In this biſhopric the meadow grounds and ploughed lands turn to little account,

the ſoil being clayey, ſandy, or marſhy, and ſubject to inundations. In the towns and villages the only trade carried on is in wine.

The biſhop of Conſtance ſtiles himſelf, By the grace of God biſhop of Conſtance, lord of Reichenau and Oehningen: by others he is termed The moſt noble prince and lord, &c. The arms of this biſhopric are, a croſs argent, in a field gules.

He has four hereditary officers, the hereditary marſhal, the hereditary chamberlain, cup-bearer, and ſteward. The biſhop votes in the imperial diet among the princes, ſitting on the eccleſiaſtical bench between the biſhops of Straſburg and Augſburg. The antient taxation of the biſhopric in the papal treaſury is two thouſand five hundred florins; but in 1704 only four hundred and ten were paid for the confirmation of biſhop John Francis.

The biſhop's board-revenue, according to a report made from the chapter to the court of Rome in 1712, amounted only to twenty thouſand florins. However, his whole annual revenue is by ſome authors computed at twelve or fourteen thouſand pounds ſterling, which is ſaid to be chiefly raiſed by the toll on the lake and the Rhine. His chapter conſiſts of twenty canons who attend the chair, and four who are expectants of vacancies.

The eſtabliſhed religion of this dioceſe is the Roman catholic.

In deſcribing the remarkable places in this biſhopric, we ſhall begin with the lake of Conſtance, the broadeſt part of which extends into Swiſſerland, and that towards Germany divides itſelf into two arms, one of which is called the Zellerſee, or lake of Zell, and the other the Bodmen, Uberlingerſee, or lake of Uberlingen. In the latter is the iſland of Meinau, as in the former is that of Reichenau. The whole lake from Bregentz to Zell is alſo diſtinguiſhed by two appellations; the part from Bregentz to Conſtance being called the Upper lake, and that from Conſtance to Zell the Lower lake: the latter is between twenty and thirty fathoms deep, and has along its banks near forty cities, towns and villages; yet the Upper lake ſurpaſſes it, for it has no leſs than fifty, and its greateſt depth is ſaid to be three hundred and fifty fathoms. Here is alſo its greateſt breadth, for between Buchorn on the one ſide, and Roſchach on the other, is no leſs than five leagues. Near Lindau and Bregentz, beſides the fiſh commonly caught in theſe parts, is a kind of ſalmon-trout, which being pickled when full grown, are exported as a rarity. They are generally an ell and a half, or two ells long, and weigh between thirty and forty pounds. As the fiſhermen cannot always make a good market of ſuch large fiſh, they tie a bit of wood to a line, which having paſſed through the fiſhes gills, they throw them again into the water, and tie the other end of the line to a ſtake near their huts. Thus, without any danger of loſing the fiſh, they allow them a range of thirty or forty paces to ſwim in, and preſerve them alive and ſound, till they meet with a number of purchaſers, or have an opportunity of ſelling one of them for ſome marriage, or other entertainment, where a fiſh of that magnitude is required.

In half an hour's ſailing you may go from Zell to the iſland of Reichenau, which lies in the middle of the Lower lake, and on account of its fertility and the wealth of the abbey built there, is not improperly ſtiled Reichenau, or Augia-dives. The iſland is half a mile long, and abounds with fine vineyards and all kinds of fruit. The abbey is a handſome building, and ſo rich that the abbot had formerly five hundred vaſſals, and his yearly income amounted to above ſixty thouſand guildres. But ſince the year 1540, upon a repreſentation from the biſhop of Conſtance to the pope, that by the propagation of the Lutheran doctrines his revenues had been conſiderably diminiſhed, this opulent abbey, together with that of Oeningen, were annexed to the ſee of Conſtance.

This abbey is particularly remarkable for the large emerald preſented to it by Charles the Fat; but ſince the attempt, a few years ago, to rob the abbey, it cannot be ſeen without ſome difficulty; the prior, for its greater ſecurity, letting but few, even of the brethren of the order, know where it is concealed. It is kept in a red wooden frame ſomewhat larger than a folio, and weighs twenty-eight pounds three quarters. Several jewellers have offered for it fifty thouſand guildres per pound. This valuable ſtone is a parallelogram, only at one corner it is irregular, as if a piece had been broken off. At its greateſt length it is three ſpans and a half, its ſhort ſide is a ſpan and a half, and it is two inches thick. Upon it is ſcratched the initial letters of ſome names; but ſuch fancies are now no longer permitted.

In the church belonging to this abbey lies the above emperor Charles the Fat, once diſtinguiſhed by his power, and the amazing extent of his dominions, but afterwards forſaken by every one; ſo that he died in extreme indigence, or was put to death by his own people at Neidingen, on the Danube, in 888. In the ſixteenth century his tomb was repaired, and an epitaph added, which ſays, That "Charles the Fat, king of "Swabia, and great-grandſon of Charlemagne, having "by force of arms entered Italy, and ſubdued it, was "crowned Cæſar at Rome, and obtained the Roman em-"pire; alſo, upon the death of his brother Lewis, all "Germany and France fell to him by right of inheri-"tance. But at length failing in courage, and growing "weak in body and mind, he was, by a ſtrange reverſe "of fortune, forſaken by all his friends, and buried in "this obſcure place. This tomb-ſtone is at preſent re-"moved, and the building of the new ſacriſty occaſions "the grave itſelf to be concealed."

Upon the altar of this church the monks pretend to ſhew one of the water-pots uſed at the marriage at Cana in Galilee, of which upwards of twenty are ſhewn in other places, all of a different magnitude, colour, and ſhape. The convent alſo boaſts of being poſſeſſed of the body of St. Mark the Evangeliſt; but this is diſputed with them by the Venetians.

The next place we ſhall mention is Merſburg, or Morſpurb, a city ſeated on the lake of Conſtance, and the uſual reſidence of the biſhop, containing a ſeminary for the ſecular clergy and a convent for Dominicans. In the year 1647 the palace here was burnt down by the Swedes. The country in the neighbourhood of this city produces plenty of wine, and near it, in the lake, ſtands a croſs on which is an inſcription, importing that the lake is there two thouſand nine hundred fathoms broad, and a hundred and eight deep.

Conſtance is an antient city ſeated on the lake of the ſame name, in that part where the Rhine iſſues out of it, in the forty-ſeventh degree forty-two minutes north latitude, and in the ninth degree ten minutes eaſt longitude. It was formerly an imperial city, but in 1548 was put under the ban by the emperor Charles V. it having then deſerted the popiſh religion; but the next year Ferdinand I. brought it under the power of the houſe of Auſtria; and though the ſtates of Swabia refuſed their aſſent, yet its ſubjection was ratified at the diet of Augſburg in 1559. The town is fortified, and has on the other ſide of the Rhine the fort of Peterſhauſen for its defence. This city is of a middling ſize, and towards Lindaw makes a good appearance; but the burghers are thought not to exceed five hundred and fifty. The pulpit of the cathedral is ſupported by a ſtatue of John Huſs, who was here ſentenced to be burnt, and his being made to ſerve as a pedeſtal to the pulpit was intended as a mark of farther diſgrace, though it ſeems more natural to admit of an honourable conſtruction. It is here the current opinion among the ſuperſtitious vulgar, that the place where that reformer was burnt is curſed, ſo that no graſs will grow upon it. Our guide, ſays Mr. Keyſler, who was a ſubſtantial citizen, but a Roman catholic, was ſo infatuated with this notion, that he maintained it while we were walking about the place, which was covered with verdure; ſo that had we thought proper to enter into the diſpute, we might have convinced him by appealing to his very ſenſes.

It was once a rich city, and has a tolerable trade, by means of the lake and the neighbourhood of the Rhine. It is well built, and ſtrongly fortified. The churches are magnificent, particularly St. Stephen's cathedral, though it is old; and the exchange, town-houſe, markets, bridges, and other public buildings, with the biſhop's palace,

palace, are handſome ſtructures. The ſuburb on the north ſide is ſeparated from the city by the Rhine, over which is a bridge three hundred and thirty-ſix paces in length, under which is ſaid to be a mill that moves ſixteen mill-ſtones at once. The Jeſuits have a college here, and an indifferent church; beſides which here are five convents of friars, two nunneries, and four pariſh-churches.

This city has been famous for its councils. Thus in 1044, or 1045, an aſſembly of princes met here under the emperor Henry III. and put a concluſion to the troubles of Germany by what is called the peace of Conſtance, at a juncture when there were three popes, who were ſet aſide, and a new one choſen, who in 1056 took the name of Clement II. In 1414 a council was alſo held here, ſummoned by the emperor Sigiſmond, upon three popes pretending to infallibility; one ſet up by the Italians, a ſecond by the French, and a third by the Spaniards, who were all three depoſed by this council, and Martin V. choſen in their room. The ſame council condemned the doctrines of John Wickliff, John Huſs, and Jerome of Prague, cauſing the bones of Wickliff to be dug up and burnt, and John Huſs and Jerome of Prague to be cruelly burnt alive, though the former had a ſafe-conduct granted him by the emperor; and this cruel and infamous council, which appears to be the moſt numerous ever held upon any occaſion, made the canon, "That faith is not to be kept with heretics, nor with "thoſe ſuſpected of hereſy."

SECT. III.

Of the Biſhopric of AUGSBURG.

Its Situation, the Prerogatives of the Biſhop, his Arms, and Revenue; with a particular Deſcription of the City of Straſburg.

THE lands belonging to the biſhopric of Augſburg lie ſcattered between the rivers Lech, Iler, and the Danube; but the greateſt part of them near the former. This country extends beyond the Lech to the dioceſe of Ratiſbon and Freyſingen; ſouthward to thoſe of Brixen and Chur; weſtward to the biſhopric of Conſtance, from which it is ſeparated by the Iler; and northward beyond the Danube, to the biſhoprics of Eichſtatt and Wurtzburg. That tract of it which lies towards the Tiroleſe is very mountainous; but the reſt principally conſiſts of fine corn-land and paſtures.

The prince and biſhop of Augſburg ſits and votes in the college of princes, between the biſhop of Conſtance and Hildeſheim, and in the diet of the circle of Swabia poſſeſſes the ſecond ſeat among the eccleſiaſtical princes; he is alſo the head of that fourth quarter of Swabia, which lies between the rivers Lech, Danube, and Iler.

The arms of this biſhopric are party per pale gules and argent.

The chapter of the cathedral conſiſts of forty perſons of quality, who muſt give proof of their nobility for ſixteen deſcents. The temporal and ſpiritual colleges belonging to the dioceſe are the general vicariate, the eccleſiaſtical council and conſiſtory, the regency, the treaſury, and the court of fiefs. The epiſcopal revenue is eſtimated at near a hundred thouſand rixdollars.

This biſhopric is divided into fourteen prefecturates, the principal places in which are the following:

Dillingen, the reſidence of the prince, is ſituated on the Danube, and had formerly counts of its own to whom it gave title. There is here an univerſity, in which is a college of ſecular canons. In this town is alſo a college of Jeſuits, with a convent of Capuchins, and two nunneries.

But the principal city in this biſhopric is the imperial city of Augſburg, originally called Vindelica, and afterwards Auguſta Vindelicorum, or Rhætorum, which lies in a fertile, healthy, and delightful country, in the forty-eighth degree twenty-three minutes, and in the tenth degree fifty-nine minutes eaſt longitude, between the rivers Lech and Wertach, which unite near this place. Its utmoſt extent is about nine thouſand common paces, and its length from the Red-gate to Fiſher-gate four thouſand. The city is environed with ramparts, walls, and deep ditches, and has four large and ſix ſmall gates, and between ſome of them a wicket of curious contrivance for admitting perſons in the night-time. It is commonly divided into three parts; but others divide it into the Upper, the Middle, the Lower Town, and the ſuburb of St. James. Some of its ſtreets are ſteep; but below theſe, it has others that are broad, and well paved, whence it may in general be termed a fine city. Beſides the cathedral it has ſix popiſh pariſh churches, five monaſteries, among which is a Jeſuits college, the abbies of St. Ulrich and Afra, thre enunneries, and ſix Lutheran pariſh churches, to which belong fourteen miniſters, and a Lutheran gymnaſium, in which is a good library. In the year 1755, the imperial Franciſcan academy for arts and ſciences was founded here. It has alſo ſeveral hoſpitals for the poor, for orphans, and ſick people, with other charitable foundations.

But to be more particular, the town-houſe, which is reckoned the fineſt in all Germany, was completed in the year 1620, after being ſix years in building. At the top of the front, juſt below the pediment, is a large ſpread eagle caſt in braſs and crowned, ſaid to weigh twenty-two hundred weight, and to have coſt fifteen thouſand German florins, or above one thouſand eight hundred and ſeventy pounds ſterling; it holds with its talons a gilt ſceptre and globe. The great portal, which is twenty feet in height, and twelve in breadth, is of very beautiful red marble, adorned with a balcony ſupported by two handſome columns of white marble. In the great hall next the ſtreet are eight large pillars of red marble, fourteen feet and a half high. Here the city mainguard is kept, and are provided with ſix field pieces. Round the room are braſs buſts of the twelve Cæſars. In the upper ſtory is a ſtill larger hall ſupported by Corinthian columns of red marble, with baſes and capitals of braſs; the chambers contiguous have abundance of hiſtorical and political paintings, with well choſen ſentences, exhorting the judges to obſerve impartial juſtice, prudence, peace, and the fear of God. In the third and uppermoſt, called Golden-hall, are fifty-three windows, which render it extremely light; but it has no columns, and inſtead of being arched, the ceilings are divided into a number of little brown and gilt compartments, on which as on the walls are good paintings. The floor is of red, white, and grey marble; but in the other halls only of white plaiſter. The height of this upper hall is fifty-two feet, and its breadth fifty-eight, and its length one hundred and ten. This noble room is adorned with fine pictures. The four contiguous chambers in which meetings are held for aſſaying of the coin, giving audience to envoys, and for other important affairs, bear the appellation of the four princes chambers, as having been the reſidence of the four electors who aſſiſted at the election of Ferdinand IV. king of the Romans, in 1663. Every part abounds with hiſtorical paintings illuſtrated by ingenious inſcriptions. The whole breadth of the town-houſe is one hundred and forty-ſeven feet, and the length of the front one hundred and ten; its height towards the weſt one hundred and fifty-two; but its eaſtern height meaſures one hundred and ſeventy feet.

In a ſquare near the town-houſe is the fine fountain of Auguſtus, the moſt ſplendid in the city. It is a large marble baſon ſurrounded by an iron baluſtrade, admirably wrought, with four braſs ſtatues as big as the life upon the edge, two of men, and two of women, ſuppoſed to repreſent four little rivers, the Lech, Wertach, Sinkel, and Source. In the middle of the baſon riſes a ſquare pedeſtal, at the foot of which are four large ſphinxes with water ſtreaming from their breaſts. A little above them are four infants holding four dolphins in their arms, from whoſe mouths the water ſpouts in plenty, and over theſe infants are feſtoons and pine-apples, all of braſs. Upon the pedeſtal is a brazen ſtatue of Auguſtus crowned with laurel, and armed after the manner of the antient Romans.

The moſt beautiful fountain next to this, is that called the fountain of Hercules, which has a large hexagon baſon with ſeveral braſs figures, particularly one of Hercules combating the hydra, which are by many good judges

judges eſteemed better executed than thoſe of the former.

The tower called Berlach, which ſtands near the town-houſe, has three hundred ſteps to the top, and above the weather-cock is the ſtatue of a woman. In an area near this ſtructure is a very fine tower adorned with the four ſeaſons in braſs, and in the center is the ſtatue of the emperor Auguſtus with appoſite inſcriptions.

In the biſhop's palace, which is but a mean building, is ſhewn the hall in which the Augſburg confeſſion was preſented to the emperor Charles V.

On the braſs door of the cathedral is repreſented the virgin Mary taking Eve out of Adam's ſide. The monks of St. Ulric diſpoſe of a duſt or powder called St. Ulric's earth, recommending it in the name of that ſaint, who they pretend drove all the rats out of the city and neighbourhood into a hole which they ſhew in his church. This duſt is dug up from the place where he lies buried. But as this effect has never been aſcertained by naturaliſts, it muſt go for nothing, eſpecially as this highly extolled earth fails of its power over the rats in other places.

On the fine well-contrived aqueducts for the conveyance of water from the Lech, are ſeveral corn, ſawing, flatting, and ſmelting mills. There are here alſo waterworks which throw that uſeful element to the top of five towers, from which it is conveyed through the city in ſuch a manner, that the greateſt part of the houſes are ſupplied with water. The palaces of the counts of Fugger are very magnificent; and the Fuggery, as it is called, conſiſts of one hundred and ſix ſmall houſes erected in 1579, by the brothers Ulric, George, and James Fugger, in James's ſuburb, for the reception of poor burghers and inhabitants, to whom they are let at a very ſmall rent.

Augſburg has always been famous for ingenious artiſts, particularly in clocks, goldſmiths work, and ivory turning. There are here ſhewn clocks valued at fifteen or twenty thouſand crowns each; but the worſt is, they are ſo very nice as not to be durable. Their ivory work is no leſs admirable, and among the reſt contain well ſhaped cups with a ring made of the ſame piece, which plays between the foot and bowl of the cup without a poſſibility of coming off. Theſe are ſo nicely made in miniature, that the learned Mr. Keyſler ſays, they incloſe one hundred of them with their rings in a pepper corn of an ordinary ſize. Upon examination, the traces of the tool with which they were turned are viſible. They have other curious baubles, as fleas faſtened about the neck with ſteel chains, ſo finely wrought, that though they are a ſpan long, a flea will lift up the chain when it leaps, one of theſe fleas with this curious chain, they ſell for ten-pence. The trade of this city is very conſiderable, though it is much inferior to what it was formerly.

This city is very remarkable for the ſingular variety of habits worn by the inhabitants; this affair being ſo exactly regulated by the magiſtrates, that the difference of the religion, and quality of the people, are for the moſt part ſeen by their cloaths. For inſtance, ſays Mr. Miſſon, I ſaw a Roman catholic merchant's widow in mourning for her huſband: ſhe had a handkerchief well whitened and ſtarched with wings and cornets, a black petticoat, and a cloak of the ſame colour made like that of a man's, which reached down to her knees, a large white veil behind hanging at the corner of her handkerchief, and reaching down to her heels, enlarging itſelf by degrees, and a piece of the ſame linen with the handkerchief four feet long, and at leaſt two broad, very much ſtarched, and ſtretched on a ſquare of wire, faſtened juſt below the hips, and covering all the fore part of the body.

The garriſon of Augſburg uſually conſiſts of three hundred men, and the burghers are computed at ſix thouſand. One half of the council is Lutheran, and the other half Roman catholic. The magiſtracy at preſent conſiſts of forty-five perſons, thirty-one of whom are patricians, four of ſuch as have married the daughters of patricians, five of the body of merchants, and five of the commonalty.

This city in the diet of the empire poſſeſſes the ſecond place on the bench of the imperial cities of Swabia; but in that of the circle has the firſt ſeat and voice. In the year 1686, an alliance was concluded here between the emperor, Spain, Sweden, and ſome other princes and circles, in oppoſition to France; but towards the concluſion of the year 1703 and 1704, it ſuffered much by the Bavarians and French.

To the juriſdiction of this city belongs the village of Oberhauſen; but in eccleſiaſtical matters it is ſubject to the biſhop, who, conformably to an agreement made in 1602, grants inſtitution to the miniſters.

SECT. IV.

Of the Dutchy of WIRTEMBERG.

Its Situation, Extent, and Produce: The Number, Religion, and Manufactures of the Inhabitants. The Titles, Arms, and Prerogatives of the Duke. The Order of Hunters. The Revenues, Forces, and principal Towns and Palaces of Wirtemberg.

THE dutchy of Wirtemberg, or Wurtemberg, conſiſts of a great number of towns and lordſhips, ſome of which were purchaſed, others devolved to the princes by marriage, and others were acquired by conqueſt. To the north it terminates on the biſhopric of Spire, the Palatinate, the county of Hohenloe, and the diſtrict of the imperial city of Hall in Swabia; to the eaſtward it is bounded by the county of Limpurg, the diſtricts of the imperial city of Ulm, the lordſhips of Rechberg and Wieſenſteig, and the county of Oettingen; on the ſouth-eaſt by the Auſtrian dominions; on the ſouth by thoſe dominions, Briſgau, and other ſmaller diſtricts; and on the weſtward it confines on Furſteinberg, the dioceſe of Straſburg, and the marquiſate of Baden-Baden and Baden-Durlach, from which it is ſeparated by the Black Foreſt. Its extent from north to ſouth, excluſive of the moſt ſouthern detached parts, is ſixty-ſix miles, and it is of the ſame extent from eaſt to weſt, without including the lordſhip of Heydenheim, which lies apart from it.

This is indiſputably the moſt conſiderable and fertile part of the circle of Swabia, and is indeed one of the beſt countries in all Germany. This dutchy abounds ſo much in grain, that conſiderable quantities are exported; but this chiefly conſiſts of ſpelt, rye and wheat being much leſs cultivated. Flax and hemp are alſo produced here, and the former thrive beſt in the coldeſt parts. The vallies formed by the ſkirts of the Alb, ſome of which are three or four hours in length, are covered as it were, with foreſts of fruit-trees, of which indeed there is no ſcarcity in moſt of the other parts of this country, cyder and perry being the liquors drank in common by the country people, when wine happens to be dear. This dutchy alſo abounds with very rich palatable and wholeſome wine, called by the general name of Neckar, though each has a particular title of its own, which it receives from the part where the fruit grows. The grapes alſo that yield the beſt wines bear the name of the countries whence the wines were tranſplanted, as the Chiavenna, Valteline, and Hungarian. The vineyards of Wirtemberg have been much improved by the learned Mr. Bilfinger, who procured ſhoots from France, Italy, Hungary, Cyprus, and even Schiras in Perſia, for his vineyard at Cantſtadt, where moſt of them throve ſo well, that they have been tranſplanted from thence into many other vineyards.

The foreſts of this country are conſiderably decreaſed; for the conſumption of oak in particular has been very large, and beech and birch now require to be uſed ſparingly; but great quantities of turf are now dug, which makes up for the ſcarcity of wood for fuel. Great profits are made by grazing, particularly in the Black Foreſt. The largeſt breed of ſheep is found on the Alb, and moſt parts of the country abound in game.

With reſpect to the minerals of this country, there are mines of ſilver and copper, and alſo ſome of iron; but the latter does not produce a ſufficient quantity to ſupply the country. Sulphur is alſo met with in ſeveral places,

places, and many parts yield coal. *Terra ſigillata*, reckoned preferable to that of Malta, and a fine clay for earthenware, are found here. In this country are alſo found fine variegated marble, ſome of which are equal to thoſe of Italy, and remarkably tranſparent alabaſter, agate, cryſtalline pebbles which cut glaſs, black amber, and fine mill ſtones.

Here are a conſiderable number of baths and mineral ſprings. The rivers which riſe in this dutchy are chiefly the following: the Neckar, which divides the dutchy from north to ſouth, and in the Lower Palatinate falls into the Rhine, being firſt encreaſed by the Ens, the Fils, and Rems.

The number of inhabitants in this dutchy is known with great certainty, an exact enquiry being made every year by the general ſuperintendents, and reported to the annual ſynod. In the year 1754 were numbered four hundred and ſeventy-ſeven thouſand one hundred and fifteen ſouls, and they have hitherto been obſerved to increaſe. In the dutchy are alſo ſixty-eight cities, with about twelve hundred boroughs, market-towns, villages, and hamlets.

The eſtabliſhed religion of this country is Lutheraniſm; and though duke Alexander embraced the Roman, yet in 1729, 1732, and 1733, he gave aſſurances to the ſtates, in formal inſtruments, that no innovation ſhould be made in any part of the dutchy, and that in all the churches and ſchools no other religion but that of Lutheraniſm ſhould be taught; that no new Romiſh churches, chapels, altars, or images ſhould be erected, nor any ſuch as were forſaken again uſed; that no proceſſions, pilgrimages, or catholic burying-places ſhould be allowed; that the hoſt ſhould never be carried openly, nor any part of the catholic worſhip be performed, except only in the duke's chapel; but that the popiſh inhabitants of the town of Ludwigſburg ſhould have the privilege of performing their ſervice in private; that the privy-council ſhould conſiſt only of Lutherans; and that they alone ſhould have the management of every thing relating to the church, the revenue, and the police.

The Calviniſts are only tolerated here, and their place of worſhip at Stutgard is a private houſe. In this dutchy are alſo ſome Waldenſes, who are huſbandmen, and live in the Italian villages, as they are called; only in a few towns they have eſtabliſhed manufactures of hats and ſtockings, and are allowed the public exerciſe of their religion.

In the whole dutchy are five hundred and fifty-five pariſhes, and about fifty deaconries, beſides eight hundred and twenty-nine chapels of eaſe. The pariſhes are divided into thirty-eight ſpecial ſuperintendencies, and thoſe into four general ones. The ſpecial ſuperintendents hold, together with their deanries, the pariſhes of the towns where they reſide, annually viſit the churches and ſchools within their department, once or twice a year convene the miniſters ſubordinate to them, and make their report to the conſiſtory.

This country has ſeveral conſiderable manufactures, as thoſe of porcelain, potters-ware, the caſting of plate-glaſs for looking-glaſſes, damaſk, and other linen and woollen ſtuffs; the printing of cotton, manufactures of ſilk, the making of hats and ſtockings, gilt and marble paper, &c.

The titles of the duke are, duke of Wurtemburg and Teck, count of Mompelgard, lord of Heydenheim and Juſtingen.

The arms for Wurtemburg are, three ſtags horns ſable, in a field or: for Teck or, and ſable lozenges: for Mompelgard, two barbels endorſed with tails averted, in a field gules: for Heydenheim, a Saracen's head, with a kind of huſſar's cap gules, in a field or: for Juſtingen, azure, a ſtaff in bend with branches on both ſides; and laſtly, the imperial ſtandard borne by the ducal houſe of Wurtemburg, as hereditary ſtandard-bearer of the empire.

The dukes are likewiſe grand-huntſmen of the empire; and, in alluſion to this, duke Eberhard Lewis, in the year 1702, founded the order of hunters, and in 1719 renewed and increaſed its ſtatutes, the reigning duke being always grand-maſter. The enſign of the order is a gold croſs reſembling that of Malta, enamelled with red, and at each of the four corners a golden eagle, with a hunting-horn between the middle and lower point of each part. In the center is a ſmall ſhield, on one ſide of which is a W in relievo, with a ducal hat over it; and in the other three golden hunting-horns. This croſs is worn appendent to a broad watered ſcarlet ribbon, paſſing from the left ſhoulder to the right ſide. On the left breaſt of the coat is a ſilver ſtar embroidered with the enſign of the order in the middle, and in a green circle round it AMICITIÆ VIRTUTISQUE FOEDUS. The grand feſtival of this order is on St. Hubert's day, which is alſo celebrated with a great hunting-match at the place where the grand-maſter happens to reſide.

The duke of Wirtemburg, in virtue of this dutchy, ſits and votes in the college of princes, and is the ſummoning prince and director of the circle. Mr. Keyſler, in his travels, computes the whole revenue of this country at two millions of guilders per annum. The country itſelf levies the contributions and exciſe.

The duke's court is one of the moſt numerous in Germany, his liveries rich, his ſtables furniſhed with the fineſt horſes, and his hunting equipages magnificent. He has a grand-marſhal, cup-bearer, maſter of the horſe, gentlemen of the bed-chamber, and twenty pages, all men of good families, many footmen, &c. He keeps in pay a body of horſe-guards, horſe-grenadiers, dragoons, and foot-guards, beſides five regiments of foot, and a body of artillery.

The duke has ſeveral hunting-ſeats, which he viſits alternately in the deer and boar ſeaſons, ſo that every five years he ſees his principal foreſts. It is an old cuſtom all over the country of Wirtemburg, to adorn the chambers and galleries with the largeſt and moſt branching horns; ſo that it is natural to imagine, that the hunting-ſeats are ſtill more plentifully ſupplied with theſe decorations. At Waldenburg, the name of the perſon who ſhot the deer is inſcribed over moſt of the remarkable branches; and the walls of ſeveral rooms are filled with theſe marks of the duke's dexterity.

At Stutgard are the privy-chancery, in which the duke himſelf preſides; the privy or miniſterial council, conſiſting of nobles, men of letters, and officers; the college of government, which has a preſident, and among its members are alſo nobles and men of letters; the conſiſtory, which has a preſident, director, and counſellors; the board of war, which has a preſident and other members; the treaſury has a preſident, a receiver, a ſolicitor, and other officers; the eccleſiaſtical college has a director, adminiſtrators of the church revenues, and other members and officers; with ſeveral other boards, as thoſe of the mint, trade, foreſts, domains, mines, &c.

In the high court of juſtice cauſes are terminated in the laſt reſort, no appeal being allowed to the aulic or any other tribunal: this court was in 1514 removed for ever to Tubingen, where it holds its ſeſſions once a year; and conſiſts of a chief juſtice, aſſeſſors, who are compoſed of nobles, men of ſtudy, and country gentlemen, as alſo of a ſecretary. Mr. Keyſler ſays, that this court of judicature is a jewel equal to that of appeal among the other electors. A very conſiderable benefit ariſing from it, is the ſpeedy adminiſtration of juſtice, the pleadings being verbal, and a ſentence given every day. It is remarkable that the preſident, or chief juſtice, has during the ſeſſions only three guilders *per diem*; the aſſiſtants, who are noble, two; and others, who do not live at Tubingen, one dollar; and ſuch as are inhabitants a guilder, and a rundlet of wine preſented to each aſſiſtant at the end of the ſeſſion, which ſeldom laſts above ſix weeks.

It is remarkable that in all the cities, towns, and villages in this dutchy, there are certain officers called private overſeers, who inſpect into the offences, clandeſtine meetings, and other miſdemeanors of their fellow-citizens, and make their report to the magiſtracy of the place, that theſe matters may be farther inquired into. Theſe private inquiſitors, who take an oath to diſcharge their office with fidelity, receive no ſalary; but are generally rewarded with a counſellor's place, or ſome other office in the government. As nobody knows his accuſer, this office may be attended with the moſt dreadful abuſes, if theſe informations are conſidered as any thing more

than premonitions with reſpect to the judge, or as an incentive to more regularity and caution. This is pretty much of a piece with the ſecret informations of Venice; and I queſtion, ſays Mr. Keyſler, whether the like is to be met with in all Germany.

The principal places in this dutchy are Stutgard, Ludwigſburg, and Tubingen.

Stutgard, the capital of the dutchy, lies in a delightful country full of gardens and vineyards, on the bank of the Niſenbach, in the forty-eighth degree forty-ſeven minutes north latitude, and in the ninth degree eight minutes eaſt longitude. The city is not large, but contains two well built ſuburbs. The new ducal palace was begun in the year 1746. Near the old palace ſtands the chancery, which is a handſome ſtructure built of ſtone, and on the other ſide of the palace towards the eaſt are the menagerie and pleaſure-houſe, the latter of which is admired for its curious architecture. It was erected in the year 1584 wholly of ſtone, and contains two ſtories, in each of which is a ſaloon. The hall has few equals in Europe; it is two hundred and twenty feet in length, eighty broad, and ninety high, without a ſingle pillar; its roof, which is arched, being faſtened in a maſterly manner with wooden ſcrews. In 1707 marſhal Villars, the French general, entering this hall miſtook it, and ſaid with ſome admiration, *Voici un beau temple*; that is, "This is a fine church." On the roof are painted ſeveral ſcripture hiſtories; but the ſides are covered with views of all the foreſts of the dutchy of Wirtemburg, and ſome merry adventures that happened in the chace.

Near it is the orangery, which is compoſed of large and very high trees, but is not well contrived; for the want of height occaſions many of the trees to bend at the top; and the grottos near it are not the moſt beautiful. The new building, as it is termed, is of fine free-ſtone, with a grand ſtair-caſe of the ſame, and a ſpacious hall, whoſe gallery reſts on twelve lofty pillars, on which are painted the twelve months. The roof ſhews the moſt antient tranſactions of the family of Wirtemburg, and the ſides are filled with maſquerades and public entries, and a large painting of the battle of Hochſtet. The uppermoſt chambers ſerve for armouries, and beſides old and new armour contain ſome ſtuffed horſes, that were particular favourites of the duke's, with ſtags, wild boars, and hounds. In the lower part are the duke's ſtables.

In the muſeum are ſeveral portraits of the ducal family, with petrifications, mechanical and mathematical inſtruments, curious pieces of penmanſhip and turnery, gems, coſtly veſſels, mummies, and antient medals. Among other curioſities you ſee the picture of a woman with a large beard, as ſhe appeared in 1587, when ſhe was in her twenty-fifth year; her name was Barteld Gratje; and ſhe is again painted as ſhe looked in her old age.

In the dutchy-houſe both the committees of the country and the ſecular diets aſſemble. The ſee of the biſhop, which was antiently at Beutelſpach, was removed to this place in 1321, on which account the church of the Holy Croſs is ſtiled the cathedral. Among the German Lutheran churches are the hoſpital church and St. Leonard's. The French Lutheran congregation have their public worſhip in the palace-church belonging to the convent of Bebenhauſen, and the French reformed meet in a room of the old palace. In this town is alſo a ſpecial ſuperintendency, and a *gymnaſium illuſtre* of ſeven claſſes. The ſilk manufactories of Stutgard make all ſorts of ſilk ſtuffs, ſtockings, and ribbons.

Ludwigſburg, a palace two leagues from Stutgard, is one of the fineſt palaces in Germany. The looking-glaſs and lackered cloſet are well worth ſeeing, as alſo the large ſtair-caſe for ambaſſadors, with its grand ceiling and the gallery of pictures. Among theſe are ſome admirable night-pieces, and many pictures of horſes and dogs. The chapel belonging to the palace is very elegant, but rather too ſmall. Oppoſite the lower part of the palace, on an eminence in the pheaſant-garden, ſtands the Favorita, a moſt beautiful building in the neweſt Italian taſte. Here is alſo a curious menagerie of foreign fowls; and the green-houſe is a very fine one.

Ludwigſburg is reckoned the ſecond ducal ſeat, and third principal town. Towards the beginning of the preſent century, there were here no more than two farm-houſes; but Eberhard Lewis having built the palace, houſes have been gradually raiſed near it, ſo as at length to form a handſome town, that lies higher than the palace, and is the ſeat of a general ſuperintendency. Here are made linen damaſk, good cloth, and marble paper.

The city of Tubingen, which is ſituated on a mountain, conſiſts of about five thouſand inhabitants, and is famous for its univerſity. The Ammer, Neckar, and Luſtenauer vallies give this place ſuch an agreeable ſituation, and beautiful proſpects, as few cities in Germany can boaſt. The caſtle is now only conſidered as a hunting-ſeat, to which the duke uſually comes with his court once in five years. It has good apartments, and in former times muſt have been reckoned very ſtrong; for beſides the ſteep declivity of the mountain, it is ſurrounded by a deep trench. It is every where vaulted underneath, and among other cellars is one that has not perhaps its equal. It is in a rock, and lined with free-ſtone, though it is three hundred feet in length, and twenty in height. The thickneſs of the arch of the cellar is twenty-two feet. This vault communicates with another, in which is a large well of fine clear water walled in, and three hundred fathoms deep. The undulating ſound cauſed by dropping a ſtone, or firing a piſtol down the mouth, has ſomething amazing and dreadful.

Tubingen is eſteemed the ſecond town of the dutchy, and beſides its univerſity, has a *collegium illuſtre*, all the ſcholars of which are princes or counts; and it is never opened, but when youths of ſuch families come to ſtudy there. Here is alſo a Latin ſchool of four claſſes, and a ſpecial ſuperintendency. In this town is a woollen manufacture.

Urach, a town in a diſtrict of the ſame name, is chiefly remarkable for there being near it on a high and ſteep mountain, a very extraordinary machine called the Wood-ſlider; it conſiſts of a thick iron pipe about three feet broad, upwards of two feet high, and nine hundred feet long, through which the wood hewn in the foreſt beyond Urach, which abounds both in beech and fuel, after being cut into logs or billets, is carried down from the eminence with prodigious celerity, and thrown into the Erms, which forwards it into the Neckar, whence it floats to Berg near Stutgard, where it is at laſt ſtopped, and piled up in the duke's wood-yards. In this manner every year about Eaſter, upwards of nine thouſand cords of wood are brought from the Alb to Stutgard, beſides what is uſed in the duke's court. The produce of what is ſold is applied to the payment of the eccleſiaſtical and civil officers.

SECT. V.

The Margravate of BADEN.

Its Situation and Diviſions, with the Titles and Arms of the Margraves of Baden-Baden; its Situation, with a Deſcription of Raſtadt, and the Palace named Favorita. Of Baden-Durlach, the Palace of Carlſruhe, and the Town of Durlach.

THE margravate of Baden, or Baaden, is ſeated on the eaſtern ſide of the Rhine; it is properly the tract of land between the rivers Pfinz and Schwartzbach, and is watered by the little rivers Alb, Pfedderbach, Murg, Saubach, and Sultzbach, all which diſcharge themſelves into the Rhine. The northern part of this country is called the Lower Margravate, or from Durlach its capital, the margravate of Baden-Durlach; but all the reſt is termed the Upper Margravate, or from Baden its capital, the margravate of Baden-Baden. But to theſe margraves alſo belong other lands. The whole margravate is a fertile country, abounding with corn, hemp, flax, bees-wax, and wood.

The margraves of both titles deſcend from the ſame ſtock, and the titles of each of them are, Margrave of Baden and Hochberg, landgrave of Sauſenberg, count Sponheim and Eberſtein, lord of Roteln, Baden, Weiler, Lahr, and Mahlberg; but the houſe of Baden-Baden adds the diſtricts of Ortenau and Kehl.

The arms for the margravate of Baden are Party per bend gules, in a field or: for Sanſenberg, a lion rampant gules, crowned or, in a field argent: for Sponheim, chequée gules and argent, azure and or: for Eberſtein, a boar ſable on a mount verte, in a field or, and a roſe gules, with ſeeds azure, in a field argent: for the landgravate of Briſgau, a crowned lion gules, in a field argent: for Roteln, a lion paſſant gules, in a field gules, and two feſſes waved argent, in a field azure: for Baden-Weiler, gules party per pale or, with three chevrons ſable: for Lahr, argent per feſſe gules: for Mahlberg, a crowned lion ſable, in a field or.

We ſhall firſt treat of the margravate of Baden-Baden, which terminates to the weſtward on the Rhine, and a ſmall part of it lies on the weſt ſide of that river; on the north-weſt it is bounded by the lower margravate of Baden-Durlach; on the eaſtward by the dutchy of Wurtemberg, and the county of Eberſtein; on the ſouthward by a part of the biſhopric of Straſburg, and the principality of Heſſe-Darmſtadt. The lordſhip of Mahlberg, which alſo belongs to this family, lies ſomewhat higher up the Rhine.

Baden-Baden has a vote in the college of princes, and among the temporal princes in the circle of Swabia. The margraves of Baden-Baden, and Baden-Durlach, are alſo the chiefs of the ſecond quarter of the circle of Swabia. The principal colleges and offices of this prince are the privy council, the court of juſtice and treaſury. His annual revenue, according to Keyſler, is four hundred thouſand florins.

The principal places belonging to the Upper margravate are the following:

Raſtadt, a city regularly built, with a ſtately palace, or caſtle, the center of which affords a view of the ſtreets. This palace was formerly adorned with a great number of fine paintings; but they were conſiderably diminiſhed by father Meyer, who had ſuch influence over the counteſs dowager, as to cauſe pictures to the value of fifty thouſand guilders, which he judged too naked and libidinous, to be committed to the flames. This city is ſituated in a fine plain near the river Murg, which, a little below it, falls into the Rhine. It was built by the margrave Lewis William with regularity and elegance, and in the year 1714 a peace was concluded here between the emperor and France.

The Favorita is a beautiful ſeat at ſome diſtance from Raſtadt, built by the widow of the margrave Lewis William. It has a chamber of very beautiful porcelain, and a cabinet lined with looking-glaſs, with many curioſities of art and nature, particularly above forty pictures in which that princeſs appears in the different maſquerade habits ſhe formerly wore. Amidſt the gradual alteration of the complexion and features, in ſuch a long ſucceſſion of time, the ſame look is every where obſervable; and Mr. Keyſler obſerves, that theſe fine portraits may be compared to the admirable performances of Rubens in the Luxemburg gallery, where queen Mary de Medicis is repreſented under a variety of changes. The hall reaches in height through all the ſtories, and its cupola, round which is a baluſtrade leading to all the ſeveral floors, is very lightſome, and adorned with beautiful paintings. Some of the other rooms are hung with a Chineſe manufacture of paper and ſilk: another with lace-work; the cieling of another is enriched with gems, as agate, jaſper, cornelians, amethyſts, &c. imitating fiſhes, birds, and flowers. There is alſo a magnificent table of the ſame workmanſhip. The excellent order of the kitchen, larder, hall, and medicinal-room, cannot fail of pleaſing an œconomiſt; and accordingly that princeſs took no little pleaſure in walking with her gueſts through theſe ſubterranean apartments.

On the left, at the end of a little orangery, is a pheaſant-garden, and on the right a wild thicket leading to an hermitage which ſtands in the centre of it. The outer walls are covered with large pieces of bark. The door ſeems to reſt on the trunks of old trees, and all that is to be ſeen on the inſide are the coarſe images of Jeſus, Joſeph, and Mary; the niches, like the doors, are ſupported by old trunks of trees. There is a mean bed without curtains; an altar without decorations; and at the angles at the narrow walks in the garden ſtand wooden images of the old hermits as large as the life, ſome of them in hairy habits. In ſhort, this hermitage owes its agreeableneſs to an exact imitation of the natural ſimplicity of a ſolitude adapted to devout contemplation.

The Lower margravate of Baden terminates to the weſt on the river Rhine, to the ſouthward on the Upper margravate of Baden and the dukedom of Wurtemburg, to the eaſtward on the ſame dukedom, and to the northward on the biſhopric of Spire.

The margravate of Baden-Durlach enjoys two votes in the college of princes, one for the Lower margravate of Baden, and the other for the margravate of Hochberg in the Briſgau. Theſe countries likewiſe entitle him to two votes in the diet of the circle of Swabia, where he has a ſeat among the princes.

The great colleges here hold their ſeſſions at Carlſruhe; theſe are the privy-council, the treaſury, the chamber of accounts, the court of juſtice, the eccleſiaſtical-council, and the matrimonial-court.

The reigning family, and the country in general, profeſs Lutheraniſm; but the Calviniſts, Papiſts, and Jews, are tolerated at Carlſruhe, and ſeveral other places. The whole country of Baden-Durlach contains a hundred and twenty pariſhes, which are under the inſpection of ſeven ſuperintendents.

The revenues of the prince are computed at four hundred thouſand florins.

The city of Carlſruhe, or Charles's Reſt, is ſeated in a diſtrict of the ſame name, that is one continued plain, every where ſandy, yet produces corn, hemp, flax, turnips, peas, and other vegetables; and the villages along the Rhine abound in hay, and breed great numbers of cattle. The city receives its name from Charles William, who built it; and on the ſeventeenth of June, 1715, laid the foundation-ſtone of the palace there, on which occaſion he inſtituted the order of Fidelity. This city has a *gymnaſium illuſtre*, in which are eight maſters, the four firſt of whom are ſtiled profeſſors. The Lutherans have ſeveral churches, the Calviniſts and Catholics have alſo theirs, and the Jews a ſynagogue. The town is very regularly built, but both the houſes and the palace are only of wood and brick; thoſe houſes that are near the palace are the largeſt, and have a range of piazzas.

The firſt object of attention in building of the palace, and for which no expence was thought too great, is the turret on the body of the building, from whence one has not only a view into all the main ſtreets, which are divided by three croſs ſtreets; but alſo into twenty-five viſtas, ſome ſet with trees, and others cut through the woods; and the beauty of the proſpect is ſtill heightened by other variegated walks in the ſame woods. Some of theſe walks bear the names of the miniſters who ſerved his highneſs at the time when theſe improvements were made, and moſt of the ſtreets in the town are called after princes.

The garden, though ſmall, is very elegant, it having no leſs than four thouſand orange, lemon, bay, and other ſuch trees; among which, ſays Mr. Keyſler, two thouſand ſeven hundred are orange-trees. In ſome of the lower parts of the garden are pretty eſpaliers of young lemon-trees; and behind the palace is a decoy, where about two thouſand wild-ducks are daily fed. The chief defect in Carlſruhe is the want of water, and what the garden has is conveyed thither by hand-pumps.

In the upper diſtrict of Durlach, which is a very fruitful country that produces not only plenty of corn, hemp, and flax, but good wine, is Durlach, the capital of the margravate, and once the reſidence of the prince. It is ſeated on the river Pfinz, in the forty-ninth degree twenty minutes north latitude, and in the eighth degree twenty minutes eaſt longitude. It had formerly a palace called Carlſburg, with a ſpecial ſuperintendency, and a grammar ſchool; but in 1689 was laid in aſhes by the French. At a ſmall diſtance from the town is a very large decoy for wild-fowl; and in this diſtrict is Seehof, the manſion-houſe of a fine eſtate belonging to the prince, near which are moſt beautiful meadows for the uſe of his ſtables.

SECT.

SECT. VI.

A conciſe Account of the free imperial Cities of Swabia.

WE have already given a deſcription of Augſburg in treating of that biſhopric, and ſhall therefore begin with the city of Ulm, which is ſeated on an uneven ſpot of ground on the Danube, over which it has a ſtone bridge, in the forty-eighth degree twenty-three minutes north latitude, and in the tenth degree ſix minutes eaſt longitude. Here that river receives into it the Blau, which runs through a part of the city, and juſt beyond it is joined by the Iler. This city is pretty well fortified, but ſtrangers are never ſuffered to go upon the ramparts without paying a guilder; the very burghers are under the ſame reſtraint: this being the privilege of the patricians and their friends, which ſolely proceeds from avarice; for theſe patricians ſhare the hay and fruits that grow upon the ramparts among themſelves, which makes them thus ſtrictly cautious to prevent any diminution of their profit.

The inhabitants are moſtly Lutherans, and to them belongs the cathedral, which is a large ſtructure, that ſtands almoſt in the center of the city, and has ſeven miniſters. The building is three hundred and ſixty-five feet in length; and the windows, particularly ſix in the choir, are moſt beautifully painted, and one of them is ſaid to have coſt three thouſand German florins. The ſteeple of this cathedral is four hundred and one ſteps high, and affords a moſt extenſive proſpect, all the adjacent country being level. The Lutherans have alſo the church of the Holy Ghoſt, that of the Bare-footed friars, and an hoſpital. The Roman catholic inhabitants perform their public worſhip at the convent of St. Michael at Wengen, in which are regular canons of the order of St. Auguſtine, and in the houſe of the Teutonic order. The Lutheran ſeminary is founded in a convent that formerly belonged to the Bare-footed friars. Among the other ſtructures is the ſplendid foundation of Samlungſtift, which is particularly appropriated for the daughters of patricians; and among the public civil buildings are the town-houſe and the arſenal.

The houſes are for the moſt part of timber and plaiſter; they make but an indifferent appearance, and the ſtreets are neither wide nor handſome; they have ſeveral ſquares, but they are mean and very irregular. It is reckoned near ſix miles and a half in circumference: its ditches, which are well fortified, are almoſt every where double, and on one ſide of the town the Danube runs through them with great rapidity, while the others are kept full of water by ſluices. This city was once ſo rich, that it paſſed for one of the wealthieſt in the empire; and the Germans were accuſtomed to ſay, "The ready caſh of "Ulm, the neatneſs of Augſburg, the induſtry of Nu"renburg, and the arſenal of Straſburg, were the four "wonders of Germany."

The magiſtracy here is Lutheran, and conſiſts of forty-one members, above half of whom are patricians. This city maintains ſix companies of ſoldiers. Large quantities of wine are brought hither from the Rhine, the Neckar, the lake of Conſtance, and the Veltlin, and carried up the Danube. It alſo trades in linen and other goods. This city poſſeſſes the fourth ſeat on the bench of Swabian cities in the diet of the empire; but in the circle of Swabia has not only the ſecond place on the Swabian bench, but the perpetual *directorium*. Here are kept the archives of the imperial towns in Swabia and Franconia, and the diet of Swabia is alſo uſually held here.

The free imperial city of Eſſlingen is ſeated on the Neckar, eight miles to the eaſt of Stutgard. What is properly called the city ſtands on a branch of that river, and contains St. Denis's church, together with the New or Dominican church, the *Frauenkirchen*, and another which belonged to the Bare-footed friars, the orphan-houſe, the grammar ſchool, and the *collegium alumnorum*; as alſo the fine town-houſe, and the rich hoſpital of St. Catherine. It has three ſuburbs, namely, the Upper ſuburb, which, as well as the city, ſtands on a branch of the Neckar; the ſuburb of Beuten, near which is the citadel; and the ſuburb of Blienſau, which is ſituated on an iſland between the main ſtream of the Neckar and the above-mentioned branch, and is famous for containing in it the arſenal of the circle of Swabia.

The principal church belongs to the Lutherans, who compoſe the magiſtracy; and the Roman catholics perform their public worſhip in the chapel of the ſtewards of the convent of Cayſerſheim. In the diet of the empire this city poſſeſſes the fifth place on the bench of the imperial cities of Swabia; but the third on the bench of cities in the circle of Swabia. Eſſlingen is under the protection of the duke of Wirtemburg, by whoſe territories this city and the country belonging to it are ſurrounded. This city, in the year 1701, ſuffered greatly by fire.

The free imperial city of Reutlingen ſtands about five miles diſtant from Tubingen, on the little river Echetz, which runs into the Neckar. This city is ſmall, and has only one pariſh-church, an hoſpital, an orphan-houſe, and a grammar-ſchool. Both magiſtrates and burghers are Lutherans, and the former uſually conſiſt of twenty-eight perſons, of whom the civil judge and twelve others are commoners. In the diet of the empire it is poſſeſſed of the ſixth ſeat and vote on the bench of the imperial towns of Swabia; but in that of the circle, of the fourth on the bench of towns. It is alſo under the protection of the duke of Wirtemburg.

The imperial and free city of Nordlingen is ſeated in a pleaſant fertile country on the river Eger, and till the year 1238 ſtood on the adjacent hills of Emeranſberg; but being then conſumed by fire, was built on the ſpot where it now ſtands. Almoſt all the burghers are Lutherans, who have three churches, and a Latin ſchool; but the Roman catholics have their church near the German houſe. The magiſtracy are alſo Lutherans. This city likewiſe poſſeſſes a ſeat on the bench of the imperial towns of Swabia, and in the diet of the circle.

In the year 1647 it was beſieged by the army of the empire for ſeventeen weeks, during which it ſuffered greatly by an accidental fire; and in 1702, a famous compact was entered into here between the five circles; after which this town was better fortified, as being a bulwark to the circle of Franconia againſt Bavaria.

We ſhall now deſcribe the free imperial city of Hall, otherwiſe called Swabian-Hall, which, together with its territories, is ſeated on the river Kocher, between the counties of Hohenlohe and Limburg, the margravate of Anſpach, and the dutchy of Wirtemburg. It is ſo ſurrounded by mountains, that it is not eaſy to approach it; and is divided from the ſuburbs by the river, over which is a ſtone bridge. The town conſiſts of three parts, namely, of Old Hall, in which ſtands the principal church of St. Michael, with the college, the hoſpital, another church, and the ſalt-houſes; of the part above the Kocher, in which ſtands the houſe of the order of St. John, and St. Catharine's church; and the third part is compoſed of Gelbinger-ſtreet. The city is Lutheran, and the magiſtracy conſiſts of twenty-four perſons, under the direction of two burgomaſters, as preſidents. The city owes its origin to its ſalt-ſprings, which are ſaid to have given occaſion to ſeveral noblemen to ſettle there, and among other buildings to erect ſeven towers of ſtone; whence the place at firſt obtained the name of Siebenburgen, or Seven-caſtles, and afterwards it became gradually enlarged, till it arrived at its preſent ſtate. This city alſo poſſeſſes a ſeat in the diet of the empire, and in the circle of Swabia. It has ſeveral times ſuffered greatly by fire, particularly in the year 1728.

The imperial town of Uberlingen is ſeated on a rock, in a bay of the lake of Conſtance, and its moats are formed of ſo many ſtone quarries. The town is divided into three parts, the Upper Town, the Lower Town, and the Gallenberg. The inhabitants are of the Romiſh religion, and have a collegiate church dedicated to St. Nicholas, a houſe of the order of St. John, an imperial hoſpital, three convents, and two other churches. Near the town is a good mineral ſpring. Uberlingen poſſeſſes a place in the diet of the empire among the imperial towns of Swabia, and among thoſe of the circle.

The

The free imperial town of Rothweil is ſeated on an eminence by the Neckar, and its territories border on thoſe of the dutchy of Wirtemburg. The inhabitants are of the popiſh religion, and there are here a monaſtery of the order of St. John, a college of Jeſuits, and three convents. It enjoys the ſame privileges as the other cities, in having a repreſentative at the imperial diet, and in that of the circle.

Heilbron, a free and imperial city, is ſeated on the Neckar, in a very pleaſant and fruitful wine-country on the borders of the dutchy of Wirtemburg and the Palatinate. It received its name from Heilbron, which ſignifies Health-ſpring, from a ſpring that, by means of ſeveral conduits, ſupplies the city with excellent water in ſeven different places. It is not uſed medicinally, as it was formerly, but continues in great repute for its extraordinary clearneſs and ſalubrity. To the uſe of this ſpring the emperor Charles V. attributed his recovery from a dangerous fit of ſickneſs. This event is commemorated by the following inſcription in High Dutch, which Mr. Keyſler obſerves is to be ſeen on a houſe belonging to the prelates of Sconthal, but at preſent inhabited by the poſt-maſter: "On the twenty-fourth of "December, 1546, the emperor Charles V. was brought "hither in a litter; and on the eighteenth of January, "1547, he rode from hence in perfect health on horſe-"back." On each ſide of this monument ſtand Fortitude and Clemency, with four other virtues, and two crowned pillars, with the inſcription PLUS ULTRA. In this houſe is alſo to be ſeen a portrait of Charles V. which he left behind him when he went away. It is well executed, and reſembles all the portraits of that emperor done by Holbein. Our author mentions there being one year ſuch plenty of wine in this country, that the inhabitants had not a ſufficient number of caſks to put it in, and that wine of the growth of the year 1725 was ſold for half a creutzer, or about a farthing a quart.

The city of Heilbron is well built, and has three pariſh-churches, the principal of which is dedicated to St. Kilian. The college and town-library are in a convent that formerly belonged to the Minorites. There is here alſo a manſion-houſe, and commandery of the Teutonic order, with a nunnery of the order of St. Clare. The form of government is ariſtocratical, and the magiſtrates, as well as moſt of the inhabitants, are Lutherans. Heilbron was for a conſiderable time under the protection of Wirtemburg, and afterwards under that of the elector Palatine. It poſſeſſes a ſeat in the diet of the empire among the imperial towns of Swabia, and in the bench of thoſe on the circle.

Gmund, or Gemund, another free and imperial town, is ſeated on the Rems, on the borders of Wirtemburg. The inhabitants are of the Romiſh religion, and have five churches, the principal of which is that of the Holy Croſs. There are here alſo four monaſteries and two nunneries. The magiſtrates are elected out of the body of the people. This city enjoys the ſame privileges as the reſt, with reſpect to the imperial diets, and thoſe of the circle.

The free imperial town of Memmingen is ſeated in a beautiful and fertile plain on a ſmall river called the Aach, which runs into the Iler. This town is Lutheran, and its principal church of St. Martin belongs entirely to thoſe of that communion; but the church of Our Lady is poſſeſſed in common by them and the Roman catholics. There is here alſo an Auguſtine monaſtery, with a church, a Franciſcan nunnery, a monaſtery belonging to the monks of the Holy Croſs, with an hoſpital near it, in which is a church, a chapel dedicated to the wiſemen of the Eaſt, a ſmall church, and another hoſpital near the church of Our Lady. The magiſtrates are of the Lutheran religion, and conſiſt of nineteen perſons, part of whom are patricians, and part choſen from the body of the people. This city has alſo a repreſentative at the imperial diet, and in that of the circle. The inhabitants carry on a good trade with Swiſſerland, Italy, and the other neighbouring countries in Bavarian ſalt, home-ſpun linen, corn, hops, and other goods.

Lindaw, or Lindau, is an imperial city ſituated on an iſland in the lake of Conſtance; but has a communication with the continent by means of a very large wooden bridge; and is divided by an arm of the lake, ſo as to form another ſmaller iſland that is ſeparated from the city, and conſiſts of vineyards and gardens, and is walled quite round. Hence, on account of its ſituation, it has been ſtiled the Venice of Swabia. The pariſh-church is dedicated to St. Stephen: it has alſo a well endowed hoſpital, and a grammar-ſchool, conſiſting of four claſſes. The caſtle, and the heathen-wall, as it is called, ſtand near the gate at the bridge which leads to the continent, and are ſuppoſed to be Roman works; the latter of which is attributed to Tiberius Nero, and the former to Conſtantinus Chlorus, at the time of their encampment in this iſland, during their expeditions againſt the Vindelici and Alemanni. It is alſo ſuppoſed that near this caſtle formerly ſtood a town, and that the little church of St. Peter was built on the firſt introduction of Chriſtianity into this country.

There is here an imperial abbey, the abbeſs of which is a princeſs, who holds the firſt ſeat in the imperial diet among the abbeſſes on the Swabian bench of prelates, and has alſo a ſeat in the ſecular bench of princes in the diet of the circle. It is remarkable that every abbeſs, on her acceſſion to her government of the abbey, has the privilege of releaſing the firſt maleſactor capitally condemned within the juriſdiction of the city.

The magiſtracy conſiſt of the privy and large-council. The city had formerly a provincial tribunal, but ever ſince the end of the fifteenth century this has been annexed to Altorf, and Lindaw annually pays two tons of wine, as an acknowledgment to the prefecturate of Altorf. This city has a place among the imperial cities on the Swabian bench of the diet of the empire, and in that of the circle of Swabia. At the diet held here in 1496, was eſtabliſhed the chamber of juſtice. In 1647, it held out a ſiege of nine weeks againſt the Swedes, who were at laſt obliged to retire; and, in 1728, a conſiderable part of the city was conſumed by fire.

The imperial town of Dinkelſbuhl is ſeated on the Wernitz, near the margravate of Anſpach, and ſtands on three hills, on which formerly grew ſpelt, whence its arms are an ear of ſpelt or. The inhabitants are a mixture of Lutherans and Roman catholics, the latter of whom are poſſeſſed of the great church, and two convents; but the former of the hoſpital church, their own conſiſtory, and two German ſchools. The magiſtracy here is one half Lutheran and the other Roman catholic. This city enjoys the ſame privileges with the reſt with reſpect to the diets of the empire and the circle.

Biberac, another imperial city, is ſeated on the little river Reis, or Ruſs, in a pleaſant fruitful valley, ſurrounded with hills, fields, gardens, and meadows. Its name ſignifies the reſidence of bevers, and it is thus called from the number of thoſe animals near it; hence its arms are azure, a bever crowned or. Half of the magiſtrates are Lutherans, and half Roman catholic. St. Martin's, or the great church, and the rich hoſpital, with its church, are common to both ſects. The Lutherans are alſo poſſeſſed of the church of St. Mary Magdalen, and each of them have a grammar-ſchool. Its deputy has a ſeat in the diet of the empire, and alſo in that of the circle. There are here many weavers, and its principal trade conſiſts in fuſtians.

The imperial city of Ravenſburg is ſeated in a valley on the Schuſs, a ſmall river that falls into the lake of Conſtance. It has four gates, many convents, a handſome town-houſe, and the churches are well built. In the middle of the town is a high watch-tower, in the place of one blown down by a whirlwind in 1552, on which is an inſcription, that the watchman, or trumpeter, who, according to cuſtom, ſounds the hour of the night, fell down from the top with the tower, without receiving the leaſt hurt, while his wife and ſon, who were below, were killed. The Lutherans and Catholics are on the ſame footing with each other, both with reſpect to ſpiritual and temporal affairs, and the magiſtracy is ſhared between them. The church ſituated near the Carmelite convent is common to both ſects; but the Trinity church is in the poſſeſſion of the Lutherans alone, and the Roman catholics have two pariſh-churches.

It has alſo a ſeat in the general diet, among the imperial cities on the bench of Swabia, and on the bench of the circle.

Kempten, an antient imperial city, is ſeated on the Iler, which flows between the town and the ſuburbs. Both the burghers and magiſtrates are of the Lutheran religion, and have a handſome pariſh-church, and a grammar-ſchool.

In this city is a very antient Benedictine abbey, which Hildegard, conſort to Charlemagne, repaired in the year 775, and if ſhe was not the original foundreſs, ſhe ſettled on it her ſhare of her mother's inheritance, in acknowledgment of which the abbey took her image for its coat of arms. The prince and abbot of Kempten is grand-marſhal to the empreſs, and at her coronation takes from her the ſceptre, which he afterwards delivers back. He has a ſeat in the imperial college of princes, and in the diet of the circle of Swabia; as the city of Kempten has among the cities on the bench of Swabia, and in that of the circle. In the year 1633 this city was taken ſword in hand by the Imperialiſts, with the ſlaughter of at leaſt two-thirds of the burghers.

The imperial city of Kaufbeuren is ſituated in a valley on the banks of the Wertach. The burghers are partly Lutherans and partly Roman catholics; but its magiſtracy conſiſts of eight Lutherans, and only four of the Romiſh religion. In the town court and great-council all the members are Lutherans, except two Roman catholics. Here are a college of Jeſuits, and a Franciſcan nunnery. This town has likewiſe a ſeat among the imperial towns on the bench of Swabia in the general diet, and in the diet of the circle.

Weil, alſo called Weilerſtadt, in Latin Wila, is an imperial town ſeated on the river Wurm, and ſurrounded by the dutchy of Wirtemburg. The Popiſh religion prevails here. The pariſh-church of St. Peter was formerly collegiate. Here is alſo a convent of Auguſtine and Capuchin monks, together with a rich hoſpital. This city enjoys the ſame privileges as the reſt with reſpect to the diets. In the year 1388 count Ulric of Wirtemburg loſt his life in a battle near this city, and in 1648 it was taken by ſtorm by the French.

Wangen, together with its diſtrict, is ſeated on the river Argen, and is but a ſmall place, notwithſtanding its having the ſame privileges with reſpect to the diets. The inhabitants are Papiſts, and have here a pariſh-church, an hoſpital, and a convent of Capuchins.

Iſny, another imperial town, is ſeated on the river of the ſame name in the Algau. Its magiſtrates, and the greateſt part of the burghers, are of the Lutheran religion; but among the latter are ſome Roman catholics. Here is an abbey of Benedictine monks. It has a place in the diet of the empire, and in the circle of Swabia among the other imperial towns. In 1721 it ſuffered extremely by fire.

The antient imperial town of Leutkirch is ſeated on the river Eſchach, which a little below this place runs into the Aitrach. It has a Lutheran and Roman catholic church, together with a nunnery of Franciſcans; but the greateſt part of the magiſtracy are Lutherans.

The antient and imperial town of Wimpfen, in Latin Wimpina, was in the time of the Romans called Cornelia. It is ſeated on the river Neckar, and properly conſiſts of two towns, the moſt conſiderable of which is called Wimpfen on the hill, and the other Wimpfen on the vale. In the former is a Lutheran pariſh-church, a grammar-ſchool, and a popiſh hoſpital, or foundation of the order of the Holy Ghoſt: in the latter is a popiſh abbey dedicated to St. Peter, and a convent of Dominican monks. The magiſtracy are, however, compoſed entirely of Lutherans. In 1726 a ſharp action happened here between count Tilly and the margrave of Baden-Durlach. In 1645 and 1688 Wimpfen was taken by the French.

Giengen is ſeated on the river Brenz, and is entirely ſurrounded by the dutchy of Wirtemburg. The inhabitants are of the Lutheran religion, and enjoy the ſame privilege of ſending a deputy to the general diet of the imperial towns of Swabia, and in that of the circle, as all the other imperial towns. In 1634 this place was entirely deſtroyed by the Imperialiſts.

The little free imperial towns of Pfullendorf, Buchorn, Alen, Bopfingen, Buchau, Offenburg, Gengenbach, Zell, and Hammerſbach, are ſcarce worthy of any deſcription, ſince they are inconſiderable places, and are only diſtinguiſhed by their having a ſeat in the diet of the empire, among the imperial towns on the bench of Swabia, and in that of the circle.

SECT. VII.

Of the ſmall Principalities of Hohenzollern and Furſtenberg, the Counties of Oettingen, and Eberſtein, with the Lordſhip of Mindelheim.

THE principality of Hohenzollern is a fruitful country advantageouſly ſituated in a narrow tract near the Danube, between Furſtenberg and the dutchy of Wirtemburg. It took its name from the caſtle of Zollern, which ſtands by a river of the ſame name, and is a long and narrow tract extending about thirty-four miles in length, and about ten where broadeſt; but in other places ſcarce five. It is tolerably fertile, and is governed by its own princes.

The family is divided into the two branches of Hechingen and Sigmaringen: each reigning prince has a council and treaſury; but the former alone has a vote in the college of princes, though both have a voice in the diet of the circle.

The titles of the reigning princes are, Prince of Hohenzollern, burgrave of Nurenberg, count of Sigmaringen and Voringen, lord of Haigerloch and Wohrſtein, and hereditary chamberlain of the Holy Roman empire; yet the annual revenue of the prince of Hohenzollern-Hechingen is computed to amount to no more than thirty thouſand florins, and that of Hohenzollern-Sigmaringen does not exceed this ſum.

The former of theſe princes reſides at Hechingen, which is ſeated on the river Starzel, and has an abbey dedicated to St. James. The reſidence of the latter is at Sigmaringen, a town ſeated on the Danube.

The principality of Furſtenberg is a narrow tract, which, according to ſome authors, extends about ſeventy miles in length on both ſides the Danube, which has its ſource within its limits; but no where exceeds eighteen miles in breadth; but this account does not ſeem to be very accurate, and Dr. Buſching, who is extremely explicit in ſome particulars, takes no notice of its form and extent. The county of Heiligenberg, which compoſes a conſiderable part of this principality, is bounded on the eaſt by Konigſec and Ravenſburg, on the eaſt it terminates on the territory of Conſtance, to the weſt it borders on the juriſdiction of Uberling and Peterſhaus, and to the north on the imperial town of Pfullendorf and Hohenzollern.

The prince of Furſtenberg is entitled to ſix votes in the diet of the circle, two among the princes for Heiligenberg and Stuhlingen, and four among the counts and barons, as lord of Moſkirch, Baar, Hanſen, and Gundelfingen. In the imperial diet he poſſeſſes only one vote in the college of princes, and another vote in the college of the counts of Swabia, for Heiligenberg and Werdenberg.

There are no places in this principality worthy of a particular deſcription, there being only a few ſmall towns and villages.

The county of Oettingen lies to the eaſt of the dutchy of Wirtemburg, extending about eighteen miles between the marquiſate of Anſpach on the north, and the dutchy of Neuburg and the Danube on the ſouth: its greateſt breadth is about twelve miles. The lords of this country are divided into three branches; but all the three lines have one cuſtom-houſe and ſteward in common, which are both accountable to the chamber of regency. The inhabitants are partly Roman catholic and partly Lutheran. The country is divided into four prefecturates, the principal place of which is

Oettingen, the capital of the county, and the reſidence of the princely line of Oettingen-Spielberg, is ſeated on the Wernitz, and is the ſeat of the regency and treaſury, and alſo of the Lutheran conſiſtory of the princes and counts in common. There are here a ſociety for the improvement

provement of arts and ſciences, a grammar-ſchool, a college of Jeſuits, a commandery of the Teutonic order, and an orphan-houſe.

The county of Eberſtein lies in the Black Foreſt, between the dutchy of Wirtemburg and the margravate of Baden, and is watered by the Murg, by means of which a great number of floats of timber are carried into the Rhine. It belongs to the margrave of Baden-Baden, to whom it gives an additional ſeat and vote in the college of Swabian counts at the diet of the empire, and alſo in that of the circle. This county contains

Eberſtein, a market-town, near which is a caſtle.

Gerſpach, a ſmall town ſeated on the river Murg, the inhabitants of which are a mixture of Proteſtants and Papiſts.

In this county is alſo a Benedictine abbey for ladies, called Frauenalb, from its being ſeated on the river Alb; and likewiſe ſeveral villages.

There are ſome other little territories too minute for deſcription in ſo extenſive a work as this; we ſhall therefore only add the following lordſhip:

Mindelheim is ſituated between the biſhopric of Augſburg on the north-eaſt, and the territories of the abbey of Kempten on the ſouth-weſt. It is a pleaſant fruitful territory, about ten miles ſquare. In the beginning of the laſt century duke Maximilian of Bavaria made himſelf maſter of it, and tranſmitted it to his deſcendants; but the elector of Bavaria being put under the ban in the year 1706, the emperor raiſed this lordſhip to a principality, and conferred it as a fief on the moſt illuſtrious duke of Marlborough, who was created a prince of the empire, and alſo inveſted with a ſeat and vote, not only on the bench of princes of the circle of Swabia, but likewiſe in the imperial diet. However, by the peace of Raſtadt and Baden, in 1714, Mindelheim reverted again under its antient title of a lordſhip to the elector of Bavaria, who on that account enjoys both a ſeat and vote on the bench of counts and barons of the Swabian circle.

Mindelheim, the capital, is ſituated in a plain on the river Mindel, about twenty-ſeven miles to the ſouth-weſt of Augſburg, and is an open town, with a caſtle on a hill, built more for ornament than defence: it has a pariſh-church, a college of Jeſuits, a gymnaſium, and a Franciſcan convent.

SECT. VIII.

Of the Auſtrian Countries in Swabia not included within the Circle, and the principal Places they contain.

THE extent of the imperial dominions in Swabia cannot be determined, with reſpect to their length and breadth, with any degree of certainty, they being in many places interſected by other territories.

This country is of moderate goodneſs; it produces all ſorts of corn, and towards the lake of Conſtance, likewiſe wine. The countrymen, who are Roman catholics, ſubſiſt here in ſummer by labouring in the fields and vineyards, and in winter chiefly by ſpinning.

This part of Swabia is divided into Upper and Lower juriſdictions; in the former are thirteen prefecturates, and in the latter ten divifions, the principal places in which are,

Rotenburg, a ſmall town ſeated on the Neckar, and in the lower county of Hohenberg. It was deſtroyed by an earthquake, in the eleventh or twelfth century; but was afterwards rebuilt, and at preſent contains a citadel, with a fine college of Jeſuits, and a Carmelite cloiſter. Before the gate ſtands a celebrated church named Weckanthal, and in its neighbourhood is a medicinal ſpring.

In this part of Swabia is Auſtrian Briſgaw, which lies on the eaſt ſide of the Rhine, that river dividing it from Alſace; it is ſeated between the Ortnaw on the weſt, and the principality of Furſtenberg on the eaſt. The principal places in this diſtrict are the following:

Freyburg, the capital of the province, is ſeated in the river Treiſam, and was formerly an important fortreſs. It has been three times taken by the Swedes, and as often by the French, who in 1745 demoliſhed its fortifications. It has a regency appointed over a part of the Auſtrian territories in Swabia, an univerſity, a college of Jeſuits, and ſeveral cloiſters.

Old Briſach, thus called to diſtinguiſh it from New Briſach, which belongs to the French, and is ſeated on the other ſide of the Rhine. Old Briſach is ſeated on an eminence, and was formerly an excellent fortreſs, which in 1688 was taken by the French; but in 1697 was again reſtored, and in 1703 was taken a ſecond time; but in 1715 was again given up to the houſe of Auſtria; but at length, in 1741, the preſent empreſs cauſed the fortifications to be razed.

Rheinfelden, one of the foreſt towns, is ſeated on the ſouth ſide of the Rhine, and is defended by good fortifications. On the oppoſite bank of that river is a covered way built in the manner of a horn-work, and having a communication with the town by means of a bridge. The Rhine at this place runs with great violence into a rocky tract a mile in length called the Gewild, through which ſhips are let down by ropes.

Villingen, a town ſituated in a fertile tract on the Briege. The ſtreets are regularly laid out and well paved. This place, by means of the circumjacent mountains, and narrow paſſes leading to it, is extremely well ſecured. It has alſo ſome fortifications: hence in 1633 and 1634 it was beſieged in vain, and in 1704 bombarded without effect by the French, though it had been taken by them in 1688. It has always ſerved the Auſtrians as a magazine for proviſions and military ſtores. It has an abbey of Benedictines, and in its neighbourhood is a good bath.

CHAP. XX.

Of the Circle of BURGUNDY.

SECT. I.

Of the Circle of Burgundy in general; with a particular Account of the Auſtrian Share of the Dutchy of Brabant. Its Situation, Rivers, Government, and Arms; with a Deſcription of its principal Cities, particularly Louvain, Bruſſels, Antwerp, and Mechlin.

THE tenth and laſt circle of the German empire is that of Burgundy; but the greateſt part of its territories have been torn from it. France has gradually brought under her dominion the dutchy of Lorrain, which was formerly reckoned in this circle, and alſo a part of the dutchy of Luxemburg, together with a part of the county of Flanders, and the counties of Artois and Burgundy, or French Compté, and a part likewiſe of the counties of Hainault and Namur. The provinces of Gueldres, Holland, Zealand, Utrecht, Frieſland, Overyſſel, and Groningen, have raiſed themſelves to liberty and independency; nay, after their union, by the force of arms, they reduced to ſubjection a part of the dutchies of Brabant and Limburg, and likewiſe of the county of Flanders, with the city of Maeſtricht, and its territory. Laſtly, the king of Pruſſia has alſo the poſſeſſion of a part of Upper Gueldres.

Thus the circle of Burgundy at preſent conſiſts only of the principal part of the dutchies of Brabant, Limburg, and Luxemburg; and alſo of a part of the counties of Flanders, Hainault, Namur, and a part of the upper quarter of Gueldres. Theſe territories, which, together with the Netherlands, devolved, on the death of Charles V. to the Burgundian Spaniſh line of the houſe of Auſtria, fell, after the death of Charles II. king of Spain, to the German line of the houſe of Auſtria, the emperor Charles VI. having, by the peace of Baden in 1714, and by that of Vienna in 1725, ſecured them to his houſe, and after his death they came to his daughter and heireſs Maria Thereſa.

This circle is wholly Catholic.

The Burgundian envoy ſits at the imperial diets in the council of the princes of the empire; and the Auſtrian governor-general reſides at Bruſſels.

We ſhall begin this circle with the Auſtrian ſhare of the dutchy of Brabant, which terminates to the north, on that part of the dutchy poſſeſſed by the republic of the United Provinces, to the eaſt on the biſhopric of Liege, to the ſouth on Hainault and Namur, and to the weſt on Flanders and Zealand. The whole dutchy, which is a hundred and four miles in length, and ninety-five in breadth, was formerly the firſt in rank of all the ſeventeen provinces of the Netherlands. The ſouthern part of this dutchy is very mountainous.

The air of Brabant is good, and its ſoil very fertile. Its greateſt riches conſiſt in its flax.

A part of the country is watered by the river Demer, which receives into it the leſſer rivers of Gheete, Dyle, Senne, and Nethe; after which it takes the name of Rupel, and loſes itſelf in the Scheld, which, to the weſt, borders on Brabant.

Near Bruſſels a canal has been carried on from the river Senne to the village of Willebroec, where it diſcharges itſelf into the river Rupel, which ſoon after unites in ſuch a manner with the Scheld, that a perſon may ſail from Bruſſels to the North ſea. This canal was begun in 1550, and finiſhed in 1561, at the expence of eight hundred thouſand florins. In 1753 a canal was begun to be carried on from Louvain to the Rupel, which divides the Dam between the Louvain and Mechlin into two equal parts, and is now brought to bear. Among other public works a ſtone-cauſeway between Louvain and Bruſſels was built in 1710, and another in 1726 reaching from Louvain to Thienen and Liege.

The whole country profeſſes the Romiſh church; and in 1559 an archbiſhopric was erected at Mechlin by Pope Paul IV. under whom are fourteen collegiate churches and two hundred and three cloiſters. To the ſame archbiſhopric are ſubject the prelates of Antwerp, Ghent, Boiſleduc, Bruges, Ypres, and Ruremond.

For the promotion of learning in this country here are ſeveral ſchools and ſeminaries, as alſo the univerſity of Louvain.

The ſtates of Brabant conſiſt of three claſſes, the abbots of a number of towns, and all the princes, dukes, counts, and barons of this province, with the burgomaſter and penſioners of the towns of Louvain, Bruſſels, and Antwerp. This college uſually meets four times a year, when it chooſes four deputies; namely, two out of the clergy, and two out of the nobility, who have their meeting daily. There is alſo a council penſioner, who is perpetual ſecretary of the college.

The arms of this dutchy are a lion or, in a field ſable.

Both the above ſtates and the chancery of Brabant meet at Bruſſels, and at the ſame place are alſo the ſtate council, the privy council, the domain and finance council, the rent chamber, and the fief court of Brabant.

In the Auſtrian part of Brabant are reckoned nineteen walled cities, and a conſiderable number of immunities or boroughs, the inhabitants of which enjoy the rights of burghers. The principal places in this dutchy are Louvain, Bruſſels, Antwerp, and Mechlin. We ſhall begin with the firſt.

Louvain, called by the natives Loeven, and in Latin Lovanium, is ſeated on the river Dyle, and is of very conſiderable extent; but while ſome repreſent the circle within the walls as twelve Engliſh miles, others affirm that the walls are only ſix or ſeven miles round. It was formerly the capital of the country, and had a flouriſhing trade from the manufactures of linen and woollen eſtabliſhed there, which in the beginning of the fourteenth century, maintained upwards of one hundred and fifty thouſand manufacturers; but the cloth weavers making an inſurrection in 1382, and being puniſhed on that account, a great number of them withdrew to England, and together with its manufactures, the city alſo decayed; but its trade has been attempted to be revived by making the new canal.

Within the walls are large meadows, beautiful vineyards, with pleaſant gardens and orchards. It ſtands in the fifty-firſt degree twelve minutes north latitude, and in the fourth degree forty minutes eaſt longitude, in a very fruitful ſoil, and in ſo pleaſant and fine an air, that wine is made both within the walls and without.

The town-houſe is a fine building in the old taſte, adorned with ſtatues on the outſide, and much embelliſhed within. The magiſtrates meet here twice a week, and are more numerous than in moſt other towns in the Low Countries; for they have two burgomaſters, ſeven aldermen, two recorders, ſix ſecretaries, and four treaſurers, beſides a council of twenty-one, eleven of which are country gentlemen, and the other ten are deacons of the trades.

The city contains five pariſh churches, which are very noble ſtructures, and among them the collegiate church of St. Peter is one of the moſt magnificent in the whole country. Its ſteeple has been eſteemed a maſter-piece; it was five hundred and thirty feet high, and on each ſide of it was another four hundred and thirty feet in height; but the larger ſteeple was blown down in a ſtorm in the year 1606. The chapter of this church conſiſts of a provoſt, a dean, a chanter, eighteen honorary prebends, and ten canons, who muſt all be profeſſors of different ſciences in the univerſity. The chapels belonging

ing to this church are finely adorned with ſculpture and painting.

Without the town is a college of Jeſuits, fifteen monaſteries, and as many nunneries. The church belonging to the Jeſuits convent was built in 1666, and would paſs for a beauty even at Rome. Their pulpit of oak is the fineſt piece of that kind in the world: on the bottom is repreſented the fall of man, and above, the redemption of man by the virgin's treading on the ſerpent's head. Among the nunneries, the convent for the Engliſh is the fineſt in the Low Countries, and very richly endowed.

The univerſity was founded in 1425, by duke John IV. and contains forty-one colleges. It enjoys very great privileges, granted by the popes and the dukes of Brabant. The principal perſon in the univerſity is the rector magnificus, who enjoys his office for three months; but is generally continued for three more. He is choſen from among the profeſſors of the five faculties, divinity, the canon law, the civil law, phyſic, and the liberal arts. Here are two other honourable poſts, that of conſervator of the privileges of the univerſity, and the chancellor: the former is elective, and the latter annexed to the provoſtſhip of St. Peter's church. The hall where the public exerciſes are performed, is a large building of free-ſtone, and a great ornament to the city, and in it are three ſpacious rooms, where lectures are read in divinity, law, and phyſic, to which the ſcholars in every college may reſort.

In the year 1542, Martin Roſſem, the general of the Guelderlanders, attacked this city without ſucceſs. In 1572, William prince of Orange beſieged it; but the burghers, aſſiſted by the ſtudents, made ſo brave a reſiſtance, as to oblige him to raiſe the ſiege. In 1635 it was beſieged in vain by the French and Dutch, and on the fifth of Auguſt 1710, the French entered the city by ſurprize; but were bravely repulſed by the inhabitants, who obliged them to retire in confuſion; for this Charles V. king of Spain, and afterwards emperor, ſent them a golden key, which is ſtill kept as a curioſity in the town-houſe. However, in 1746, the French made themſelves maſters of this place, and kept it till the year 1749.

The territory belonging to the juriſdiction of Louvain is very large, and contains eighteen large manors, or diſtricts.

Bruſſels, called by the French Bruxelles, and in Latin Bruxellæ, is the capital of Brabant, and the uſual reſidence of the governor-general of the Netherlands; it is ſeated on the little river Senne, which runs through it, in the fiftieth degree fifty minutes north latitude, and in the fourth degree ſix minutes eaſt longitude. This city makes a noble appearance, it being on the brow of a hill, and from below, the whole of it is ſeen. Indeed, no city in Europe makes a more beautiful figure at a diſtance, except Naples and Genoa; and like them, when you are in the town, it is all up and down hill. It has ſeven gates, out of each of which are large ſuburbs, in which the citizens have their gardens. The city is ſurrounded with a double brick wall and a pretty large interval between, and ſmall ditches; but the place is too big to hold out a long ſiege, it being about ſeven miles in circuit.

The ſtreets are very ſpacious, though ſteep, and the houſes are generally pretty high. Here are ſeven fine ſquares, among which that of the great market-place is one of the moſt beautiful in Europe. The town-houſe where the magiſtrates meet, takes up one ſide, and is a noble pile, which has a tower about three hundred and ſixty-four feet high, with a ſtatue on the top, of St. Michael in copper gilt, the patron of this city, killing the dragon, and though ſeventeen feet high, it ſerves for a weather-cock. In this ſtructure is the apartment wherein the ſtates of Brabant meet, which is the beſt adorned of any in Europe. Here are particularly three large rooms, one of which contains the reſignation of Charles V. in tapeſtry, ſo finely executed, that it is ſaid to exceed every thing of the kind in Europe. It is ſet up in gilt frames; and the other rooms belonging to this aſſembly are finely adorned with original paintings.

Oppoſite to it is the imperial palace, the entrance into which is by a ſpacious court. The palace ſtands on an eminence, and on the left hand is a large hall that leads to the imperial chapel, which is adorned on the outſide like that of Henry VII. in Weſtminſter-abbey. Fronting the gate of the court is the entrance into the royal apartments, which are very noble, but irregular, having been built at different times, and under them is a terras fronting a beautiful parterre, on which are braſs ſtatues of the emperors and dukes of Brabant: indeed, the whole ſquare is ſurrounded with pillars of the ſame metal. Upon one of the towers is a bird pierced with an arrow, in memory of the Infanta Iſabella ſhooting a bird. Behind the palace you deſcend by a pair of hanging ſtairs into the above parterre, which is adorned with fountains and ever-greens; and behind it is the park, where every body has the liberty to walk, and is adorned with viſtas, grottos, fountains, and other water-works; it is alſo well ſtocked with deer. What is moſt ſurpriſing in this park is the eccho, which makes ten or twelve diſtinct reverberations. At the further end of the park is a fine pleaſure-houſe built by the emperor Charles V. after his abdication; whence it is called the emperor's houſe.

Round the other parts of the great market are the halls of the different trading companies, who have each a large room for themſelves, and the reſt of the building ſerves for a tavern. Theſe halls are all of an equal height, and the fronts are adorned with ſculpture, gilding, and Latin inſcriptions.

The armoury was formerly well furniſhed; but has now only ſome few remains, as the armour of Charles V. the duke of Alva, the cardinal Infante, and ſome others; as alſo the figures of ſeveral emperors and dukes in armour on horſeback, and on foot, with curious antique arms, according to the different manner of the ſeveral courts of Germany.

Near the arſenal are the palaces of the prince of Orange, the prince of Ligne, the duke of Aremberg and Arſcot, the princes of Epinoy, Rubenpre, and Egmont, and in the gardens of the latter is a fine labyrinth. But the moſt agreeable gardens on account of their ſituation, are thoſe belonging to the dukes of Bournonville, from which you not only ſee every houſe in Bruſſels, but have an extenſive view into the country. In all theſe palaces are collections of original paintings by the moſt celebrated maſters, both Italian and Flemiſh.

The opera-houſe in Bruſſels was built by the duke of Bavaria in the year 1700. This is one of the nobleſt and largeſt in the world, it being erected in the Italian taſte, with rows of lodges, or cloſets, which the nobility generally take for the winter ſeaſon to accommodate their families and friends, and of which they keep the keys. That of the prince de Ligne is lined with looking-glaſs; ſo that he can ſit in a corner of his lodge with half a dozen friends, drink a bottle, or eat a ſupper, which they often do, by a good fire, and at the ſame time ſee the repreſentation in the looking-glaſs, without being ſeen either by the actors or the company.

There are in this city twenty public fountains, adorned with ſtatues at the corners of the moſt public ſtreets. In that of the herb-market are repreſented four beautiful young women that ſqueeze the water out of their breaſts, which ſpout night and day to a great diſtance. The fountain in the middle of the town-houſe is much admired; it repreſents Neptune and his Tritons ſpouting out water, as a horſe alſo does from his mouth and noſtrils.

The churches of this city are very magnificent, ſeven of theſe are parochial, and among them the church of St. Gedula, which is alſo collegiate, is the largeſt and fineſt. It ſtands on the top of a hill near the Louvain-gate, and is ſurrounded with iron baluſtrades. It is an old Gothic building, with two large ſteeples at the eaſt end; but is finely embelliſhed within. On the pillars in the body of the church are, on one ſide, the ſtatues of our Saviour and ſix apoſtles, and on the other the Virgin Mary, with the ſix other apoſtles, all as big as the life. The little chapels on each ſide are finely adorned

with paintings and marble baluſtrades. In the choir are ſeveral fine monuments of illuſtrious princes, as the archduke Albert and his wife; Iſabella, Infanta of Spain; John duke of Brabant, with his wife; Mary daughter to Edward IV. king of England: but the fineſt is that of Erneſt archduke of Auſtria, and governor of the Netherlands. In one of the little chapels they worſhip three hoſts, which they pretend were ſtabbed by a Jew, about the year 1369, and bled. Theſe are expoſed every feſtival in a chalice richly ſet with diamonds. In order to perpetuate the memory of this event, there is a yearly proceſſion on the Saturday after the thirteenth of July, when theſe hoſts are carried round the city, and attended by all the regular and ſecular clergy, the magiſtrates, courts of juſtice, and even the governor of the province. The chapel where they are kept is built entirely of marble, and the altar is of ſolid ſilver.

Here is a college of Jeſuits, which has a very fine church, eleven monaſteries, and twenty-one nunneries; among which are two Engliſh, one of Dominican ladies, founded by cardinal Howard in the reign of Charles II. king of England, of which one of the houſe of Norfolk is always abbeſs, the other is of Benedictine nuns.

The Beguinage, or the foundation of pious maids, reſembles a little town, and is ſurrounded by a well and ditch, and divided into pretty little ſtreets, where every Beguine has her own apartment. Their number generally amounts to ſeven or eight hundred, and ſometimes more. They are governed by four elderly women, whom they chooſe out of their own body, and have a confeſſor, or chaplain, appointed by the biſhop of Antwerp. Their church is a fine piece of architecture lately built.

The Mount of Piety in this city is a public office for lending money upon pledges at a moderate intereſt, and was eſtabliſhed by the archduke Albert, and Iſabella his wife, in the year 1617. It is a vaſt building, like a monaſtery; and there are private paſſages for going in, without being ſeen from the public ſtreets. The archduke put it for ever under the protection of the archbiſhop of Mechlin and the chancellors of Brabant, as governors; and they put in a ſuperintendent and other proper officers, by which it is governed. This has ſucceeded ſo well, that the magiſtrates in all the great cities of the Netherlands have erected others in imitation of it.

The antient inhabitants of Bruſſels have ſhewn a ſingular fondneſs for the number ſeven; for here are ſeven principal ſtreets that enter into the great market-place, in which are ſeven ſtately houſes; ſeven pariſh-churches; ſeven noble families, eminent for their antiquity and great privileges; ſeven midwives, ſworn and licenced by the ſenate to viſit the poor as well as the rich, whenever called; ſeven public gates of the Doric order, remarkable for leading to ſo many places of pleaſure or different exerciſes, namely, one for hunting, a ſecond for fiſhing, a third for fowling, a fourth leads to pleaſant fields, a fifth to paſture grounds, a ſixth to ſprings and vineyards, and a ſeventh to pleaſant gardens.

This city is ſaid to have entertained at one time ſeven crowned heads, beſides the dukes of Savoy and Lorrain, with nine thouſand horſe belonging to their retinues. The inns, or eating-houſes, at Bruſſels, are equal to any in the world; and a ſtranger has the advantage of dining any time between twelve and three, on ſeven or eight diſhes of meat, for leſs than an Engliſh ſhilling. The wines here are alſo very good and cheap, and for an Engliſh ſix-pence every hour you may have a coach that will carry you wherever you pleaſe.

In the beginning of this ſection we have mentioned the canal which paſſes by this city. By the way of this canal treckſchuyts go twice a day from Bruſſels to Antwerp and back again. Theſe treckſchuyts, or draught-boats, are ſo called from their being drawn by a horſe, and are long covered boats, with windows on the ſides, and two benches within placed lengthways, on each of which fourteen or fifteen paſſengers may conveniently ſit. Each boat is drawn by a ſingle horſe, at the rate of about three miles an hour, and the fare of each paſſenger amounts to no more than about two-pence farthing for every hour. The canal is made like thoſe in Holland, with broad ſtraight quays planted with trees, where the ladies take the air in their coaches, going out at the gate of Villevort, or Vilvorden, where there is a fine road, with four rows of trees on each ſide along the canal for ſeveral miles, and from the canal is a ſtately flight of ſteps which leads to the walls, on which one may walk, under the ſhade of trees, quite round the city.

It muſt be confeſſed, ſays Mr. Miſſon, that few cities in Europe can compare with Bruſſels for good company; as abundance of people of quality either live in, or reſort to this city, who are eaſy of acceſs, eſpecially to ſtrangers. Every night, both in winter and ſummer, they take a tour in their coaches, where the men, as is practiſed at Rome, never go in the ſame coaches with the women, but for a very different reaſon; for as in Italy it is done to avoid the converſation of both ſexes, they ſeparate here out of a mere piece of gallantry; for the gentlemen always keeping one circle, and the ladies another, they meet continually, and thus have the opportunity of talking to, or ogling one another at pleaſure; but the worſt of it is, that their continual ſalutations as often as they meet is no ſmall interruption to this general ſociety.

There is another pleaſant cuſtom, ſays the ſame author, obſerved among the citizens of Bruſſels on the nineteenth of January, when the women undreſs their huſbands and carry them to bed, and the huſbands are obliged to treat their friends the next day. They give two reaſons for the original of this cuſtom. The firſt is, that the city being reduced to ſuch extremity, as to be obliged to ſurrender to the enemy, the women only were allowed to eſcape, and to carry with them what they eſteemed moſt valuable; when, inſtead of their ornaments, they all marched out with their huſbands on their backs. Others alledge, that a good number of the citizens of Bruſſels, following St. Lewis in his firſt cruſade, moſt of them had the good fortune to eſcape the general deſtruction; and afterwards coming home in a body, their wives rejoicing at their return, met and caught them in their arms, and carried them home.

Among the peculiarities of this country it is obſervable, that people, both at Bruſſels and other towns in the Netherlands, have dogs to draw the little carts in which they ſell fruit and other commodities about the ſtreets.

Bruſſels is particularly famous for its tapeſtry, camblets, and bone-lace, which are exported from thence.

With reſpect to its hiſtory, we ſhall only obſerve, that in 1695 it was furiouſly bombarded by the French during forty-ſix houts, by which means fourteen churches and above four thouſand houſes were reduced to aſhes; but within four years they were rebuilt with greater beauty than before. In the year 1708 it was beſieged by the elector of Bavaria; but the duke of Marlborough made him decamp with precipitation. In 1746 it was taken by the French; but was reſtored to the emperor by the treaty of Aix la Chapelle.

The territory and juriſdiction belonging to this city is of very large extent, and contains ſeveral manors and lordſhips, in which are many conſiderable villages.

The city of Antwerp, called by the natives Antwerpen, by the French Anvers, and in Latin Antverpia, or Andoverpum, is the capital of a marquiſate of the ſame name, and is ſeated in a low and ſenny ground on the eaſt ſide of the Scheld, in the fifty-firſt degree fifteen minutes north latitude, and in the fourth degree fifteen minutes eaſt longitude. It is built in the form of a creſcent, and is ſaid to be three thouſand ſix hundred and thirty-five geometrical paces in compaſs. The ſtreets are generally large, ſtraight, and well paved; but the houſes are built in a manner peculiar to itſelf, half of brick, and half of wood, with a kind of battlements on the top, and very high roofs, which give them an antique appearance. The fortifications are not ſo much celebrated for their ſtrength as their beauty; the ramparts being almoſt every where adorned with double rows of trees, which in ſummer afford delightful and ſhady walks. The citadel, however, is a ſtrong and regular fortreſs. The Scheld, both at Antwerp and two leagues above and below it, is deep and broad, which greatly contributed to the flouriſhing ſtate of this city in former times, when it had the reputation of being the richeſt and moſt frequented port in Europe. The records of this city mention

tion a merchant, named John Daens, who having lent a million of gold to Charles V. afterwards invited that emperor to dinner, where, after a noble entertainment, he threw the emperor's bond into the fire, which was of cinnamon, a ſpice which at that time bore a higher price than at preſent.

In the city are twenty-two public ſquares, and two hundred and twelve ſtreets. Moſt of the houſes have court-yards before, and gardens behind. The principal ſtreet is called Mere, which is ſo broad that ſix coaches may go a-breaſt, and the houſes here are generally of free-ſtone. At the upper end of this ſtreet is a fine braſs crucifix thirty-three feet high, placed on a marble pedeſtal. The city has ſeven gates, from each of which runs a long ſtreet terminating at the cathedral, which is placed about the middle of the city. On the top of the gate which leads to the quay ſtands the ſtatue of a giant. This gate, as well as ſeveral others in the city, was deſigned by the famous painter and architect Sir Peter Paul Rubens, who was a native of Antwerp.

The citadel, which is eſteemed one of the ſtrongeſt in Europe, is very regular. It is an exact pentagon, and ſtands on the ſouth ſide of Antwerp, on the banks of the Scheld, and commands the town, the river, and the neighbouring country. The erecting of this fortreſs, by order of Philip II. king of Spain, was the firſt check given to the trade of this city, which was before a free port. It has five baſtions, which, from the regularity of the figure of the citadel, defend one another: it has large and deep double ditches, with only one gate, and is ſaid to be about two thouſand five hundred paces in circuit.

The exchange of Antwerp has four ſpacious gates oppoſite to each other, and always open. The walks round it are ſupported by forty-three pillars of blue marble, all carved with different figures, not two of them being alike. This ſtructure is ſaid to be a hundred and eighty feet long, and a hundred and forty broad. Underneath are vaults, or magazines, well ſtored with merchants goods; and above is an academy for painting, ſculpture, architecture, and the mathematics. The building of this exchange coſt the city of Antwerp three hundred thouſand crowns. From this ſtructure, which was the firſt of the kind in Europe, Sir Thomas Greſham took the model of the Royal exchange he erected in London, as did alſo the burghers of Amſterdam that of theirs.

The town-houſe is a very grand piece of architecture built with free-ſtone, with a fine frontiſpiece adorned with a variety of ſtatues, a cupola, and an eagle at the top. It ſtands in the great market-place, which is a very ſpacious ſquare, in which are all the public executions. The houſe of the Hanſe-towns, for the convenience of the Eaſtern merchants from the Baltic, called Eaſterlings, was built in the year 1568, when the trade of Antwerp flouriſhed, and is a ſquare building of ſtone two hundred and thirty feet each way, with magazines in the upper parts for dry goods, and cellars below for wet. In the middle ſtory, which has a gallery quite round an inner ſquare, are three hundred lodging-rooms for merchants. But this ſtructure is now turned into horſe barracks, the cellars of which ſerve for ſtables, and the rooms above for hay-lofts.

The markets of Antwerp are at a proper diſtance from each other, each having a particular ſquare. The fiſh-market by the river is very ſpacious; but the moſt curious of them all is the Friday-market, as it is called, where, on every Friday, all ſorts of houſhold-goods, pictures, and jewels, are ſold by auction, and often at a very cheap rate; for when a perſon dies who leaves a family of children, his pictures are all ſent to the Friday-market, and the money ariſing from their ſale is equally divided among them.

No city in the Netherlands has ſo many churches and ſuch fine ſtructures as thoſe of Antwerp, which is the ſee of a biſhop ſuffragan to the archbiſhop of Mechlin. There are here four collegiate churches, three other pariſh churches, four abbeys, and about ſixty cloiſters of the firſt rank. The cathedral of Our Lady, which is alſo a parochial church, is a very grand pile, upwards of five hundred feet long, two hundred and thirty broad, and three hundred and ſixty high. Its ſpire is four hundred and ſixty-ſix feet in height, the croſs at the top one hundred and fifty-one, the diameter of the clock thirty feet, and its circumference ninety. In its belfry are thirty-three great bells, and two ſets of chimes. The three principal gates of this cathedral are adorned with marble and gilding, and the altars are embelliſhed with fine paintings, ſome of them by Rubens. The picture which repreſents the taking down of our Saviour from the croſs, in which the figures are as big as the life, is reckoned a maſter-piece. Here are alſo ſome curious pieces by Quintin Maſſeys, a blackſmith, who falling in love with a painter's daughter, aſked her in marriage; but her father anſwered, that he would never beſtow her on any except a painter. Upon this the blackſmith going to Italy, entered the Lombard ſchool, and in a few years returning a greater maſter than the father of her he admired, he married her. At the entrance into this cathedral he is interred, where his effigy is put up with this inſcription:

Connubialis amor de Mulcibre fecit Apellem.

That is,

"Connubial love transformed Vulcan into Apelles"

In this cathedral Philip II. king of Spain, after the voluntary reſignation of his father, the emperor Charles V. held on the twenty-firſt of January, 1555, a chapter of the order of the Golden Fleece, in which he created nineteen new knights, among whom were the ſeven following kings: Henry VIII. of England, Francis I. of France, his uncle Ferdinand king of the Romans, Chriſtian king of Denmark, John of Portugal, Sigiſmond of Poland, and Maximilian of Bohemia, whoſe banners are ſtill hanging in the choir.

The church belonging to the Jeſuits college is eſteemed one of the fineſt in Europe. The front is a noble piece of architecture, on the top of which is a ſtatue of Ignatius Loyola. All the inſide is paved with white marble, and the galleries were ſupported by fifty-ſix marble columns. The great altar is alſo of marble, intermixed with jaſper, porphyry, and gold; and on the ceiling are thirty-eight pictures from the hiſtory of the New Teſtament, done by Rubens and Vandyke. The carving is moſt excellent, and the flower-work by Segers, a Jeſuit. The chapel of the Virgin adjacent to it is ſtill more magnificent. The picture of the Aſſumption of the Virgin on the great altar was done by Rubens, and called by him his favourite piece; round it are ſix ſtatues of alabaſter repreſenting the founders of this chapel. The church was much damaged ſome years ago, and the marble galleries beaten down by thunder; but it has been pretty well repaired, though the galleries have not been rebuilt. In the Jeſuits college is alſo a library, which takes up four chambers.

The Carmelite church is famous for its having a large ſilver ſtatue of the virgin Mary.

On the banks of the river near the ramparts ſtands the noble and rich abbey of St. Michael, where all ſovereign princes lodge on their coming to this city. The apartments are truly grand, and the refectory or hall, where the monks dine, is ſaid to be as large and as well painted as that of St. George at Windſor. The monks are of the order of St. Norbertus, archbiſhop of Magdeburg, who came to Antwerp in 1124, and eſtabliſhed this order here; and his pretended miracles are painted round the church belonging to the abbey.

There are nineteen nunneries in this city, among which is an Engliſh one of the order of St. Thereſa; but the nuns wear no linen, eat no fleſh, and lie upon ſtraw: even the grates have ſuch a diſmal appearance, that they give the place the reſemblance of a priſon.

Among the many privileges granted this city by its princes, one is, that any perſon born in Antwerp is a citizen, though both the father and mother are foreigners.

Towards the middle of the ſixteenth century there were computed to be no leſs than two hundred thouſand inhabitants and ſtrangers who lived in the city; but during the civil wars it ſuffered much, particularly in 1576, when it was plundered for three whole days together by the Spaniards. But what has moſt contributed to reduce this city, was the peace concluded at Munſter in 1648,

1648, between Spain and the United Provinces, when it was agreed, that no large ſhip ſhould go directly to Antwerp, but unlade its wares in Holland. In 1659 many of the inhabitants, on account of an inſurrection, being obliged to quit the town, and an infectious diſeaſe ſome years after carrying off great numbers, the place fell of courſe into great decay. However, the tapeſtries and lace made here are very fine; and for the promotion of trade an important inſurance company has been erected.

With reſpect to the hiſtory of this city, it is proper farther to add, that Francis of Valois, duke of Alençon, and brother of king Henry III. of France, being inſtalled duke of Brabant at Antwerp in 1582, and appointed governor of the Netherlands by the ſtates-general, thought his authority circumſcribed within too narrow bounds; and to render himſelf more abſolute, reſolved to ſurpriſe the city. Accordingly on the 17th of June 1583, cauſing ſeventeen companies of infantry to enter the gates, he himſelf drew near the walls with his army, who were all Frenchmen, as if only to review them. But the citizens, diſcovering his deſign, made ſo brave a defence, that they drove the French out of Antwerp, killed about fifteen hundred of them, among whom were about three hundred noblemen, and took upwards of two thouſand priſoners. After which the duke retiring into France, died with grief.

In 1585 the duke of Parma, governor of the Netherlands for the king of Spain, took Antwerp, after a ſiege of twelve months, which was one of the moſt remarkable in hiſtory. He re-eſtabliſhed the Roman catholics, who had been but lately baniſhed the city, and reſtored it to the crown of Spain. It was ſeized by the French on the death of Charles II. in the year 1700; but tho' it was provided with a ſtrong garriſon, it ſurrendered to the duke of Marlborough in 1706, about a month after the memorable victory that great general obtained over the French at Ramillies. In ſhort, the barrier treaty between the emperor and the republic of the United Provinces was concluded here in 1715; and the French made themſelves maſters of this city in 1746, but reſtored it to the emperor, at the peace of Aix-la-Chapelle.

The territories belonging to this city are very extenſive.

The city of Mechlin is large, well built, and ſeated on the Dyle and Demer, ſixteen miles to the ſouth-eaſt of Antwerp, in the fifty-firſt degree twenty minutes north latitude, and in the fourth degree thirty-one minutes eaſt longitude. It has many artificial canals, and broad and clean ſtreets. It is a fortified place, but of no conſiderable ſtrength, and is the ſee of an archbiſhop, who bears the title of primate of all Belgium, as alſo the reſidence of a governor, who has a provincial court here. It is divided into ſix pariſhes, each of which has a fine church. The cathedral is a large and noble ſtructure, that is ſaid to have the higheſt ſteeple in the country. The pariſh church of Our Lady is collegiate, and the parochial church of Our Lady of Hanſwyck is a priory of regulars of the order of St. Auguſtine, and of the congregation of St. Genevieve. There are here nine monaſteries, a commandery of the Teutonic order, a college of Jeſuits, and an archiepiſcopal ſeminary; there is alſo ſaid to be a Beguinage, which generally contains about ſeven hundred young women, who maintain themſelves by working, and make no vows. St. Rombant, an Iriſhman, and biſhop of Dublin, is the patron of this city, and his remains are kept in a ſilver ſhrine.

In the arſenal are caſt great guns, mortars, &c. Here Philip II. king of Spain built an hoſpital for wounded and ſuperannuated ſoldiers.

The magiſtracy conſiſts of a high bailiff, two burgomaſters, and twelve echevins. The concurrence of this little lordſhip is neceſſary to the enacting of laws, and raiſing of money. The inhabitants carry on a conſiderable trade in corn, thread, and blankets; but the principal manufacture of this city is that of the fine laces ſo famous throughout Europe.

The moſt remarkable circumſtance relating to the hiſtory of this city is, that in the year 1547, a tower being ſet on fire by lightning, communicated to two hundred quintals of powder, which inſtantly blowing up, deſtroyed almoſt the whole city.

SECT. II.

Of the Auſtrian Part of the Dutchies of Limburg and Luxemburg, with a particular Deſcription of the Cities of Limburg and Luxemberg.

THE Auſtrian part of the dutchy of Limburg conſiſts of good arable land, and particularly abounds in a fine breed of cattle. In the neighbourhood of Limburg are found iron, lead, and calamy. Great part of this dutchy being at preſent ſubject to the ſtates-general, it will be deſcribed under the republic of the United Provinces: we have only to add here a very few particulars. The arms of the dutchy are a lion azure in a field or.

The ſtates of the country conſiſt of prelates, nobles, and high juriſdictions. The Auſtrian part of the dutchy is under a governor, and conſiſts of nine ſmall diſtricts, the principal place in which is,

Limburg, the capital of the province, ſeated on a fine and fruitful hill, at the foot of which runs the little river Weſe, in the fiftieth degree forty-ſix minutes north latitude, and in the ſixth degree fourteen minutes eaſt longitude. In its neighbourhood are ſeveral quarries of different ſorts of marble, and all around are ſurpriſing mountains, rocks, and precipices. It was regularly fortified and defended by a caſtle on a very ſteep rock, flanked with towers and baſtions of free-ſtone; but in 1675, the French under the prince of Condé laid ſiege to it, while the French king himſelf, with another army, hindered the prince of Orange from relieving it; ſo that after eleven days open trenches, the governor was obliged to ſurrender; and in 1677, the French, foreſeeing that they ſhould be obliged to reſtore the city at the peace, blew up the caſtle, deſtroyed the fortifications, and burnt the whole town, except the church and parſonage-houſe. The next year it was reſtored with the province, by the treaty of Nimeguen; but in 1703, the allied army under the duke of Marlborough made themſelves maſters of the city, which the French had ſeized in 1700, and took the whole French garriſon, with the governor, priſoners of war, and it was ſoon after reſtored to the emperor. The city is again pretty well fortified; but has only two gates. The pariſh church of St. George is a fine and large ſtructure, with a ſteeple of free-ſtone; but has ſuffered very much in the ſeveral ſieges it has undergone. Here is alſo a convent of Capuchins, and another of penitent nuns.

The dutchy of Luxemburg is bounded on the eaſt by the electorate of Treves, on the ſouth by the dutchy of Lorrain, on the weſt by Champagne, on the north by the biſhopric of Liege and the dutchies of Limburg and Juliers. In its utmoſt extent from north to ſouth it is about ninety-five miles, and about as many from eaſt to weſt.

It lies in the center of the foreſt of Ardennes, but its ſoil is not very fertile, though it produces ſome corn, and has a good breed of cattle, with wine and all ſorts of game; but its principal riches conſiſt in its many iron-works and founderies for cannon.

It is watered by many ſmall rivers, the principal of which are the Semois, the Ourt, the Laſſe, and the Chiers, which diſcharge themſelves into the Maeſe, together with the river Sure, which receives into it ſome ſmaller ſtreams, and alſo the Kyll, both which flow into the Moſelle. The Maeſe waſhes this dutchy on the weſt, and the Moſelle waters a part of the country to the ſouth-eaſt.

The inhabitants are of the Romiſh religion, and in the whole dutchy, beſides the principal city, are twenty ſmaller towns.

The arms of the dutchy are a lion gules, in a ſhield divided into ten parts, azure and argent.

The ſtates conſiſt of the clergy, the nobles, and the deputies of ſeveral towns. The abbot of St. Maximin, who poſſeſſes large revenues in this dutchy, is primate of the

A New and Accurate
MAP OF THE
NETHERLANDS
from the Sieur Roberts
with Improvements
ATLAS.

British Statute Miles.

the ſtates, though his abbey is ſeated near Treves. Over the dutchy is appointed an Auſtrian governor. At the city of Luxemburg is a judicatory of nobles filled up intirely by perſons of antient nobility, who have at their head a preſident, ſtiled a judge. The provincial-council was erected by the emperor Charles V. and conſiſts of a preſident, three noble and three learned counſel, a general procurator, and a ſecretary.

In the whole dutchy are twenty-three ſmall towns, beſides the capital, which we ſhall next deſcribe.

Luxemburg, the capital of the dutchy, is ſeated on the river Elz, at its confluence with the rivulet of Petreuſe, and is one of the ſtrongeſt fortifications in the Netherlands. It is divided into the Upper and Lower town: the former reſembles an heptagon, and lies partly in the plain and partly on a rock; the latter is ſeated amidſt deep valleys, and conſiſts of two ſuburbs. The principal church is that of St. Nicholas, which is parochial, but not very remarkable; and therefore when any public act of devotion is to be performed, it is done either in the church of the Jeſuits or Recollects, which are both large and beautiful. Here are three other pariſhes, one of which belongs to the Benedictine abbey of Munſter; there are alſo three convents of men, and the like number of women.

This city ſuffered greatly by the wars between France and the Netherlands. In 1542 it was ſacked by the French under Charles duke of Orleans; but retaken the following year by Gonzague, general of the emperor Charles V. In 1683 it was bombarded by the French, and afterwards taken: they kept it by virtue of the treaty of Ratiſbon, but were obliged to reſtore it to the Spaniards by that of Ryſwic. The French retook it in 1701, and by the treaty of Utrecht it was given to the United Provinces as a barrier; but was ſurrendered to the late emperor in 1715.

As the Auſtrian part of the dutchy of Gueldres is very ſmall, we ſhall defer an account of it till we come to the United Provinces, to whom the greateſt part of this country belongs.

SECT. III.

Of FLANDERS *in general.*

Its Situation, Extent, Fertility, Produce, and Rivers. The Religion and Manufactures of the Inhabitants, and the Diviſions of the Country.

FLANDERS terminates to the north-weſt on the Northern ſea; to the north on the Scheld, which parts it from Zealand; to the eaſt on Brabant and Hainault; and to the ſouth and ſouth-weſt on Hainault and Artois. Its extent, taken by a right line drawn from the borders of Artois along the ſea-coaſt to Antwerp, amounts to about ninety-five miles, and from the northernmoſt end of Cadſand to Marchiennes to above ſeventy-ſix; and if we draw it to the end of the narrow tract of the prefecturate of Douay, to ninety-five miles.

This country enjoys a temperate and wholeſome air, particularly to the ſouth, it being partly level and partly mountainous. Its ſoil is in general fertile, and fit for agriculture; and towards the ſea, and the borders of France, its degree of fertility is uncommonly great. The land bears almoſt all ſorts of corn and garden-ſtuff; and ſome tracts, particularly thoſe of Bruges and Ghent, may export corn, though that produced in other parts is ſometimes not ſufficient to ſupply the great number of its inhabitants. The riches of the country conſiſt in its flax. The paſture grounds here are in many parts extremely fine, on which account the breeding of cattle is an important article, and here is made a great deal of fine butter and cheeſe. The breed of horſes and ſheep is likewiſe very conſiderable. Flanders produces fruits of various ſorts; it has plenty of fowl, and, as it has foreſts and woods, it has a great number of deer, wild boars, and hares. It has likewiſe plenty of ſea and river-fiſh.

Its principal rivers are the Scheld, which receives the Scarpe, the Lys, the Lieve, and the Dender. Some uſeful canals have been dug here, among which that which extends between Ghent and Bruges is the principal.

The Flemings are of the Romiſh church, and king Philip II. erected three new biſhoprics here, thoſe of Ghent, Bruges, and Ypres. The inhabitants boaſt of their being the inventors of ſome important arts. They were the firſt in Europe who began to ſupport themſelves by weaving, and by dying of cloths and ſtuffs; and at Courtray was diſcovered the manner of weaving all ſorts of figures in linen. In the fourteenth century William von Beukelſzon, a native of Viervilet, taught the method of curing herrings; and in the fifteenth century John Van Eyck invented painting in oil. Indeed at preſent the manufactures of Flanders are far from being in their former flouriſhing ſtate. There are here, however, ſtill made ſilk and woollen ſtuffs, brocade, cotton, camblets, linen, lace, tapeſtries, wrought curtains, bed coverlets, and other worked ſtuffs.

This country became ſubject to the earls of Flanders in the ninth century; and in 959 Baldwin III. the fourth count, introduced weaving, and alſo appointed fairs and trade. In 1369 Philip the Bold, duke of Burgundy, marrying Margaret III. daughter and heireſs to count Lewis I. at length obtained the county or earldom of Flanders; and his daughter Mary marrying Maximilian, archduke of Auſtria, Flanders became poſſeſſed by the houſe of Auſtria. The northern part of this country was ceded to the States-general partly by the peace of Munſter, and partly by the barrier-treaty in 1715; and France in 1667 ſeized on the ſouthern part.

Flanders conſiſts of three parts: the largeſt of theſe, which is properly called the County of Flanders, and was formerly under the dominion of the French, has been divided, according to the languages ſpoken in it, into the German and Walloon. German Flanders terminates to the north on the North ſea, to the eaſt on Imperial Flanders, to the ſouth on the Lys, and to the weſt on Artois and the New Foſs; but Walloon Flanders borders to the north on German Flanders, to the eaſt on the Scheld, to the ſouth on the territory of Cambray, and to the weſt on the Lys and the county of Artois. All this part the emperor Charles V. by virtue of the ſtipulation made with Francis I. in 1526, ſet free from its dependency on France. The ſecond part, which was called the Signiory of Flanders, or Imperial Flanders, from its being under the ſupreme juriſdiction of the holy Roman empire, comprehends the county of Aloſt, the land of Waes, and the four prefecturates, as they are called, together with the land on the other ſide of the Scheld. The third part has obtained the name of Proper Flanders; this being neither dependent on France nor the Roman empire, but is under the juriſdiction of the counts of Flanders. To this part belong Dendermond, Bornheim, and Geerſberg, with their diſtricts.

The parts poſſeſſed by France and the United Provinces will be treated of in thoſe countries, and we ſhall here only conſider the territories in Flanders belonging to the houſe of Auſtria. In treating of this country we ſhall deſcribe what is called its four members, which are the diſtricts of Ghent, Bruges, Ypres, and the Frankenland; the principal places in which are Oſtend and Newport.

SECT. IV.

Of the Territories in Flanders belonging to the Houſe of Auſtria; with a particular Deſcription of Ghent, Bruges, Ypres, Oſtend, and Newport.

THE city of Ghent, the capital of Flanders, called by the natives Gent, or Ghendt, by the French Gand, and in Latin Gandavum, lies thirty-five miles to the north-weſt of Bruſſels, in the fifty-firſt degree twelve minutes north latitude, and in the third degree thirty-ſix minutes eaſt longitude. On account of its many running waters which unite near this city it has great advantages, both with reſpect to trade and ſtrength; for not only the Scheld receives the Lys in this town, but from hence to Damme runs the Lieve, which is properly a canal, the digging of which was begun in the

year 1228, and, beſides ſeveral rivulets, receives into it the Caele. The canal which extends from hence to Bruges, and from thence to Oſtend, was begun in 1613, and is very remarkable. From another canal, which runs to the north, a branch extends from Rodenhuyſen to Sas van Ghent. Beſides theſe, there are here ſeveral other canals and rivers. The city of Ghent is of conſiderable extent, its compaſs within the walls being computed at forty-five thouſand ſix hundred and forty Roman feet. The rivers and canals within the city divide it into twenty-ſix iſlands, which are joined by as many great bridges, and ſeventy-two ſmaller ones; and, by ſhutting up the ſluices, the country for a mile round may be laid under water. It is defended by a citadel built by the emperor Charles V. conſiſting of four regular baſtions; but is not ſo conveniently ſituated for the defence of the town, as to command it, and keep the inhabitants in awe.

This city, at the requeſt of king Philip II. was erected into an epiſcopal ſee, and made ſuffragan to Mechlin: the celebrated Cornelius Janſenius, from whom the Janſeniſts, that have raiſed ſuch diſputes in France, have their name, was the firſt biſhop. This dioceſe contains ſeven deaneries, and a hundred and eighty-three pariſhes, ſeven of which are within the city. The cathedral, dedicated to St. John the Baptiſt, is a fine, large, and antient ſtructure. There is alſo a collegiate and ſix pariſh churches. The abbot of the Benedictine abbey of St. Peter ſtiles himſelf primate of Flanders, and preſident of the aſſembly of the Netherland cloiſters. Here are alſo two abbies for monks, two colleges of Jeſuits, ſeven other monaſteries, and what is called the Templehof, which belongs to the order of St. John, with twenty-two nunneries, two Beguine-houſes, a ſeminary belonging to the biſhopric of Ghent, with ſeveral hoſpitals and chapels.

There are in this city thirteen market-places, ſeven of which are large, particularly that called the Friday's-market is the moſt extenſive, and remarkable for a noble ſtatue of the emperor Charles V. dreſſed in his imperial robes, and ſtanding on a pedeſtal in the middle of the ſquare.

Upon a bridge built over the Lys ſtand two braſs ſtatues, repreſenting a man ready to cut off the head of another. The ſame figures are alſo painted in the town-houſe; the ſtory of which is thus related: A father and ſon being both condemned to death, a pardon was afterwards offered to either of them that would be the other's executioner. After a long conteſt, the father prevailed upon the ſon to ſave his own life, by taking away his: but juſt as the ſon was ready to give the fatal blow, the blade either broke in the air, or flew out of the handle, which being conſidered as a moſt ſingular inſtance of the interpoſition of Providence, they were both pardoned.

The town-houſe is a double building, with two fronts, one of antient architecture, and the other in the modern taſte, and very beautiful. It was begun in the year 1600, and was twenty years in finiſhing. Near this building ſtands a high tower called the Belfrey, to which is an aſcent of above three hundred ſteps. Here is a fine clock, with a chime of bells, the largeſt of which, called Rowland, weighs eleven thouſand pounds. On the top of this tower is a dragon of gilt copper, ſaid to have been ſent from Conſtantinople by Baldwin IX. earl of Flanders.

The trade of Ghent principally conſiſts in cloths, ſtuffs, and ſilks, of which ſuch quantities are made here, that among the fifty companies of tradeſmen, thoſe concerned in theſe commodities are ſaid to form a third part.

The magiſtracy conſiſts of burgomaſters, echevins, or aldermen, and counſellors, annually choſen from among the principal inhabitants; and theſe have at their head an high-bailiff. This city is the ſeat of the council of Flanders, from which lies an appeal to the grand council of Mechlin.

In the year 1539 the inhabitants, being over-loaded with taxes, revolted againſt the emperor Charles V. and implored the aſſiſtance of Francis I. king of France; but he refuſed to comply with their requeſt. Charles, who was then in Spain, ſet out immediately, paſſed thro' France, and having arrived at Ghent, puniſhed the inhabitants with ſingular ſeverity: he cauſed twenty-ſix of the principal citizens to be executed, baniſhed a ſtill greater number, confiſcating all their effects; took from the city its artillery, arms, and privileges; condemned the inhabitants to pay a fine of above twelve hundred thouſand crowns; ſentenced the magiſtrates to walk in public proceſſion with a rope about their necks; and that the citizens might never be able to recover their former privileges, he built the above-mentioned citadel. By theſe means he made almoſt a deſart of one of the largeſt and moſt populous cities in Europe. But it has ſince in a great meaſure recovered its antient ſplendor, though it is ſaid that not half of its extent within the walls is built upon.

In 1576 the States-general of the Netherlands, except thoſe of Luxemburg and Limburg, concluded the famous treaty called the Pacification of Ghent, the principal articles of which were, that the Spaniſh, and all other foreign troops, ſhould evacuate the Netherlands; that Holland and Zealand ſhould continue united with the other provinces; and that the Roman catholic religion, and the antient privileges of the country, ſhould be maintained. This treaty was approved and ratified by king Philip II. but with no deſign to keep it; for the duke of Arſchot being appointed governor of the province of Flanders, made a magnificent entry into the city of Ghent, and three days after the citizens aſſembled, and demanded the reſtoration of all the privileges they had been deprived of by Charles V. which being refuſed them, they ſeized the duke, the biſhops of Bruges and Ypres, with ſome other lords, whom they kept priſoners; after which they took an oath to the prince of Orange, ſubſcribed to the Union of Utrecht, and d'Imbiſe, who had aſſiſted in this great event, was made firſt echevin of the city; but in 1584 they again ſubmitted to the king of Spain; upon which d'Imbiſe was depoſed, and ſoon after publickly beheaded. In 1678 the city was beſieged by the French, and the king himſelf came before it, when, though the citizens cut their dykes, and laid part of the country under water, both the town and citadel were ſoon taken; but, about four months after, the French reſtored it to the Spaniards by the treaty of Nimeguen. On the death of Charles II. king of Spain, in the year 1700, the French again ſeized this city; but in 1706 it ſurrendered to the allies, after the battle of Ramillies. In 1708 the French ſurpriſed it, together with Bruges, and threw an army into it for its defence; but the city of Liſle having been taken by the allies at the cloſe of the ſame year, the French were obliged to ſurrender Ghent, after a few days ſiege. It continued in the poſſeſſion of the houſe of Auſtria till the year 1745, when the French again made themſelves maſters of it, but reſtored it to the emperor at the peace of Aix la Chapelle.

The diſtrict of Ghent is very conſiderable, and contains the county of Aloſt, with its capital; Oudenard, celebrated for the glorious victory obtained near it in 1708, by the duke of Marlborough; the town and caſtellany of Courtray; the county of Waes; the town and lordſhip of Dendermonde, and other places.

The city of Bruges, in Latin Bruga, by the Flemings called Brugge, or Bruggen, from a bridge named Brugſtock, near which ſtood a chapel that gave occaſion to the building of the city, is ſeated in the thirty-firſt degree ſixteen minutes north latitude, and in the third degree fifteen minutes eaſt longitude. Here are ſeveral canals, one of which leads to Oſtend, Newport, Furnes, and Dunkirk; and can carry veſſels of four hundred tons, which come up to the baſon of Bruges. The ſalt-water is kept from mixing with the canal by means of ſluices and other machines. Beſides this a canal leads to Ghent, another to Damme, and a third to Sluys. Theſe contain ſtagnant water, though the ground is eighteen feet lower towards the ſea than in the town at the Ghent gate: but the water in the city may be ſoon renewed by letting it run gently into the ſea, by means of three ſluices. As Bruges has neither rivers nor ſprings, freſh water is conveyed thither from the rivers Lys and the Scheld, by means of pipes.

The ſtreets of Bruges are large and ſtraight; it has alſo ſeveral fine ſquares, particularly the Friday's market-place, from whence ſix great ſtreets lead to the ſix principal gates. At one end of this ſquare ſtands a fine ſteeple five hundred and thirty-three ſteps high, with a curious chime of bells. This ſquare is planted with ſeveral rows of trees.

The ſquare called the Burg, from the caſtle of that name, is ſurrounded with many fine buildings, as the town-houſe, which is a handſome Gothic ſtructure, adorned with the pictures of many earls and counteſſes of Flanders, the cathedral, the biſhop's palace, and the chapel of the Holy blood of our Saviour.

The cathedral is a very antient building, and has thirty-two canons. Here are alſo two other collegiate churches, one of which is dedicated to Our Lady, and has a chapter compoſed of a provoſt and twelve canons; the other is the church of St. Saviour, and has a chapter, conſiſting of a dean and ſixteen canons; the former of theſe two laſt ſtructures is very beautiful, and has a fine ſteeple, ſo high that it may be ſeen at ſea in ſailing to Oſtend.

There are here five other parochial churches, fourteen chapels, a college of Jeſuits, twelve monaſteries, and nineteen nunneries. The pulpit in the Dominican church is eſteemed an admirable piece of workmanſhip; the wood which ſupports the top is cut out like ropes, and ſeems to bend like them. Among the pictures there is here ſhewn a remarkable one of the marriage of our Saviour with St. Catharine of Sienna; the Virgin Mary joins their hands, St. Dominic performs the office of prieſt, and old king David plays upon the harp at the wedding.

The Carthuſians have a large monaſtery, and the circuit of their kitchen-garden, cells, and little gardens, is about an Engliſh mile. All the fathers divert themſelves in taking to one trade or other, and convert their cells into workſhops.

The Carmelite church is one of the fineſt in the city, and has a beautiful monument of Henry Jermyn, lord Dover, a peer of England; but the moſt noble monument in the city is that of the Bernardines. The abbot's apartment is very magnificent, and thoſe of the monks very neat. They keep a ſumptuous table, on which is placed every thing in ſeaſon, and have country-ſeats depending on the abbey, to which they go a hunting, and even keep their own churches.

Among the many nunneries in this city are two Engliſh, one of Auguſtine nuns, who are all ladies of high rank: theſe nuns generally entertain ſtrangers at the grate with wine and ſweet-meats. The other Engliſh nunnery, called the Pelicans, is a ſtricter order, and the nuns wear a coarſer dreſs.

There are few cities where the poor and orphans are ſo well taken care of as at Bruges; for here are ſeveral alms-houſes and hoſpitals for their maintenance, among which is one called the School of the Orphans, founded in 1411, where a hundred and thirty orphan boys are educated and brought up to learning, or ſome trade, according to their genius or inclination. They are dreſſed in cloth coats, half of which is brown and the other half red, and wear flat caps. This ſchool has produced ſeveral biſhops and abbots, who, to ſhew their gratitude, have ſent their pictures to adorn the ſchool.

Bruges carries on a conſiderable trade in worked cottons, fine woollen ſtuffs, linen and lace made here; and here are many perſons employed in manufacturing fuſtians and tapeſtries. The tradeſmen are divided into ſixty-eight companies.

About two hundred years ago this city was very flouriſhing, as merchants from all parts of Europe reſorted hither, where the ſeveral nations had their diſtinct houſes magnificently built, with ware-houſes for the merchandize they either imported or exported. Each nation had alſo its reſpective conſul, and here are ſtill ſhewn ſeventeen antient palaces in which thoſe conſuls reſided; alſo the cloth-hall, ſayes-hall, and baize-hall, which are ſpacious rooms that belonged to the Engliſh; under the firſt of theſe runs a canal of ſuch depth, that it is ſaid bilanders of burthen can enter the very hall.

But the trade of this city at firſt ſuffered greatly by the revolt of the inhabitants againſt the archduke Maximilian, who had married Mary the heireſs of the houſe of Burgundy. The citizens had even the preſumption to keep that prince in cuſtody, to affront his ſervants, and uſe his officers ill; but when their rebellion had continued about twelve months, dreading the conſequences, they implored their ſovereign's mercy. This happened in 1490. Fifty or ſixty of the inhabitants were, however, ſentenced to ſuffer death, a ſtill greater number was baniſhed, and the city was obliged to pay a large fine.

Ever ſince the cities of Antwerp and Amſterdam have enlarged their commerce, that of Bruges has been declining; ſo that it is far from being ſo populous as formerly. There are ſtill, however, in Bruges ſeveral very rich merchants, who meet daily in the great market-place, which has been their exchange ever ſince the year 1715.

Here are ſeveral courts for the adminiſtration of juſtice, both in civil and criminal affairs; the principal is that of the magiſtrates of Bruges, compoſed of two burgomaſters, twelve echevins, or aldermen, twelve counſellors, ſix penſioners, and two treaſurers. Theſe have the government of the city, and adminiſter juſtice among the inhabitants.

There is another court for the government of the liberty, which has a magiſtracy of its own, conſiſting of four burgomaſters, twenty-ſeven echevins, ſix penſionaries, and two treaſurers. The two laſt hold their employments for life. This court is held at Bruges in an old caſtle called the Burg, or Fortreſs. In the hall where they meet are ſeveral good pictures, particularly the laſt judgment, by Backer, a diſciple of Rubens.

We are now come to Ypres, or Ipres, in Latin Ipra, which is ſeated on the little river Ipre, or Iperlee, in the fiftieth degree fifty-ſeven minutes north latitude, and in the ſecond degree fifty-one minutes eaſt longitude.

The buildings make a pretty handſome appearance, though the fronts are of timber. Its public ſtructures are the cathedral of St. Martin, five pariſh-churches, one college of Jeſuits, ſix monaſteries, one epiſcopal ſeminary, eight nunneries, and ſome hoſpitals and alms-houſes. Here is alſo a ſchool for poor boys, and another for poor girls, where they are taught what trade they like beſt; and, when able to get their living, are ſent out with a certain ſum of money to ſet them up. One-third part of this town conſiſts of churches, convents, and other religious houſes. It is the ſee of a biſhop under the archbiſhop of Mechlin, and one of the barrier places which was ceded to the States-general in 1715. It has undergone ſeveral calamities by fire, and has been frequently taken by the French, particularly in the year 1744, when it was given up by the Dutch garriſon almoſt as ſoon as the French came before it, together with the territory belonging to the town, which conſiſts of a very fruitful country, containing two or three ſmall towns, and as many villeges.

Oſtend, in Latin Oſtenda, is called by the Flemings Ooſtende, and is ſeated in the fifty-firſt degree fourteen minutes north latitude, and in the ſecond degree fifty-nine minutes eaſt longitude, in a marſhy ſoil, among a variety of canals; it being almoſt ſurrounded by two of the largeſt of them, into which ſhips of great burthen may enter with the tide. It is well fortified, and has a ſtrong rampart, a deep ditch, and eight regular baſtions; and the ſea may be let in round the town for a conſiderable extent of ground, by which means it is rendered almoſt impregnable. The city is alſo defended by ſeveral forts which encompaſs it.

The buildings in Oſtend are but low, yet are pretty uniform, and the ſtreets are ſtraight and regular. Its principal church is that of St. Peter, which was burnt down in 1712, and handſomely rebuilt. Here are ſeveral convents of friars and nuns, and an hoſpital founded by the citizens in 1403. The inhabitants labour under want of freſh water, which they are obliged to get from Bruges, whence the brewers fetch it in boats, and lodge it in a large reſervoir, near the harbour.

The

The body of the magiſtracy is compoſed of a bailiff, a burgomaſter, ſeven echevins, and a treaſurer. They are all changed every year, except the bailiff, whoſe place is for life.

This city is particularly famous for the long ſiege it ſuſtained againſt the Spaniards, from the fifth of July, 1601, to the twenty-ſecond of September, 1604, when it ſurrendered upon good terms. Its brave defence againſt the archduke Albert of Auſtria, and the marquis Ambroſe Spinola, may be juſtly aſcribed to the ſupplies ſent from England, and the good conduct of Sir Francis Vere, a native of that country. The Spaniards are ſaid to have loſt near eighty thouſand men before the place; though, when they firſt inveſted it, they did not expect it to hold out a fortnight, which induced the archdutcheſs to make a vow, that ſhe would never ſhift herſelf till it was taken. The number who were killed or died during the ſiege is reckoned at about fifty thouſand, not that ſo many men were in the place at once, but ſupplies were continually ſending from England and Holland. Hiſtory informs us, that during the firſt ſix months the beſiegers fired a hundred and ſixty-five thouſand five hundred cannon-balls of about thirty pounds weight; and that in the whole courſe of the ſiege the city had received above three hundred thouſand cannon-ſhot frequently under covert of the dead bodies, with which the beſieged filled the breaches. When at laſt they ſurrendered, it was neither for want of men nor proviſions, the harbour having been open all the time, and ſupplies conſtantly coming in, but merely for want of ground, which the enemy had gained foot by foot, till the beſieged had not ſo much left as would contain men enough to defend it. Prince Maurice had ſeveral times attempted to relieve it, but to no purpoſe, the Spaniards being too ſtrongly intrenched, and his army too ſmall to force them. Hiſtory alſo mentions this remarkable circumſtance, that the Spaniards ſhot ſuch a number of bullets againſt the ſandhill bulwark, where they ſtuck, that it became a wall of iron, and daſhed the freſh bullets that hit it to pieces. In ſhort, when the garriſon, by virtue of the capitulation, retired to Sluys, prince Maurice received them with as much honour for their brave defence, as if they had come from a conqueſt. In 1658 cardinal Mazarine attempted to take this city by ſtratagem, and ſent marſhal d'Aumont with ſome men of war to ſurpriſe it; but the marſhal himſelf, with the ſhips, was taken. Upon the death of Charles II. king of Spain, the French ſeized Oſtend; but in 1706, after the battle of Ramillies, the allies beſieged and took it from them. During this laſt ſiege the town-houſe, which was a pretty building, was entirely beaten down, with its chime of bells, reckoned the fineſt in Flanders; but this ſtructure has been rebuilt in a more ſtately manner.

The late emperor Charles VI. formed a ſcheme for drawing to this city the trade of the Eaſt Indies; for which purpoſe he eſtabliſhed here the famous Oſtend company. This ſcheme was privately encouraged by ſome Engliſh and Dutch merchants; but it made a great noiſe, and met with a ſtrenuous oppoſition from the maritime powers, who took ſome of the ſhips of that company, while on their return from the Indies; and, after many negotiations, at laſt, in 1731, cauſed that company to be aboliſhed. Oſtend was alſo taken by the French in 1745, but reſtored to the houſe of Auſtria by the treaty of Aix la Chapelle in 1748.

We ſhall conclude this ſection with a conciſe deſcription of Nieuport, or Newport, which ſtands about nine miles from Oſtend, and is a ſtrong ſea-port town on the little river Iperlee. Its harbour is ſecure; but only ſhips of middling burthen can enter it even at high-tide, when it has about thirteen feet water. Though this city be pretty well fortified, yet its principal ſtrength conſiſts in its ſluices, by means of which all the adjacent country may in a minute be laid under water. The ſtreets are wide and ſtraight, but the houſes are low and built with timber. It has but one pariſh-church, which is reckoned the fineſt in all Flanders, beſides ſeveral convents, a noble hoſpital for the ſupport of forty orphans, and a convent of Engliſh Carthuſian friars. The inhabitants chiefly ſupport themſelves by fiſhing and making nets and cordage for ſhips.

In the year 1600 a battle was fought near this town between the forces of the United Provinces, commanded by prince Maurice of Naſſau, and the Spaniards, to the diſadvantage of the latter; and in 1745 it was taken by the French.

SECT. V.

Of the Auſtrian Part of the County of HAINAULT.

Its Situation, Extent, Produce, Rivers, and Diviſions of the Country; with a Deſcription of the City of Mons.

THE Auſtrian part of the county of Hainault, called by the Germans Hennegau, is bounded on the north by Flanders; on the eaſt by the dutchy of Brabant, the county of Namur, and the biſhopric of Liege; on the ſouth by Champagne and Picardy; and on the weſt by Artois and Flanders; extending fifty-ſeven miles from north to ſouth, and about ſixty-four from eaſt to weſt.

The air is good and moderate, and the ſoil produces a great deal of corn and rich paſtures, on which are bred a great number of cattle. Its woods and foreſts afford timber for building and fuel: it has alſo pit-coal, iron, beautiful marble, and ſlates.

Its principal rivers are the Scheld, which iſſues out of Picardy; the Selle, which receives into it the Hayne and the Hauniau; the Sambre, which iſſues out of Picardy; and the Dender, which riſes here, and runs into Flanders.

In the whole country are reckoned twenty-four towns; the number of villages is by ſome computed at nine hundred and fifty, but by others only at ſix hundred and fourteen. The clergy are uncommonly rich, and in this county are ſixteen abbies for monks, and ten for nuns, together with twelve chapters, and many monaſteries and convents.

The ſtates of this country conſiſt of three chambers: to the firſt belong the clergy, to the ſecond the antient genuine nobility, and to the third the deputies of the towns: each chamber has only one voice; and the plenipotentiaries of each have their ſeat at Mons. Both the clergy and the nobility have two plenipotentiaries, whoſe office laſts three years; but the towns have ſix. The ſovereign alſo ſends two deputies. All theſe meet weekly; but the ſtates only at the command of the ſovereign.

By the peace of the Pyrenees France obtained the towns of Landrecy, Queſnoy, Aveſnes, Marienburg, and Philipeville; as alſo by the peace of Nimeguen, Valenciennes, Bouchain, Condé, Cambray, Bavay, and Maubeuge, with their reſpective diſtricts; and by the peace of Ryſwick, ſeveral villages. The houſe of Auſtria ſtill enjoys in this county thirteen ſmall towns, with ſeveral principalities and ſome villages. The principal place in this county is,

Mons, a very large, fine, ſtrong, and rich city, the capital of Hainault, is called by the Flemings Bergen, and in Latin Montes; it is ſeated on a hill near the junction of the rivers Haine and Trouille, and is alſo partly built in the plain, in the fiftieth degree thirty minutes north latitude, and in the third degree thirty-ſix minutes eaſt longitude. The little river Trouille divides it into two parts, and fills its three ditches; after which it runs into the Haine. Here are ſluices by which the neighbouring country may be overflowed, except the ſouth-eaſt ſide, where the ground being ſomewhat higher, they have raiſed good baſtions, which render the approaches of an enemy very difficult. The city contains above four thouſand ſix hundred houſes. The buildings are beautiful, the ſtreets large, the market-place ſpacious, and the public edifices are very magnificent. Among the laſt is the governor's palace, in which the provincial council meets, and the town-houſe, which has a lofty tower.

This city contains ſix pariſh-churches, two of which are collegiate, one college of Jeſuits, and ſeveral cloiſters. Here is a famous abbey, or chapter, of canoneſſes, founded by St. Waltrude. The chapter conſiſts of thirteen canoneſſes, who it is ſaid muſt prove their nobility by ſixteen deſcents. They are obliged to aſſiſt at morning-ſervice in their canonical habits; but the reſt of the day may

may wear ſumptuous apparel, and even ſpend their time in dancing, ſinging, and free converſation; they are even permitted to leave the abbey and marry. This chapter is governed by four of the oldeſt canoneſſes. Their church is a very fine ſtructure, moſt of its chapels and altars being built with marble and jaſper, and adorned with beautiful ſtatues. This is alſo a pariſh-church, to which the nobility, magiſtracy, counſellors, and officers of ſtate belong.

Here is alſo a college where polite literature is taught under the direction of ſecular prieſts, and likewiſe a Jeſuits college.

The body of the magiſtracy conſiſts of a mayor and ten echevins, &c. and as this is a place of ſtrength, it has a particular governor, with other proper officers both civil and military. It has a good trade for various commodities, eſpecially woollen ſtuffs, great quantities of which are made here.

This city has frequently ſuffered the dreadful calamities of war. In May 1572 count Lewis of Naſſau, brother to the prince of Orange, took it by ſtratagem without oppoſition; but Frederic of Toledo, the duke of Alva's ſon, beſieged it in June following, and took it in September, notwithſtanding all the endeavours of the prince of Orange to relieve the place. In 1677 marſhal d'Humieres, who commanded the French, inveſted Mons, and had greatly diſtreſſed that city; when the next year the prince of Orange, afterwards king William III. advanced to its relief with thirty thouſand men, and attacked by ſurprize the French army under the duke of Luxemburg, who was encamped at Caſtiaux and St. Denys, in order to cover the blockade; the battle became exceeding bloody, and the prince obtained the advantage. The next day the blockade was raiſed, and hoſtilities ceaſed, upon the prince's acquainting the duke, that the peace had been ſigned at Nimeguen.

The French again inveſted this place in 1691, when Lewis XIV. was there in perſon, with all the princes of the blood, and marſhal Luxemburg commanded the army of obſervation. The trenches were opened on the twenty-fourth of March, and the city obliged to ſurrender on the ninth of April following, moſt of the houſes having been beaten down by the beſiegers bombs: but the city was reſtored to the Spaniards by the treaty of Ryſwick in 1697.

Upon the death of Charles II. king of Spain, the French again ſeized this city, and kept poſſeſſion of it till the year 1709, when it was inveſted by the duke of Marlborough. The grand army under the marſhals Villars and Boufflers, threatening to relieve the place, the duke advanced to give them battle, and came up with them in the woods near the village of Malplaquet, about ſeven or eight miles to the ſouth of Mons: though the French lay under triple intrenchments, he boldly attacked them, and gave them an entire defeat; but with conſiderable loſs on the ſide of the allies: after which immediately followed the reduction of this city and the province of Hainault, which was confirmed to the houſe of Auſtria by the treaty of Utrecht in 1713, and made a part of the barrier. The French under marſhal count Saxe again took this city in 1746, but reſtored it by the peace of Aix la Chapelle in 1748, after firſt demoliſhing its fortifications.

In the county of Hainault are alſo thirteen ſmall towns, and ſeveral villages; and among the latter is Malplaquet, rendered famous by the above victory obtained by the duke of Marlborough over the French, and alſo Steenkirk, near which the allies, commanded by king William III. attacked the fortified camp of the French in 1692: the French loſt more men than the confederates; and were it not for the conduct and bravery of the prince of Conti, would have been entirely defeated.

SECT. VI.

Of the County of NAMUR.

Its Situation, Extent, and Produce: the Arms and States of the Country; with a particular Deſcription of Namur, its Capital, and alſo an Account of the Barrier Towns.

THE county of Namur is almoſt ſurrounded by the biſhopric of Liege and the dutchy of Brabant; but terminates alſo to the weſt on the county of Hainault. Its greateſt extent from eaſt to weſt amounts to about thirty-one miles, and from north to ſouth to about twenty-eight. This county is very woody and mountainous; but the level parts bear all ſorts of corn. Its principal riches, however, conſiſt in its iron, great quantities of which are worked here, and converted into ſteel. It has alſo lead and pit-coal, with a great deal of marble and other ſtone. The Maeſe traverſes a great part of the county, and at Namur receives into it the Sambre.

The arms of the county are, a lion ſable in a field or, with a dexter feſſe drawn over the whole ſhield.

The ſtates of Namur conſiſt of the clergy, the nobility, and the principal town of Namur, with its territory. The ſovereign appoints the governor of that city and county.

Namur, or Namen, in Latin Namurum, the capital of the county, is ſeated between two hills at the confluence of the Sambre, the rivulet of Vederin, and the river Maeſe; and is defended by a very ſtrong caſtle, ſituated on a rock between the Maeſe and the Sambre, near their junction. This caſtle is likewiſe defended by Fort William, built by order of king William III. by the famous Coehorn. This fort is equivalent to another citadel; and beſides theſe there are ſaid to be above twelve other forts round the city, the moſt conſiderable of which is that of the Maeſe, oppoſite to the caſtle, and the fort of Cocquelet, which is ſo large that it includes two villages within its fortifications. Namur, from the above works, is eſteemed the ſtrongeſt fortreſs in Europe. It has two ſtone bridges, one over the rivulet of Vederin, and the other over the Sambre.

This city is the ſee of a biſhop, who is ſuffragan to Cambray; and, beſides the cathedral church of St. Albin, the chapter of which is compoſed of twenty canons, here are two collegiate churches, four under pariſh-churches, a ſeminary, thirteen convents of both ſexes, and a college of Jeſuits, who teach philoſophy, and whoſe church is a noble building, all of red and black marble, ſupported by ten large columns of black marble, and adorned with a beautiful frontiſpiece. The prince's palace is a fine ſquare building, in which the governor uſually reſides. Here are likewiſe ſeveral hoſpitals.

The magiſtracy conſiſts of a grand mayor, who enjoys his place for life, of a burgomaſter, and ſix echevins, who are all changed every year by the governor-general. Here is another tribunal called the ſovereign bailliage, compoſed of ſix advocates, with the governor at their head. Theſe judge in all feudal caſes; but an appeal lies to the grand council at Mechlin.

In the year 1692 Lewis XIV. beſieged this city in perſon, when, after opening the trenches, it held out only ſix days; but in 1695 was retaken by king William III. after a moſt bloody ſiege: marſhal Boufflers commanded in the town with a garriſon of no leſs than ſixteen thouſand men, and Villeroy without at the head of a hundred thouſand; but did not dare to attempt its relief. Beſides the marſhal, there were ſeveral general officers, and twenty engineers in the city; and the garriſon fought ſo deſperately, that when the city was taken no more than four thouſand men were left. Upon the death of Charles II. king of Spain, the French ſeized this city, and held it during queen Anne's wars; but at the peace of Utrecht it was reſtored to the houſe of Auſtria. In 1712 it was ceded by king Philip to the elector of Bavaria, and in 1715 was given to the States-general as a barrier town to be garriſoned by them; but in 1746 the French again made themſelves maſters of it, and kept it till the peace of Aix la Chapelle.

Within the county of Namur are Charleroi, Walcort, and Bouvigne, with a great number of abbies and priories of both ſexes, and a number of little diſtricts under the name of ſigniories.

Before we conclude this account of the Auſtrian Netherlands, it will be proper to take ſome notice of the barrier towns ſo often mentioned. It muſt be obſerved, that by the barrier treaty concluded in 1715, between the emperor and the States General, the former conſented that the latter ſhould alone garriſon Namur, Tournay, Ypres, and ſeveral other places, either with their own troops, or with ſuch as the emperor had no reaſon to

ſuſpect. The emperor was to nominate the governors, but both they and the garriſon alſo take an oath of fidelity to the States. The emperor and States General are at their own expence to keep on foot between thirty and thirty-five thouſand men for the ſecurity of the Auſtrian Netherlands; the former paying three-fifths, and the latter two-fifths. In caſe the former diminiſhed his quota, the latter might do ſo in the like proportion; but on the appearance of a war, this body is to be augmented to forty thouſand men; and in caſe of an actual war, the augmentation to be increaſed at pleaſure. The States have the diſtribution of the troops in the ſeveral places committed to them; but in the others ſuch diſtribution is to be made according to the joint conſent of both parties. In thoſe places garriſoned only by Dutch troops the States General appoint the governors, commandants, and ſtaff-officers, on condition that their lodgings, and the advantages ariſing from the works, ſhall not be productive of any charge either to the emperor, or to the provinces, nor unacceptable to the emperor from particular cauſes. Theſe officers are to defend the places entruſted to them, and in their military capacity are only ſubject to the States, though they take an oath to the emperor to hold and maintain them for the houſe of Auſtria. The troops of the States-general, when in garriſon, are permitted the free exerciſe of their religion. The States General may change the garriſons at pleaſure, and in time of war ſtrengthen the fortifications, but not raiſe any additional works, without the approbation of the Auſtrian governor-general of the Netherlands. For the ſupport of theſe garriſons, and defraying the expences of the fortifications, military ſtores, and proviſions in the barrier-towns, the States are to pay the annual ſum of five hundred thouſand rixdollars; for which purpoſe an office has been eſtabliſhed at Ypres, under the title of The Barrier-office, and this, excluſive of the revenues iſſuing from their ſhare in the upper quarter of Guelderland, the quartering-money, &c. During the war which was terminated in 1748 by the peace of Aix la Chapelle, theſe barrier towns were greatly damaged; and ſince that time many difficulties have ariſen relating to them, between the court of Vienna and the States General; and it is ſaid that the Dutch troops at preſent in them do not exceed nine battalions and two ſquadrons, and poſſibly the right of garriſoning them may in time become obſolete, and be ſuperſeded.

CHAP. XXI.

Of the UNITED NETHERLANDS.

SECT. I.

Their Situation, Extent, and Climate: the Diſeaſes of the Inhabitants; the Dykes, Dams, and Canals neceſſary to exclude the Sea, drain the Lands, and promote Commerce. The Produce of the Country, its Rivers, and Fiſheries.

THE name of Netherlands, or Low Countries, by which all the ſeventeen provinces are called, is doubtleſs derived from the low ſituation of thoſe countries; the inhabitants themſelves call the country Belgium; but the French, like moſt other nations, ſtile it Les Païs Bas, or the Low Countries. This tract lies between Germany and France, and its greateſt length, as taken north-eaſt along the ſide of the ocean, is about three hundred miles, and about a hundred and forty on the ſouth ſide.

The ſeven United Provinces, of which we are here to treat, form only the northern part of this tract, which borders to the ſouth on Auſtrian Flanders and Brabant, juſt deſcribed; to the eaſt on the upper quarters of the dutchies of Guelders and Cleve, the biſhopric of Munſter, the county of Bentheim, and the principality of Eaſt Frieſland; and to the north and weſt on the Northern ſea. The ſeven United Provinces, notwithſtanding the figure the Dutch made, and ſtill make in Europe, is no more than a hundred and fifty miles in length, and a hundred in breadth.

The whole country is full of marſhes, which are not without their advantages, as they yield good turf for fuel, and in ſome parts of the provinces of Groningen, Overyſſel, and Drenthe, they are eſteemed ſo ſecure a fence againſt Germany, that draining them in order for cultivation is prohibited by law, though this prohibition is not univerſally regarded.

But theſe moraſſes, joined to the low ſituation of the country near the ſea, occaſion a damp air, and frequent rains, which, as well as the thick fogs, are more particularly brought on by the weſterly winds, that prevail in theſe parts with great violence. The general diſtempers of the inhabitants are the gout and ſcurvy. Coughs and rheums are alſo very common here; and in the fenny parts near the ſea, where the mud, during the ebb, emits putrid effluvias, and wholeſome water is ſcarce, continual reachings are likewiſe very frequent.

As the land is for the moſt part level, and in many places lies even lower than the ſea, it is not only fenced againſt any inundations from the ocean and the rivers at a prodigious expence, by dykes and dams, but for the draining of the waters innumerable ditches are cut; whence the waters ſo drained are carried off by windmills, and conveyed into canals, from whence it is forwarded by means of ſluices into the rivers. Theſe dykes, ditches, and canals, give the country a ſingular appearance, and by being planted with beautiful rows of trees, interſperſed with villas and gardens, are of infinite convenience to merchants and travellers. The treckſhuyts, or barks, which are drawn here by horſes, go off every day during ſummer, and at certain ſtated times paſs from one place to another.

As a great part of the ſoil conſiſts of heath and ſandy downs, it is far from affording a ſufficient ſupport to the inhabitants, nor can all their induſtry uſed in agriculture, draw from it as much grain as is neceſſary for home conſumption. But this is ſo amply compenſated by its trade and navigation, that of the imported grain they not only brew good beer, and diſtil brandy with other ſpirits, but export great quantities of both. On the other hand, its rich meadows and paſtures render grazing very profitable, and the inhabitants are not only ſupplied in abundance with milk, butter, and cheeſe; but the exports of the two laſt are very conſiderable, the cheeſe of Edam and Texel being famous all over the world. In Holland the breeding of ſheep is carried on with great ſucceſs, and admits of ſtill farther improvement, it appearing on an eſtimate, that under proper regulations, a million of ſheep might be fed in that province. The wool of theſe ſheep is reckoned extremely good. Several places yield tobacco, and Zealand is noted for its madder. Theſe provinces have likewiſe a ſufficiency of culinary plants, and ſome parts abound alſo in fruit. The principal fuel here is turf and pit-coal, the latter of which is imported from England and Scotland; for wood being very ſcarce, and bearing a great price, is little uſed: every piece of timber wrought in theſe countries, whether for building or exportation, is brought from abroad. Many places make ſalt from ſea-water. The county of Zutphen yields iron: but in general the inhabitants owe both the neceſſaries and comforts of life to their extenſive commerce with foreign countries.

The provinces of Zealand, Holland, Frieſland, and Groningen, lie contiguous to the North Sea, while thoſe of Utrecht, Guelderland, and Overyſſel, have a com-

munication with it by the Zuyder-Zee or South-Sea; which is a large lake or bay environed by the provinces of Holland, Utrecht, Guelderland, Overyſſel, and Friesland. The principal rivers are the Rhine, the Maeſe, and the Scheld.

The fiſhery in the ſeveral ſtreams, rivers, and lakes of this country, though very conſiderable, ſerves only for home conſumption; but that of the North Sea is of vaſt produce, and divided into the Leſſer and Greater. The former is that carried on along the coaſt, eſpecially on the Doggersbank, between England and Jutland, on which are caught cod, haddock, turbots, whitings, ſoles, and other ſea-fiſh. The cod caught here is either carried freſh and alive to market to the neareſt towns of the Netherlands, or is ſalted at ſea, and thus forms a branch both of domeſtic and foreign commerce. The great fiſhery is that of herrings, from which the Dutch reap immenſe profits: for if it may not, as formerly, be termed the golden mine of Holland, yet it ſtill affords a comfortable ſubſiſtence to at leaſt thirty thouſand ſix hundred families. The ſeaſon for catching the herrings along the coaſts of Scotland and England, is from the twenty-fourth of June to the twenty-fifth of November. The veſſels employed in this fiſhery are termed buſſes, and carry from twenty-five to thirty laſts, which one with another ſell for about one hundred and twenty guilders. Formerly in ſome years no leſs than fifteen hundred ſuch veſſels have ſailed from the ports of the ſeven provinces; but at preſent it is ſaid that the number of them ſeldom exceeds two hundred. Though the eſtimates of the profits ariſing from the herring-fiſhery differ, as the profits themſelves really do, very widely, yet it is computed that in a good year the neat gain to the proprietors of the buſſes, after all deductions, amounts to two millions of Holland guilders; a very conſiderable ſum, which might perhaps have been gained by the inhabitants of Great-Britain, had the Dutch been ſteadily and conſtantly refuſed the privilege of fiſhing on our coaſt, and ſeizing thoſe advantages which properly and naturally belong to ourſelves.

SECT. II.

Of the Manners of the Dutch, the Populouſneſs of the Country, with a general Account of their Towns and Villages, their Language, and the Religions tolerated there. The Skill of the Dutch in the polite Arts, their Learning, Manufactures, Trade, Commerce, and Coins.

THE Dutch are robuſt, laborious, patient, free, open, affable, and pleaſant in converſation. They are great politicians, not excepting the women and ſervants, and the very children are well acquainted with the hiſtory of their country. However, the boors, and eſpecially the ſailors, are rude and clowniſh. Mr. Hanway obſerves, that he has ſeen a boatman in a great city, ſtrut up and down a room with his hat on, his hands on his hips, and with a careleſs air of inſolence, ſpit at the feet of a gentleman who was treating him with civility, and giving him an opportunity of getting a guinea for an inconſiderable ſervice. This they miſtake for liberty, while their knowledge is confined to the common means of gain, and the gratifications of the calls of nature. Cheeſe, beer, geneva, brandy, and tobacco, are the joys that ſeem to crown the labours of the common people. The principal virtue of this nation is frugality; they are at all times contented with moderate meals, and the common people never make extravagant feaſts. Very often a biſcuit, with a bit of butter, cheeſe, or a herring, with a glaſs of beer or brandy, ſuffices them for a repaſt; but in their cups they are apt to mix cruelty with their ruſticity. Indeed a Dutchman is naturally phlegmatic and ſlow to anger; but when he is heated, he is not eaſily appeaſed. Conſtant employment, coldneſs of complexion, and perhaps the nature of their food, may contribute to their being but little addicted to love.

The women who are not of high rank adorn their heads with gold lace, and other of the like ornaments, but with more frugality than is generally practiſed in Germany. Except a few court ladies, they have not much taſte or delicacy in their manners. They are generally handy, neat in their houſes to exceſs, well made, and ſome have good complexions; but there are few beautiful: their teeth are in general bad, and moſt of their children are ſickly till the age of eight or ten. The women in this country ſeldom breed after they are thirty; and as the men are remarkable for wearing many breeches, the women in cold weather uſe pots with live coals of wood or turf ſet into boxes bored full of holes, and put under the peticoats: this is not only apt to make them old from the waiſt downward, before the time ordained by nature; but the ſmell of the coals is offenſive. Thus there is a proverbial ſaying, that "The "dirtieſt piece of furniture in the houſe of a Dutchman "is his wife." But we would not be underſtood to charge the diſagreeable part of this character on every individual of that nation; there are no doubt ladies diſtinguiſhed by their charms and their delicacy. Beauty is not confined to particular nations; and the polite and well-bred are to be found in every country in Europe.

The very ſituation and nature of the country render induſtry more neceſſary there than among the people of other nations. The neighbourhood of a dreadful volcano, ſays an ingenious author, cannot render the ſituation of the inhabitants of any other place more precarious than that of the Dutch, from the lowneſs of the land; for here the ocean has often paſſed its bounds, and exhibited a lively picture of the general deluge. In 1530, a great part of the country, with ſeventy-two villages on the coaſt of Holland and Frieſland, were ſwallowed up, and near twenty thouſand people periſhed; and in 1665, an inundation broke down the dyke of Muydenburg, and laid many places in the province of Utrecht under water. The dyke between Amſterdam and Harlem, and many others were alſo broke: but the calamity was no ſooner over, than the induſtrious inhabitants, as ſoon as poſſible, repaired the damage. With reſpect to their dykes, they have lately made great improvements: they now line many of their ſhores with large ſtones. The dyke to the Zuyder Sea is raiſed about ſixteen feet perpendicular, and goes off upon an eaſy ſlope. The ſtones are here regularly laid, and form an excellent defence againſt the water; but the dykes toward the North Sea are ſaid to be more lofty, and not to be ſupported but with piles at a great expence.

The United Provinces, though formerly a bog, are well cultivated, and extremely populous; for theſe, with the country of Drenthe, contain no leſs than one hundred and thirteen cities and towns, together with fourteen hundred villages, ſome of which are very conſiderable; and there are here about two millions of inhabitants, excluſive of thoſe of twenty-five towns in the conquered lands. But the moſt populous and beſt improved of all the ſeven provinces is that of Holland. The towns here, in the form of the houſes, in the canals cut through the ſtreets, and planted with trees, as alſo in the cleanlineſs of the ſtreets themſelves, make a more agreeable appearance than is uſually ſeen in other countries; and for the villages, no part of the globe can be compared with North Holland.

The language ſpoken here is Dutch, which is a dialect of the Low German; but ſo different from the German tongue, that thoſe who only underſtand that, find the Dutch unintelligible. The French is alſo much uſed, and is generally underſtood; ſo that moſt of the news-papers and books are printed in that language.

At the time of the Reformation the inhabitants declared for Lutheraniſm, adhering only to the Augſburg confeſſion; but in 1562, a different ſyſtem of articles, correſponding with thoſe of Geneva, was drawn up for the Netherland churches; at the union of Utrecht in in 1579, the States agreed to maintain and defend it; and in 1651, the Calviniſt doctrines, as ſet forth by the ſynod of Dort, received the ſanction of the ſtates of each particular province. Hence the Calviniſts alone are admitted to any ſhare of the government, and deemed capable of holding the principal employments. The number of Calviniſt miniſters in the ſeven United Provinces, and the countries belonging to them, amount to one thouſand

thouſand five hundred and ſeventy. However, reſpect is paid to the rights of conſcience, an univerſal toleration being allowed.

The popiſh churches in the United Provinces amount to about three hundred and fifty, and the prieſts to near four hundred; of theſe fifty-one churches and ſeventy-four prieſts are Janſeniſts, and the reſt are of Jeſuitical principles, or adhere to the conſtitution Unigenitus. The papiſts are admitted only to military employments; but no perſon of that ſect is ever created field-marſhal. They are computed to make one-third of the inhabitants; the Jeſuits, however, are not tolerated, though in ſome places connived at.

The Lutherans are allowed the free exerciſe of their religion in the towns, and their places of worſhip, in the outward architecture, have all the appearance of churches. The Lutherans are, however, incapable of all poſts and employments. In the United Provinces and Brabant are forty Lutheran congregations, who have fifty-two fixed miniſters. The Saltzburghers have alſo a congregation in the diſtrict of Cadſand.

The Remonſtrants, ſo called from a remonſtrance which they preſented to the aſſembly of the ſtates in 1610, are alſo called Arminians, from the learned Jacob Arminius, who taught the doctrine of univerſal redemption. Theſe are at preſent tolerated; but inſtead of increaſing, are rather under a decline. Of this ſociety there are thirty-four congregations, under forty-three miniſters, in Holland, Guelderland, Utrecht, and Frieſland. Theſe every year hold a general aſſembly at Amſterdam and Rotterdam.

The Mennonites or Baptiſts are divided into various ſects, the principal of which are the Flemiſchers and Waſſerlanders. In many places theſe ſeveral congregations are incorporated with each other. The Baptiſt congregations throughout all the Netherlands do not exceed one hundred and eighty-ſix, and their miniſters amount to about three hundred and twelve.

The Rheinburgers, or Collegiants, obtained the firſt of theſe appellations from Rheinburg, a village near Leyden, where they meet twice a year to celebrate the euchariſt; the ſecond title had its riſe from the colleges, or particular aſſemblies, they have eſtabliſhed in ſeveral places, to the number of about eighteen or twenty.

The Quakers are at preſent dwindled to a very ſmall number; but the Moravians form a conſiderable body. The Armenian Chriſtians, who in many reſpects reſemble thoſe of the Greek church, chiefly reſide at Amſterdam, and alſo enjoy the free exerciſe of their religion. There are many other ſects that have no ſettled congregations. The Jews have been allowed the public exerciſe of their religion ever ſince the year 1619, and with reſpect to many rights and privileges, are on a footing with the other inhabitants, except their being excluded from moſt trades at Amſterdam and ſome other places. They are divided into Portugueſe and Germans, the former of whom came from Portugal in great numbers, in the years 1530 and 1550, and were very kindly received.

With reſpect to the fine arts, the Dutch have chiefly diſtinguiſhed themſelves in painting and engraving, tho' they are not without ſkilful ſtatuaries. For ſome centuries paſt, the ſciences have been cultivated among them with great application and encouragement, and the number of perſons eminent for knowledge and literature, who were either natives of the Netherlands, or invited hither, is very conſiderable. There are no leſs than five univerſities in this country, namely, Leyden, Utrecht, Harderwyck, Franecker, and Groningen, with two gymnaſiums, one at Amſterdam, and another at Deventer. There are likewiſe ſeveral famous grammar ſchools, and in Harlem is an academy of ſciences.

The United Provinces being ſo populous and well improved is chiefly owing to the variety of manufactures carried on there, and to the amazing extent of their commerce. Among the former are the beautiful tiles, of which immenſe quantities are made in South Holland and Utrecht; their ſmall bricks, called klinkers, great numbers of which are exported; their potters-ware, and tobacco-pipes, particularly thoſe of Tergow; with the Delft porcelain, great quantities of which are alſo carried to foreign countries. Good borax is alſo made in Holland, and common ſalt well refined. Here are likewiſe a multitude of oil mills, and ſtarch both blue and white furniſhes employment for a number of hands. Great quantities of thread ſpun in Germany are imported both bleached and unbleached into the Netherlands, where it undergoes farther improvements, and is uſed either for laces or linen; but the fineſt linen is made in the province of Frieſland, and the Holland damaſk is not to be exceeded. A great deal of German linen is alſo bleached and whitened by the Dutch. Hemp is likewiſe manufactured here ſeveral ways: and with reſpect to paper, immenſe quantities of it are made, and the beſt ſort is acknowledged to be as fine and beautiful as any in Europe. The timber brought from Norway and the Baltic, is ſawed by mills for the building of ſhips and houſes; and beſides being a very profitable article in their exports to Spain, Portugal, and other countries, is made uſe of by the Dutch for the conſtruction of large ſhips for many European nations; and for making a vaſt variety of toys, which are exported to foreign countries. Sugar-baking is alſo the ſource of a great trade. The woollen, cotton, and ſilk manufactures do not want beauty; but are at preſent on the decline; good leather is alſo made in the United Provinces, and ſome places are particularly remarkable for the bleaching of wax.

The great trade of theſe provinces is facilitated and ſupported by means both natural and political, as by their ſituation along the German ocean, though without any convenient or ſafe harbour; the Zuyder Sea, the navigable rivers, and multitude of canals; their civil and religious freedom, with the number, ſkill, and induſtry of the inhabitants in handicrafts, manufactures, and fiſheries; the great multitude of their merchant ſhips, the plenty of ſpecie, their national parſimony, and eagerneſs of gain; their credit among foreigners, the bank at Amſterdam, and their Eaſt India trade. By their commerce and ſhipping this little republic has been able to ſupport many wars, and ſtill maintains its freedom; but both the commerce and power of the Dutch have conſtantly gone hand in hand, riſing and falling together: that their trade and power have for ſome time paſt been under a decline is very evident, and this by ſome is imputed to a decline of parſimony and induſtry among the inhabitants; but the principal cauſe is probably the improvement of manufactures, traffic, and navigation, in ſome of the neighbouring nations. It is ſtill, however, very conſiderable, though its principal dependence is on the Eaſt India company, whoſe power and riches are too great to be conceived, and of which the reader may ſee an account in vol. I. page 116, &c.

The Dutch trade almoſt to every country and port, either as carriers, or in exporting goods, and bringing home returns on their own account: their moſt conſiderable exports are goods brought to Holland in their Eaſt and Weſt India ſhips, and among thoſe chiefly ſpices. Their trade to the Mediterranean and the Levant is conducted by a company; they alſo carry on a great trade to Spain; their trade to Portugal is very advantageous, but in that to France the imports exceed their exports. The commerce of the States with Great Britain and Ireland is very much curtailed by the ſtrict prohibitions made by the Engliſh againſt the importation of certain commodities, and by the heavy duties laid on others. Another very conſiderable branch of their trade is that to Norway, Denmark, Ruſſia, and the other countries lying on the Baltic. Their trade to Germany and the neighbouring countries is carried on along the Elbe, the Weſer, the Rhine, the Maeſe, and the Ems; but Hamburg is the port moſt frequented by them. Their traffic with the divided Netherlands daily decreaſes.

The coinage of the United Provinces is under the direction of a general mint-college. Indeed every province being a ſovereignty of itſelf, each of courſe has the privilege of coining; but all pieces, in order to obtain a general currency through the whole republic, are obliged to be of the ſame intrinſic value; without which regulation one province would not fail to cry down ſuch pieces of the others as happened to come ſhort of the due weight. The ſmalleſt piece here is named a deut, or

dite,

Assassination of the Prince of Orange.

dite, is worth about half a farthing; a grot Flemiſh is four dites, and a ſtiver two grots; two ſtivers make a ſmall ſilver piece called dubbelchen, and a ſchilling is equivalent to ſix ſtivers. There are alſo lowered ſchillings of five ſtivers and a half; and ſeſtehalves, which are of the ſame value; the eight and fourteen ſtiver pieces, are not very common. A Holland guilder is equivalent to twenty ſtivers, or one ſhilling and eight-pence. There are likewiſe half guilder and three guilder pieces; but theſe are ſeldom ſeen. A gold gulden makes two twenty-eight ſtivers, and a thaler, or dollar, thirty; a rixdollar, or Albert dollar, is two guilders ten ſtivers. There are alſo half and quarter rixdollars; a lion dollar is worth forty-two ſtivers, or three ſhillings and ſeven-pence; and a ducatoon is worth ſixty-three, or five ſhillings and two-pence. Their gold coins are the well known ducats, which are worth five Holland guilders, and four or five-pence; and whole ruydders are worth fourteen guilders.

SECT. III.

A conciſe Hiſtory of the United Provinces; their political Conſtitution, with a particular Account of the States General. The Titles and Arms of the States; the Taxes and Revenues of the Republic; with their Military and Naval Force.

THE Netherlands, with that part of Germany which lies weſt of the Rhine, was poſſeſſed by the Romans, who called it Gallia Belgica: but upon the decline of the Roman empire, the Goths, and other northern people, took poſſeſſion of theſe provinces, as they paſſed through them in their way to France and Spain: and here erected ſeveral ſmall governments that were a kind of limited monarchies, whoſe ſovereigns were ſtiled dukes, counts, and lords. The people enjoyed great privileges under theſe princes, who were contented with preſerving them, becauſe the ſmallneſs of their reſpective dominions made their greateſt ſtrength conſiſt in the affection of their ſubjects. But afterwards when all theſe provinces became ſubject to one prince, who had large dominions elſewhere, the people were treated with leſs indulgence. Charles V. was the firſt of theſe, and, as he was king of Spain, emperor of Germany, and duke of Burgundy, he had different intereſts from thoſe of his predeceſſors; and being engaged in a war with France, he brought foreign forces from his other dominions into the Netherlands, notwithſtanding the laws to the contrary.

At length the reformation breaking out, that prince exhibited very rigorous edicts againſt thoſe who ſeparated from the Romiſh church; and Grotius affirms, that, during his reign, above a hundred thouſand perſons ſuffered death for their religion; but the number and courage of thoſe who embraced the doctrines of the reformation, inſtead of being diminiſhed by the horrors of perſecution, daily increaſed, and ſometimes the people reſcued out of the hands of the officers thoſe who were led to execution. Thus the Netherlands became extremely alienated from the houſe of Auſtria, and their diſcontents increaſed on Charles's nominating his ſon Philip II. to be their governor. This prince would admit only of the Popiſh religion; and a ſanguinary perſecution againſt the heretics, as they were called, was carried on with freſh vigour, a court of inquiſition was erected, and theſe cruelties aggravated by inſupportable taxes.

Theſe oppreſſions being carried to the moſt tyrannical height by Ferdinand of Toledo, duke of Alba, whom Philip had created governor, the Netherlanders made a puſh for their freedom, and William prince of Orange, in conjunction with his brother, count Lewis of Naſſau, undertook the defence of the inhabitants, in their noble ſtruggles for religious and civil liberty. Accordingly the ſtates of Holland, in their own names, conferred the ſtadtholderſhip on the former, and ſeveral other towns and provinces declaring for him, he at firſt united them, in 1576, in one general aſſociation, under the title of The Pacification of Ghent. But this union being ſoon diſſolved, the prince laboured to the utmoſt of his power to form a more durable alliance, which he happily accompliſhed in 1579. In that year the celebrated league of Utrecht was concluded, which gave name to the United Provinces, and became the baſis and plan of their conſtitution. The prince of Orange was afterwards on the point of being nominated ſovereign of theſe countries, but was treacherouſly ſhot in 1584, by an aſſaſſin hired by the Spaniſh miniſtry. The United Netherlands, however, continuing to maintain, ſword in hand, that liberty to which they had raiſed themſelves, queen Elizabeth of England took them under her protection, and ſent them aſſiſtance. Thus the war went on proſperouſly, and their commerce arrived at ſuch a pitch, that in 1602 their celebrated Eaſt India company was eſtabliſhed, and Spain being both weakened and diſcouraged by the ill ſucceſs of a tedious war, in 1606, agreed to an armiſtice for twelve years, and in the very firſt article acknowledged the United Netherlands to be a free and independent ſtate; and, during this truce, the republic attained to a degree of power which it has never ſince exceeded.

In 1621 the war was again renewed, during which the ſtadtholder, prince Frederic Henry, greatly diſtinguiſhed himſelf. This war was brought to a period in 1648, by the peace of Munſter, at which Philip IV. king of Spain, renounced all claim to the United Netherlands.

In 1652 a war broke out between the United Provinces and England; but was terminated two years after by a treaty, in which the ſtates of Holland engaged for ever to exclude the houſe of Orange from the ſtadtholderſhip of their province.

In 1665 another war was kindled with England, which laſted till the treaty of Breda. The ſtates of Holland and Weſt Frieſland then paſſed an edict, by which they aboliſhed the ſtadtholderſhip in their province. When France formed a deſign to ſeize on the Spaniſh Netherlands, the United Provinces entered into an alliance with the crowns of England and Sweden, for the defence of thoſe countries: thus France was, in 1668, compelled to agree to the peace of Aix la Chapelle; but ſoon took a ſevere revenge by ſubverting that alliance, and inducing England, with ſome other powers, to enter into a league againſt the United Provinces, on which a war enſued. In this critical juncture the republic, in 1672, nominated the young prince of Orange, named William III. captain and admiral-general; and the populace compelled the ſtates of Holland to inveſt him with the ſtadtholderſhip, which two years after was declared hereditary.

In 1678 a peace was concluded with France at Nimeguen; but it was of no long continuance, for in 1688, the ſtates ſupporting their ſtadtholder in his expedition to England, with a fleet and a large body of troops, France declared war againſt them, which laſted till the peace of Ryſwic in 1697. At length, on the death of Charles II. king of Spain, in the year 1700, the Spaniſh provinces fell to the ſhare of the houſe of Auſtria, and the republic became involved in a war relating to that ſucceſſion, which continued till the peace of Utrecht, in 1713. On the deceaſe of the emperor Charles VI. they aſſiſted the queen of Hungary againſt France, which drew on them the reſentment of that power; and, in 1747, the French making an irruption into Dutch Flanders, the republic unanimouſly declared the late prince of Orange hereditary ſtadtholder, captain-general, and admiral in chief.

The Seven United Provinces form ſeven republics, or independent ſovereign ſtates, united together for their common defence in a cloſe alliance; but on condition, that all ſhall enjoy their own reſpective laws, liberties, and privileges. As they are confederated and allied together, it is requiſite that they ſhould meet, in order to conſult on the moſt proper method of promoting their common intereſt; but as it is impoſſible for all the members of theſe ſeveral ſtates to meet together, each particular ſtate appoints ſome perſon to repreſent it; and the aſſembly of theſe repreſentatives is called the aſſembly of the States-general.

Not only each province, but the principal cities, ſend deputies to the States-general, as do alſo the nobles. Thus the number of the repreſentatives is very conſiderable, and all are maintained at the expence of their reſpective

provinces; the deputies of Holland being allowed four florins a day, and thoſe of the other ſtates ſix. But whatever be the number of the deputies from each province, be they nobles or commoners, they have all together but one voice; and therefore in the aſſembly of the States-general there are but ſeven voices. Beſides this, being properly the aſſembly of the repreſentatives of the ſeven ſovereignties which compoſe the ſtates of the United Provinces, their power is limited either expreſsly or tacitly by this inſtruction: "Not to ſuffer the leaſt wound to "be given to the ſovereignty of that province which de-"putes them."

The States-general, however, not only make peace or war in their own name, but ſend and receive ambaſſadors and other public miniſters. The commander in chief, and all other military officers, take an oath of fidelity to them; and, during a war, ſome of their members, or of the council of ſtate, follow the army, ſit in the council of war, and without their conſent nothing of importance can be undertaken. In time of war the States likewiſe grant licences and protections.

Thus the States-general appear at firſt view to be the ſovereigns of the country; but moſt of theſe deputies are appointed only for a few years, and though they have the power of debating on the moſt important affairs that may tend to ſecure or promote the preſervation and happineſs of the ſtate, yet they have not power to conclude any point of great conſequence, without previouſly communicating it to their reſpective provinces, and receiving their expreſs conſent. This renders the reſolutions of the republic ſo tedious and dilatory, as to tire the patience of thoſe powers who have affairs to negotiate with the ſtates; but tho' this ſlow method of proceeding be attended with many inconveniences, it has ſome advantages: it affords leiſure for mature deliberation and caution, and is ſometimes an unexceptionable pretence for protracting time and waiting events.

In the aſſembly of the States-general, the provinces preſide weekly in their turn, beginning with Guelderland, who had the precedency before the union; then Holland, Zealand, Utrecht, Frieſland, Overyſſel, and Groningen. He who is firſt named in the deputation of his province preſides, and is from hence called the Preſident of the Week. He propoſes the ſubject to be debated, and collects the votes of the aſſembly, upon which he forms his concluſion, dictates to the regiſter, and afterwards ſigns the reſolution. They ſit throughout the whole year without adjournment, and their meetings are always held at the Hague.

The higheſt office in this country is that of ſtadtholder; for he is at the ſame time governor-general of the ſeven United Provinces, captain-general, and grand-admiral; but his power is extremely limited. He ſwears to obey the States-general, and can neither make peace nor war without their conſent. He may come to their aſſembly to lay before them any buſineſs in which the public is concerned; but has not ordinarily a ſeat in it. He may pardon criminals condemned to ſuffer death, and has the right of chuſing the magiſtrates of cities upon a double nomination of their reſpective ſenates, excepting only Amſterdam, with ſeveral other important privileges.

The title aſſumed by the States is that of High and Mighty Lords, or the Lords the States-general of the United Netherlands, and in public addreſſes they are ſtiled their High Mightineſſes.

Their arms are, gules, a lion rampant, holding in one paw a ſword, and in the other a bundle of ſeven arrows; beneath the ſhield, which is ſurmounted with a ducal coronet, is the motto CONCORDIA RES PARVÆ CRESCUNT.

The council of ſtate conſiſts of twelve deputies of the ſeveral provinces, and their office is either triennial, or during the pleaſure of their principals. In this council the deputies of Holland have the greateſt weight, that province being poſſeſſed of three votes, while none of the others have more than two, and ſome of them only one. The preſidentſhip indeed is held alternately by the twelve members, each in their week. The council of ſtate aſſembles every day in the ſame court with the States-general. The principal affairs which come under the deliberation of this council are, thoſe of the army and revenue; and in conjunction with the deputies of the States-general, they alſo provide every thing neceſſary for the defence of the country, both in time of peace and war. The revenues under the direction of this council are thoſe paid by the Seven Provinces, and the country of Drenthe, into the military cheſt, and by the Generalité-lands into the public treaſury; as likewiſe all contributions, confiſcations, and the like. Sometimes the council of ſtate is ſummoned before the States-general; but whenever the latter require a particular conference with them, they only ſend two or three deputies. The title of this council is Noble and Mighty Lords. The treaſurer-general is alſo honoured with this title, as being an aſſeſſor in the council of ſtate, and may deliver his opinion; but has no definitive voice. The receiver-general has a ſeat in the ſame council.

The general chamber of accounts is compoſed of fourteen deputies, each province ſending two. Their chief employment is to receive, ſtate, and balance the accounts of the ſeveral provinces. The members of this chamber are alſo ſtiled Noble and Mighty Lords.

The general chamber of finances is ſubordinate to the former, and conſiſts of four commiſſioners and a ſecretary.

The mint-office conſiſts of three counſellors, aſſiſted by a mint-maſter-general, a general aſſay-maſter, and an under ſecretary. All theſe ſeveral colleges meet at the Hague.

With reſpect to the adminiſtration of juſtice, the proceedings of the ſeveral courts are regulated by the particular laws of the reſpective towns and provinces where they are tried, the edicts of the ſtates, and the civil law. Each province has its tribunal, to which, except in criminal caſes, appeals lie from the petty and county courts, and if the party caſt is diſpoſed to ſtand a third trial, he may apply to the ſtates of the province, who appoint certain perſons learned in the laws and cuſtoms of that province to examine the decree, and paſs a final deciſion. Juſtice is ſaid to be no where ſo well adminiſtered as in theſe provinces.

The taxes payable by the inhabitants of the United provinces, and by thoſe of the conquered lands, have been rendered neceſſary by the long and ſevere wars which the republic has ſuſtained, and the number of them, eſpecially in Holland, where they are always the heavieſt, is ſo great, that a certain writer aſſerts, that the only thing which has eſcaped taxation is the air we breathe. The principal ordinary taxes are the duties on exports and imports, levied by the admiralty offices, and appropriated to defray the expences of the navy. The taxes on houſes, lands, horned cattle, &c. and on the purchaſe money of all immoveables, under which are comprehended veſſels of above eight tons burthen, for which the fortieth penny is paid; and this alone in Holland annually brings in above ſeven hundred thouſand golden florins. The twentieth penny levied on inheritances in the collateral and aſcending line. A poll tax, which obtains only in ſome provinces. The exciſe on all kinds of proviſions, neceſſaries, and liquors; and here the money levied on bread and beer is eſtimated at above one third, that on wine at ſomewhat leſs, and that on turf for firing alſo at one third. There is likewiſe a duty on horſes, coaches, and ſervants. The ſtampt paper uſed in all their ſeveral inſtruments, contracts, and bonds, is ſaid to exceed four hundred thouſand golden florins.

In particular emergencies, when the ordinary revenues are inſufficient, the tax on lands and houſes is doubled, and ſome other duties raiſed. Thus, in 1747, an edict paſſed for a voluntary aid, conſiſting of the fiftieth penny of every man's whole wealth and ſubſtance. The ordinary revenues of the republic are eſtimated at twenty-one millions of guilders; but as the contributions have fallen ſhort of the expences incurred by their long wars, the ſtate has borrowed immenſe ſums from the inhabitants, and every one of the provinces labours under very heavy debts.

The United Provinces ſtand in need of a conſiderable military force for their defence, notwithſtanding which, this has never been put on a proper eſtabliſhment. Each province keeps on foot ſuch a number of troops as it can conveniently maintain; but the Swiſs regi-

regiments are paid by the States-general. In time of peace the forces of the republic ſeldom exceed forty thouſand men, and very often their number is ſtill leſs. In time of war the republic hires troops of the German princes, and keeps them in pay till peace be reſtored. The chief command of the army is veſted in the ſtadtholder as captain-general; but the executive part, eſpecially in time of war, is filled by the field marſhal general. The fortreſſes are always kept in good repair. In 1755, the expences of the military eſtabliſhment amounted to nine million eight hundred forty-four thouſand four hundred and thirty-ſeven guilders ſixteen ſtivers; but in 1756, only to nine million ſeven hundred ſixty-five thouſand and four. The naval force of the republic formerly made a great figure, and in ſome wars the Dutch have had at ſea a hundred men of war; but the uſual number in time of peace is only thirty, and thoſe not always fit for ſervice. It however paſſes for a certain truth, that the admiralties, by the aſſiſtance of the ſeveral provinces, can in a ſhort time equip forty or fifty ſhips of the line. Their men of war are chiefly employed in cruiſing in the Mediterranean, to protect their trade againſt the Corſairs, or as convoys to the homeward bound Indiamen.

SECT. IV.

Of GUELDERLAND.

Its Situation, Climate, Produce, and Rivers. The Government of the Province, its Diviſions, and a Deſcription of Nimeguen, Zutphen, and Arnheim.

GUELDERLAND, or Gelderland, is bounded on the north by the Zuyder-ſea and Overyſſel; on the eaſt by the biſhopric of Munſter, and the dutchy of Cleve; on the ſouth is divided by the Maeſe from Brabant; and on the weſt borders on Utrecht and Holland.

The air is the beſt in all the Seven Provinces, and the ſoil for the moſt part good. The country of Zutphen has ſuch plenty of apple, pear, and cherry-trees, that it ſupplies all the other provinces with thoſe fruits. There are here alſo large tracts of arable land, with a ſufficient quantity of meadow grounds fit for paſtures.

Guelderland is watered by the Rhine, and its three branches the Waal, the Yſel, and the Lek, and on its ſouthern borders runs the Maeſe. The ſmaller rivers are the Linge, formerly called the Longwater, which takes its courſe between the Rhine and the Waal, till it falls into the Merwe; the Old Yſſel which joins the Yſſel near Doeſberg, and the Berkel, which falls into the ſame river.

In the whole province are twenty-two towns, and two boroughs. It is divided into three diſtricts, Nimeguen, Zutphen, and Arnheim, each of which has its own particular ſtates compoſed of the nobility and towns. The number of the nobility admitted in the legiſlative power is not fixed, every one legally qualified being advanced to a ſhare in the government at twenty-one years of age. The towns may depute as many as they pleaſe to aſſiſt at the diet of the diſtrict, though each town has but one vote. The aſſemblies of the ſtates of each diſtrict are always held in the capital, from which it derives its name, and the burgomaſter for the time being ſits as preſident at the diet, at which all affairs relating to that diſtrict are determined. Two general aſſemblies of the ſtates of the whole province, conſiſting of the deputies of the ſtates of the three provinces, are annually held in the three capitals, one in ſpring, and the other in autumn. The burgrave of Nimeguen always ſits as preſident, and in theſe aſſemblies all affairs relating to the whole province are regulated. Guelderland alſo ſends nineteen deputies to the aſſembly of the States-general of the United Provinces.

The diſtrict of Nimeguen contains the ſouth part of Guelderland, and lies between the Rhine, the Waal, and the Maeſe. Though this quarter is the ſmalleſt, it is the moſt conſiderable, and pays the largeſt contingent to the public expences. It contains only three towns that have a ſeat and vote in the aſſembly, the principal of theſe is the following:

Nimeguen, the capital of this diſtrict, ſtands on ſeveral little eminences along the river Waal, over which it has a bridge of boats, in the fifty-firſt degree fifty-two minutes north latitude, and in the fifth degree forty-ſix minutes eaſt longitude. Towards the land it is very ſtrongly fortified, it being the utmoſt boundary of the Netherlands to the eaſt; but the great extent of its outworks requires a very numerous garriſon. The churches here are two of Dutch Calviniſts, the principal of which is that of St. Stephen, a French church, a Lutheran church, and five belonging to the Roman catholics. On the eaſt ſide of the city, within the walls, ſtands an old burg, or caſtle, called the Falkenhof, which is ſaid to have been built by Charlemagne; and the burgrave, who reſides in it, is one of the moſt conſiderable nobles in all Guelderland. Within the walls of this caſtle are delightful walks, planted with rows of lime-trees. The ſtadthouſe, which ſtands in Burg-ſtreet, is the place where the ſtates of the quarter meet, and where the provincial diets are held.

In 1678 the celebrated treaty of Nimeguen was concluded here, and in 1702 marſhal Boufflers formed a deſign of ſeizing this place, it being then without a garriſon; but the earl of Athlone, the Dutch general, marched to its relief with ſuch expedition, that the marſhal's ſcheme was fruſtrated. Nimeguen carries on a good trade with the dutchy of Cleve, and ſends great quantities of its white beer into all the United Provinces.

The Zutphen quarter, or county of Zutphen, is ſeparated from Arnheim by the river Yſſel. The ſoil is on the weſt and ſouth ſides not inferior to any in Guelderland; but to the eaſtward near the frontiers of Munſter is full of heaths and moraſſes. It contains five towns that enjoy a ſeat and vote in the diets, the principal place in which is the following:

Zutphen, in Latin Zutphania, the capital of the county to which it gives name, ſtands on the banks of the Yſſel, over which it has a bridge of boats, fifty-five miles eaſt-by-ſouth of Hanover. The Yſſel here receives the Borkel, or Berkel, which divides the town into two parts, the Old and the New. The former of theſe is much larger than the latter; but both have extenſive ſuburbs, which chiefly conſiſt of pleaſure-houſes, yet by degrees have been included within the circuit of the walls. The town is well fortified, except towards the works in the ſuburbs, where there is leſs occaſion for ſtrength, as the country may be eaſily laid under water by means of the Borkel. There are here ſeveral pleaſant walks, particularly on the ramparts, which are planted with trees. Zutphen was formerly a Hanſe-town, and more opulent than at preſent. The Dutch Calviniſts have two churches here, and there is alſo one belonging to the Walloons, another to the Lutherans, another to the Catholics, and another to the Mennonites. A gymnaſium, founded here in 1687, has ſix maſters. This town has ſeveral times been beſieged and taken.

The Arnheim quarter, or the Veluwe, is ſeparated from that of Zutphen by the Yſſel. Its ſoil is for the moſt part very indifferent, eſpecially towards the middle, which abounding in ſand, heath, and brakes has the appearance of a wilderneſs; but the country near the river is as fertile as any other part of the Netherlands. It has five towns that enjoy a ſeat and vote in the diets, the principal of which is

Arnheim, the capital of the quarter, ſeated on the Rhine at the foot of the Veluwe hills, at no great diſtance from the place where the Yſſel and the Rhine divide their ſtreams. Over the latter of theſe rivers it has a bridge of boats, and before the Rhine-gate is a commodious harbour of a quadrangular form. The fortifications to the land-ſide were conſiderably enlarged in 1702 by that ſkilful engineer general Coehorn, who alſo encloſed within a ſtrong line an eminence to the weſt of the town, which in caſe of a ſiege might be a great annoyance to it; but is now capable of containing a ſmall camp for its defence. To the north of the town runs the molebeek, which fills the moats with water. The walls are delightfully planted with lime-trees, and may be walked round with eaſe in an hour and a half. The town itſelf is well built: here all the ſtates of this quarter have their meetings, and it is likewiſe the ſeat of the pro-

vincial chief court of juſtice, and the chamber of accounts. Antiently the dukes of Guelderland, and after them the ſtadtholders of this province, kept their court in the old palace; which, whenever the hereditary ſtadtholder comes to aſſiſt at the aſſembly of the ſtates of the province, is fitted up for his reception. In the great church, dedicated to St. Euſebius, are the monuments of ſeveral counts and dukes of Guelderland. The Dutch Calviniſts have alſo another church, and there is likewiſe a French church and a congregation of Lutherans. Arnheim was taken from the Spaniards in 1585; the French made themſelves maſters of it in 1672, and kept it till the year 1674.

The above mentioned diſtrict, called Veluwe, is ſurrounded by a narrow ſtrip of land ſo extremely fertile, as to give occaſion to a ſaying, that the Veluwe is a thread-bare coat with a very rich border.

It is proper to obſerve, that part of the upper quarter of Guelderland includes the quarter of Ruremond, which, with its capital of the ſame name, is ſubject to the houſe of Auſtria; and the ſmall town and prefecturate of Gueldres, which belong to the king of Pruſſia.

SECT. V.

Of the Province of HOLLAND.

Its Situation, Extent, Produce, and Rivers. The Populouſneſs of the Country, and the Neatneſs of the Towns and Villages. The Government of the Province; with a Deſcription of the Cities of Dort, Harlem, Leyden, Amſterdam, Rotterdam, the Hague, and the Village of Broek.

THE province of Holland is bounded on the ſouth by Brabant; on the eaſt by the provinces of Guelderland, Utrecht, the Zuyder ſea, and the North ſea; on the latter of which its whole weſtern frontiers lie. This is the largeſt of all the ſeven provinces, and, according to the computation of the celebrated John de Witt, contains four hundred thouſand acres; but later authors ſuppoſe that it contains four hundred and forty thouſand.

Its ſituation is in general very low, and ſome part even lower than the ſea, from which it is ſecured by dykes and dams, and interſected by innumerable ditches and canals, through which the water is carried off at the time of ebb. The air is foggy and unwholeſome; however, the greateſt part of the province conſiſts of fine paſture lands, and therefore the principal employment of the country people is making butter and cheeſe; for which purpoſe they keep a number of milch-cows. The more ſouthern parts of the province, which lie near Zealand, and alſo the weſt lands, as they are called, are excellent corn countries. The middle part of the province conſiſts almoſt entirely of turf grounds.

Beſides the large rivers common to the Netherlands in general, there are ſeveral ſmaller ſtreams; as the Vecht, which coming from Utrecht falls into the Zuyder ſea: the Amſtel, which receives the Crooked Amſtel, and runs through Amſterdam into the Y: the Zaan, which waters North Holland, and alſo diſcharges itſelf into the Y; as does alſo the Spaaren, which iſſues out of the lake of Harlem. On this river paſs the larger veſſels bound to Zealand, and other ports, croſſing Harlem lake: the Shie, which runs through Delft to Shiedam, where it joins the Maeſe; as does alſo the Rotte at Rotterdam: the Gouwe, which proceeds out of the Old Rhine, and at Gouda falls into the Yſſel: the Holland Yſſel, which, after receiving its waters from the Rhine-canal, as it is called, diſcharges itſelf into the Maeſe; this river is alſo joined by the Vliſt: and laſtly, the Linge, which iſſuing out of Guelderland, traverſes Holland, and loſes itſelf in the Merve.

In ſeveral parts of the country theſe rivers are joined by navigable canals, which afford a cheap communication between the ſeveral towns and villages of this populous province, as, by means of the treckſchuyts, paſſengers go from place to place at fixed hours on theſe canals, and at very cheap rates. Goods are likewiſe ſent the ſame way, which is of unſpeakable advantage to the inland trade.

The broad water, which paſſes by Amſterdam from the Zuyder ſea, and divides the province into South and North Holland, or into Holland and Weſt Frieſland, is called the Y, or, as it is pronounced, the Ey, and at Beverwick forms the Wykermeer.

This province abounds in the moſt extraordinary improvements, and is amazingly populous, the number of its inhabitants being computed at one million two hundred thouſand. The buildings in the towns are moſtly of brick, and for handſome villages and cleanlineſs in their houſes, it exceeds every other country; but in North Holland neatneſs is carried to an aſtoniſhing pitch. In that province are villages in which the houſes, together with the rooms and furniture, are clean and bright beyond imagination; the buildings themſelves, the floors, and every wooden utenſil, both within and without, even to the very gates in the roads, and the poſts in the paſtures againſt which the cows rub, as alſo the very trunks of the trees, being painted: the chimnies likewiſe, with the cow ſtalls, both on the floor and on the ſides, are kept extremely neat; but in theſe cow ſtalls the families themſelves reſide, to avoid ſoiling their ſhining rooms. Their ſtreets too are paved with brick, and very carefully waſhed and ſtrewed with a fine white ſand.

The two parts of which this province conſiſts are under one joint-regency, called the States of Holland and Weſt Frieſland, compoſed of the nobility and voting towns. The number of nobility admitted into the aſſembly of the States is not limited, and therefore not always the ſame. The nobility elect their ſeveral members by a majority of votes, but they ſeldom exceed ten. The voting towns, at the firſt foundation of the republic, were only the ſix following: Dort, Harlem, Delft, Leyden, Amſterdam, and Gouda; but William I. prince of Orange, added twelve more; ſo that at preſent they are eighteen, that is, eleven in South Holland, and ſeven in North Holland. The ſmalleſt of theſe cities has an equal voice in the provincial ſtates with Amſterdam, which pays almoſt half the charge of the whole province.

Each member at his firſt appearance in this aſſembly, is obliged to ſwear to maintain the rights, privileges, immunities, laws, and cuſtoms of the country, and to give his vote according to his conſcience, for the common happineſs and proſperity of the province, without hatred, or regard to the intereſt of any particular town or perſon; to execute all the reſolutions taken in the aſſembly with fidelity, and to keep inviolable the ſecrets with which he ſhall be entruſted.

The States of Holland enjoy entire liberty of ſpeech, and are only anſwerable for their actions to the town which deputes them, without being liable to be called in queſtion by any other authority. They meet four times a year, in February, June, September, and November. In the three former ſeſſions they fill up the vacant employments in their diſpoſal, conſult about the common affairs of the province, and determine particular differences that may happen between the towns. In November they meet for raiſing ſuch ſupplies as may have been granted by their deputies to the States General, for the ſervice of the ſubſequent year.

The reſolutions of the States are generally determined by a majority of voices; but in very important affairs they muſt be unanimous: ſo that the oppoſition of one of the ſmalleſt cities can prevent a reſolution being taken; in which caſe the aſſembly is adjourned for a day or two, that the deputies may have time to return to their reſpective cities for farther inſtructions.

The grand penſionary of Holland is a perſon of great dignity; he has no deciſive vote; he propoſes the ſubjects of debate to the aſſembly of the ſtates of that province, collects the ſuffrages of the nineteen repreſentatives, pronounces the reſolutions, and dictates the terms in which they are to be regiſtered: he is alſo the conſtant deputy to the States General, and keeps the public regiſters and great ſeal of the province. He is elected by a majority of ſuffrages in the aſſembly of the ſtates; and his office is properly only for five years, at the expiration of which a new election, or rather a confirmation of the former, muſt be obtained.

After

After the ſtates of Holland, the court of the greateſt authority is the provincial council of ſtate, which, from the two parts of this province, is divided into two aſſemblies; that of South Holland conſiſts of ten repreſentatives, of which one always repreſents the nobility, and has the precedence of all the reſt. Theſe take cognizance both of the revenue and military affairs; and, when neceſſary, convene a general aſſembly of the ſtates of the province. The aſſembly of North Holland is compoſed of ſeven deputies of the towns of that part of the province. Theſe hold a joint aſſembly every year in the month of November, to ſettle, in conjunction with the deputies of the States General, the neceſſary funds to be levied in the ſubſequent year for the ſervice of the army.

For the adminiſtration of juſtice there are two courts held at the Hague, namely, the court of Holland, and the high council. The provinces of Holland and Zealand have always been ſo ſtrictly united, as to have but one common high court of juſtice; and accordingly the court of Holland is compoſed of a preſident, with eight counſellors of that province, and three for Zealand; a ſollicitor, two attornies, a regiſter, and ſix ſecretaries: Holland chooſes the preſident two years, and Zealand the third. The members of this court are excluded from being magiſtrates of cities, directors of trading companies, or enjoying any poſt, or any other ſalary than what is annexed to their office. The nobles of Holland, and the magiſtrates of the cities, are ſubject to the juriſdiction of this court, and appeals from the judgments of the magiſtrates are decided by it.

The high council of Holland and Zealand is compoſed of a preſident and ſix counſellors for Holland, and three for Zealand, a regiſter, and a ſubſtitute. This court judges definitively in all caſes brought before them by an appeal from the court of Holland, and gives judgment from which there is no farther appeal, except by way of reviſion.

The ſenate of Amſterdam conſiſts of thirty-ſix members, part of whom have the direction of political affairs, and others the adminiſtration of juſtice. The dignity of a ſenator is for life, unleſs forfeited by mal-adminiſtration. The ſenate has the power of filling up vacancies, and directing all other affairs with a ſupreme and abſolute authority, independent of the people. They chooſe the burgomaſters and ſchepens, or aldermen, of every city. The firſt are always part of their own body, and in order to become a burgomaſter it is neceſſary that a perſon has borne the office of a ſchepen. There are twelve burgomaſters in Amſterdam, four of whom have the adminiſtration of affairs, and are from thence called regent-burgomaſters. Three of theſe are annually changed, and the fourth continues in office a ſecond year, to inſtruct the new-comers: he likewiſe preſides for the firſt quarter, and then gives place to his colleagues, who in the ſame manner preſide three months alternately, till the year is finiſhed.

The ſchepen, or aldermen, form the chief court of juſtice in every city. In Amſterdam there are nine, ſeven of whom are annually elected, and two remain a ſecond year. Theſe have the adminiſtration of juſtice both in civil and criminal affairs; but, before they condemn a perſon to ſuffer death, they always conſult the burgomaſters on the merits of the cauſe; but are not obliged to conform to their opinion, and ſometimes they give judgment contrary to it. There lies no appeal from their ſentence in criminal cauſes. Where the puniſhment is capital, not only the proof of the crime is required to be extremely evident, but the priſoner himſelf muſt confeſs it; for which purpoſe they employ the rack and other tortures; but this is never done except when the evidence is ſo ſtrong againſt the criminal as to leave no room to queſtion his guilt, whence it is ſaid, that an innocent perſon is never put to the rack.

There is another court inferior to the former, but worthy of being imitated by all Chriſtian nations, ſince it ſeems founded on the very ſpirit of Chriſtianity. This court conſiſts of eight or ten members, ſtiled peace-makers, who are generally young gentlemen of fortune, who muſt be houſe-keepers and married. Their buſineſs is to make up all quarrels, and to prevent or diſſuade people from going to law. They, with one experienced magiſtrate at their head, alſo take cognizance of civil cauſes amounting to a ſum not exceeding ſix hundred guilders, or about fifty-five pounds ſterling. Their method of proceeding is by way of citation: the creditor ſummons his debtor to appear, and, after the fact has been ſtated, and both ſides heard, the peace-makers determine what ought to be done, and order the parties to comply with it: but there lies an appeal from their deciſion to the ſchepens.

There is no where ſuch large credit given to all ſorts of perſons as in Holland, and there never was any country where ſo few languiſh in priſon. Whenever any perſon acquaints the magiſtrates of his inability to pay his creditors, and lays before them an exact account of his circumſtances, they immediately order the commiſſioners of bankrupts to take poſſeſſion of his effects, and exempt his perſon from all arreſts for ſix weeks, which time is allowed him to compound with his creditors. In the mean time his books are laid before the commiſſioners to be examined, and all letters directed to him are delivered to them before he peruſes them. If his endeavours to compound with his creditors prove ineffectual, and his failure appears to be owing to loſſes and misfortunes, the commiſſioners, when the ſix weeks are expired, ſell his effects, and make a dividend, after which the magiſtrates acquit and exempt him from all claim, whether foreign or domeſtic; nor is it in the power of any or of all his creditors to hinder this, when the failure is not fraudulent.

There is alſo another method of obtaining abſolute freedom in Holland ſtill more expeditious, which is for the debtor to apply to the provincial high court of juſtice, repreſenting his condition, and giving up all he has upon oath, after which he is exempted, as before, from all future claims, and may again engage in trade; but if the debtor here takes a falſe oath, the magiſtrates are authorized to puniſh him as they pleaſe, and even to ſentence him to ſuffer death.

Holland, with reſpect to its eccleſiaſtical eſtabliſhment, is divided into two parts, each of which has its particular ſynod. The ſynod of South Holland is compoſed of eleven claſſes, under which are three hundred and thirty-one miniſters: the ſynod of North Holland has only ſix claſſes, in which are two hundred and twenty miniſters. Beſides theſe miniſters of the eſtabliſhed church, there are aſſemblies of Engliſh Preſbyterians at Amſterdam, Rotterdam, Dort, Leyden, and Harlem; and at Amſterdam is an Engliſh epiſcopal church. The Remonſtrants amount to thirty congregations, and thirty-eight miniſters. The Lutherans compoſe nineteen congregations, and have twenty-ſeven preachers. The Roman catholics have about two hundred and fifty churches, and two hundred and thirty-five prieſts, among which are about forty churches and ſixty prieſts of Janſeniſt principles. At Amſterdam is alſo the metropolitan church of the Moravians; and alſo a Quakers meeting.

The principal cities in Holland are the following:

Dort, or Dordrecht, in Latin Dordracum, is ſeated on an iſland in the Merwe, that was formed in 1421 by a terrible inundation, which deſtroyed no leſs than ſeventy-two villages, and about a hundred thouſand perſons. This city ſtands fifteen miles to the eaſt of Rotterdam, and its ſituation is naturally ſo ſtrong, that, though deſtitute of fortifications, it has never yet been taken. The number of houſes in 1732 amounted to three thouſand nine hundred and fifty-four. It is the ſeat of the mintage for South Holland, and has a ſeminary. The harbour is very commodious, and its trade conſiderable, eſpecially in grain, Rheniſh, and other wines; as alſo in timber, which, in ſummer time, is brought from Germany down the Rhine and the Waal, and here ſawed in mills, of which there are great numbers about the city.

Harlem, Haarlem, or Haerlem, is ſituated on the river Sparin, which runs through it, and is the only paſſage for the many ſhips and other veſſels coming from Frieſland and other parts, in their way to the towns of Holland and Zealand. Harlem ſtands fourteen miles to the weſt of Amſterdam, and enjoys a communication with that city and Leyden, by means of two ſpacious canals. The houſes, which are neat brick buildings, in 1732

amounted to seven thousand nine hundred and sixty-three; but very few of them are built in the modern taste, or make an elegant appearance. There are in this city four Dutch Calvinist churches, one of French, one of Lutheran, and several mass-houses, the Papists being here much more numerous than the Protestants. Its manufactures of silk and linen, though still considerable, are greatly declined. The bleaching of thread and linen, for which this city is famous, employs a great number of hands. Once a most extravagant trade in flowers, particularly in tulips, was carried on here; but at present this passion, which was carried to a strange excess, is much abated.

The inhabitants attribute the invention of printing to Lawrence Coster of this city; on whose house, which stood in about the middle of the town, was a Latin inscription that he invented it about the year 1440: a statue was also erected to him on the same account; and in the town-house is kept in a silver case, wrapped up in silk, the first book that Coster printed. There is here an academy of sciences, founded in 1751.

In the year 1573 this city held out a famous siege against the Spaniards for ten months; during which the brave citizens were reduced to eat leather, and the vilest animals. They for a considerable time kept up a correspondence with the prince of Orange by carrier-pigeons, till the Spaniards discovering it, shot all the pigeons about the town. The citizens at last surrendered, on condition of being saved from plunder; but the Spaniards had the cruelty to punish the inhabitants for their bravery by a most inhuman massacre in cold blood. The garrison, which had consisted of four thousand men, was reduced to sixteen hundred, and of these they barbarously murdered nine hundred.

To the south of the town lie several beautiful seats, and a wood cut out into delightful walks and vistos.

Leyden, in Latin Lugdunum Batavorum, is seated on the Rhine, in the fifty-second degree fifteen minutes north latitude, and in the fourth degree ten minutes east longitude, and, next to Amsterdam, is the largest and finest city in all Holland. In 1732 the houses amounted to ten thousand eight hundred and ninety-one. The streets are long, broad, neat, and adorned with beautiful canals. Here are some fine churches belonging to the Dutch Calvinists, with a Lutheran, an English, a French, and a Mennonite meeting; as also several mass-houses, the Papists constituting the majority of the inhabitants. The university, founded in 1575 by William I. prince of Orange, is the largest and most antient in all the United Netherlands. Its library, besides a multitude of printed books, has two thousand Oriental manuscripts, many of which are in Arabic, and a large sphere adapted to the Copernican system, and moving by clock-work: it has also an anatomical theatre, an observatory, and a physic-garden. The celebrated cloth manufactures of this city are much decayed, the demand for them being greatly lessened. This city is famous for the long and severe siege it sustained in 1573 against the Spaniards, who encompassed it with seventy-two forts. This siege lasted above five months with such vigour, that the inhabitants were reduced to the greatest extremities, and above ten thousand of them perished: yet, considering the barbarous treatment Harlem met with, they resolved to hold out, and upon receiving a summons, answered, "They would never surrender, while they had one arm "to eat, and another to fight." At length they cut the main bank of the Maese and the Yssel. At first the water rose but slowly; but the wind soon changing to the north-west, turned the country round Leyden into a sea, by which means fifteen hundred Spaniards were drowned. The anniversary of this deliverance is observed on the third of October as a solemn day of thanksgiving, and after sermon the same siege is represented in a tragedy, the money arising from which is applied to charitable uses.

Amsterdam, or Armsteldam, is situated in the 52d degree 20 minutes north latitude, and in the 4th degree 90 minutes east longitude, at the influx of the Y and the Amstel, where is a sluice, by means of which that river continues its course through the town. This is one of the greatest trading towns in Europe, and though from the shallowness of the Pampus, the only passage leading to it out of the Zuyder sea, it might be thought but indifferently situated for commerce, as ships of burthen must be lightened in order to pass through it, and afterwards wait for an easterly or north-east wind, to go through the Marsdiep into the North Sea; yet the harbour is one of the largest and safest in Europe: and it has this advantage, that the other towns of the province can easily send their goods thither, and receive returns; and with a fair wind it is but a few hours passage to or from all the ports of North Holland, Friesland, Overyssel, and Guelderland. The ground is naturally marshy, and the buildings founded on oaken piles, which occasioned the facetious Erasmus to say, that in his country vast multitudes of people lived on the tops of trees. The middle of the town is intersected by a great number of navigable canals, which, while they conduce to the pleasantness and cleanliness of the place, are at the same time a great convenience to trade; but in hot and calm weather they emit fetid effluvia, which would be still worse, were not the water kept in continual motion by the working of two large water-mills, and one turned by horses. All the canals issue into the Y and the Amstel, and such as go far up into the town, being intersected by cross canals, have a communication with each other. These canals divide the town into a multitude of islands joined together by bridges, some of which are of stone and others of wood.

The city forms a semicircle on the Y, and is fortified on the land-side with ramparts and twenty-six regular bastions, and on that side the neighbouring country may be laid under water. On the side next the Y it is secured by a double row of piles driven into the river, projecting some feet above the surface; but in some places openings are left for ships to pass in and out, and in the night these openings are fenced with a boom. The piles extend in length no less than fifty thousand feet, and without them, in a place called the Laag, lie the large ships in such numbers, that their masts resemble a wood. In the intermediate spaces, between the town and the inner row of piles, are ranged innumerable small ships and barks.

The Amstel divides the town into two parts, and in 1732, when the houses were numbered, they were found to amount to twenty-six thousand eight hundred and thirty-five; but the inhabitants do not exceed two hundred thousand.

The gates of the city are very fine, particularly that of Harlem, which is adorned on each side with large columns, and a lion's head on the top of each; in the middle is the city's present arms, and on the frieze of the inside of the gate towards the town is the antient coat, which was a ship without a rudder. On each side of this gate is a guard-house, one for the burghers, and the other for the soldiers of the garrison, who are paid by the magistrates, and are under their command. There are four other principal gates; before which is a bridge of several arches, with draw-bridges, and another stone gate, that is shut every night. The bridge over the Amstel, which joins one side of the rampart to the other, consists of thirty-five arches, eleven of which are very high, and eight of them shut up; the rest of them being open for boats to go up and down the Amstel. This bridge is six hundred and sixty feet long, and seventy broad, with iron rails on each side.

Most of the streets are extremely clean; but, except those that have canals, they are much too narrow. They are, however, rendered less incommodious by the hired coaches being set on sledges drawn by one horse. Merchandise is also drawn on sledges, which are not only the most useful vehicles for the inhabitants and their trade, but are calculated to preserve the houses, which, from their being built on piles, might in time be damaged in their foundations, by having a great number of wheel-carriages. Gentlemen's coaches are, however, for the most part set on wheels; but for this liberty they pay a considerable tax. The principal streets, or rather quays of the canals, are agreeably planted on each side with trees. The houses are rather neat than elegant or commodious: the nature of the climate renders it necessary to wash them often; but the greatest part of the people carry this kind of cleanliness so far as hardly to afford themselves

themſelves time for the neceſſary care of their perſons. The entrance of their houſes is generally by ſteps, which riſe four or five feet from the ground, and the paſſage into the rooms, which runs very deep, is floored and pannelled with marble, which has an air of grandeur in miniature. They have much neat, and ſome rich furniture, which ſeems rather occaſioned by an antient cuſtom of neatneſs and elegance, than the effect of a luxurious and expenſive taſte.

Of all the buildings in Amſterdam the town-houſe is the moſt diſtinguiſhed. It is two hundred and eighty-two feet in front, two hundred and thirty-two deep, and a hundred and ſixteen high, excluſive of the cupola. It coſt three millions of guilders, or three hundred thouſand pounds ſterling, when money was more valuable than it is now, which will be leſs ſurpriſing, if we conſider that it is founded upon thirteen thouſand large piles. This is a very grand and uſeful building, and yet it is neither elegant nor agreeable. It contains the offices and tribunals for the execution of the laws in the ſeveral branches of the military, as well as civil government. It is very obſervable, that the entrance of this building is very mean; but had the doors been proportioned to the reſt of the edifice, they would have been more ſubject to be forced, upon occaſion of thoſe tumultuous aſſemblies of the people, that are not unfrequent in this country. The want of a large door ſuitable to the grandeur of the building is, according to Dr. Buſching, a deſigned omiſſion, the ſeven doors in number and uniformity repreſenting the ſeven provinces. The inſide is ſaid to be very beautifully ornamented with marble, jaſper, ſculpture, and paintings. In ſome of their vaults, or cellars, are kept the treaſures of the celebrated bank of Amſterdam; in others are confined criminals under ſentence of death, and others again ſerve as apartments for officers of ſeveral claſſes. In the upper part is an arſenal, as it is called, though it is rather a collection of old-faſhioned armour and weapons. The chimes of the tower are incomparable, and it commands a fine proſpect of the city and its environs as far as the Zuyder ſea. Among the other public buildings are the admiralty and Eaſt India-houſe, which are large and beautiful. On the harbour ſtands the arſenal and magazine for military ſtores both for ſea and land-ſervice. Among ſeveral things remarkable in this magazine is a reſervoir on the top of the houſe capable of containing ſixteen hundred tons of water, which, by means of leaden pipes, may be conveyed in caſe of fire to ſixteen different parts of the city. Near the arſenal is the dock, which is above five hundred feet long.

In Amſterdam are eleven churches of Dutch Calviniſts, two of which are parochial, with two of French, two of Engliſh, one of Arminians or Remonſtrants, two of Lutherans, and three of Mennonites. The Armenian Chriſtians have likewiſe a church here, but the Papiſts have a greater number of places of worſhip than all the above-mentioned ſects put together, and in particular have twenty-four maſs houſes that are very large. The ſynagogue of the Portugueſe Jews is a ſpacious and ſtately building of a quadrangular form, and the inſide is extremely neat. The other Jews have alſo their diſtinct ſynagogues. The number of poor-houſes is conſiderable; their incomes, and their conveniencies and cleanlineſs are worthy of admiration. Here is an hoſpital for aged men and women, conſiſting of ſeveral buildings; a new edifice for aged people of both ſexes; the diaconie for old women, which is the moſt ſtately ſtructure of them all, and in which old men alſo receive a comfortable ſupport; with a receptacle for lunatics, and ſeveral orphan-houſes, as the eleemoſinary-houſe, in which are frequently two thouſand children, the diaconie orphan-houſe, the burgher orphan-houſe, &c. There are alſo ſome houſes of correction, as the raſp-houſe, where felons raſp Brazil wood for three, four, ſeven, ten years, or for life, according to the nature of their crime. When they are incorrigible, and too lazy to work, they are often put for an hour or two into a dungeon where water comes in; ſo that they muſt be continually labouring at the pump, in order to avoid being drowned. Here are alſo ſpin-houſes, where proſtitutes, and other women of bad character, are kept to ſpinning. All theſe foundations, and the good police of the city, have ſuch an effect, that there are no beggars in the ſtreets. Here are officers who take up all vagabonds, and convey them directly to houſes provided for that purpoſe, where they are forced to work every man in his own buſineſs, in proportion to his ſtrength and ability. Here the poor who want work, and offer themſelves, are received. In Amſterdam and moſt of the conſiderable cities in Holland, is alſo a public office, where all poor travellers that can give any account of themſelves may go and take a loaf, a penny, and a paſſport, by virtue of which they are received gratis into the boats which carry paſſengers and goods from town to town.

They have alſo a charitable foundation, which is extremely remarkable. As perſons of all nations reſort to Amſterdam, many of whom have not much to ſpend, and the taverns are generally very dear, they have ſpacious edifices, where all poor ſtrangers of both ſexes who are obliged to make any ſtay in this city are received, neatly lodged, and have bed, board, and waſhing, for three days and nights, during which time, if any of them fall ſick, they are removed into a neighbouring hoſpital; but after the expiration of three days, they muſt remove from thence, and are not allowed to return for ſix weeks, on pain of being ſeverely puniſhed.

Amſterdam abounds in artificers and manufacturers. Beſides which, this city is alone in poſſeſſion of half the immenſe trade which the Dutch carry on to the Eaſt-Indies, and governs the whole. Its commerce with Spain and the Spaniſh Weſt-Indies is very great, nor is it leſs conſiderable to the Levant, Italy, and Portugal. Amſterdam alſo engroſſes almoſt the whole northern trade carried on by the Dutch to Norway, and the countries ſituated in the Baltic.

Rotterdam, a large and populous city, fourteen miles to the ſouth-eaſt of the Hague, in the fifty-ſecond degree ten minutes north latitude, and the fourth degree twenty-ſix minutes eaſt longitude. It is ſeated on the Merwe, which at this place receives the Rotter, after it has taken its courſe through the city. This river is very broad, and of a depth ſufficient to admit ſhips of tolerable burthen; but if they draw above fifteen feet water, they are obliged to take the way of Helvoetſluys to Rotterdam. The mouth of the Merwe lies five German miles to the weſt of Rotterdam, where it gradually becomes ſhallow by the gathering of the ſands. The canals within the town are ſo deep, that the largeſt ſhips come up and take in, or deliver their cargoes at the very doors of the warehouſes. Accordingly this city, next to Amſterdam, is the place of greateſt trade, eſpecially to England and Scotland.

In 1732, its houſes were computed at ſix thouſand ſix hundred and twenty-one. The fineſt ſtreet in Rotterdam is called the Haaring-ſliet; moſt of the houſes are noble ſtone buildings. The Boomties, or Boomquays ſtreet extends delightfully along the Maeſe, here called the Merwe, which is here near a mile and a half in breadth. It is upwards of half a mile long. It has a row of lofty trees, and the houſes reſemble palaces; on the other ſide runs the river, which has ſhips continually ſailing in or out, or lying at anchor. This is the place of general reſort for people of condition, to whom it ſerves as a mall.

The principal public buildings here are the bank, the Eaſt and Weſt-India-houſes, the arſenal, and the exchange. The firſt admiralty college of the United Provinces has its ſeat here, under the direction of twelve commiſſioners.

There are here four churches belonging to the Dutch, one of French, and one of Engliſh preſbyterians, with an Engliſh epiſcopal church, whoſe miniſter has a hundred pounds ſterling per annum from the king of Great-Britain, beſides ſurplice fees, ſaid to amount to two hundred pounds more; there are alſo a Scots and a Lutheran church, the laſt of which is new and handſome. The ſynagogue of the Portugueſe Jews is a very fine ſtructure, though not ſo magnificent as that in Amſterdam. Among other public buildings is the great bridge acroſs the Merwe, in the middle of which is a fine braſs ſtatue of the celebrated Eraſmus, who was a native of this city.

The

The Hague is a moſt beautiful place, ſituated in a very delightful country, ten miles north-weſt of Rotterdam; but, from its having neither gates nor walls, is called a village. It is, however, ſurrounded by a moat, bordered with a walk of lofty and ſhady trees, and at the avenues of the town is paſſed by means of drawbridges. The ſtreets are broad, ſeveral of them are without canals, and the houſes are, for the moſt part, extremely well built. The number of coaches belonging to the noblemen and gentlemen, and the gay appearance in point of dreſs, give a very different idea of life from that of the trading cities. People here are more polite and eaſy in their behaviour, than in other parts of Holland; the moſt conſiderable perſons in Europe meeting there, as well as the aſſembly of the States General, which alſo draws thither the greateſt part of the people of the firſt diſtinction in the United Provinces. Indeed, the Hague may be conſidered either as a great city, or as a rural ſcene, while, as it is cuſtomary in great cities, they have plays and other amuſements.

In 1732, the number of houſes were found to amount to ſix thouſand one hundred and ſixty-four, beſides the public edifices, and among the former are very large and regular buildings. There are alſo here ſeveral ſquares, which being planted with trees, and forming pleaſant walks, occaſion a great reſort of people. Beſides the States General, and thoſe of the provinces, which render it the reſidence of foreign ambaſſadors, envoys, and other foreign miniſters, here is the council of ſtate for the United Netherlands, the council of war, the general chamber of accompts, the general mint-chamber, the council of Brabant, and ſeveral others.

The old palace of the counts of Holland at preſent belongs to the ſtadtholders, and has been repaired with ſome very magnificent additions. In the center of the area between the buildings of this palace, is the great hall where the trophies of the republic in their many victories over various enemies are hung up. Within this building are not only the above colleges; but a number of bookſellers ſhops, and the church of the French Calviniſts. At the Hague are alſo three churches of Dutch Calviniſts, an Engliſh church, one belonging to the Lutherans, ſeveral maſs-houſes, and two Jewiſh ſynagogues, two alms-houſes, an houſe of correction, and an orphan-houſe. The canals are not kept with ſuch care as at Amſterdam and other places, on which account the air is thought to be leſs pure and healthy than in many other parts of Holland.

The environs of the Hague are extremely delightful; and in its neighbourhood is a fine pleaſure-garden, in imitation of that of Vaux-hall: on the eaſt ſide the town is bounded by beautiful meadows, to the ſouth by ſplendid ſeats, to the weſt by ſand-hills along the North Sea, on which ſide is a ſtraight avenue paved with brick, and a walk for paſſengers, planted with ſeveral rows of trees leading to the village of Scheveling, which is at two miles diſtance; and to the north is a delightful wood, in which the ſtadtholder has a ſeat known by the name of The Houſe in the Wood.

It will not be improper to mention here Broek, a large and handſome village of North Holland. The houſes are all built of boards; they ſeldom exceed one ſtory, and the roofs are tiled. The boards which form the outſide are painted according to every one's fancy, and this is ſo often done, that the houſes ſeem always new. The windows are generally faſhed and decorated with beautiful curtains. The inſide of the dwellings is not only neat, but embelliſhed beyond what can be eaſily imagined, and all who have the ſmalleſt piece of ground before their houſes, never fail to convert it into an agreeable garden, diverſified with gravel walks, ſhell-work, images, and little hedges, or painted rails. The village is watered by canals, which are kept with the greateſt care, and all the ſtreets paved with bricks, which in ſome places are diſpoſed in the form of flowers, and are frequently waſhed. That theſe ornaments may not be defaced, or their cleanlineſs interrupted, the ſtreets are deſignedly made too narrow for carriages to paſs through. The cattle, inſtead of being permitted into the village, are kept by the meaner ſort of peaſants, who dwell among the paſtures, and all paſſengers muſt put up at the inns without the village. Not only the wooden furniture in the houſes, but the very broomſticks are painted, as are alſo the gates and rails in the meadows. The inhabitants either trade or ſubſiſt on their fortunes, and among the latter are frequently many merchants, and tradeſmen of Amſterdam, who having acquired a plentiful fortune, retire here to enjoy it in tranquility.

There are likewiſe within the province of Holland ſeveral ſmall iſlands, that lie in the Zuyder ſea, and formerly joined to the continent. The inhabitants of theſe iſlands being from their childhood innured to that element, make excellent mariners.

The principal of theſe iſlands is the Texel, which has a fruitful ſoil, and many of the inhabitants breed ſheep, and beſides trading in wool, make with the milk a kind of green cheeſe, which is much admired. In the whole diſtrict are ſix villages, and on the eaſtern coaſt is a commodious road, ſtiled the Moſco-road, which is the rendezvous of the outward-bound India ſhips.

SECT. VI.

Of the Province of ZEALAND.

Its Situation, and the Manner in which the Iſlands of which this Province is compoſed are ſecured by Dykes. Of the Air, Climate, and Produce of the Country; with a conciſe Account of the States, and a Deſcription of the Cities of Middleburg, Fluſhing, &c.

ZEALAND or Zeeland entirely conſiſts of iſlands formed by the many outlets of the Scheld. On the eaſt it is bounded by Brabant, to the ſouthward by Flanders, to the weſtward by the North Sea, and on the north by Holland. The name of this province, which ſignifies Sea-land, ſufficiently points out its ſituation.

The iſlands of Walcheren and Schouwen, on the weſtern coaſt, are defended againſt the violence of the ſea by downs or ſand-hills; and on the other ſides, like the reſt of the iſlands of Zealand, by vaſt dykes, or banks, which at the bottom are twenty-five German ells broad, and at the top ſo wide that two carriages may paſs abreaſt. The height is alſo proportioned to their thickneſs; yet in high tides and ſtormy weather, the waves, in many places, ſometimes force a paſſage, or even flow over them. The firſt formation of theſe dykes muſt have been attended with immenſe labour and expence, ſince the very repair and maintenance of them require large ſums. The dykes of this province alone would form a length of forty miles, each mile reckoned at fourteen hundred rods, and ſuppoſing the expence of one rod with another was ſix Dutch guilders, the expence of the ſeveral outward dykes taken together amount to three hundred and forty thouſand pounds ſterling.

Though the inhabitants of the other provinces, as well as foreigners in general, complain that the air is here heavy, diſagreeable, and unhealthy; yet no people look better, or enjoy a more confirmed ſtate of health than the natives, who are bred up in the country.

The ſoil is fertile, and famed for its excellent wheat, and alſo for madder, the cultivation of which employs many of the inhabitants. It likewiſe abounds in fruit, and its rich paſtures are covered with flocks of fine ſheep. The water around the iſlands ſupply the people with plenty of fiſh, particularly with oyſters, lobſters, and muſcles of an uncommon ſize and goodneſs. But though Zealand enjoys plenty of all kinds of proviſions, fuel is very ſcarce, eſpecially turf, which being brought from the other provinces, bears a great price. They alſo uſe great quantities of Engliſh coals.

In the whole province are eleven cities, and a hundred and ten villages, ſome of which are very large. The inhabitants are ſaid to be the moſt wealthy in all the Netherlands, which is in a great meaſure owing to their trade by ſea, for which they have every convenience that can be deſired. Their numerous privateers alſo, in time of war, are ſuppoſed to have brought great riches into the country.

The ſtates of Zealand conſiſt of ſeven members, the preſident of which is the firſt nobleman of the province, and the other members or ſtates are the deputies of ſix voting towns, which are Middleburg, Zirkzee, Goes, Tholen, Fluſhing, and Veer. Zealand has two high courts of juſtice in common with Holland, of which we have already given an account. This province always ſends four deputies to the aſſembly of the States General, who hold their office during life, and are alternately choſen from among the magiſtrates of the ſeveral voting towns, only Middleburg always ſends one.

Middleburg, the capital of Walcheren, and of the whole province, is a large, handſome, rich, and ſtrong town, which ſtands nearly in the center of the iſland, to which ſituation it owes its name, and is ſeated in the fifty-firſt degree forty-ſeven minutes north latitude, and in the third degree forty-one minutes eaſt longitude. A canal a mile and a half in length affords this city a communication with the Weſt Scheld, and is capable of receiving the largeſt ſhips. Middleburg is fortified with a wall, ſtrengthened with thirteen baſtions. Here the ſtates of the province hold their meetings, as alſo the deputies who aſſemble in St. Nicholas's abbey. It is likewiſe the ſeat of the admiralty-college, the chamber of accompts, and the mint.

Here are ſeveral fine ſquares and ſtately public buildings, particularly the town-houſe, which is a noble pile, with a very high tower and clock, which laſt coſt a hundred and fifty thouſand guilders. It contains ſeven Calviniſt churches, with an academy, an Engliſh, French, Lutheran, Mennonite, and Popiſh church, and a Jewiſh ſynagogue. It is a place of great trade, particularly in wines. In 1574, after a ſiege of two years, it fell into the hands of William I. prince of Orange, and has ever ſince been in the poſſeſſion of the States. The high road from hence to Fluſhing is all the way beautifully planted with trees.

Fluſhing, in Dutch Vliſſingen, is a well fortified town at the mouth of the Hondt, or Weſtern Scheld, and defends not only the paſſage into that river, but alſo that to the other iſles of Zealand, and even into Flanders by ſea. It lies eight miles to the ſouth of Middleburg. Its harbour, which is large and ſecure, lies between two moles, or dykes, on the ſouth-eaſt of the iſle of Walcheren, and two canals. Its new harbour was formed at the general expence of the province in 1688, and is ſeventeen hundred Rheinland rods in length, with two hundred in breadth, and will admit, even up to the town, a fleet of eighty large men of war. To the right of the new haven, leading to the provincial baſon, is a large dock, to the weſtward of which lies the entrance into the old harbour, which is divided into two departments, and ſerves for merchant-ſhips. The ſea runs quite up to the other end of the town; ſo that loaded veſſels come up to the very doors of the merchants. The houſes are in general well built, and, beſides other fine ſtructures, the town-houſe is a magnificent and regular pile. In the town are three churches of Dutch Calviniſts, one of French, one of Engliſh, and one of Mennonites. In the year 1749 one of the churches, the prince's palace, and the naval ſtore-houſe, were deſtroyed by fire; but the firſt was ſoon rebuilt. This was one of the cautionary towns delivered up to queen Elizabeth by the States as a pledge of their fidelity, and as a ſecurity for the money that princeſs had expended in aſſiſting them againſt the Spaniards, and of which the celebrated Sir Philip Sidney was governor in 1585; but it was redeemed again in 1616, under the reign of king James I. for an inconſiderable ſum, much leſs than the money they ſtood indebted to England.

With reſpect to the other iſlands, South Beveland is both the largeſt and moſt pleaſant, containing the town of Goes, and a conſiderable number of villages. North Beveland was once indeed the moſt pleaſant and fertile country of all Zealand; but in 1530 and 1532 it ſuffered ſuch a terrible inundation, that great numbers of people and cattle periſhed, and nothing was to be ſeen on the whole iſland but one ſteeple, which roſe above the ſurface of the water. But about a century after, the ground being raiſed by the continual increaſe of the mud, the iſland was dyked in and cultivated, and at preſent contains a ſmall town and ſeveral villages. The iſland of Shouwen has the town of Zirkſee, which has a ſeat and vote in the ſtates of the province; with a ſmall town and ſome villages. There are alſo the iſlands of Duiveland and Ter Tholen, in which there are ſeveral villages, and in the latter alſo a town of the ſame name with the iſland.

SECT. VII.

Of the Province of UTRECHT.

Its Situation and Produce: the Number of its Cities, Towns, and Villages: the States of the Country, and its eccleſiaſtical Government; with a Deſcription of the Cities of Utrecht and Amersfort.

THE province of Utrecht, excepting in one ſmall ſlip of land to the northward, which borders on the Zuyder-ſea, is wholly environed by Holland and Guelderland. It extends about thirty-two miles from the ſouth-eaſt to the north-weſt, and twenty-two from the ſouth-weſt to the north-eaſt. This country enjoys a good air, and in moſt parts the ſoil is very fruitful. Indeed to the eaſtward, near the borders of the Veluwe, it conſiſts either of ſandy hills or ſmall eminences, which are in general covered with trees; but in ſome places contains ſpots of indifferent paſture-ground. On the ſouth ſide, between the hilly part and the river Lek, it has good arable land, and to the weſtward the country perfectly reſembles Holland; it chiefly conſiſting of rich meadows, though there are many ſpots of turf grounds.

In the province of Utrecht are five cities, and ſixty-five towns and villages. Its ſtates are compoſed of the clergy, the nobility, and the towns: indeed the former are merely nominal, and conſiſt of nobles and citizens of the Calviniſt religion, and not of eccleſiaſtics. They are, however, elected from the chapters of the five churches at Utrecht, and ſtill in the aſſembly of the ſtates repreſent the antient clergy of the country. The college of the deputies of this province conſiſts of twelve members, each claſs of the ſtates ſending four. The chamber of accompts is under the direction of four commiſſioners, and the provincial court of juſtice is compoſed of a preſident, ſix ordinary and three extraordinary aſſeſſors.

The Calviniſt congregations of this province have ſeventy-nine miniſters, who hold a ſynod once a year at Utrecht. The Papiſts have above thirty churches in this province, under forty-five prieſts; the Lutherans two congregations and three miniſters; the Remonſtrants the ſame number; and the Baptiſts two.

The province of Utrecht is divided into four quarters, and has five cities, which have a vote in the ſtates of the province; the principal of which are the following:

Utrecht, in Latin Ultrajectum, the capital of the province, ſtands in a delightful corn country, in the fifty-ſecond degree ten minutes north latitude, and in the fifth degree ſeven minutes eaſt longitude. It is ſituated on the river Rhine, which here divides itſelf into two branches, called the Old and New Rhine, both of which traverſe the city through its whole length, after which they unite again. This city is pretty large, it being about an hour and an half's walk in circuit, and is alſo very populous, though it has no other defence than a wall on the old canal. The inhabitants chiefly conſiſt of traders and artificers; but along the new canal are large and handſome houſes inhabited by gentlemen.

Among the ſeven churches belonging to the Dutch Calviniſts, the principal is the cathedral, which is dedicated to St. Martin, and ſtands in the center of the city; but only conſiſts of the choir, the greateſt part of the old cathedral being deſtroyed by a terrible ſtorm in 1674, ſince which the tower has always remained ſeparate from the body of the church. The chapter belonging to this cathedral is compoſed of forty members, who purchaſe their places, for which they generally pay between ſix and ſeven thouſand guilders. The other chapter churches in this city are the Old Minſter, or that of St. Salvator, St. Mary's, St. Peter's, and St. John's. In the firſt of theſe a part has been partitioned off, as a place of worſhip for the Engliſh who reſide here, though they are not

very numerous. Over the church is a muſeum, which contains a variety of curioſities and antiques. St. Peter's church has been aſſigned to the French Calviniſts, who conſtitute a numerous congregation. The Lutherans, the Remonſtrants, and the Mennonites, have each of them a church, while the Papiſts meet in houſes of which they have ſeveral appropriated for that purpoſe. In this city alſo reſides the chief of the Janſeniſts in the Netherlands, who ſtiles himſelf archbiſhop of Utrecht, and is elected by the nominal chapter, which, including the dean, conſiſts of eight canons. The ſtates of the province meet in a building called the States chamber, which is alſo the ſeat of the other provincial colleges. In the German-houſe reſides the commander of the Teutonic order; here is alſo a celebrated univerſity, which is dependent only on the city magiſtracy, and not on the whole province. Its phyſic-garden is particularly curious, and for the recreation of the ſtudents, on the eaſt ſide of the city, juſt without the gate, is a beautiful mall, conſiſting of ſeven ſtraight walks, two thouſand paces in length, regularly planted with limes; but that in the middle is properly the mall.

In this city the memorable union was formed between the Seven United Provinces, in the year 1579. In 1672 the French took this city without the leaſt reſiſtance, and in 1712 a congreſs of plenipotentiaries was opened here from all the ſtates in Europe, which, within two years, terminated in a general peace.

Amersfort, or Amersfoort, is ſituated fourteen miles to the north-eaſt of Utrecht, on the river Ems, which has its riſe in theſe parts from the confluence of ſeveral rivulets, and firſt receives that name here, where it becomes navigable. It is a ſtrong town ſituated at the foot of a hill, in a pleaſant and fertile country. The buildings, particularly thoſe of the Old Town, are very neat. It has three churches, one of which is a large and ſtately ſtructure. The hoſpitals of Amersfort reſemble thoſe of the larger cities, and here is a public ſchool, where ſeveral perſons of eminence have had their education. At this port are ſhipped all the goods brought out of Germany by the Heſſian waggons, and conſigned to Amſterdam. Its new erected manufactures of dimity and bombazines are in a thriving way. It formerly ſuffered much from the inhabitants of Guelderland, who took it in 1543, and in 1629 this city was alſo taken by the Spaniards, who afterwards quitted it.

SECT. VIII.

The Province of FRIESLAND.

Its Situation, Extent, and Produce: the Manner in which the antient Inhabitants eſcaped from the Inundations occaſioned by the breaking of the Dykes: their Language, Religions, and Government; with a Deſcription of Lewarden, Franeker, and Harlingen.

FRIESLAND, in Latin Friſia, is thus called from the antient Friſians, a martial people, who are ſaid to derive their name from Friſſen, to dig, they having recovered this country from the ſea and rivers by digging, or caſting up dykes. This country is bounded on the eaſt by the river Lawers, which parts it from Groningen; on the ſouth by Overyſſel; on the weſt by the Zuyder-ſea; and on the north by the German or North ſea. Its greateſt extent from north to ſouth is thirty-ſeven miles, and from eaſt to weſt thirty-two.

The air and ſoil of this province very nearly reſemble thoſe of Holland, eſpecially in the north-weſt parts, which lie lower than the ſea, and are particularly remarkable for their fine paſtures, among which are excellent oxen, cows, and ſheep, with numerous breeds of large horſes, many of which are exported to Germany and other countries. In the more elevated parts are good corn lands, and the wheat produced in them is particularly eſteemed for the fineneſs of the ears and the whiteneſs of its flour. The Frieſland peas have alſo an agreeableneſs in their taſte ſuperior to moſt others. Here is likewiſe a great deal of turf ground; but the turf is inferior to that of Holland.

The inhabitants along the ſea-coaſt are under the neceſſity of ſecuring themſelves by means of dykes, at a vaſt expence. Formerly, when the care of theſe dykes was only the concern of the proprietors of particular eſtates, they were very low, and frequently ſuffered to fall to decay; whence they became unable to withſtand the impetuoſity of the waves, eſpecially when driven by a ſtrong north-weſterly wind. By theſe breaches the country was laid under water, and great numbers of people, as well as cattle, periſhed. To preſerve themſelves from theſe calamities, the inhabitants raiſed ſeveral eminences from twenty to twenty-five feet high, and of conſiderable circumference, to which, if not prevented by the rapidity of the inundation, they betook themſelves, with their cattle and houſhold-furniture, and there remained till the flood had ſubſided.

Frieſland may vie with Holland in the number of canals with which it is in all parts intercepted. In the whole province are eleven towns, and three hundred and thirty-ſix villages.

The inhabitants ſtill retain that ſtrong paſſion for liberty which diſtinguiſhed their anceſtors, together with their cuſtoms and manner of living, even to the antient Friſian dialect and accent, which renders the language of the country people unintelligible to the other Netherlanders. Frieſland is famed for its woollen ſtuffs; but more eſpecially for its linen, which is the fineſt in Europe, the price of the beſt ſort being at prime coſt no leſs than twelve Holland guilders an ell.

The majority of the inhabitants are Calviniſts; there are alſo many Papiſts, and a ſtill greater number of Mennonites; which is the leſs to be wondered at, as Menno Simon, from whom they derived their name, was born at Witmarſum, and firſt propagated his doctrines in this province. Theſe Mennonites form fifty-eight congregations, under the direction of a hundred and fifty-two paſtors: the Papiſts have twenty-four congregations, and thirty-one prieſts: the Lutherans have only two congregations, and three miniſters; and the Remonſtrants have no more than one; but the Collegiants have ſeveral colleges.

The whole province is divided into three quarters, namely, Oſtergo, Weſtergo, and Zevenwolde, each of which is again ſubdivided in grietenyes, or prefecturates. Each of theſe prefecturates annually chooſes two deputies, one of which is a nobleman, and the other a wealthy freeholder, diſtinguiſhed by his abilities and his virtue. The number of theſe prefecturates being thirty, Frieſland has of courſe ſixty deputies, who are diſtinguiſhed according to the three quarters. Eleven towns alſo ſend two deputies each to the aſſembly of the ſtates, which is thus compoſed of eighty-two perſons, who are annually elected.

The college of the deputy ſtates conſiſts of nine perſons, ſix from the prefecturates, and three from the towns. This college puts in execution the reſolutions of the ſtates with reſpect to civil and military affairs, as alſo thoſe relating to the provincial revenues, the diſpoſal of employments, and the like. The provincial court of juſtice is compoſed of twelve aſſeſſors, aſſiſted by an attorney-general and a ſecretary. This court alone takes cognizance of criminal cauſes; but in civil, the firſt hearing is in the courts of the prefecturates and towns.

With reſpect to its eccleſiaſtical eſtabliſhment, Frieſland is divided into ſix claſſes, under which are two hundred and ſeven miniſters. Each claſs annually ſends two miniſters and the like number of elders to the ſynod, which is held eight days after Eaſter.

The principal places in this province are the following:

Lewarden, or Leeuwarden, the capital of the province, ſtands about ſixty miles to the north-eaſt of Amſterdam, and is a rich, populous, and ſtrong town, the ſeat of its chief colleges, as alſo of the mint, and the reſidence of the principal nobility of Frieſland, whence its buildings, as well public as private, are very magnificent. It has ſeveral canals which run through the ſtreets, and are of great advantage to the trade of the inhabitants, which is very conſiderable, eſpecially as theſe canals are continued not only to the ſea, but to the moſt conſiderable towns in the province. The fortifications of this city are however

ever neglected. While Friesland enjoyed its own stadtholders, they resided in the Prinzenhof, in this city, which gave it an air of splendor and dignity; but they lost this honour in the year 1747, when William IV. was declared hereditary stadtholder of all the United Netherlands. The town-house is a noble structure begun in 1715. The Dutch Calvinists have here three churches, and in that of St. James, which is also called the Great Church, is the vault of the stadtholder's family. The French Calvinists have one church here, the Lutherans one, the Mennonites three, the Papists several, and the Jews a synagogue. Formerly a bay extended from the North Sea to this city, and was so large, as to be called the Middle Sea; but it being gradually dried up, the ground has been cultivated and built upon.

Without the city lies Marienburg, a palace belonging to the house of Nassau Orange.

Twelve miles to the west of Lewarden lies Franeker, which is situated on a canal, but is neither large nor fortified, though endowed with an university founded by count Lewis of Nassau. The halls of this university are in a building which formerly served as a convent to the fraternity of the Cross, and has a physic-garden belonging to it. There was here an antient castle, which falling to ruin, was lately pulled down. Here is also a good grammar-school, and an orphan-house. St. Martin's church is a fine building, with a handsome steeple.

Harlingen is, next to Lewarden, the largest and most populous town in all Friesland. It is situated on the sea, or rather on the Flie-water, and has a commodious harbour, with a depth of water sufficient for ships of the greatest burthen; but the entrance being obstructed by the gathering of the sands, part of the lading must be taken out before they can come in. It is pretty well fortified on the land-side, and, in case of necessity, the inhabitants can lay the whole country under water. To the west it is guarded against the invasions of the sea by dykes of prodigious strength. The Calvinist Dutch have two churches; but the wealthiest part of the inhabitants are Mennonites. Here are also some Lutherans and Papists. In 1580, the States made themselves masters of the town, and raised a strong castle here, which at that time stood close to the sea-shore.

SECT. IX.

Of the Province of OVERYSSEL.

Its Situation, Produce, Civil and Ecclesiastical Government; with a Description of its principal Towns, viz. Deventer, Campen, and Zwol.

THE province of Overyssel, or Overissel, is bounded on the north by Friesland and Drenthe; to the east by the county of Bentheim, and the bishopric of Munster; to the southward by Guelderland; and on the west by the Zuyder Sea. Its name shews that it is on the other side, or beyond the Yssel, or Issel, with respect to those provinces that lie to the west of that river, as Holland and Utrecht.

The soil is for the most part marshy, yielding only turf; but along the Yssel is very good corn-land, with several pastures, though these have not the richness of the pastures in other countries; but instead of being the property of particular persons, they belong in common to the inhabitants of the nearest villages; however, the meadows along the rivers have excellent grass. The ground is in most parts low and level, except a ridge of small hills, which run near the center of the province from south to north. It is also a fine sporting country.

The province of Overyssel is, from the nature of its soil, not so well cultivated and inhabited as some of the other provinces, and therefore has only sixteen towns, with eighty villages, all which are ranged under three divisions, named Salland, Twenthe, and Vollenhoven.

Its states consist of the nobility and the towns, both of which have an equal weight in the public deliberations. The nobility are more numerous than in any other province, and a nobleman, in order to be admitted to the assembly of this class, must not only prove his descent, and that he is of the Calvinist religion; but that he is upwards of twenty years of age, and in his district has an estate qualifying him to be summoned to the assembly, that is, of twenty-five thousand guilders. Any nobleman likewise who is in the army, and is possessed of these qualifications, is capable of being a member of the regency, provided he be not below the rank of captain; but when military affairs come under consideration, he must quit the assembly. The towns which send representatives to the states are Deventer, Campen, and Zwol, where the states alternately hold their annual meetings.

In this province is a college that may be considered as a chamber of state, or rather of finances, and is composed of six members, three of whom are appointed by the nobility, and three by the towns. It has likewise a chamber of accounts, and a chancery. In juridical affairs the three principal towns determine in the dernier resort; where, as from the sentences of the country courts, appeals may be brought before a higher tribunal, called the claringe, only held at Deventer, and before it the nobility and gentry have their first hearing. It is composed of the nobles and other persons elected by the three towns, who have a president at their head. This province sends five representatives to the States General, that is, two from the nobility, and one from each of the three towns.

The national clergy, consisting of eighty-four ministers, are divided into four classes, and each class sends three ministers and one elder to the annual synods. The Papists of this province are possessed of twenty-seven churches, and have thirty priests; the Baptists have sixteen, and thirty-five ministers; and the Lutherans three, and the like number of ministers.

The three great towns of the province that send deputies to the assemblies of the States, are the following:

Deventer, in Latin Daventria, is situated in a fertile pleasant country on the banks of the Yssel, and is the capital of the Salland quarter. It stands in the fifty-second degree twenty-five minutes north latitude, and in the sixth degree five minutes east longitude. Deventer is encompassed by a good wall, strengthened by eight bastions, some ravelins and outworks. It is not very large in circuit; but is close built, populous, and enjoys a very good trade. Here are three churches of Dutch Calvinists, one of French Calvinists, one of Lutherans, a meeting of Mennonites, and a mass-house. A gymnasium illustre was founded by the states of the province about the beginning of the seventeenth century. It was antiently a free imperial Hanse town, and has still the right of coining both gold and silver. The inhabitants at present brew excellent beer, of which great quantities are exported, and the Deventer cakes are celebrated all over these provinces. In 1589, the Spaniards made themselves masters of the town by treachery; but it was recovered by prince Maurice in 1591. In 1672, the French having reduced it without much opposition, conferred it on the bishop of Munster, whose troops kept possession of it till 1674.

Campen, a large city and port, is seated on the river Yssel, which a little before it discharges itself into the Zuyder-sea, is divided into several branches, the two principal of which form an island called Campen. The wooden bridge over the Yssel is a curious structure, it being seven hundred and twenty-three feet in length, and twenty broad: it is founded on piles; but the piers are at such a distance from each other, that it seems suspended in the air. It was formerly defended by a small fort on the other side of the river; but in 1673, that fort was destroyed by the troops of Munster. Though, according to the modern taste in fortification, this town must not be classed among the fortresses, yet on any emergency, it is able to lay the adjacent country under water. It is much smaller than Deventer, and not so compactly built; but carries on a small trade, and was one of the Hanse towns; it has also the right of coining gold and silver.

There are here three churches belonging to the Dutch Calvinists, in one of which the French Protestants are also permitted to assemble. The Mennonites, Papists, and Lutherans, are indulged in the free exercise of their religion. In 1672, the troops of France and Munster, having

having made themſelves maſters of this town, committed great outrages.

The laſt town we ſhall deſcribe in this province is Zwol, which is ſeated in a pleaſant country on the Aa, which here takes the name of the Black-water. It is ſeated at about an hour's diſtance from the Yſſel, and ſomewhat farther from the Vecht; but has a communication with the latter by means of a canal called the New-Vecht. The Black-water being deep enough for ſhips of burthen, affords the town a communication with the Zuyder-ſea, whence it is the handſomeſt and moſt wealthy place in all Overyſſel. The north part is not only watered by the Aa, but interſected by two canals, and on the outſide of two of the gates are very handſome ſuburbs. It is a very ſtrong place, it being environed both with a wall and a rampart, ſtrengthened by large and good baſtions, with ſeveral outworks, among which are three forts to the ſouth-weſt, which have a communication with each other, and with the town, by means of ſtrong lines. The Dutch Calviniſts have here three churches, beſides which there is a French congregation of the ſame perſuaſion. The Papiſts meet in four maſs-houſes; the Mennonites are likewiſe very numerous; but there are few Lutherans. Zwol was antiently a free imperial Hanſe town, and ſtill poſſeſſes the privilege of coining. In 1672, it was taken by the biſhop of Munſter, who kept poſſeſſion of it till the year 1674.

SECT. X.

Of the Province of GRONINGEN.

Its Situation, Produce, and Rivers: its Civil and Eccleſiaſtical Government, with a Deſcription of the City of Groningen.

GRONINGEN, or Groeningen, is bounded on the north by the German ocean, on the eaſt by the biſhopric of Munſter, and the principality of Eaſt Frieſland, on the ſouth by the territory of Drenthe, and on the weſt by the little river Lawers, which ſeparates it from Frieſland.

In its air and ſoil it nearly reſembles the contiguous province of Frieſland. The land for the moſt part lies low, and abounds in fine paſtures, whence grazing is one of the principal employments of its inhabitants, and it has alſo ſome corn-land. The turf here is neither ſo good, nor in ſuch plenty as in Frieſland. On the ſouth ſide of the province towards Drenthe, the ground conſiſts of heaths and ſands, interſperſed with foreſts. Between its north-eaſt ſide and Eaſt Frieſland, the German ocean forms a large bay called the Dollert, which has a communication with the North Sea by means of the mouth of the Ems.

The principal river in this province is the Hunſe, which is formed out of ſeveral ſtreams, all which unite in the town of Groningen: in that city alſo riſes the Fivel, which winding to the north-weſt, falls into the Ems. This province, like Frieſland, is every where interſected with canals and dykes for carrying off the ſuperfluous water.

It contains only three towns; but its villages amount to one hundred and ſixty-five. The ſtates conſiſts of the town of Groningen, and the Ommeland or circumjacent country; of the latter ſome are elected by the nobility, and others by the peaſants; but by way of qualification, they muſt be poſſeſſed of land within the province to a certain value. The city of Groningen is the only place where the ſtates hold their meetings, and the time of their aſſembling is generally in the month of February. Here is alſo the college of the ſtates deputies, which is compoſed of eight perſons, that is, four as repreſentatives of Groningen, and the like number from the Ommelands. Theſe execute the reſolutions of the ſtates. The chamber of accounts conſiſts of ſix perſons, and Groningen ſends ſix deputies to the States General.

The miniſters of the eſtabliſhed church, who amount to one hundred and ſixty-one, are divided into ſeven claſſes, and the ſynod meets annually at the beginning of May, one year at Groningen, and the next at Appingedam, and ſo on to five other towns, each of which belongs to a particular claſs. To this ſynod every claſs ſends three miniſters, with a certain number of elders. The Roman catholics in this province are poſſeſſed of about ten churches, under the direction of thirteen prieſts; the Baptiſts have twenty-ſeven churches, and ſixty-one miniſters; the Lutherans have three churches, and ſixty-one miniſters; and the Collegiants, two colleges in the town of Groningen.

This province is divided into two parts, the city of Groningen and its precincts.

Groningen, or Groeningen, the capital of the province, is ſituated in the fifty-third degree twenty-eight minutes north latitude, and in the ſixth degree thirty-one minutes eaſt longitude, at the confluence of ſeveral rivulets, out of which are formed the Hunſe and Fivel. The former of theſe ſtreams admits large ſhips from the ſea quite up to the city, and is of courſe of great convenience to its commerce. Its extent was formerly inconſiderable, till in 1613 it enlarged itſelf towards the weſt and north, and its ramparts were repaired with the addition of ſeventeen baſtions and a good counterſcarp; but though theſe fortifications uſed to be carefully ſurveyed every year by deputies from the college of the ſtates, yet they are now ſuffered to run to ruin. However, at about a quarter of an hour's diſtance from the town, has been erected a modern work in the form of a line, which is kept in a defenſible ſtate.

Groningen is the place where all the great provincial colleges aſſemble, and is conſequently the reſidence of the richeſt and moſt eminent families both among the nobles and commons. It contains three churches of Dutch Calviniſts, beſides the univerſity church, in which the ſermons are preached in Latin by the profeſſors of divinity. Among theſe the principal church is that of St. Martin, which is a fine ſtructure, at one end of the great market, with a high tower. St. Mary's church ſtands at the end of the fiſh market, and has alſo a very high tower, and harmonious chimes. The Lutherans are alſo poſſeſſed of one church, the Mennonites of two, and the Roman catholics of five. Here are three market-places, the largeſt of which is the ox market, ſurrounded with fine buildings; and among theſe are the town-houſe, exchange, and weigh-houſe. In the three market-places terminate ſeventeen ſtreets, ſix of which extend in a ſtraight line to the like number of gates, and there are twenty-ſeven ſpacious ſtreets in all. Moſt of the houſes have pleaſant gardens with fruit-trees. The prince's palace is on the north ſide of the city, and is adorned with pictures of all the princes of Orange and counts of Naſſau. The univerſity has profeſſors in all the ſciences, and in their library is a well-atteſted inſcription that a ſoldier lived there ſixteen days after receiving a wound in the right ventricle of the heart. They have alſo a public ſchool for the languages, with ſeven maſters, who have each a houſe and a handſome ſalary.

This city has often been taken; but in 1672 the inhabitants made ſuch a brave reſiſtance againſt the biſhop of Munſter, that after the loſs of ten thouſand men that prelate was at laſt obliged to raiſe the ſiege. We have now gone through the Seven United Provinces, and have only to conſider the countries dependent on them.

SECT. XI.

Of the County of DRENTHE, *or* DRENT.

Its Situation, Produce, Towns, and Villages; with its civil and eccleſiaſtical Government, and a Deſcription of the Town of Coverden.

THE country of Drenthe, or Drent, borders to the northward on the province of Groningen; to the eaſtward on the ſame province and the biſhopric of Munſter; to the ſouthward on Bentheim and Overyſſel; and to the weſtward on Frieſland.

The ground here is viſibly higher than in Frieſland and Groningen, it bearing a nearer reſemblance to that of Overyſſel. The more elevated parts are woody, but along the rivers it affords good paſturage. Its moſt com-

mon grain is rye, and a few places alſo produce wheat. With reſpect to the harveſt of the latter, a ſingular cuſtom prevails, that it muſt every where be begun on a certain day, which is proclaimed by tolling the bells in all the villages, and one ſtated day it muſt likewiſe be every where concluded. The ſouthern parts are overrun with marſhes.

The places in this country are, two market-towns, thirty-ſeven villages, one fortreſs, and two forts. The ſtates conſiſt of the nobles and freeholders; but every nobleman belonging to them muſt be poſſeſſed of an eſtate ſufficient to qualify him to ſit and vote, and there being only eighteen ſuch eſtates, the legiſlative part of the nobility amount only to that number. There are alſo thirty-ſix freeholders, who are annually elected by thoſe villages that have a right of voting. The ordinary aſſembly of the ſtates every year is held at Aſſen towards the beginning of March. The preſident of this aſſembly is the intendant of the country, and is always nominated by the hereditary ſtadtholder.

This country was formerly a county of the German empire. But it threw off the yoke of Philip II. king of Spain, and became a free ſtate; yet probably on account of its ſmallneſs was never able to obtain the privilege of ſending a repreſentative to the States General, it being only under their protection, and to every hundred florins raiſed by the Seven United Provinces it pays only one.

Beſides the above aſſembly of the ſtates, here is another college compoſed of the intendant and four deputies, two from among the nobles, and two from the freeholders. This college meets eight times a year to execute the reſolutions of the States, and on theſe occaſions has two more members added to it, one out of the nobility, and the other from among the freeholders. The ſupreme court of juſtice here conſiſts of an intendant, an aſſeſſor, and twenty-four counſellors, who decide without appeal.

The clergy are divided into three claſſes, under the direction of forty miniſters. Each claſs ſends a determinate number of miniſters and elders to the ſynod, which is always held at Aſſen in November; but has no connection with the ſynod of the Seven United Provinces. The principal places in the county of Drenthe are the following:

Aſſen, the capital of the county, is ſituated nearly in its center, on the rivulet of Hoorendiep, and is well built.

Coeverden, or Covorden, a ſtrong fortreſs near the frontiers of the county of Bentheim, and ſtrengthened with ſeven baſtions, that take their names from the Seven United Provinces, and likewiſe with the ſame number of half-moons and ravelins, together with a counterſcarp; beſides which there is a citadel diſtinct from the town, fortified with five baſtions. Theſe works are kept in repair at the expence of the States General. The fortreſs itſelf ſtands on a ſandy ground; but is on all ſides environed by a moraſs, which terminates on the out-works. A ſmall quantity of rain lays all this moraſs ſo effectually under water, that the place immediately becomes inacceſſible. Its ſtrength has procured it the name of the key to Overyſſel, Frieſland, and Groningen.

In the year 1592 it was ſeized by prince Maurice for the States, and immediately fortified in the beſt manner; and in 1607 count William Lewis of Naſſau-Dietz put it into ſo good a ſtate of defence, that it was thought impregnable; but ſome of the governors permitting the inhabitants to drain and incloſe the adjacent lands, and convert them into fields and meadows, this overſight, with the want of artillery and military ſtores, occaſioned its being taken by the biſhop of Munſter, after a very ſhort ſiege, in 1672, though not without a ſtout reſiſtance: however, on the laſt day of the ſame year the States recovered it by ſurprize.

SECT. XII.

Of the Generalité Lands, including Dutch Brabant; their Government, and the Religions of the Inhabitants; with a Deſcription of the Cities of Bois le Duc, Breda, Bergen-op-Zoom, Maeſtricht, and Sluys, in Flanders.

BY the Generalité Lands is meant that part of the Netherlands that has been ſubdued by the Seven United Provinces, by their joint arms, and ſolemnly ceded to them by treaties and conventions. The nobility and towns of theſe countries, particularly thoſe of Brabant, have frequently ſought to become members of the ſtate, and to be allowed to vote as a diſtinct province in the aſſemblies of the States General; but this has as often been denied them. They, however, retain all the privileges they enjoyed when they fell under the power of the republic. The hereditary ſtadtholder of the United Provinces is governor-general over all theſe countries; and the States General, probably from a principle of œconomy, never appoint particular governors to any particular province. They have indeed governors of fortreſſes, but their power is limited to the ſoldiers. The States General and the council of ſtate annually ſend ſome of their members to execute all affairs of importance, who, at their return, lay an account of their proceedings before the aſſembly.

Juſtice is here adminiſtered by ſeveral colleges; firſt by the court of Brabant, under whoſe cognizance is that part of Limburg which belongs to the States, and this college holds its ſeſſions at the Hague: the ſecond is the Flanders court, which meets at Middleburg; and the third the court of the upper quarter of Guelderland, which has its ſeat at Venlo.

The eſtabliſhed religion in theſe countries is the Calviniſt; but the Catholics, being much more numerous, are permitted an entire freedom in public worſhip, except in proceſſions and other public ſolemnities.

The Generalité Lands conſiſt firſt of a part of Brabant. This diſtrict contains the whole quarter of Bois le Duc, and a ſmall part of the Antwerp quarter, it bordering towards the north on Guelderland and Holland; to the eaſtward on the dutchy of Cleve and the upper quarter of Guelderland; to the ſouthward on the biſhopric of Liege and Auſtrian Brabant; and to the weſtward on Dutch Flanders and Zealand.

The court for Brabant, which is the high tribunal for this country, and likewiſe of that beyond the Maeſe, meets at the Hague, and conſiſts of a preſident and eight aſſeſſors, with ſeveral officers for various caſes, as thoſe for widows, orphans, and other deſtitute perſons. It is inveſted with an unlimited power, and grants patents, privileges, favours, and pardons; confers honours, naturalizations, &c.

The ſoil of Bois le Duc is ſandy, and for the moſt part naturally barren; but by the indefatigable induſtry of the inhabitants is brought to yield good pulſe, rye, and buckwheat, with oats and flax, though it affords little or no wheat and barley. It has alſo good fruit, and plenty of poultry and wild-fowl. The inhabitants are very fond of field ſports, eſpecially of falconry, and moſt of the falconers of the European princes are of this country.

The principal city in the quarter of Bois le Duc is the city of the ſame name, called in Latin Silva Ducis: it is ſituated in the fifty-firſt degree thirty-ſix minutes north latitude, and in the fifth degree twenty-five minutes eaſt longitude, at the confluence of the rivers Dommel and Aa, which, after their junction, are called the Dieſt. At about an hour's diſtance from hence, this river loſes itſelf in the Maeſe. Formerly Bois le Duc was ſurrounded by a deep moraſs; but ſome parts of this moraſs becoming dry, rendered it neceſſary to ſtrengthen the works towards theſe acceſſible places. It was alſo defended on the north-weſt ſide by a citadel, on the ſouth by two forts, and on the north ſide by a ſmall fort. The city is pretty large, and interſected by many canals; it has three churches belonging to the Dutch Calviniſts, with one of French, one of Lutherans, and ten maſs-houſes; the majority of the people being of the Romiſh religion. The trade and ſhipping of Bois le Duc are conſiderable. It was firſt founded in 1184 by Godfrey III. duke of Brabant, who cauſed a wood here to be cleared and uſed in building the houſes, and to this circumſtance it owes its name, which ſignifies the Duke's wood. In

1559 pope Paul IV. erected a biſhopric here; but on its being taken by the States in 1629, the ſee was aboliſhed.

Within that part of the quarter of Antwerp is the barony or free lordſhip of Breda, which conſiſts of good corn land and paſtures; but has many heaths and moraſſes. Its principal rivers are the Merk, or Mark, which, after receiving ſeveral other rivulets, is called the Dintel. This barony belongs to the houſe of Naſſau; the ſovereignty of it is lodged in the States General. The principal city it contains is the following:

Breda, the capital of the barony of the ſame name, is ſeated on the river Merk, which at this place receives the Aa. The latter of theſe two ſtreams being a little before increaſed by the Byloop, is here rendered navigable, and has a communication with the German ocean. It ſtands in the fifty-firſt degree thirty-five minutes north latitude, and in the fourth degree fifty-two minutes eaſt longitude. Its fortifications, without very great improvements, are unable to ſtand a long ſiege, though the city itſelf is partly covered by a moraſs, and, by means of the Merk and Aa, the inhabitants are able to lay a part of the country under water. It conſiſts of about fifteen hundred houſes, is well built, and contains a regular caſtle encompaſſed with a moat; and fronting the entrance is a ſquare delightfully planted with trees. The great church, now in the hands of the Proteſtants, has ſeveral very fine monuments, and a handſome ſpire three hundred and ſixty-two feet high: the Dutch have alſo another church, and the French have alſo one, as have likewiſe the Lutherans; but though the Roman catholics are more numerous, they are allowed only three chapels. The town-houſe is a large ſtructure, and there are four ſpacious market-places; but its commerce and woollen manufactures are greatly declined.

In 1590 prince Maurice took this city by ſtratagem; but the Spaniards recovered it in 1625, and in 1637 the States again made themſelves maſters of it. Here king Charles II. reſided when invited over to England, and his famous declaration was dated from Breda. In 1667 the treaty between him, Lewis XIV. of France, and the States General, was concluded here.

Twenty miles to the weſt of Breda is Bergen-op-zoom, the capital of a marquiſate of the ſame name; through it runs the rivulet or rather moat of Zoom. The ſouth ſide of the town ſtands on a ſmall eminence. It has been long celebrated as a ſtrong fortreſs; and its wall, which is about an hour's walk in circuit, is defended by five baſtions and ten horn-works. Beſides the other fortifications on the north ſide, a ſtrong line was drawn there in 1727, that has a communication with Moermont, Pinſen, and Rover forts, and the South or Water fort of five baſtions commands the entrances of the old and new harbour. The adjacent country may alſo be laid under water; and as long as Zealand continues clear of enemies, ſupplies and reinforcements may be thrown into it by means of the Scheld. It contains about eleven hundred houſes, with an old palace called the Hof, that was once the reſidence of the marquiſſes of Bergen; and at preſent the chamber of accompts, and the feudal court belonging to the marquiſate, are kept in it. Here is a Dutch Calviniſt church, and another divided into two partitions, which is aſſigned to the French Calviniſts and the Lutherans. The Papiſts have likewiſe a chapel. The States General keep a good garriſon here, and the governor is always a perſon of diſtinguiſhed reputation.

This town was firſt walled in 1287. In 1588 and 1622, it held out againſt two powerful armies of Spaniards; but in 1747, the French made themſelves maſters of it by ſurpriſe, after a ſiege of ten weeks. It was, however, reſtored in 1749, though in a very ruinous condition; but the houſes and Dutch church demoliſhed in that ſiege, have been ſince rebuilt.

Maeſtricht is one of the moſt antient and remarkable cities in the Netherlands, particularly for its ſtrength. It is ſeated in the fiftieth degree fifty-one minutes north latitude, and in the fifth degree thirty-eight minutes eaſt longitude, on the banks of the Maeſe, by which it is divided into two parts, joined to each other by a grand ſtone bridge. The ſmalleſt, which is ſituated to the ſide of the dutchy of Limburg, is called Wyk. Maeſtricht is one of the ſtrongeſt fortreſſes belonging to the republic, and alſo one of the principal keys of the Maeſe. Some defect having been obſerved in the outworks, the late ſtadtholder William IV. about a month before his death, took a ſurvey of them, and a plan was formed for their removal. The Jeker, a ſmall river that runs through the ſouth ſide of the town, and falls into the Maeſe at the bridge, may be checked in its courſe by means of ſluices, and the level country laid under water.

The houſes within the walls amount to about three thouſand, beſides which there are three Calviniſt churches, that is, two of Dutch, and one of French, with a Calviniſt grammar ſchool, a gymnaſium, a Lutheran church, two Popiſh collegiate, and four parochial churches, eight convents of monks, eleven nunneries, one Jeſuits college, and a commandery of the Teutonic order. Though the Papiſts are permitted the free exerciſe of their religion, yet they are allowed to make their public proceſſions only twice a year, and then only round the two collegiate churches. The town-houſe is a ſtately edifice, and has a public library. There are two other elegant buildings: theſe are the houſe of the deputies of the States General, and that of the governor. This city had once a conſiderable cloth manufactory; but it is now greatly decayed.

The ſovereignty of the town belongs jointly to the States General and the biſhop of Liege; but the former alone garriſon it, and are likewiſe poſſeſſed of the ſole power over the convents and eccleſiaſtics, by virtue of which they grant privileges and immunities of all kinds. In other reſpects the town is under the joint government of the States and the biſhop; and the towns are divided into two departments, each electing half of the magiſtracy, which conſiſts of an equal number of Calviniſt Brabanters and Papiſts, born in the biſhopric of Liege. Every year both ſovereigns ſend four deciding commiſſaries, as they are called, that is, two each, for the final determination of cauſes, and other affairs relating to the town.

Antiently Maeſtricht was immediately ſubject to the head of the German empire; but in 1204 the emperor Philip ceded it to Henry II. duke of Brabant. In 1632 this city was taken by the troops of the States General, and in 1648 their poſſeſſion of it was confirmed by the crown of Spain, at the peace of Munſter. In 1672, the French made themſelves maſters of it, and in 1676, king William III. endeavoured to recover it; but without ſucceſs. It was, however, reſtored to the Dutch at the peace of Nimeguen. In ſhort, in 1748, agreeable to the preliminaries of the peace of Aix la Chapelle, it was ceded to the French, who again evacuated it at the concluſion of the peace.

About two muſket-ſhots from this place ſtands a hill, called St. Peterſburg, which being much higher than the town, and having been very detrimental to it in a former ſiege, the States General cauſed a very ſtrong fort to be erected upon it in 1701, under the name of St. Peter's fort. This lying within the territory of Liege, the biſhop complained loudly of this proceeding; but in 1717 the affair was accommodated. On this hill is an excellent horizontal quarry, with an entrance to it cloſe by the Maeſe, ſo that carts go in and unload at the bank of the river. Within this quarry are long paſſages ſupported by innumerable ſquare pillars, which are every where twenty feet high, and in many places more. It has ſeveral vent holes cut in it, as alſo ſome ſmall reſervoirs, and in war-time it is a ſafe refuge to the country people, who being acquainted with all its windings, ſecure their cattle and valuable effects in this ſubterranean retreat, which affords room for forty thouſand men. A ſtranger who ſhould viſit it without an experienced guide, would be in danger not only of bewildering himſelf, or of ſtumbling againſt the corners of the pillars; but of being ſuddenly ſhot by villains lurking there. The upper part of the hill conſiſts of good corn land, and on the ſide towards the Maeſe ſtands the monaſtery of Slavante.

To

To the States General alſo belong the moſt northern part of Flanders; a ſmall diſtrict lying between the German ocean, the Hondt, the Scheld, and Auſtrian Flanders. This country was ceded by Spain at the peace of Munſter, to the States General, and afterwards enlarged by the emperor at the barrier treaty of 1715, and contains Sluys, and the little towns of Ardenburg, Ooſtburg, Hulſt, and other ſmall places.

Sluys, and in French l'Ecluſe, ſtands on a bay in the German ocean, named the horſe-market, from the ſuppoſed reſemblance it bears in ſtormy weather, to the noiſe of a market filled with thoſe animals. The town is pretty large in circuit; but the greateſt part of it is taken up with garden and bleaching grounds. It is ſtrongly fortified, and the country towards the ſouth and ſouth-weſt may be laid under water; but the north ſide being higher, has a double wall. On the eaſt it is fenced by the bay, and by a moraſs, which every flood is laid under water. All the efforts of an enemy cannot hinder its communication with the ſea, whence it may receive all neceſſary ſupplies and reinforcements. Its air, however, is ſo unhealthy, that the garriſon is changed every year. The governor's power extends to all the fortified towns in Flanders, belonging to the States General. The harbour is ſo choaked up, that to the very great detriment of the town, it admits only of ſmall veſſels. The old caſtle which ſtood by the ſide of the harbour, is at preſent converted into lodgings for the governor and other military officers. In 1405, the Engliſh miſcarried in their attempt on this place. In 1587 it was taken by the Spaniards; but in 1604 recovered by prince Maurice. The beſieged held out for three months, till they had eaten up all the leather, mice, and rats they could find.

CHAP. XXII.

Of the Thirteen United Cantons of SWISSERLAND, with their Allies.

SECT. I.

The Situation, Extent, and Face of the Country, with reſpect to its Mountains and Vallies. Its different Climates, Foſſils, and Minerals. Its Springs, Rivers, and Lakes. Its Fruits, Vegetables, and Animals.

SWISSERLAND, or Switzerland, the Helvetia of the antients, is bounded on the north by Swabia; on the weſt by the Sundgaw, Burgundy, and the country of Gex; to the ſouthward by Savoy, the Milaneſe, and the territories of Venice; and to the eaſtward by the county of Tyrol and Swabia. Its greateſt length, according to Buſching, is about two hundred and eighteen miles, and its breadth one hundred and forty-two.

Though Swiſſerland is ſituated between the forty-fifth and the forty-eighth degree of north latitude, yet lying among the Alps, the higheſt mountains of Europe, the air is much ſharper than in moſt northerly latitudes. This is indeed the higheſt country in this part of the earth, the greateſt part of it conſiſting of chains of hills ranged one upon another, with only narrow vallies between. Theſe hills are alſo compoſed of ſtupendous rocky maſſes, two, four, and even ſix being piled on each other, and from four to twelve thouſand feet high. One peak of a mountain called the Gotthard, is by du Cret computed at ſixteen thouſand five hundred French feet. The lower parts of theſe high mountains are covered with woods and paſtures, the herbage in which is of a remarkable length and richneſs. The middle abounds with a great variety of odoriferous herbs, thickets, buſhes, and excellent ſprings, and in ſummer are reſorted to by herdſmen with their cattle. The third part of theſe mountains almoſt entirely conſiſt of craggy and inacceſſible rocks, ſome of which are quite bare, without the leaſt herbage growing upon them, while others are continually covered with ſnow or ice. The vallies between theſe icy and ſnowy mountains appear like ſo many ſmooth frozen lakes, and from them vaſt fragments of ice frequently fall down into the more fruitful ſpots beneath. It is from theſe maſſes, and the thawing of the ice and ſnow, that the greateſt part of the ſtreams and rivers in Swiſſerland are derived. The ice hills begin in the canton of Glaris, and after paſſing through the territory of the Griſons, and from thence into the canton of Uri, terminate in the diſtrict of Bern. The moſt lofty of theſe mountains are thoſe in the canton of Uri, namely, St. Gotthard, Furka, Criſpalt, and Luckmanier, which ſend forth rivers to all the principal parts of Europe.

This is the moſt dreary part of all Swiſſerland; for on the ſummits of theſe mountains an eternal cold almoſt conſtantly prevails, with hard gales of wind, and very damp fogs; while the valleys, except ſome towns and villages, with a few fields and vineyards, thick woods, and rich paſtures, are covered with lakes, and the ſummer heats are there frequently ſo inſupportable, that the inhabitants betake themſelves to the mountains, though in winter their houſes are almoſt buried in ſnow. In many places within a ſmall compaſs, the four ſeaſons are ſeen at once, and ſometimes ſummer and winter are ſo near each other, that one hand may take up ſnow, and the other pluck the flowers.

During the greateſt part of the year the clouds hang beneath the peaks of the higheſt mountains, and from thoſe peaks they reſemble a ſea, from which the peaks riſe like iſlands. Sometimes they break, and thus diſplay a view of the extenſive country beneath. From the riſing and ſinking of theſe clouds, the inhabitants form pretty certain conjectures with reſpect to the weather. Not one of the above mountains is without a cataract, and as the eye by reaſon of the intervention of the clouds is not always able to reach the beginning of them, they look as if poured down from heaven upon the rocks.

The water thus falling from one rock to another, makes an aſtoniſhing noiſe, and raiſes a miſt around it, on which when the ſun beams play, is formed a very beautiful ſight, particularly at the foot of the cataract, where is exhibited a rainbow of the moſt lively colours.

Among theſe mountains are many medicinal ſprings, ſome of which form cold and others warm baths, celebrated for their extraordinary virtues.

Very different from this is the remaining ſmaller part of Swiſſerland, including the county of Thurgaw, which is a part of the cantons of Zurich, Schaffhauſen, Berne, Baſil, Solothurn, and Freyburg; for though this diſtrict is not without mountains, ſome of which are even two thouſand or two thouſand five hundred feet high; yet it is much more level than the above-mentioned part, and the foot of the mountains, and ſometimes alſo the very ſummits, are covered with vineyards, corn-fields, meadows, and paſture grounds. Here are likewiſe no rocky precipices, no cataracts, few trees, and, in ſummer, neither ſnow nor ice. The mountains, inſtead of being interrupted with vaſt chaſms or abyſſes, are generally entire, and compoſed of a few eminences, the ſummits of which are ſo far from ſhooting into peaks, that they are flat or round to the extent of many miles, without any conſiderable inequality, and frequently afford not only paſturage, but arable land. It is only during long

long rains that the clouds ſink below the eminences. The fields, though generally ſtony, are fertile, and the meadows are in moſt places planted with fruit-trees. "There is no country in the world better ſupplied with "water, ſays Mr. Addiſon, than the ſeveral parts of "Swiſſerland that I travelled through. One meets every "where in the roads with ſprings continually running "into huge troughs that ſtand underneath them, which "is wonderfully commodious in a country that ſo much "abounds with horſes and cattle. It has ſo many "ſprings breaking out of the ſides of the hills, and ſuch "vaſt quantities of wood to make pipes with, that it "is no wonder they are ſo well ſtocked with fountains." Indeed theſe comparatively level parts of Swiſſerland are watered only by a few rivers; but thoſe are large.

There are here found great numbers of petrifactions, and the foſſil tribe is very conſiderable, as chalk, mundic, ſeveral kinds of clay for the making of earthen-ware, and crucibles, as alſo terra-ſigillata and ſulphur. In many parts ſlate is very common; and though white marble be ſcarce, it abounds in a black ſort interſperſed with veins of white, as alſo in brown, yellow, and, in ſome places, in a green, and even carnation coloured marble. Red porphyry, ſpeckled with white, has likewiſe been found in the icy mountains. Common gypſum and alabaſter are not uncommon, and of the latter here is the fine ſort ſo much prized by ſculptors. A kind of ſtone full of glittering ſparks of a brown colour, and capable of a very fine poliſh, is very common here; and ſeveral ſorts of cryſtal compoſed of lamina and angular columns. Its other foſſils are ſandſtone, ſaltpetre, ſalt, pit-coal, and near Roche a pure and tranſparent ſulphur, with a rich ſulphureous ore. Gold-duſt is found among the ſand of ſome of its river; but in no great quantities. Swiſſerland has alſo ſilver, copper, lead, and more particularly iron ores, of which Gunzen, a lofty mountain in the county of Sargans, yields three kinds, namely, black, red, and iron coloured, which being mingled by fuſion, without any other ingredient, form a true ſteel. It muſt, however, be owned, that the metals of this country are generally obſerved to be brittle, and accordingly all metallic attempts, a few iron mines excepted, have turned out to the diſadvantage of the undertakers.

The principal rivers are the Rhine, a name given by the Swiſs to all ſtreams and rivers in general: it has its riſe in the country of the Griſons, and, with reſpect to its ſource, is divided into the Anterior, the Middle, and Hinder. The Anterior or Upper Rhine iſſues from a ſmall lake on a mountain commonly called the Oberalp, and by ſome Cima del Baduz. The ſource of the Middle Rhine lies in Luckmanier, a part of the Adula chain, and, after a courſe of about ſix hours, joins the Anterior Rhine. The Hinder Rhine riſes about three hours diſtance in a mountain called by the Italians Monte del Uccello, or Birds-hill. The other rivers are the Ruſa, which iſſues from the lake called Lago di Luzendro, on the mountain called St. Gotthard, and having joined two rivulets, precipitates itſelf through a deep and narrow valley down ſeveral rocks; but at length becomes more gentle, then falls into the lake at the four Foreſt towns; but at Lucern again makes its appearance under its former name, and ſoon after receives the Leſſer Emmat, or Emmen, which riſes in the mountains, and at laſt diſcharges itſelf into the Aar, or Aren. This laſt river, which proceeds from the mountain of Grimſel, at length falls into the Rhine. The Rhone is firſt formed by a water which iſſues out of two rocks of ice on the Furka chain, and precipitates itſelf with a thundering noiſe between two rocks of an aſtoniſhing height, which receiving ſeveral rivulets in its courſe, runs into the lake of Geneva, and iſſuing again from thence traverſes the territory of that city, and after watering a ſmall part of Savoy enters France. The Teſin, in Italian Teſino, riſes partly from two lakes on the mountain of St. Gotthard, and partly from ſeveral other lakes on the mountains, and after paſſing through the valley of Livis, and the Lago Maggiore, enters the dutchy of Milan, and at length loſes itſelf in the Po.

The large lakes are thoſe of Geneva, Neuenburg, Biel, Zurich, the four Foreſt towns, Thun, and Brien, with many others: that part of the lake of Conſtance which waters the borders of Thurgaw, and the abbey of St. Gall, belongs alſo to the Helvetic Confederacy.

Theſe ſeveral rivers and lakes are of conſiderable advantage to Swiſſerland, by ſupplying it with fiſh, and furniſhing the inhabitants with the means of water-carriage.

The levels and valleys produce grain; but not in a ſufficient quantity to anſwer all the demands of home conſumption. Barley is ſowed in a very elevated ſituation, the oats in a warmer ſoil, rye in a warmer ſtill, and the warmeſt of all is aſſigned to ſpelt. Flax is much cultivated and worked, and the like may be ſaid of hemp. They have alſo begun to plant tobacco. The Païs de Vaud, the cantons of Berne and Schaffhauſen, the Veltlein, and the Valais, produce the beſt wines in Swiſſerland. There are here plenty of apples, pears, nuts, cherries, plums, cheſnuts, and the parts towards Italy abound in peaches, morells, almonds, figs, citrons, pomegranates, and others. Moſt of the cantons abound in timber.

Of wild animals the chamois are the moſt remarkable, and of two different ſpecies; one of which make their conſtant abode in the higheſt and wildeſt mountains, to which ſcarce any acceſs can be found. Theſe are of a reddiſh brown, and for the moſt part ſomewhat ſmaller than the others. The ſecond ſpecies are of a light brown colour, and do not confine themſelves to the ſummits of the mountains; but likewiſe reſort to the woods and thickets in the vales.

The marmouſet is a kind of badger, and towards winter grow ſo exceeding fat as to weigh twenty pounds, by which means they become an eaſier prey to the peaſants and hunters. They burrow either in the earth, or under a rock.

Among the Alps are likewiſe found a ſpecies of hares, which in ſummer perfectly reſemble other hares, but in winter become all over white, in ſo much that they are ſcarce diſtinguiſhable among the ſnow. Here are alſo yellow and white foxes in great numbers, which in winter come down to the valleys.

Among the birds, the moſt remarkable is the lammergeyer, which delights in the higheſt peaks, and reſembles a large eagle, of ſo prodigious a ſize, that its wings frequently extend fourteen feet: it preys alike upon wild and tame animals. There are alſo ſeveral ſorts of fowls fit for eating, as the moor-cock, the rail, the ſnipe, the partridge, and ſome others.

SECT. II.

Of the Perſons, Dreſs, Manners, and Cuſtoms of the Swiſs; their Magazines for Corn; their Management of their Cattle; the Populouſneſs of the Country; their Languages, Religions, and the Unanimity that generally prevails amongſt them: with the Sciences, Manufactures, and Coins of Swiſſerland.

THE Swiſs are generally tall, well made, ſtrong, and laborious; they are diſtinguiſhed by their honeſty, their ſteadineſs in their reſolutions, and their bravery. It is the principal endeavour of the ſeveral cantons to preſerve the greateſt plainneſs and ſimplicity of manners, and to baniſh from among them every thing that has the appearance of pomp or ſuperfluity; for ſhould dreſſing, feaſting, and balls, once get among the cantons, their military roughneſs would be ſoon loſt; their tempers would become too ſoft for their climate, and their expences exceed their income; and, as the materials of luxury muſt be brought from other nations, they would ſoon ruin a country that is not over-ſtocked with money. Hence every thing is prohibited that may introduce vanity and luxury. Beſides the ſeveral fines ſet upon plays, games, balls, and feaſting, they have many cuſtoms which greatly contribute to the preſervation of their antient ſimplicity.

The citizens, at the head of the government, are obliged to appear at all their public aſſemblies in a black cloak and a band. The dreſs of the women is extremely plain, thoſe

thoſe of the firſt quality generally wearing nothing on their heads but furs, which are to be had in their own country. Indeed, perſons of different ranks of both ſexes are allowed their different ornaments; but theſe are far from being expenſive, and are merely marks of diſtinction. Thus the chief officers of Bern are known by the crowns of their hats, which are much deeper than thoſe worn by people of inferior rank. The peaſants are uſually clothed in a coarſe cloth manufactured in the country; while their holiday cloaths deſcend from father to ſon, and are ſeldom worn out till the ſecond or third generation; ſo that it is not very uncommon to ſee a countryman in the doublet and breeches of his grandfather.

As theſe little ſtates abound more in paſturage than in corn, they are all provided with public granaries, and in exigencies, where the ſcarcity is not univerſal, have the humanity to aſſiſt one another. The adminiſtration of affairs relating to the public granaries being much the ſame in every particular government, it will be ſufficient to give the rules obſerved in theſe reſpects by the little commonwealth of Geneva. Three of the little council are deputed for this office, and obliged to keep together a ſufficient quantity of proviſions, to laſt the people in caſe of war or famine at leaſt two years. Their magazines muſt be filled in times of the greateſt plenty, in order that they may afford to ſell cheap, and increaſe the public revenue at a ſmall expence to its members. Beſides, that the three managers may have no temptation to pay too great a price out of the public treaſury, or to impoſe upon the public by purchaſing bad corn, none of them muſt, upon any pretence, furniſh the granaries from their own fields; and that the filling of the magazines may not prejudice their market, and raiſe the price of proviſions at home, they muſt buy no corn within twelve miles of the city. In ſhort, that ſuch a quantity of corn may not ſpoil by keeping, all the inns and public-houſes are obliged to furniſh themſelves out of it, by which means the moſt conſiderable branch of the public revenue is raiſed. The corn being ſold out at a much dearer rate than it was bought up, the principal income of the common-wealth, which pays the penſions of moſt of its officers and miniſters, is raiſed on travellers, or ſuch of their own body as have money enough to ſpend at taverns and public houſes.

The inhabitants derive their principal ſubſiſtence from the grazing of cattle, which is here very profitable; both the valleys and the middle part of thoſe enormous mountains the Alps, yielding excellent fodder. White meats are the uſual food of the peaſants, and ſuch as labour in the mines. In the beginning of the ſummer their cattle are driven up among the Alps, and there committed to the care of perſons ſtiled Senns, who pay them a certain ſum for keeping them. The Senns on all the Alps likewiſe keep hogs, which are fed with the whey after making two ſorts of cheeſe and butter; and theſe people alſo drink this whey themſelves. The Swiſs cheeſe is much eſteemed in other parts of Europe; but the beſt is that of Berne and the canton of Freyburg. Great numbers of horſes are likewiſe bred here, which are bought up for the French cavalry.

Swiſſerland is more populous than foreigners generally imagine, the women being remarkably prolific; yet in ſeveral provinces there is not ſo much as a ſingle town, and in the whole country little more than a hundred. The Proteſtant cantons are better inhabited, and more wealthy, than the Popiſh, which is owing to the celibacy occaſioned by the number of convents for both ſexes. The number of inhabitants is computed at two millions, and theſe are divided into three claſſes; the nobility, the burghers, and the peaſants. D. Zimmermann, in his Eſſay on National Pride, maintains that in Swiſſerland ſelf-murder is more common than even in England.

In Geneva and Swiſſerland it is cuſtomary to divide their eſtates equally among all their children, and thus every one lives at his eaſe, without becoming dangerous to the republic: for an overgrown eſtate no ſooner falls into the hands of one who has many children, than it is divided into ſo many parts, that though it renders the ſharers of it rich enough, they are not raiſed too much above the level of the reſt. In theſe little republics this is abſolutely neceſſary; for as the rich merchants are obliged to live much within their eſtates, they might, by heaping up vaſt ſums, become formidable to the reſt of their fellow-citizens, and deſtroy that equality which is ſo neceſſary in theſe kinds of governments.

The inhabitants in general ſpeak German, and in this language all their ſtate and public affairs are tranſacted, as alſo thoſe in the republic of the Griſons and the Valais. In a part of the town of Freyburg, and its dependencies, with thoſe of Bern and the city of Geneva, the principality of Neuenburg, the Upper and Lower Valais, the tythings of Syders and Sitten, the French is uſed; but it is generally only the Patois, or a baſtard ſort. In ſeveral diſtricts of the Griſons they ſpeak the Chur Italian, with this difference, that in ſome places it borders on the Latin, and is accordingly termed Ladinum, while in others it has no ſmall affinity with the Italian. Indeed in many places the Italian language prevails; but in each with different degrees of purity.

The two prevailing religions are the Calviniſt and Popiſh; the former is profeſſed by four cantons, five annexed places, and three governments: the latter is eſtabliſhed in ſeven cantons, three incorporated diſtricts, twelve governments, and the like number of protected places. In two cantons among the Griſons, five governments, and two protected places, both religions are on an equal footing. Each town, place, and ſtate, has its own particular conſtitution, for the management of its churches, ſchools, and other eccleſiaſtical affairs.

"I have often conſidered, with a great deal of pleaſure, "ſays the ingenious Mr. Addiſon, the profound peace "and tranquility that reigns in Swiſſerland and its al- "liances. It is very wonderful to ſee ſuch a knot of "governments, which are ſo divided among themſelves "in matters of religion, maintain ſo uninterrupted an "union and correſpondence, that no one of them is for "invading the rights of another, but remains content "within the bounds of its firſt eſtabliſhment. This I "think, muſt be chiefly aſcribed to the nature of the "people, and the conſtitution of their government. "Were the Swiſs animated by zeal or ambition, ſome "or other of their ſtates would immediately break in "upon the reſt; or were the ſtates ſo many principali- "ties, they might often have an ambitious ſovereign at "the head of them, that would embroil his neighbours, "and ſacrifice the repoſe of his ſubjects to his own glory."

The ſciences are cultivated in Swiſſerland with an application equal to that of any other nation, and the many eminent ſcholars it has produced are illuſtrious proofs of the genius of the inhabitants. There are many good foundations for the inſtruction of youth, eſpecially among the Calviniſts, who, beſides the gymnaſiums and ſchools in many places, have academies at Zurich, Bern, Lauſanne, and Geneva, with the celebrated univerſity of Baſil. The Papiſts have alſo ſeveral gymnaſiums and a Jeſuits college at Lauſanne. The Calviniſts have likewiſe literary ſocieties for the improvement of the German tongue at Bern, Zurich, and Baſil: others apply their attention to the cultivation of the ſciences, among which is the Helvetic ſociety at Baſil, and the œconomical ſociety at Bern. Some Swiſs have alſo diſtinguiſhed themſelves in the fine arts, and the number of maſterly painters this country can boaſt may be ſeen in the Lives of the Swiſs Painters, publiſhed at Zurich in 1755. This country has alſo produced ſome excellent engravers.

Swiſſerland has a great number of manufactures. In thoſe parts that produce tobacco, that plant is prepared both for ſmoking and ſnuff. Great quantities of flax and hemp are ſpun into thread of different fineneſs, for the weaving of linen. Thread, lace, and ſtockings, are likewiſe made here; and Winterthur is noted for its neckcloths for men and women. Among its linen manufactures are its dimities, cotelines, limoges, and trieges. Cotton is ſpun and wove into muſlin and ſtuffs for gowns; into handkerchiefs, ſtockings, and gloves. Cottons are alſo printed with figures of the moſt beautiful colours. In Swiſſerland are made ſeveral ſorts of ſilks, particularly paduaſoys and organſines, gold and ſilver brocades, velvets, handkerchiefs, ribbons, and ſtockings. Its woollen manufactures are druggets, calamancoes, ſattins, damaſks, camblets, ratines, flannels, blankets, lindſey-

lindsey-woolsey, and stockings. Bleaching and dying are likewise performed in the best manner. The other manufactures are those of hats, coarse and fine paper, leather for all uses, particularly the Neuenburg chamois, and the Schwitz calf's leather, are particularly famous. Horn is worked into a variety of utensils. Winterthur and Lausanne are famous for their earthen-wares, particularly for their beautiful white and painted stoves; and several places make a very pretty porcelain. The marble of this country is sawn and polished at home; but the greatest part of the beautiful crystals met with here are carried to Italy. Their gold and silver manufacturers deal in laces, fringes, &c. and the best gold-beaters are those of Basil. Several places trade largely in toys; neat and good watches are made here, and Swisserland is not without skilful printers, braziers, founders, cutlers, &c.

The situation of this country between Germany, France, and Italy, with its navigable lakes and rivers, particularly the Rhine and the Rhone, by which it has a communication both with the German ocean and the Mediterranean, together with droves of pack-horses for the conveyance of goods over the mountains, where no carriages can pass, render the trade of this country very extensive. Its principal exports are cheese, butter, horses, horned cattle, sheep, some wine, and several of the above manufactures. On the other hand, this country imports grain from Swabia, Tirol, and Alsace, as also hemp and flax; with wine, wool, salt, several species of manufactures, and particularly American and Asiatic goods.

The coinage in all the cantons and incorporated states is not alike: Zurich, Basil, Schaffhausen, and St. Gall, follow the standard of Germany; while Bern, Lucern, Uri, Schwitz, Underwald, Zug, Freyburg, Solothurn, Geneva, Neuenburg, and the Valais, keep to the old Burgundian standard.

The lowest coin here, according to Dr. Busching, is the heller, or haller, which is the sixteenth part of a penny, two of which make a pfenning, or angster; Zurich coins drey hallerlins, or three hallers; and Bern dreyerlin, or vierer. Another small piece here is the rap, six of which go to a plapper, and ten to a batz, and fifteen of the last make a Swiss guilder. Six angsters are equal to a Zurich shilling, seven hellers to a kreutzer, and four hellers to a Bernlander, or Chur batz. Bern and Zug have likewise their half kreutzers; Zug, Freyburg, and Solothurn, coin three kreutzer pieces; and Bern some of ten and twenty. The batzes are of three sorts; the good, which are coined at Schaffhausen, are of the value of sixteen pfennings; the Zurich batzes are equal to fifteen pfennings; and those of Berne to fourteen: there are also half batzes. A gemein gulden usually passes for fifteen good batzes, and sixteen Zurich batzes; a Bern gulden for fifteen Bern batzes, or thirty-six Zurich shillings; and a lander for thirty-two. In the country of the Grisons seventy blutzgers, or thirty-five Zurich shillings, make a gulden. The gold coins here are whole, half, and quarter ducats.

SECT. III.

The History of Swisserland; with a general Account of the Regulations with respect to the thirteen United Cantons in general: the Titles by which they are addressed by foreign States, their military Establishments, and the Contingents of each State; with the Regulations with regard to such of their Troops as enter into the Service of foreign Princes.

THE antient Helvetians were a Gaulish or Celtic people, and Helvetia, which received its name from them, was divided into four cantons or territories. Julius Cæsar was the first who reduced the inhabitants under the dominion of the Romans, who founded colonies here; and their dominion continued till the fifth century, when the country was over-run by the Burgundians and Germans, and at length became united to the German empire; but about the year 1300 the emperor Albert I. not only refused to confirm their antient privileges, without condescending to alledge any reason for his refusal, but set over the Swiss two noblemen of the most infamous characters for avarice and arrogance, whose administration becoming insupportable, the people addressed their petitions and complaints to the emperor, but without success.

This so encouraged their tyrants, that Grisler, the governor of Underwald, set his hat upon a pole at Altorff, and, in the wantonness of power, demanded that the same respect should be paid to it as to himself. The histories of Swisserland say, that one William Tell refusing to submit to this mark of slavery, Grisler had him brought before him, and telling him that he heard he was an excellent marksman, commanded that he should shoot an arrow at an apple placed upon his own son's head; and that if he missed it, he should be hanged. Tell, though with a trembling hand, struck off the apple without touching his son, and thereby saved his life; but Grisler perceiving that Tell, though he was to have but one shot, had an arrow in his belt, demanded the reason; on which he frankly confessed, that had he been so unfortunate as to have killed his son, he would have shot it at him. The tyrant, who had promised to give him his life on his acknowledging the truth, now ordered him to be bound and carried prisoner for life to a place on the lake of Lucern; but Tell happily escaping out of the boat in crossing the lake, retired into the mountains, where he waited for an opportunity of destroying the tyrant, and at length shot him as he was passing along the road.

The people now universally expressed their hatred against the tyrants, and the inhabitants of Uri, Schwitz, and Underwald, who had from time immemorial possessed the right of being governed by their own magistrates, with other important privileges, united in order to defend themselves to the last extremity. For this purpose they chose three commanders, gentlemen of approved courage and abilities; these were Gerhard Stauffach, Walter Furst, and Arnold Melchthal, who secretly agreed to surprise and demolish the castles in which the imperial governors resided.

This resolution being effected, these three places joined again in a league for ten years, which gave birth to the Helvetic confederacy. The emperor Albert thinking this a proper time for totally reducing these places by force of arms, hasted to Baden to begin the preparations; but being on his return murdered by John of Hapsburg, the design was dropped till the house of Austria invented another pretence for falling on the United Cantons. These and other parts of Swisserland adhering to the emperor Lewis of Bavaria, Frederic of Austria, his competitor, was so extremely irritated, that he put the inhabitants of Schwitz under the ban of the empire, because during their contests with the abbey of Einsidlen, they had made some of the monks prisoners; and they were excommunicated by the bishop of Constance. Soon after Leopold, duke of Austria, in 1315, attacked the Confederates with an army of twenty thousand men; but was defeated at Morgarten, in the canton of Schwitz. Upon this, on the eighth of December, in the same year, they entered into a perpetual alliance, which proved the origin of the present Helvetic confederacy. In 1332 Lucern acceded to it; in 1351 they were joined by Zurich and Glaris; and in 1352 their number was increased, by their being joined by Zug and Bern. For the space of 125 years this confederacy was composed only of these eight cantons; but in 1481 Freyburg and Solothurn, and in 1501 Basil and Schaffhausen, were admitted into the confederacy; and in 1513 Appenzel also acceded to it.

The federal union, however, extends no farther than is necessary for their mutual defence, and accommodating differences that may arise between two or more towns or cantons, and in all other affairs they are left to their liberty, particularly with respect to concluding alliances with foreign powers, their granting auxiliaries, receiving subsidies, permitting a passage to foreign troops, and also in their transactions among each other; as the sending of envoys to foreign states, adjusting the value of their coins, or calling them in, and other matters of public concern, though, both in their foreign and domestic affairs, great pains are taken to produce an unanimity of opinion, in order to add the greater weight to their resolutions. Besides, every town and canton is an

independent

Wale del. Hall sculp.

W.m Tell's bold Answer to the Tyrant, after having shot the Apple from his Son's Head.

independent ſtate of itſelf, enjoys the privilege of modelling its own form of government, and of making laws, without any obſtruction from the other members of the confederacy.

Thus the whole Helvetic confederacy properly conſiſts of thirteen diſtinct republics, or free ſtates, united by oath for their mutual ſecurity and defence. It has now for ſome centuries ſupported itſelf in an abſolute freedom and independency; increaſed all the privileges of majeſty; made wars, concluded treaties, received and ſent envoys from and to the ſeveral European powers; entered into alliances with them; given what form they thought proper to their conſtitution; enacted laws and ordinances, both in temporal and ſpiritual affairs; and exerciſed all the various prerogatives of ſovereignty.

Accordingly, at the peace of Weſtphalia in 1648, it was acknowledged to be a free ſtate, even by the emperor and empire. The former gives it the title of "The "moſt valiant, firm, and full of dignity, our beſt be- "loved friends the common confederates of all the thir- "teen cantons and other places of Swiſſerland." The French king addreſſes them in the following manner, "To our very dear and great friends and confederates "the burgomaſters, advoyers, landammen, and coun- "cil of the Swiſs league in Upper Germany." The king of Great Britain ſtyles them, "The illuſtrious and "moſt mighty lords, the conſuls, ſeneſchals, landam- "men, and ſenators of the confederated Swiſs cantons, "our very dear friends." The king of Swden ſtiles them, "The noble, moſt mighty, magnificent, and re- "nowned people, our dearly beloved friends, conſuls, "ſeneſchals, landammen, ſenators and communities of "the thirteen confederated Swiſs cantons." The king of Pruſſia writes to "The high born, noble, moſt firm, "wiſe, and very learned, our ſingularly beloved friends, "of all offices and other poſts of honour, the burgo- "maſter, prætor, bailiffs, and council of the thirteen "confederated cantons of Zurich, Bern, Lucern, &c." And the pope's addreſs to the catholic cantons runs thus: "To our beloved ſons the prætors, landammen, &c. "the counſellors of the eight Swiſs cantons; that is to "ſay, of Lucern, &c. the defenders of the faith." The United Cantons in rank are reckoned next to Venice. To them belong in common twenty-one bailliages, two towns, and the like number of lordſhips. Eleven other free Helvetian republics are united, either with the whole confederacy, or with particular ſtates.

The form of government in the ſtates of the Helvetic republic is in ſome monarchical, in others ariſtocratical, and in others again democratical. Their ſovereigns are the princes of the empire, as the biſhop of Baſil, and abbot of St. Gall. The ariſtocratical governments are the cantons of Zurich, Baſil, and Schaff hauſen, with ſome incorporated places, as the towns of St. Gall, Muhlhauſen, and Biel, which are governed by ſix burgomaſters; the cantons of Bern, Lucern, Freyburg, and Solothurn, over which are appointed juſticiaries; and Neuenburg and Geneva, where the ſupreme power is lodged in bailiffs. The democratical form of government prevails in the ſix cantons of Uri, Schwitz, Underwald, Zug, Glaris, and Appenzell, which are under the direction of landammen, and alſo with ſome variation in the eight acceding places, as the Griſons and the Valais; but in all of them every male from ſixteen years of age has a vote.

The revenues of the ſtates are the uſual imports, tythes, annual incomes, payments annexed to the ſovereignty, and their ſubſidies.

With reſpect to their military eſtabliſhment, the only regular forces are thoſe of the garriſons of Zurich, Bern, Baſil, Geneva, and Arburg; but every burgher, peaſant, and ſubject, muſt exerciſe himſelf in the uſe of arms; appear on the ſtated days for ſhooting at a mark; furniſh himſelf with proper cloathing, accoutrements, powder and ball; be always ready for the defence of his country, and punctually comply with every article of war. For this end almoſt every canton, particularly thoſe of Zurich, Bern, Baſil, Freyburg, and Solothurn, have claſſed their ſubjects into regiments of horſe and foot under the command of proper officers, who are compoſed of the burghers of the ſeveral towns.

According to ſeveral ordinances, and the conventions for the common defence and immediate aſſiſtance of any injured party, the contingents of the ſeveral cantons are as follow:

	Men.
Bern	2000
Zurich	1400
Lucern	1200
Uri	400
Schwitz	600
Underwald	400
Zug	400
Glaris	400
Baſil	400
Freyburg	800
Solothurn	600
Schaffhauſen	400
Appenzell	600
Abbot of St. Gall	1000
The Town of St. Gall	200
Biel	200
Baden	200
Thurgau	600
The Free Bailliages	300
Sargans	300
The Rheinthal or Rhein Vale	200
Lauwis	400
Luggaris	200
Mendris	100
Mayenthal	100
Total	13,400

Beſides which, each canton and incorporated diſtrict is to have in readineſs one field-piece, with all other implements, powder, ball, &c. that on the firſt notice their ſuccours may be ſent without delay. Alſo every confederated and incorporated diſtrict, for the ſecond and third draught, is to furniſh and hold in readineſs double the ſame proportion. Such towns and territories as levy cavalry are alſo immediately to march.

Thus, as in the Seven United Provinces of the Netherlands, the weak are defended by the ſtrong, and thoſe who can ſend at one time only one or two hundred men, are generouſly protected by thoſe who are willing to ſend as many thouſands; and all are mutually engaged in one common intereſt, in the defence of their liberties and their reſpective laws. Happy would it be for mankind in general, were all its princes united by a like confederacy!

The above corps, compoſed of the troops of all the different cantons, form two armies, one conſiſting of the troops of Zurich, Lucern, Schwitz, Zug, Baſil, Solothurn, Appenzell, the town of St. Gall, the Thurgaw, the Free Bailliages, Sargans, and Lauwis: to the other belong thoſe of Bern, Uri, Underwald, Glaris, Freyburg, Schaff hauſen, the abbey of St. Gall, Biel, Baden, the Rhein Vale, Luggaris, Mendris, and Mayenthal. Over the firſt of theſe armies the towns of Zurich and Lucern nominate each a commander in chief; Schwitz and Zug, each a major-general of the artillery; Solothurn, a quarter-maſter-general; Appenzell, a provoſt-marſhal; and the town of St. Gall, a waggon-maſter. In the latter, the two commanders are appointed by Bern and Uri; the two major-generals, by Underwald and Glaris; the general of the artillery, by Freyburg; the quarter-maſter-general, by Schaff hauſen; the provoſt-marſhal, by the abbot of St. Gall; and the waggon-maſter, by Biel.

Any territory in viſible danger of an attack or ſurprize by the enemy, may claim from the next territory all the three draughts collectively, and this territory again is to demand ſuccour of the next; and ſo on, each being obliged to march its contingent to the rendezvous. For the more expeditious aſſembling of theſe armies, ſignals are ordered to be made on the mountains and high places.

Swiſſerland is well provided with arſenals, particularly at Bern; but the only fortified places are Geneva, Solothurn, Zurich, Bern, Baſil, and Arburg.

The Swiſs engage in the ſervice of foreign princes and ſtates, either merely as guards, or as marching regiments.

In

In the latter caſe, the government permits the enliſting volunteers, though only for ſuch ſtates as they are in alliance with, or have entered into a previous agreement on that article; and no ſubject is to be forced into foreign ſervice, nor even to be enliſted without the concurrence of the magiſtracy. All the advantages ariſing to theſe regencies from theſe levies are uſually an annual ſubſidy, paid by the ſtate in whoſe favour the levies are granted, and perhaps a promiſe of reciprocal aid when neceſſary. A public benefit, however, attending this cuſtom is, that theſe men, on their return home, after a long ſervice abroad, greatly improve the ſtanding militia of the country. The greateſt number of Swiſs troops is kept by France.

In order to give a more particular deſcription of the ſeveral parts of Swiſſerland, we ſhall begin with the thirteen cantons, and afterwards ſhall add the incorporated territories.

SECT. IV.

Of the Canton of ZURICH.

Its Situation, Extent, and Produce: a Deſcription of the Lake of Zurich; and of the City of the ſame Name.

ZURICH is bounded on the north by Swabia and the county of Schaffhauſen, on the eaſt by Thurgau and the county of Tockenburg, on the ſouth by the canton of Schwitz, and on the weſt by the canton of Zug and the Free Provinces.

This canton is, according to the learned Scheuchzer, an epitome of all Swiſſerland, as containing hills, valleys, plains, corn lands, vineyards, lakes, rivers, vegetables of all kinds, and whatever elſe is neceſſary to the ſupport of life. Grain is cultivated all over the country; but it ripens later in the mountainous parts, where the air is coldeſt, than in the ſandy valleys. The hilly grounds on the eaſt, weſt, and ſouth borders, afford a ſpecimen of the fertility of the Alps, as abounding in cattle, milk, butter, and cheeſe; and towards Schaffhauſen and the Thurgaw the country produces good wine, which, tho' at firſt tart, improves by keeping, and after ſome years becomes ſmooth, pleaſant, and wholeſome. Fruits are alſo found every where in great plenty. The moſt remarkable minerals and foſſils are, the fine white chalk at the village of Mur, different kinds of clay for making earthen-ware, pit-coal, and turf; and in ſeveral places are veins of ſulphur.

The principal lake in this country is that of Zurich, which is one of the largeſt in Swiſſerland, it being twenty-four miles in length, and about three in breadth. The proſpect from it is extremely delightful, the little eminences by which it is bordered being all over diverſified with corn fields and vineyards, and behind theſe is every where a gradual aſcent of larger hills terminating in the ſtupendous mountains of Glaris, Schwitz, and the Griſons, whoſe ſummits are always covered with ſnow. The Rhine waters the north ſide of this canton, where it is joined by the Thur, the Toſs, and other ſmaller ſtreams. Out of the lake of Zurich iſſues a river which flows through the town, and having a little below it received the Hill, begins to be called the Limmat; till traverſing the county of Baden, it at laſt loſes itſelf in the Aar.

This canton is, next to Bern, the largeſt and moſt populous, it being thought capable of bringing near fifty thouſand fighting men into the field, without any conſiderable detriment to its agriculture or manufactures.

The Reformation was begun here by Zwinglius, in 1517, in the city of Zurich, and in 1524 ſpread through the whole canton. Religious affairs are under the direction of an eccleſiaſtical council compoſed of eight members, two of whom are clergymen, and of a ſynod of ten deaneries, including under them a hundred and fifty miniſters.

On the acceſſion of this canton in 1351 to the perpetual alliance with Uri, Schwitz, Underwald, and Lucern, the latter, on ſwearing to the alliance, made no difficulty of yielding the preſidency to Zurich, which it has ſince conſtantly retained; but this honour, inſtead of being any real advantage, is rather a burthen, all affairs relating to the collective body of the confederacy being tranſacted in its offices, and from thence communicated to the other towns and places.

The city of Zurich, the Tigurum Thuricum of the antients, is ſeated in the forty-ſeventh degree fifty-four minutes north latitude, and in the eighth degree thirty-two minutes eaſt longitude, in a very pleaſant and fertile country on the outlet of the lake, and is eſteemed the handſomeſt town in Swiſſerland. It is large and well fortified, and contains five arſenals, which are well ſtored. Its churches are the Great Minſter, which has prebends; the Frau-Munſter, a parochial church; but the largeſt eccleſiaſtical foundation before the Reformation was an abbey for ladies, the abbeſs of which bore the title of princeſs. To theſe are to be added St. Peter's and the Prediger church. There is here an academy, which has fifteen profeſſors, with two colleges. Here is alſo a German ſociety, which owes its origin to profeſſor Bodmer, and is aſſociated with that of Bern. The town-library, which is very conſiderable, with the public muſeum, are in the Water-church. In the prebend-library are ſeveral valuable manuſcripts. The town-houſe is a very fine pile of building, and ſo well deſigned, that it would make a good figure even in Italy. The frontiſpiece to this edifice has pillars of a beautiful black marble ſtreaked with white, which is found in the neighbouring mountains; and the chambers for the ſeveral councils, with the other apartments, are very neat.

The burghers are divided into thirteen companies, the firſt of which is chiefly compoſed of gentry. Out of theſe companies are choſen the city regency, that is, the greater and leſſer council, in whom the ſovereignty and adminiſtration of all civil and military affairs are lodged. The great council conſiſts of one hundred and ſixty-two members, and to this aſſembly none can be admitted under thirty years of age. The leſſer council is compoſed of fifty members, who muſt all have attained their thirty-ſixth year, and is divided into two equal bodies, each of which is alternately poſſeſſed of the regency for the term of ſix months.

The principal perſons in the city are two burgo-maſters, freely elected by the burghers and counſellors from the above councils, and theſe hold the government by turns, each for half a year. Next to them are four ſtadtholders, or maſters of companies, and two treaſurers, who continue in office twelve years by annual rotation. The privy council is compoſed of twelve members, who are the two burgomaſters, the four ſtadtholders, two treaſurers, the obman of the convents belonging to the public, and three others elected by the counſellors. In this aſſembly the affairs of the canton are firſt diſcuſſed, and if thought neceſſary, they lay them before the leſſer and greater councils. The chamber of accounts conſiſts of twelve members; theſe are the two burgomaſters, one ſtadtholder, two treaſurers, the obman of the convents, three members of the leſſer, and three of the greater council. Theſe inſpect the city receipts and diſburſements, the accounts of the treaſurers and city builders excepted, and likewiſe take cognizance of the fiefs. The council of reformation is compoſed of eight members of the leſſer, and four of the greater council, and ſuperintends the execution of the ſumptuary laws, the reformation of manners, defamatory expreſſions, and acts of violence. To the marriage court belong eight members, who determine all matrimonial diſputes, and inflict puniſhments on all perſons convicted of whoredom, prohibited games, ſwearing, ſuperſtitious practices, profanation of the ſabbath, and the like. The city court hears cauſes relating to debts and pecuniary claims; and the revenue court decides conteſts in matters under its juriſdiction. To the above-mentioned obman of the convents is committed the management of the church revenues, both in the city and country.

Zurich has all the manufactures that are to be met with in the moſt ingenious and flouriſhing nations, as cloths, ſtuffs and linen crapes, calamancoes, half ſilk and half worſted cipers, calicoes, ſilk handkerchiefs, ſattins, organſines, and ſeveral other ſorts of ſilks; ſilk ſtockings,

ſtockings, cotton ſtockings, muſlins, lawns, gold and ſilver thread, and galloons; beſides a foundery for bells, cannon, and other things.

The arms of the city of Zurich are, a ſhield argent and azure, party per bend.

SECT. V.

The Canton of BERN.

Its Situation, Extent, Produce, Rivers, Lakes, Mountains, and Vallies. The military Affairs of the Canton; with a particular Deſcription of the City of Bern, and its Government; the Welſchen or foreign Lands, and alſo a Deſcription of Lauſanne.

BERN is terminated to the eaſt by the cantons of Uri, Underwald, and Lucern; to the northward by the Auſtrian foreſt towns, and the cantons of Baſil and Solothurn; to the weſtward it borders on the canton of Solothurn, the diſtrict of Biel, the principality of Neuenburg, Franche Comté, and the land of Gex; and to the ſouthward on the lake of Geneva, the dutchy of Savoy, and the Valais. It pretty nearly environs the whole canton of Freyburg, extending about a hundred and fifty-one miles in length, and ſeventy-five in breadth, it being the largeſt of the thirteen cantons, and forming in the whole little leſs than one-third of the confederacy.

Scheuchzer ſtiles this canton, with reſpect to its extent, figure, and fertility, the moſt valuable gem of all Swiſſerland. The levels yield an exuberance of grain and fruit, and the high lands afford rich paſtures covered with cattle; whence the inhabitants are in no want of milk, butter, and cheeſe. The fineſt ſpots here are in the country bordering on the lakes of Biel, Neuenburg, and Geneva, which not only yield the choiceſt fruits, but alſo excellent wine. Here is clay of different colours, of which earthen-ware is made. In this canton is alſo found mundic, with a beautiful blue and white ſandſtone, uſed at Bern for building. There are here alſo gypſum, pit-coal, ſulphur, and iron ore. Some gold is likewiſe found among the ſands of the Emmat and the Aar. The latter of theſe rivers is the largeſt in the whole canton, and has its ſource within it, receiving the larger Emmat, the Sanen, the Senſen, the Wigger, the Aa, the Huſs, and the Limmat, and at length loſes itſelf in the Rhine. The Candel, or Cander, is an impetuous torrent that iſſues from the Gaſter Alp, being joined by the rivulet of Alp, and afterwards by the Simmen, whence it continues its courſe through a new canal three thouſand feet in length, in the making of which an eminence a hundred and fifty-two feet high was levelled.

Among the lakes the principal is that of Geneva, the greateſt part of which is within this canton, and which we ſhall deſcribe in treating of Geneva.

To this canton likewiſe in ſome meaſure belong the lakes of Neuenburg and Biel, the latter of which is alſo called the Nydaw lake, and is very full of fiſh: it receives into it the Thiele, which iſſues from the Neuenburg lake. The borders of this lake are fruitful; they are planted with many vineyards, and almoſt in its center are two ſmall iſlands, the largeſt of which, called St. Peter's, is a delightful ſpot covered with meadows, vineyards, and the moſt beautiful woods.

The Simmenthal, or Simmen Vale, in this canton, ſays Dr. Buſching, extends between twelve and thirteen hours in length, with a breadth of only one quarter or a ſixth, and is on both ſides bounded by a ridge of high mountains, of equal length, but of very different quality, ſome of them being extremely fertile, and others barren, while others again are merely bare rocks. The rivulet of Simmen, or Siemeny which traverſes the whole length of the vale, is ſaid to have a ſeven-fold ſource, and from this circumſtance to derive its name, which it has ſince communicated to the vale. The ſtupendous height of the rocks, whence vaſt fragments frequently fall into the road, render the entrance into the vale ſomewhat frightful, eſpecially during the ſpring, when, by the diſſolution of the ice and ſnow, whole maſſes of rocks ſeparate from each other, and render it really dangerous. In this long valley are ſeveral villages; but the inhabitants in few places ſow either wheat, oats, or rye; they receiving great profit from their graſs, which is extraordinary rich, breeding vaſt numbers of cattle, from which they obtain milk, butter, and cheeſe. The beſt ſort of the latter, which is made of cream, is in great repute abroad, under the name of Saan cheeſe. The greateſt part of the inhabitants, inſtead of bread, eat thin barley-cakes, with the ſecond ſort of cheeſe; but the principal food of the common people is potatoes, and they drink milk or whey: but the more wealthy have wine, which is of a high price, it being brought over the mountains from Vivis. Some parts produce good fruit, and the rivulets abound both with red and common trout.

The territory of Haſsli, which is alſo in this canton, according to the above author, extends about eleven hours from the ſummit of the Grimſel hill. In the upper valley are fine woods of beech and pine, with plenty of graſs for cattle, both on the heights and low lands. The mountains yield moſt excellent roots, and are frequented by chamois goats, and other animals that reſort to the mountains; as alſo by wild fowl of all kinds. This country likewiſe abounds in mines, particularly in thoſe of lead and iron, as alſo in fine cryſtals.

Over the high mountain called the Grimſel hill is a road leading to Upper Geſtelen in the Valais, that is paſſable only in ſummer; and even then, on account of the ice and ſnow, is very difficult, troubleſome, and dangerous, and is with great labour and expence kept in repair by the inhabitants of the Haſsli vale. In many places this road is hewn out of the hard rock in a ſerpentine form, ſecured with walls, and connected by bridges that extend from one rock to another; and on the top of the road towards the north is a lake. On this road, at the foot of a hill, is an inn or hoſpital, where every five years the land-holders of the Haſsli vale appoint an hoſpitaller, as he is ſtiled, who continues there from the middle of March to Martinmas, that is, as long as the road is paſſable, and accommodates travellers with meat and drink, for which thoſe pay who are able, but the poor are entertained gratis. The expence is defrayed by an annual collection made throughout the whole confederacy, and even in ſome places beyond it.

Southward from the hoſpital an ice vale extends two hours in length, and afterwards for ſix hours more winds to the weſt with the mountains, terminating at laſt at the high ice-mountain of Schreckhorn; and in this vale, which is called the Grimſtelthal, lies the ſource of the river Aar, or Aren. On a part of the Grimſel hill, called Zinkenberg, a cryſtal-pit was diſcovered in 1719, which yielded cryſtal to the value of upwards of thirty thouſand rixdollars; many pieces dug in it weighing from four to ſeven and eight hundred pounds, moſt of which were without flaw, and as tranſparent as water.

The canton of Bern is well cultivated and very populous, containing thirty-nine large and ſmall towns, and above thirteen villages, with about four hundred thouſand perſons. The German is the prevailing language in the greateſt part of the canton; but in the Foreign Lands, as they are called, the French is moſtly uſed.

The whole canton is Proteſtant, except a few Papiſts, who reſide in the Vale of Frick. The churches of the German territory of Bern are ranged under ſix chapters, each of which has a dean, who is appointed by the daily council of Bern, and alſo a treaſurer aſſiſted by certain jurats; and theſe, every year, in conjunction with ſuch officers of the bailliage as live within their department, hold a chapter or ſynod.

In the year 1353 the city of Bern concluded a perpetual union with Uri, Schwitz, and Underwald, and thus became a member of the confederacy. One article of this union was, that Bern ſhould likewiſe aſſiſt Zurich and Lucern, when required by the three above-mentioned cantons, as allies of thoſe ſtates, and, at the requeſt of thoſe cantons, Zurich and Lucern were alſo to aſſiſt Bern. This canton, on account of its power and opulence, has been allowed the ſecond rank among the confederates.

Its arms are gules, a bear ſable, rampant, on a bend or.

The military affairs of this canton are under the care of a war-office, inſtituted in the capital. This office appoints the muſters, and alſo the majors who conduct them; gives orders in every thing relating to the furniture and diſcipline of the militia, and alſo the implements of war. Every male from ſixteen to ſixty is entered in the war-roll, and about one-third of them divided into regiments under the title of fuſiliers and auſſugers, who are recruited from the other two-thirds. The fuſiliers are all ſingle, picked men; but the auſſugers are married. In time of war both ſerve, but the firſt draught is made from the fuſiliers. A regiment of theſe, including the ſtaff-officers, conſiſts of two battalions, each containing five companies, and to every company are a hundred and ten men, including ten commiſſion and non-commiſſion officers; but of the auſſugers, a regiment conſiſts of twelve companies, each containing two hundred and eighteen men, thirteen of whom are officers.

Every perſon when entered on the roll is to provide himſelf with arms, which, as well as the cloathing, are to be all uniform. The colour univerſally uſed is brown, and the diſtinctions between the regiments conſiſt entirely in their facing. Among the horſe is a regiment of cuiraſſiers, who are furniſhed by the vaſſals in the Païs de Vaud and the Walſchen lands: the reſt of the horſe, one troop of curiaſſiers excepted, who are burghers of Bern, conſiſt entirely of dragoons. Every regiment contains ten troops, making in the whole five ſquadrons, who all find their reſpective horſes, arms, and accoutrements; on which account thoſe who keep horſes are generally choſen for the cavalry.

That the men thus diſtributed into regiments, and the others alſo may be provided with arms, and be rendered expert in the uſe of them, commiſſaries at arms are ſtationed all over the canton for muſtering and exerciſing the people in every department throughout the year, and for ſeeing that all their arms and accoutrements are in good order. The country is alſo divided into certain diſtricts, each under the direction of a land-major, who receives pay from the ſtates, and is to ſee that the ſoldiers are kept in conſtant readineſs to march. This officer frequently makes a progreſs for the inſpection of the officers and private men, and every year brings thoſe of his circuit to a general muſter.

A commander in chief is never appointed but in time of war, and even then he is aſſiſted by a council compoſed of the moſt eminent members of the regency and other experienced officers, without whoſe concurrence he can undertake nothing, but with their approbation any thing. As in ſuch caſes ſeveral different corps are neceſſarily put in motion, ſo each has a commander and counſellor at war. During a peace the preſident of the war-office at Bern is the firſt military officer.

Though the grand train of artillery be kept in the arſenal at Bern, yet a conſiderable number of field pieces are diſtributed all over the country, eſpecially at the manſion houſes and caſtles where the governors and prefects reſide. To this artillery belong three companies of matroſſes, and one of bombardiers, each conſiſting of one hundred men, under their proper officers; and every diſtrict knows the horſes and carriages it is to furniſh for the artillery, ſtores, and baggage. There is alſo a company of a hundred and twenty men, compoſed of various artificers, for adjuſting and repairing the artillery; as alſo another of guides, with its officers. Theſe laſt are always compoſed of ſuch as are thoroughly acquainted with the roads, bye-ways, and different parts of the country.

In time of peace the only force conſtantly kept up is a guard in the city of Bern, conſiſting of two hundred men, commanded by a town major, who is always a member of the great council, and three lieutenants, with ſeventy-five men, and three non-commiſſioned officers included, as a garriſon for Fort Arburg.

For the better regulation of levies to be made for any foreign power, Bern has a particular office called the recruit-chamber, the commiſſioners of which conſiſt of two members of the daily council, and five of the great council. From this office licences for ſuch levies are iſſued, and here the recruits make their appearance and are regiſtered.

The prefects over the countries ſubject to Bern reſide, while in office, in their ſeveral departments, and have their deputies, clerks, and collectors. In civil cauſes they ſit as judges in the bailliage courts; but from them appeals lie to the court of appeals at Bern. They puniſh petty crimes, and in greater ones draw up the indictments and form the proceſs, which being tranſmitted to the leſſer council at Bern, ſentence is there paſſed, but the execution is referred to the prefects.

The city of Bern, in Latin Berna, or Arcotopolis, is ſeated on the river Aar, which waſhes three ſides of it, forming a peninſula. Down the river at the ſtone-bridge the peninſula is ſo narrow as to be reduced to a ſingle ſtreet; but gradually widens along the ſide of an eminence three or four hundred paces in length, after which it is firſt divided into two ſtreets, then into three or four, and laſtly into five. On this eminence is a fine plain, both ſides of which are watered by the Aar, which here flows in a deep channel, and on the top towards the weſt is fortified with walls, moats, and out-works. The houſes, except thoſe in the higheſt and loweſt parts, with a few bye ſtreets, are built of ſtone, particularly in the main ſtreets, which are adorned with piazzas, neatly paved with ſquare flags, for the convenience of walking dry in rainy or ſnowy weather. The ſtreets, eſpecially the high ſtreet which runs through the center of the city, are paved with flints; and the latter is ſo broad as to admit of two carriages a-breaſt on each ſide of the canal which runs through it. The banks of this canal are lined with free-ſtone, it paſſes through moſt of the ſtreets, and makes ſufficient amends for the expence of bringing it from a conſiderable diſtance, by its being, excluſive of other uſes, of great ſervice in caſe of fires, and very convenient for carrying off the ſoil of the town into the Aar.

What appears very extraordinary at Bern is their public walks by the great church. Theſe are raiſed a prodigious height, and, that their weight might not break down the walls and pilaſters which ſurround them, they are built upon arches. The ingenious Mr. Addiſon obſerves, that theſe walks being as high from the ſtreets and gardens that lie at the foot of them, as moſt ſteeples in England, they afford the nobleſt ſummer proſpect in the world; for they give a full view of a prodigious range of mountains that lie in the country of the Griſons, and are covered with ſnow. Theſe are about twenty-five leagues diſtance from the town, though their height and colour makes them ſeem much nearer. The cathedral ſtands on one ſide of theſe walks, and is a maſter-piece in Gothic architecture. The chief miniſter is the head of the city clergy, and bears the title of dean; and formerly this church had alſo its prebends. The inferior miniſters and deacons belonging to it now officiate in the Dominican church, where was once a convent of monks of that order; but it is now divided into an hoſpital and houſe of correction, and the upper part of the choir being vaulted over, has been converted into a muſic-room for the *collegium muſicum*. A French congregation has alſo its meetings in this church. The church on the Nydec ſtands at the lower end of the city, near the bridge over the Aar, and has a particular miniſter, with an aſſiſtant. The hoſpital of the Holy Ghoſt, which ſtands in the uppermoſt part of the city, has been made parochial, and provided with a miniſter and aſſiſtant.

There is here an academy, to which belong eight profeſſors: it has three halls for public lectures, examinations, and other exerciſes, with apartments for a provoſt and twenty ſtudents in divinity, who are maintained gratis, and alſo a large public library, with a muſeum. There is likewiſe here a grammar-ſchool. Here is an œconomical ſociety, compoſed of men of letters. Under the town-hall is a large granary, and on the lower ſide ſtands the office of record. The arſenal is a very extenſive building, in which, beſides the artillery, are arms of all kinds for twenty thouſand men. Here are ſhewn the figure and armour of the count who founded the town, and thoſe of the famous Tell, who is repreſented at the head of the hall, aiming at the apple on his little ſon's head, who ſtands oppoſite to him: theſe are images of wood, in which the hands and eyes are admirably expreſſed. He appears to have been a tall raw-boned man, with a very honeſt countenance, and, according to the

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fashion of those times, one half of his coat is red, and the other black and yellow stripes alternately; his breeches and stockings are of one single piece, and an arrow sticks in his coat behind his head: the boy is laughing, as apprehending no kind of danger. They likewise shew abundance of arms, which they took from the Burgundians in the three great battles which established them in the possession of their liberties, and destroyed the great duke of Burgundy himself, with the bravest of his subjects.

The hospital is a very spacious structure, completely finished in 1742. The infirmary is another very large building.

This city is divided into four quarters, namely, those of the bakers, the butchers, the smiths, and the tanners, each having the privilege of chusing a knight-banneret. Besides these there are other companies; but it is the privilege of the former, that the four bannerets are chosen only out of those bodies.

The burghers of the city are divided into the qualified for government, and the perpetual inhabitants. The latter, consisting of such who were made freemen since the year 1635, enjoy all privileges; but are incapable of the magistracy, and all public employments, which are the peculiar portion of the former, as the descendants of those who were burghers before that year. Though the city was erected in the year 1191, as a check to the violent proceedings of the nobility, yet six very ancient noble families found means to be classed among the qualified burghers: these, besides being respected above all others, have this privilege, that when any of them are admitted a member of the senate or lesser council, he takes place of all other members, though his senior in office, and immediately follows the knights-bannerets, or tribunes of the people.

The great council, into which none is admitted under thirty years, is not to consist of less than two hundred persons; and when complete, their number amounts to two hundred and ninety-nine; but never to three hundred. This council makes war, peace, and alliances; manages every thing relating to the revenues, gratuities, aids, and buildings, above the value of one hundred rixdollars; chooses the lesser council, and nominates the several officers of the prefecturates: the members also preside in all capital causes for crimes committed within the district of the city, and likewise in civil causes, when the sum in debate exceeds the value of five hundred pounds.

In the lesser or daily council, sit the two prætors, twenty-five council-men, among which are the four knights-bannerets, and the two treasurers. These meet every day, sundays and holidays excepted, for the dispatch of all business, whether political, criminal, civil, or any other, that does not fall under the cognizance of the great council, or of any particular office.

The heads of the aristocracy are the two prætors, by the French called avoyers: their office is for life, and they act alternately every other year. The acting magistrate presides in the great and lesser council, dressed in a black robe, and sitting in a chair of state, somewhat raised; yet he is possessed of no vote, except in case of an equality, where he has the casting voice. However, on most occasions his opinion is asked. To his custody is committed the city seal, and by him all letters and other instruments are signed. The prætor out of office takes place next to the other, and, in his absence, acts as his representative, and is invested with the same marks of distinction.

Next to the prætors sits the treasurer of the German lands, who holds his place for six years, after which there must be an interval of four more before he can be a second time elected treasurer. His province is to elect and superintend the revenues of the several districts in the German lands, as also the stock belonging to the cantons in the English funds, for which he passes his accounts twice a year.

The knights-bannerets, who are the next in rank, precede all other members of the lesser council, and derive their title from their office of keeping the banners or flags of the four several parts of the town. These are impowered to see that the militia under their banner, have their arms in readiness. They are elected from the four above-mentioned tradesmen: no member of the daily council who is not free of those companies, can be made a banneret, nor can two bannerets be of the same company, each of the four having one of their own. They continue in office four years, but resign at the end of every year, that their election may be confirmed by a fresh choice. They are possessed of certain privileges in the legislature, and may stand candidates for any office not peculiar to the lesser council, and each of them is vested with the intendancy of some districts, consisting of several villages about the city.

These are followed by the treasurer of the Païs de Vaud, which office is the most profitable of all.

The country governments of the cantons being very lucrative, used to occasion great struggles; so that to prevent disputes and cabals, it was ordered in the year 1711, that these and other posts of great profit should be disposed of by lot. The candidates first draw lots about their turns in drawing for the office; after which, as many balls as there are candidates are put in a bag. These balls are all silver gilt, except one with gold, which entitles to the government. This office is indeed held only six years; but is attended with such emoluments, that within that short space, they lay up thirty or forty thousand dollars. No batchelor is capable of this or any other profitable employment: unquestionably the scope of the ordinance was to promote marriage, and thereby good order and the increase of the subjects.

In the center of the city is a large stone seat encompassed with iron rails, on which sits the acting judge, and the two members of the council next to him, when any sentence of death is to be pronounced.

The commonalty of both sexes wear straw hats, and the women's coats come so near the arm-pits, that not above an hand's breadth is left for the shape. The peasants of the canton of Bern are the wealthiest in Switzerland, there being scarce a village without at least one inhabitant worth twenty, thirty, or even sixty thousand guilders. Within these sixty years the manners of the country are become greatly altered, and a fondness for show, pleasure, and sumptuous living, is increased in a manner unknown to their simple ancestors; yet many vices are neither so bare-faced nor so common as in other cities.

To the city of Bern belong many governments, each containing a number of villages, particularly the Walschen Lands, otherwise called the Foreign or Italian Lands, which were conquered by the city of Bern in the year 1536. It will be proper here to mention the city of Lausanne.

This city, which was antiently called Lausodunum, or Lausonium, is seated in a valley, at about the distance of half a league from the lake of Geneva. The city has several gentlemen's houses in it, that are tolerably well built, and very commodious, and is furnished with two public fountains.

The wall of the cathedral was opened by an earthquake in 1634, and some years after shut by a second; but though it is at present not above an inch broad, and filled up with mortar; when Mr. Addison was there, several persons in the town were living who had formerly passed through it. The tower is not without beauty; but having been twice burned, only half of it is now standing. A smaller tower belonging to this church, was also set on fire by lightning, when they prudently beat it down by a chain ball, by which the body of the church was saved, and since that was done, a spire has been raised upon it. This church has two hundred and seventy-two stately pillars, and a fine choir. The choir is serated from the nave of the church by a fine gallery supported by eleven pillars of black marble. To this church are three gates, two great ones and a smaller; one of the largest has a fine portico, adorned with the statues of the twelve apostles, and the Virgin in the middle. The other has also a magnificent portico adorned with small figures in relievo, representing historical passages, besides some statues as big as the life.

Here were formerly eight churches more, together with two convents; but they have been most of them demolished since the Reformation, only St. Francis's church,

a handsome large structure, is still preserved for the use of the lower part of the city.

The town-house is a very handsome building, in the finest part of the city, adorned with a portico that has two fine pillars of green marble.

On the east side of the cathedral is a spacious walled terrace, like that at Bern, with this difference, that the terrace of Bern is much higher walled, and that of Lausanne has the advantage in prospect, it commanding the lake, and all the low country towards Geneva. This country, indeed, from its nature and improvements, affords a delightful view in the variety of little hills and dales, fields, meadows, vineyards, and woods, together with the neighbourhood of the lake.

The city is governed by a great and lesser council, the former of which consists of sixteen members, who have the burgomaster for their president; next to him is the treasurer, with the five bannerets, belonging to so many divisions of the city. From these councils, in causes not exceeding twelve hundred florins, appeals lie to a superior council composed of sixty members: but contests relating to larger sums, are carried before the council of Bern. It is remarkable, that there is one street in this city, in which the people have the privilege of acquitting or condemning any one of their own body in affairs of life and death; and as every inhabitant of this street has a vote, houses sell better here than in any other part of the town.

This city was formerly a bishop's see, originally founded at Avenche; but Lausanne closing with the Reformation, and coming under the sovereignty of Bern, the bishop withdrew to Freyburg. A part of the episcopal revenues was applied to the academical gymnasium erected here in 1557, and the bailiff of Bern resides in the bishop's palace, where he judges in all disputes brought before him from the country courts.

SECT. VI.

The Canton of LUCERN.

Its Situation, Extent, Rivers, and Government, with a Description of the City of Lucern.

THE canton of Lucern, which is the most considerable next to Zurich and Bern, is bounded on the east by the cantons of Underwald, Schwitz, and Zug, and on all other sides by the canton of Bern; extending thirty miles in length, and twenty in breadth.

This canton produces a sufficient quantity of corn for Uri, Schwitz, and Underwald; and as the pasturage is also excellent, the inhabitants likewise apply themselves to grazing.

The principal rivers are the Russ, which issues from the lake of Lucern, and receives the Emmat, and several other streams. The Wigger has its source in this canton, and also the Suran.

There are only four towns in this country, and the whole canton is entirely Popish, under the see of Constance. It has on all occasions been the principal abettor of Popery in Swisserland; and in 1747, and the following years, it resumed the antient severities against the Protestants, and some of these heretics, as they were called, were put to death with many aggravations of insult and cruelty.

This canton acceded to the Helvetic alliance in 1332, on which the third place was allotted to it; but it is reckoned the first and most powerful of the Popish cantons. Accordingly, whenever they assemble on religious concerns, provided such assembly be not held in one of their capital towns, the envoy of Lucern always presides. The summons are likewise issued from this city, and the recorder is always a member of the council of Lucern.

The city arms are, argent and azure party per pale, and its government is aristocratical.

The city of Lucern, in Latin Lucerna and Lucaria, is situated on the banks of the Russ, which divides it into two unequal parts, that have a communication with each other by three covered bridges. It is encompassed with a single wall, and is rich and populous, it being a well built and polite place. The inhabitants have a great trade with the merchants of Germany and Italy. The most remarkable things to be seen here, are the organ of the great church, which is very fine, and of an extraordinary size, and the skeleton of a giant in the town-house. The religious buildings are the cathedral of St. Leodigarius and Maurice, the Jesuits college, which contains a church, and four monasteries.

The depositaries of the supreme power are the lesser and greater council: the former is composed of thirty-six members, divided into two equal parts, that relieve each other every half year: the members are chosen by the lesser council alone. The greater council consists of sixty-four persons elected from among the burghers. It is likewise vested with the penal jurisdiction, judges in the last resort, and confers the freedom of the city. At Lucern usually resides a nuncio from the pope, under the title of *legatus a latere*.

The lands and towns subject to this city are divided into fifteen prefecturates.

SECT. VII.

The Canton of URI.

Its Situation, Extent, and Face of the Country; with a remarkable Road; and a concise Account of the Produce of the Country, and of its Capital.

THE canton of Uri borders towards the west on the cantons of Bern and Underwald; to the north on the canton of Schwitz; and to the eastward joins on the canton of Glaris, the Grisons, and the seven Italian districts, with the dutchy of Milan and the Valais; extending about thirty miles in length, and twelve in breadth.

It almost every where consists of dreadful mountains and deep vallies, the summits of which are perpetually covered with ice and snow. The loftiest among them, and indeed the highest in all Swisserland, is that of St. Gothard, over which is carried a fine road in one continued ascent of eight hours to the very summit of this stupendous mountain. This road deserves particular notice, it being in most parts six feet wide, and every where well paved during its whole ascent. The Russ runs by its side, sometimes to the right, and at others to the left, over which are several handsome bridges, most of which are of stone. This road in summer is perfectly safe, not only for horses but even for carriages, though in winter the fall of masses of snow have proved fatal to many travellers. It lies between very high mountains, the lower parts of which are covered with thick woods, but above are quite bare. Several parts likewise exhibit the most beautiful cataracts, either from the Russ, or other smaller streams; while many of them, by reason of the rocks that obstruct their passage, are resolved into a mist, which, by the refracting rays of the sun, form a variety of rainbows, and at the same time both charm and cool the traveller. But as he advances he is terrified at the view of frightful rocks hanging over the road, and so worn out underneath, as if they were just going to fall and crush him to atoms. On the other hand, when he finds himself shut in on all sides by such prodigious high mountains of vastly different aspects, some quite bare, and others tufted with trees, and abounding with a hundred sorts of medicinal herbs, he has reason to admire the wonderful works of the Creator, and to extol the industry and ingenuity of the inhabitants, who at immense hazard, toil, and expence, keep these roads open. For this purpose they join rocks together by arched bridges, cut a way through several rocks; and when the road seems ready to sink, support it by stout walls and buttresses with great posts, which they drive deep into the earth, and stones, which they fasten to one another by iron hooks.

At about two hours distance above the village of Gestinnu lies the largest bridge over the Russ; it is of stone, and is of a surprising height, with only one arch, which is an exact semi-circle, the piers of which rest upon two rocks also of a prodigious height; and here the noise of the rapid torrent adds to the terrors of the scene. It is fifty feet over, and its height above the water about seventy. It can scarcely be imagined how it was pos-

sible

ſible to erect a bridge there; and the inhabitants thinking it beyond the power of man to accompliſh, ſuppoſe it to be performed by the devil, and therefore call it Teuffelſbruck, or the Devil's-bridge.

Immediately beyond this bridge is a road hewn out of the ſolid rock, for the ſpace of near three hundred paces, and of a breadth ſufficient for two horſes to paſs conveniently a-breaſt. At the end of this road the country aſſumes a very different aſpect; for as the way below the bridge is bounded by two ridges of mountains, in this the traveller finds himſelf in a vale, in which is a village called Hoſpital, that extends through a valley, if that name may be given to the ſummit of a mountain eight thouſand feet high, that has other mountains ſtanding on it riſing three thouſand feet more, and ſome even higher. In this valley the road again aſcends towards the ſouth, it being paved and of a great breadth, and on each ſide defended by the higheſt mountains in Europe. In this part the road is perfectly delightful, the bare mountains, with their cataracts, having a majeſtic appearance; and the paſtures, which are cloathed with a rich verdure, are covered with great numbers of fine horſes. About half an hour farther on among the mountains lies the lake of Lozendro, out of which iſſues the Ruſs, which is at firſt no more than a narrow brook; but it ſoon receives the greater part of its waters from an adjacent mountain of ice. On the upper part of this vale are ſeveral ſmaller lakes, which may be termed the ſources of the river Teſſino, which runs beneath them on the ſide of Italy. Here is alſo a Capuchin convent, in which two fathers conſtantly attend, and for a ſmall conſideration travellers are very conveniently accommodated; but the poor are obliged to put up with the fare of an adjoining almshouſe.

On the Alps, in this canton, during the ſummer, are fattened many thouſand heads of cattle; but the beſt paſtures are on a hill called the Oberalp, the cheeſe of which is famed for its goodneſs. There is here a ſmall lake about a hundred paces in length, which abounds in fiſh, and receives moſt of its waters from the Criſpalt, a high mountain in the neighbourhood. Out of it iſſues two rivulets, one of which running eaſtward falls into the Ruſs, and the other directing its courſe eaſtward into the country of the Griſons, there forms the Upper Rhine.

The vales between the high mountains are, in ſummer, very hot and fertile, when not expoſed to the north winds. Among the mountains are alſo found numbers of beautiful cryſtals.

The inhabitants being inured to a rough and hard way of living, are vigorous, brave, and ſtrenuous aſſertors of that liberty which was ſo deeply purchaſed by their heroic anceſtors. They were once a free people, under the juriſdiction of the emperor; but Albert I. aiming at their entire ſubjection, placed a ſevere governor over them, who, by his tyranny, gave riſe, as hath been already mentioned, to an union between Uri, Schwitz, and Underwald. They threw off the Auſtrian yoke in the beginning of the year 1308, and in 1315 theſe three cantons entered into a perpetual alliance. At that time Uri held the firſt place among the confederates; but at preſent it has only the fourth.

The arms of Uri are or, a bull's head gardent ſable, having a ring gules paſſing through its noſtrils.

The government of this canton is democratical, and divided into ten diſtricts, the principal place in which is the following:

Altorf, or Altdorf, that is, the Old Village, in Latin Altorfium, the capital of the canton of Uri, is ſituated in a plain on the lake of Lucern, near the mouth of the river Ruſs, at the foot of the Alps, about twenty-three miles to the ſouth-eaſt of Lucern. The houſes are neat, and the ſtreets broad, ſpacious, and well paved, while the gardens and country houſes round it are delightful. It is the ſeat of the government, and of the courts of juſtice, who hold their meetings in the town-houſe. The provincial armoury is alſo kept here; beſides which it has a large new granary, erected in 1733. It has three churches, the principal of which is that of St. Martin; and moſt of the gentry reſide here. In the year 1400 the greateſt part of the town was deſtroyed by fire, and in 1693 it again ſuffered by the ſame calamity.

SECT. VIII.

The Canton of SCHWEITZ, *or* SCHWITZ.

Its Situation, Extent, Lakes, and Rivers; with a conciſe Deſcription of its Capital, and of the Abbey or Hermitage of Einſidlen.

THE canton of Schweitz, Schwitz, or Switz, in Latin Suitienſis Pagus, though only the fifth in rank, has the honour of giving name to the whole country, either becauſe the wars of the Swiſs for the recovery of their liberty began here, or becauſe here was formed the firſt confederacy, in defence of their natural and antient rights and privileges. This canton is bounded on the north by the cantons of Zurich and Zug; on the eaſt by Glaris; on the ſouth by Uri; and on the weſt by Lucern, Zug, and Zurich; extending from north to ſouth about twenty-eight miles, and from eaſt to weſt twenty-three.

It greatly reſembles the canton of Uri, but the parts about the lakes are more fertile. The lakes here are thoſe of Zurich, Zug, and Waldſtadten. The Sill has its ſource in this canton, and, after receiving the united ſtreams of the Biber and the Alps, enters the territories of Zurich.

The canton of Schwitz conſiſts entirely of boroughs, villages, and ſcattered houſes, without ſo much as one town. The whole country is alſo popiſh, and in church-affairs ſubject to the biſhop of Conſtance. The inhabitants are likewiſe hardy, vigorous, brave, and extremely tenacious of their liberties.

Its arms are gules, a croſs argent, placed on a canton, and its government is democratical.

The canton is divided into ſix parts, improperly called quarters, to each of which belong certain families or clans, who are not to remove their conſtant dwelling into any other quarter. The moſt remarkable places here are,

Schwitz, or Schweitz, the capital of the canton, ſituated in a pleaſant valley, between mountains generally covered with ſnow, in the eighth degree forty-three minutes eaſt longitude, and the forty-ſixth degree fifty-ſeven minutes north latitude. It is the ſeat of the ordinary regency, conſiſting of ſixty counſellors, as alſo the reſidence of ſeveral families of diſtinction; but it has only one pariſh church and three convents; with a mint, an hoſpital, and an arſenal. It was deſtroyed by fire in 1642, but rebuilt with great advantage; and is the reſidence of ſeveral families of diſtinction.

The abbey of Einſidlen, which is ſeated on the Sill, is on all ſides ſurrounded by lofty mountains, on which antiently ſtood a thick gloomy foreſt. About the year 906, St. Benno repairing hither, laid the foundation of the abbey and convent, which is of the Benedictine order, and under the direction of an abbot, who is ſtiled prince of the holy Roman empire. In 1704 the convent was rebuilt, and is now a large ſplendid edifice; the hall of which is finely painted. It has alſo a well choſen library, with a magnificent apartment and other convenient rooms for the many recluſes here, and the entertainment of ſtrangers. The minſter church of Our Lady is embelliſhed with very maſterly paintings, coſtly gildings, and very beautiful ſtucco work; but the moſt remarkable place in it is a chapel, ſtiled the Holy, in which is an image of the bleſſed Virgin, which attracts a great reſort of pilgrims, who have brought great wealth to the church; and among other offerings is an oſtenſorium, near two ells high, in which, ſays our author, are three hundred and twenty pounds and a half of gold, with eleven hundred and ſeventy-four large pearls, three hundred and three diamonds, thirty-eight ſaphires, a hundred and fifty-four emeralds, eight hundred and fifty-ſeven rubies, forty-four garnets, twenty-ſix hyacinths, and nineteen amethyſts. Near the abbey is Einſidlen, a market-town.

There is a very level fruitful part of this canton along the lake of Zurich, which is called the March, that is the Frontier, it being antiently the boundary between

the Helvetians and Rhetians, or Griſons, from whom it was only ſeparated by the river Limmat. It antiently belonged to the houſe of Auſtria; but in 1408 was taken by the troops of Appenzel, who made a preſent of it to this canton, as an acknowledgment for their aſſiſtance. In this diſtrict is contained,

Lachen, its capital, and the place where the court and council hold their meetings, ſeated on the ſouth ſide of the lake of Zurich, and is the port where travellers land who go by water from Zurich to the cantons in the mountains.

Altendorf, a village about a muſket-ſhot from the former, where, in 1704, a large fragment from the mountain, at the foot of which it ſtands, ſuddenly fell on a part of this village, and the neighbouring meadows, deſtroying a number of people and cattle, as well as houſes.

SECT. IX.

The Canton of Underwald.

Its Situation, Extent, Produce, Government, and principal Town.

UNDERWALD, or Unterwalden, in Latin Subſilvania, is bounded on the north by the canton of Lucern, and by the lake of the four cantons; on the eaſt by high mountains, which ſeparate it from the canton of Uri; on the ſouth by the ſame canton, and that of Bern; and on the weſt by that of Lucern; extending about twenty-five miles in length, and ſeventeen in breadth.

It takes its name from a large foreſt of oaks nearly in the middle of the country, that traverſes it from north to ſouth, and is divided into two parts, that above the foreſt and that below it. The canton is ſmall, but abounds in fruit and cattle. The mountains are covered with rich paſtures, and fields and the vales are remarkably fertile: for in ſpring, when the ſnow is off the ground, they are full of cattle, which being afterwards driven up the Alps, the herbage ſhoots again in ſuch a manner, as to be mowed twice in a ſummer; and in autumn the cattle, on their return from the Alps, meet again with plenty of graſs, till the ſnow ſets in again. All the lower parts of the country produce an exuberance of very fine fruit, and the canton is ſo well provided with wood, that, without any detriment, ſeveral ſpots might be cleared and improved into meadow or arable land. It has little or no wheat, and no wines are made here. In this canton are alſo good quarries of marble, and three ſulphureous ſprings. Here riſes the river Aa, and in this canton are the ſmall lakes of Lungern, Ruden, and Sarner.

There are in this canton only ſmall market-towns, villages, and ſcattered houſes. The inhabitants in their apparel and manner of life adhere to the old faſhions. They are univerſally popiſh, and form a part of the dioceſe of Conſtance.

The arms of this canton are argent, party per feſſe, with a double warded key erect, in pale gules and argent.

The government is purely democratical, the regency being the depoſitary of the whole ſupreme power, in which all males above ſixteen years of age have a right of admittance. As the country, however, conſiſts of two vales, each forming a ſeparate republic, ſo they have each their particular council and officers. To the general aſſembly of the Helvetic confederacy each vale ſends a repreſentative; but both act as for the ſame canton, the two repreſentatives enjoying only one ſingle voice.

The principal town in this canton is Stanz, or Stans, which is ſeated on the ſouth ſide of the lake of Lucern, and has a handſome church, adorned with ſtatues of black marble from quarries near the town. It has alſo a convent of Capuchins, and a nunnery. On the graves of this place are croſſes of wood and iron, and on ſome of them hang little copper kettles of holy water, which the women ſprinkle on the graves with little bunches of herbs.

SECT. X.

Of the Canton of Zug.

Its Situation, Extent, Produce, and Government; with a conciſe Deſcription of the City of Zug.

ZUG is a very ſmall canton, bordering towards the north on that of Zurich; to the eaſtward on the ſame canton, and that of Schwitz; to the ſouthward alſo on the latter, and that of Lucern; and to the weſtward on the Free Provinces, and a part of the canton of Lucern: but is not above twelve miles either way.

The paſtures here are excellent, and it alſo produces a ſufficiency of grain, with plenty of fruit, and ſome wine. On one ſide of the lake of Zug the country is covered with cheſnut trees, which form a very profitable branch of trade by the ſale of the nuts into the neighbouring countries. The woods have plenty of game; and in general it is a fine rich canton. The above lake yields carp, that weigh from fifty to ninety pounds weight, with pike of fifty pounds, and plenty of trout and other fiſh. Out of this lake runs the river Loretz, which joins the Ruſs.

The only city in this canton is Zug, all the other places here being only ſmall towns and villages. The whole country is popiſh, and under the juriſdiction of the dioceſe of Conſtance. This canton is the ſeventh in rank, and among the leſſer ones the fifth; beſides which it is in a particular manner connected with Lucern, Uri, Schwitz, and Underwald, commonly called the five territorial confederates.

Its arms are azure, a feſſe argent.

The government of this canton is entirely democratical, the ſupreme council being lodged in a council which annually meets in the town of Zug, and in which every male of ſixteen years of age is poſſeſſed of a vote. It is compoſed of deputies from the five diviſions of the canton. The chief perſon here is named the amman, who is alternately elected from the town and the territory; but the town amman continues in office three years, while that of the country enjoys his office only two. This officer muſt always reſide in the town. Next to him is the ſtadtholder, who keeps the provincial ſeal. The daily diſpatch of incidental occurrences, and the ordinary public affairs are committed to the ſtadt and amſtrath, which conſiſts of forty members, that is, thirteen from the town, and twenty-ſeven from the country. The penal juriſdiction is lodged in the amman, aſſiſted by certain aſſeſſors from the town and country. Beſides the town, every quarter in the canton has a diſtinct council and recorder of its own for the management of its affairs. For the adminiſtration of juſtice, the city has two courts, named the greater and leſs, one half of the members of which are appointed by the city, and the other half by the two quarters of Ægeri and Bar.

The principal place in this canton is the city of Zug, in Latin Tugium; it is ſituated on the eaſt ſide of the lake of the ſame name, which is about ſeven miles long, and at the foot of an agreeable hill, which gradually riſes to a great height, in the forty-ſeventh degree ſeven minutes north latitude, and in the eighth degree thirty-four minutes eaſt longitude, ſixteen miles to the eaſt of Lucern. It has ſpacious ſtreets, and the houſes are well built. It has a collegiate church, a pariſh church, a convent of Capuchins, and a nunnery. In 1435, the town ſuffered by a melancholy accident; when a ſtreet by the ſide of the lake was ſwallowed up by it, with a whole row of houſes, and the town-wall on that ſide, and yet it is ſaid, that no more than fifty perſons were drowned.

SECT. XI.

The Canton of Glaris.

Its Situation, Extent, the Face of the Country, and its Produce: its Rivers and Lakes; the Religion and Government of

of the Country; with a Deſcription of the City of Glaris its Capital.

THE canton of Glaris, or Glaurus, is bounded on the eaſt by the county of Sargans, and the country of the Griſons; to the ſouth by the latter, and the canton of Uri; to the weſt by the latter, and the canton of Schwitz; and to the northward by the March and Gaſter, extending, according to ſome authors, near twenty-five miles from north to ſouth, and eighteen from eaſt to weſt.

On the eaſt, ſouth, and weſt borders, it is environed with mountains of ſo great height, that they are continually covered with ice and ſnow, particularly by the Todiberg, which is eſteemed one of the higheſt in all Swiſſerland, and is almoſt impaſſable, notwithſtanding a road has with great labour been made over it from the great vale in Glaris to the country of the Griſons. From the north, where the country is open, a valley extends to the ſouthward for the length of eight hours; but below Schwenden, the mountain named Freyberg, divides into two ſeparate vales, the greater and the leſs; the former of which lies to the weſt, and the latter to the eaſt of that hill: beſides which, there are ſeveral other vallies among the ridges of the mountains.

Though theſe vales are in many parts extremely proper for agriculture, very little grain is ſown in them; the inhabitants being chiefly employed in grazing horſes, and ſheep on the Alps; and with theſe cattle they alſo feed many thouſand heads of horned cattle, carry on a profitable trade, and likewiſe export cheeſe, butter, and tallow. On theſe mountains are large woods of pine, with cryſtal pits. The high mountain named Blattenberg yields vaſt quantities of ſlate, which being poliſhed and formed into tables, or put into wooden frames for writing, are exported to all parts. Of all the mountains in Swiſſerland, that named Freyberg affords the ſafeſt refuge for the chamois goats; only twelve ſworn hunters being permitted to ſhoot them, and theſe at no other time but between St. James's day and Martinmas.

Among the Alps are ſeveral mineral waters and baths The largeſt river here is the Linth, which iſſues out of two rivulets in this canton, and traverſing the country from ſouth to north, receives the Sernſt, which is formed by the conflux of ſeveral ſmall ſtreams. The Lontſch iſſues from the lake of Clonthal, and the Sees is the outlet of the lake of Wallenſtadt, which extends from weſt to eaſt no leſs than four hours, though it is not one in breadth. Towards the eaſt and weſt it lies quite open; but its north and ſouth ſides are terminated by very high craggy rocks and precipices. The barks and paſſage boats receive great advantage from the remarkable regularity of the winds in theſe parts, which early in the morning ſet in with an eaſterly breeze, and thus continue till about ten o'clock, when a calm takes place till noon, and then is ſucceeded by a weſterly wind till ſun-ſet; when if the weather be fair, the eaſterly breeze then returns. This regular ſucceſſion of the winds is only interrupted by a north blaſt, and that not often. Theſe phænomena, however, are accounted for from the ſituation of the lake.

The greateſt part of the inhabitants are Calviniſts, the reſt are Papiſts, and in many pariſhes they are intermixed, yet they live peaceably enough, divine ſervice being in many places alternately performed by both in the very ſame churches; ſo that on one Sunday the maſs begins, after which a curtain being drawn before the altar, the Calviniſt ſervice follows; the next Sunday the Calviniſts begin, and when they have done, maſs is performed. To the Calviniſts belong thirteen pariſhes; but there is only one that can be ſtiled entirely Popiſh, though at Glaris and Linthal, they have their eccleſiaſtics equally with the Calviniſts, and are under the biſhop of Conſtance.

The number of males in this canton above ſixteen years of age, amount to ſomewhat more than four thouſand. The principal buſineſs and trade of the inhabitants is grazing, though they are not without manufactures, as thoſe of cotton, and a kind of cloth called matzen.

The arms of this canton are gules, a pilgrim bearing a ſtaff, ſable.

Its government is democratical, the ſupreme power being lodged in the court called landeſgemeine, which is held once a year in a field without the town of Glaris, and to this council the males of both religions, who are upwards of ſixteen years of age, have admittance. Beſides theſe, each religion has its particular landeſgemeine, which are likewiſe held annually in the open fields. The principal perſons in the whole country are the landamman and the ſtadtholder, both of whom are alternately elected from among the Calviniſts and Papiſts, with this diſtinction, that the Calviniſt landamman holds his office for three years, and that of the Papiſts two; but with the ſtadtholder it is the reverſe, the Calviniſt ſtadtholder continuing in office only two years, and the Popiſh three. The landamman uſually ſummons the general and particular counſellors of his ſect: the like is done by the ſtadtholder, and each preſides in the courts he thus ſummons. The landamman keeps the ſeal of the canton; but when buſineſs calls him out of his territories, delivers it to the ſtadtholder, who is preſident during his abſence. Next to the chief officers is the banneret, who is alternately elected from among the two religions, and holds his office during life. The court called the landrath is compoſed of ſixty-three members, forty-eight of whom are Calviniſts, and fifteen Popiſh, and, when neceſſary, is held in the town of Glaris, the landamman ſitting as preſident; and each ſect has its particular landrath, for their ſeparate concerns: the landrath of each religion has alſo the criminal juriſdiction over the votaries of ſuch religion; but if the delinquent be a foreigner, he is tried by both landraths.

Military affairs are managed by the provincial captains, provincial enſigns, maſters of artillery, and bannerets. The Calviniſts have their own council of war, conſiſting of ſeven members.

The only town in this canton is,

Glaris, or Glarus, in Latin and Italian Glarona, ſituated between the lofty mountain of Glarnich, and the river Linth, in the forty-ſeventh degree north latitude, and in the ninth degree eight minutes eaſt longitude, and is a large and handſome place. The Proteſtants and Papiſts live very peaceably together, and perform divine worſhip in the ſame church one after another, in the manner already obſerved; but the Calviniſts are by far the moſt numerous. The landraths and courts of juſtice are uſually held in the town-houſe, and juſt without the town is the place where the annual landeſgemeine of the two ſects are held. This town has been ſeveral times deſtroyed by fire.

SECT. XII.

Of the Canton of BASIL.

Its Situation, Extent, Produce, and Rivers; with a particular Deſcription of the City of Baſil and its Government.

THE canton of Baſil is bounded on the eaſt by the Frickthal; on the ſouth by the territory of Solothurn; on the weſt by the ſame country, the dioceſe of Baſil, and the Sundgaw; on the north by the lordſhip of Roteln in the margravate of Baden-Durlach, extending about twenty-four miles from north to ſouth, and twenty-one from eaſt to weſt.

The country from Baſil to Lichſtal abounds in corn and wine; but beyond it is extremely mountainous, cold, and barren, except the vallies on theſe mountains, where are the moſt beautiful paſtures covered with cattle. In the city of Baſil are ſeveral medicinal ſprings, and in the reſt of the country baths of approved virtue. The Rhine waters the north-eaſt ſide of the canton, and the other rivers are the Ergets, the Birs, the Birſig, or Birſec, and the Weſen.

In the whole canton are three towns, which have conſtantly perſevered in the profeſſion of the proteſtant religion, ever ſince its introduction in 1529. It contains twenty-ſeven pariſhes, divided into three deaneries.

The

The arms of the city of Basil are argent, a figure sable, by some supposed to be the ferril of a pilgrim's staff, and by others a fish-hook.

Its government is aristocratical. The provincial militia is divided into two regiments, each consisting of ten companies and a troop of dragoons; to each regiment is a colonel, a lieutenant-colonel, and a major.

The principal places in this canton are the following,

Basil, or Basel, in French Basle and Bâle, and in Latin Basilea, is the capital of the whole canton, and the largest city in all Switzerland. It is seated in a fertile and delightful country, on the banks of the Rhine, on the confines of Alsace and the empire, in the forty-seventh degree thirty-six minutes north latitude, and in the seventh degree thirty-six minutes east longitude.

The Rhine, which divides it into two parts, called the Greater and Less, is here joined by the little rivers Birs and Birsec; the bridge over the Rhine which unites the two towns, is six hundred feet in length. On a tower which stands on the side is a crowned Moor's head, which every minute thrusts out its long red tongue: but this droll figure does not, however, says Mr. Keysler, give such a disgust, as a filthy representation in a little cabin standing on the middle of the bridge, before which the public prostitutes, at their being banished the town, are brought to undergo some ridiculous ceremonies. The city, which lies on the German side of the Rhine, is called the Lesser Town, and has its own jurisdiction; but is subordinate to the Great Town, and has no fortifications. The Great Town has five suburbs, and besides its walls, is fortified with towers, moats, and four bastions; but is not of any great strength. Basil contains two hundred and twenty streets, six market-places, and ninety-nine wells. Its situation is uneven, most of the streets being crooked, and paved with sharp stones, which are designed for the surer footing of the horses that carry loads up hill. In this part lie the three principal churches and parishes, the minster, or antient cathedral, St. Peter's, and that of St. Leonard. To the minster belong four other parishes, the priests of which also assist in that cathedral. The French perform divine service in the church of a Dominican convent.

The Teutonic order have a commandery here, as have also the order of St. John near the church of that name; the house belonging to the order is inhabited by the bailiff, and sometimes by the commander himself. The town-house, which stands on the river Birsec, is supported by very large pillars, and its great hall is finely painted by the celebrated Holbein. Those who are admirers of pictures should not neglect to take a view of these, and particularly of the Dance of Death, on a covered wall near the French church, representing a long train of persons of all sorts, holding one another by the hand, Death leading the dance. Holbein was a native of Basil, and having learned his art without any instructor, had a peculiar turn in all his pieces. The university, which was founded in 1459, has a very curious physic-garden, which contains the choicest exotics, and adjoining to the library is a valuable museum well furnished with natural and artificial curiosities, and particularly with medals and paintings; and in the cabinets of Erasmus and Amerbach, which also belong to the university, there are no less than twenty original pieces of Holbein; for one of which, representing a dead Christ, a thousand ducats have been offered. The Helvetic society apply their attention to the improvement of science, besides which there is a philological society of Germans.

Near the minster, and close by the Rhine, is a spot of ground regularly planted with trees, commanding a most beautiful and extensive prospect. On this spot stands an academy, in which are no less than eight classes. St. Peter's square is planted with elm and lime trees, and there the celebrated doctor Feesch built his noble museum, which is greatly admired by persons of literary curiosity, ordering, that, on the failure of civilians in his family, it should fall to the university. The margrave of Baden-Durlach has a stately palace in the new suburb, which contains a most splendid chamber of curiosities in art, nature, antiquities, and paintings.

In the little town is the parish church of St. Theodore, with a Carthusian convent, that was originally a nunnery of Clarists, though it now serves as an orphan-house and a house of correction. In the church of this convent morning prayers are read and sermons preached, as likewise in a building that was once an Augustine nunnery.

The supreme power is lodged in the great council, which is composed of two hundred and sixteen persons, under two burgomasters and two wardens of trades. Out of each of the fifteen companies of the greater city are elected fifteen representatives, and out of each of the three companies of the little city twelve. The lesser council is composed of six members and a president, who are selected from among the great council. Thus the four principal persons, in conjunction with the greater and lesser councils, form together an assembly of two hundred and eighty persons. The other colleges here are the privy-council, in which are discussed all affairs of importance, relating either to war or the police; and the opinion of this council is laid before the lesser, and after that before the greater council: the dreyerherren, which superintend the city revenues and treasury, as also the disbursements of the government: the supreme inspectors of the churches and schools within the town and country, who are composed of three members of the lesser council and the city recorder; besides which each town has a particular court for the determination of civil causes.

All military affairs in the city are under the inspection of two principal commissaries at war, who are always the two burgomasters, an inferior commissary, a town lieutenant, and town major, assisted by the captains of the guards in the great town and the five suburbs, and likewise by those of the lesser town.

A great trade is carried on at Basil in ribbons. The police is under great regulations; most of the offices being bestowed by lot, and none but qualified persons admitted candidates: but a person can seldom hold a lucrative employment above five years. No person is to wear silver or gold lace, under the penalty of three guilders for every offence; and all unmarried women are prohibited wearing silk cloaths. The garb of the counsellors, ministers, and professors, with their stiff ruffs, long beards, and high crowned hats, give them a very solemn and singular appearance.

Here is a remarkable singularity, which is, that the clocks in the city of Basil are always an hour faster than those of the country; the reason for which is variously related. Among others, it is said, that it was in order to bring the fathers of the famous council which sat here earlier together, for the quicker dispatch of business. However, the custom still continues. Salmon comes up to this part of the Rhine to spawn, and bits of gold are sometimes found in this neighbourhood, which shew that there are mines of gold near the river; but it does not appear that they have yet been discovered.

About a quarter of a league without the city is a lazar house, with a church on the spot where, in 1444, sixteen hundred Swiss bravely fought for ten hours a French army under the command of the Dauphin, consisting of thirty thousand; the former were all killed except sixteen, but not before they had slain six thousand of the enemy.

SECT. XIII.

The Canton of FREYBURG.

Its Situation, Extent, Produce, and Rivers: the Languages spoken there: the Government and military Force of the Country; with a particular Description of the City of Freyburg, and of a remarkable Hermitage.

THE canton of Freyburg, or Friburg, is encompassed on all sides by the canton of Bern, a few places only excepted, which border on the Neuenburg lake, and some districts belonging in common to Bern and Freyburg. Its length from north to south is near forty-seven miles, and its breadth from east to west about twenty-seven.

The north-west parts of the country are less mountainous than the others, and consequently produce plenty of corn and fruit, and even some wine; but though the other parts are mountainous, they have good pastures,

on which feed large herds of cattle. The inhabitants export great quantities of cheese to France and other countries.

The principal rivers of this canton are the Sanen, the Sansen, and the Broye, or Bruw; the first of which rises in the canton of Bern, and in the territory of Freyburg receives the second at its issue out of a lake, after which it joins the Aar in the territory of Bern. The third rises in this country, and having successively traversed the territories of Bern and Freyburg enters the Murter lake, from whence it issues again, but at length both its stream and name are lost in the lake of Neuenburg.

In this canton are seven towns, the inhabitants of which speak a kind of Patois, or a corrupt medley of German and French; but in the town of Freyburg the pure German prevails among persons of rank, that language being used in the council in all public instruments, and in the two churches; it is also commonly spoke in a small part of the town that lies towards Bern. The German likewise prevails in several parts of the canton, but the Patois is used in the greatest part.

Both the town and the country are entirely Popish, and under the jurisdiction of the bishop of Lausanne, who resides at Freyburg. The whole canton includes under it a hundred and four parishes, which are ranged under their respective deaneries. In 1481 this canton was received into the perpetual union of the Helvetic body, at which time it formed the ninth in rank; but on the accession of Basil it voluntarily degraded itself to the tenth.

The arms of the town are party per fesse, sable and argent.

The military affairs are under the direction of a commander in chief, assisted by seven other persons. The burghers of the town of Freyburg are divided into four companies; but the country militia constitute eleven regiments.

The most remarkable places in this canton are the following:

Freyburg, or Fribourg, seated on the river Sane in a deep valley among high rocks, and so irregularly that the inhabitants are forced to climb up several parts of it to a prodigious height; but this inconvenience is counterbalanced by a singular advantage; for having several reservoirs on the tops of the mountains, if a fire breaks out in any part of the town, they, by opening a sluice, convey a river to the very spot where it is immediately wanted. The town is on all sides environed with a wall and towers, though on the north, south, and eastern sides the rocks might have supplied the place of those works. The four parts into which it is divided are named the Burg, the Aue, the New Town or square, and the Spital or Square. In the first is the collegiate church of St. Nicholas, in which the service is performed in German; the states-office; the council-house, which stands on a high rock, and commands a grand prospect, particularly of the delightful course of the Sone; a nunnery; and a Capuchin convent, which contains a seminary for philosophy and divinity. Mr. Addison, speaking of this convent, says, that he here saw the Escargatoire, which is a square place boarded in and filled with a vast quantity of large snails, which, when well dressed, are esteemed excellent food. The floor is strewed about half a foot deep with several kinds of plants, among which the snails nestle all the winter. At Lent they open their magazines and, take out of them the best meagre food in the world; for there is no dish of fish which they esteem comparable to a ragout of snails.

In the second division is the church of St. John the Minor, together with the convent of Augustine Eremites, in the church of which the service is performed in German. Here is also the hospital of St. James, which likewise contains a church.

In the third division is the church of St. John the Elder, with a commandery-house of that order adjoining to it, a Franciscan nunnery, and a very large granary.

In the fourth division is the parochial church of Notre Dame, with a convent of bare-footed friars which serves as a kind of academy for philosophy, the mathematics, and divinity: in this convent the service is performed in French. There are also the fine college of Jesuits, said to be the most beautiful in Swisserland; but it stands so high, that the ascent to it consists of some hundred steps, and here the French language is also used in the church; an Ursuline nunnery; the great hospital, which contains a church; the arsenal; the defensional office; the salt-office, and the mint; the manufacture-house, and other public edifices.

The government is aristocratical, the patritii, or certain privileged families, to the number of seventy-one, being alone qualified to sit in the lesser or greater council; but before even these can have a share in the government, they must be free of one of the thirteen companies of the city. The supreme power is lodged in the lesser and greater council of two hundred members, that is, in twenty-four lesser counsellors, and a hundred and twelve burghers. The head person in the state is named the prætor, or avoyer; and of these there are two, who act annually by turns. The senior in the lesser council is always stadtholder, and at the same time colonel of the canton, and takes place next to the prætor. Every three years a burgomaster is chosen from among the lesser council, in order to attend to the behaviour of the burghers, and he has the power of punishing some crimes by his own personal authority. The general and upper *commissarii*, of whom one or two may be elected from among the lesser or greater council, superintend the fiefs, jurisdictions, lordships, and other possessions of the state. The privy-council is composed of the four bannerets, and six members from each of the four divisions of the town. This court generally sits four times a year, and, besides electing the members of the great council, is empowered to lay before the government such schemes as are thought of advantage to the public. The town court is vested with the civil jurisdiction of the city, and by order of the lesser council, to which alone the power of life and death belongs, hears also criminal cases. The country court decides all contests and processes among the inhabitants of the antient territory. The court of appeals receives appeals from most of the provinces, and its decrees are decisive, except the party cast can make it appear to the bannerets and the recorder that his honour, fortune, and life, depend on the issue; upon which he is allowed to appeal to the greater or lesser council.

About two leagues from Freyburg is an hermitage, that is esteemed the greatest curiosity in these parts. It is situated in the most agreeable solitude imaginable, among woods and rocks, which at first sight dispose a man to be serious. In this place an hermit had lived twenty-five years, who with his own hand had formed in the rock a pretty chapel, a sacristy, a chamber, parlour, refectory, kitchen, cellar, and other conveniencies: Notwithstanding the rooms lie very deep, his chimney is carried up through the whole rock, to the height of ninety feet. He had also cut the side of the rock into a flat for a garden, and by laying upon it waste earth, which he found in several of the neighbouring parts, made such a spot of it as furnished out a kind of luxury for an hermit. In short, seeing drops of water distilling from several parts of the rock, he by following the veins made two or three fountains in the bowels of the mountain that at once served his table, and watered his little garden.

The chapel is sixty-three feet long, thirty-six broad, and twenty-two in height. The sacristy, or vestry, is twenty-two feet both ways, and fourteen in height. The steeple is seventy feet high to the top of the rock, and six in breadth. The saloon, or anti-chamber, between the chapel and the refectory, is forty-four feet by thirty-four. The refectory, in which are his bed and stove, are twenty-one feet long. The hall, or parlour, is thought to be the most surprising performance, it being twenty-eight paces in length, twelve in breadth, and twenty feet high, with four openings representing large windows. At one end of it was his cabinet, with his little library. The cellar is ten feet deep, and twenty-five long.

This hermit, whose name was John de Pre, began to hollow the rock at thirty years of age, and said he was twenty-five years in compleating it, having had no sort of assistance in this work from any person but his valet. The river Sane flows by the foot of the rock, and round this wonderful hermitage is an easy descent covered by

part of a delightful foreſt, in which are ſhady woods and avenues.

It is impoſſible to view this ſtructure without a mixture of concern for the fate of its firſt owner, a man of ſuch contrivance and induſtry, who carrying back ſome young people that came to viſit him on the conſecrating of his chapel in the year 1708, was drowned in the river Sane, on which he uſed once a week to fetch neceſſaries from the town in a little boat.

SECT. XIV.

The Canton of SOLOTHURN.

Its Situation, Extent, Produce, and Rivers. The Religion of the Inhabitants, and a Deſcription of the City of Solothurn.

THE canton of Solothurn is bounded on the eaſt and ſouth by the canton of Bern, on the weſt by the territory of Baſil and the dioceſe of that name, and on the north by the canton of Baſil, extending on both ſides the river Aar about twelve miles from north to ſouth, and ten where broadeſt from eaſt to weſt.

It conſiſts partly of Mount Jura, and partly of a level country. Its ſoil is tolerably fertile, particularly in the level parts, which yield grain and fruit, and in ſome of the diſtricts of this canton are fine woods, paſtures, and vineyards. The rivers of this canton are the Aar, or Aren, which is joined by the greater Emmat.

In the whole canton are two towns and four villages. The eſtabliſhed religion is Popery, except in one of the diſtricts, which is named Bucheckberg, where the inhabitants are Calviniſts, and the miniſters are nominated by the city of Bern. The Popiſh churches here are diſtributed among the dioceſes of Conſtance, Baſil, and Lauſanne.

Solothurn can raiſe ten thouſand men. It was received into the Helvetic body in the year 1481, and is in rank the eleventh canton.

Its arms are party per feſſe gules and argent, and its government ariſtocratical.

Solothurn, in Latin Soludurum, and in French Soleurre, the capital of the canton, is ſituated in the forty-ſeventh degree ſeventeen minutes north latitude, and in the ſeventh degree thirty-five minutes eaſt longitude, in a fertile and pleaſant country on the river Aar, by which it is divided into unequal parts, and the city is ſurrounded on both ſides that river with new fortifications of free-ſtone at a vaſt expence. Its beſt fortifications are, however, the high mountains that lie within its neighbourhood. It contains a collegiate church, with an abbey dedicated to St. Urſina, a very fine Jeſuits college, a convent of bareſooted monks, and an arſenal. The Jeſuits church is the fineſt modern building in Swiſſerland, and is famous for its paintings, ſtucco-work, and frontiſpiece, to which Lewis XIV. gave ten thouſand livres. At a ſmall diſtance from it ſtood the old cathedral, on the aſcent to which are two antique pillars, which, by their proportion, ſeem to be of the Tuſcan order, and belonged to an old heathen temple dedicated to Hermes. The ſtreets are large and adorned with fountains, and the neighbouring country is planted with very fine walks.

This city is the uſual reſidence of the French envoy to the cantons, and its burghers are ranged into eleven companies, out of which both the greater and leſſer councils are elected and filled up; and, in ſhort, their government is much like that of Freyburg.

The lands belonging to this city are divided into eleven diſtricts, in which are a conſiderable number of populous villages.

SECT. XV.

The Canton of SCHAFFHAUSEN.

Its Situation, Extent, and Produce. A Deſcription of the City of Schaffhauſen, with its Government; and of a remarkable Cataract.

SCHAFFHAUSEN is the moſt northern of all the cantons of Swiſſerland, and is for the moſt part ſurrounded by Swabia, the canton of Zurich, and the Black-foreſt; extending about twenty miles from eaſt to weſt, and twelve from north to ſouth.

This country produces a good deal of corn, though not ſufficient for the inhabitants, who are ſupplied with what they want from Swabia. It abounds in paſture, hay, and fruit, and exports a great deal of red wine. Inſtead of loſty mountains it has fertile eminences. The Rhine is the only river of any note in this canton.

In the whole country there are but two towns. The inhabitants are of the Calviniſt religion, and the pariſhes, beſide thoſe of Schaffhauſen, are nineteen in number. In 1501 this canton was received into the perpetual alliance, and thus became the twelfth canton.

The arms of Schaffhauſen are argent, a ram ſaliant and ſable, with a crown or.

The town of Schaffhauſen, in Latin Scaphuſium and Probatopolis, is ſeated on the Rhine, over which it has a handſome ſtone bridge, in the forty-ſeventh degree forty-ſeven minutes north latitude, and in the eighth degree forty-ſix minutes eaſt longitude. The churches here are thoſe of St. John, which has the reputation of being the largeſt in all Swiſſerland; All Saints church, called the minſter, once belonged to a Benedictine abbey, and having been enlarged and beautified at the city's expence, is eſteemed a fine ſtructure; and on the largeſt bell, which is ſaid to weigh ten tons, and to be thirty feet round, is this inſcription:

Vivos voco, mortuos plango, fulgura frango.

That is,

"I ſummon the living, bewail the dead, and break "lightning."

For in the ages of ſuperſtition it was imagined, that bells derived a power of diſperſing tempeſts, ſuppoſed to be raiſed by evil ſpirits, from the baptizing of them, which was performed with a deal of ſhew and ceremony. There are likewiſe two other churches. Beſides theſe buildings it has a *ſchola illuſtris*. It was antiently called Schifhauſen, or Barge-houſe, as here the boats coming down the Rhine from the lake of Conſtance were obliged to land their goods, on account of the cataracts at Lauffen, at which place they were put on board other veſſels; but its name was changed to Schaffhauſen, which ſignifies ſheepfold, it having probably carried on a conſiderable trade in ſheep.

Moſt of the houſes are painted on the outſide, and are as commodious as handſome; the ſtreets are ſpacious and clean, adorned with ſeveral fountains, that have generally pillars in their baſons, and ſtatues of William Tell, the famous archer, or ſome other deliverers of their country.

At the upper end of the town ſtands a large tower, with a good number of guns mounted; but which ſerve more for ornament than defence. On the higheſt ground of all is a citadel, which commands the town, with thick walls, two wells, an arſenal, and lodgments under ground bomb-proof, capacious enough to contain two thouſand men. The town itſelf is well fortified with walls and towers even next the Rhine. Without the walls are three ſuburbs, in one of which is a plentiful ſpring, and near it is a large deep quarry.

The burghers of Schaffhauſen are computed at two thouſand; the arſenal is far from being conſiderable, yet, on any emergency, ſufficient to arm the townſmen, and other ſubjects, who, otherwiſe, are not without neceſſary arms, every common inhabitant, or peaſant, going to church with his ſword by his ſide: and whoever appears before the magiſtrate without that weapon and his cloak, incurs a ſevere penalty. Over great part of the diſtrict of Mount Jura, particularly in the canton of Bern, the men go to church not only with their ſwords, but bayonets and firelocks, which, during the ſervice, they either keep by them, or hang up in a particular corner of the church; an uſage, not improbably, derived from the frequent commotions of former times, and the wars with the Burgundians, againſt whom, as an adjacent and dangerous enemy, it behoved them to be continually upon their guard.

The

The ſupreme power in Schaffhauſen is lodged in the leſſer and greater councils, the former of which is compoſed of twenty-four, and the latter of ſixty members, an equal number of whom are choſen out of the twelve companies of the town, the firſt of which conſiſts of ſix noble families. The principal perſons in the ſtate are two burgomaſters, who enter upon their office alternately every year, and next to theſe is the ſtadtholder. The privy-council conſiſts of ſeven perſons, and the town-court of twenty-five. The matrimonial-court is compoſed of the ſtadtholder, five counſellors, and three miniſters.

The principal trade of this city conſiſts in unlading of veſſels, and the exporting of linen, copper, and other metals, by means of the Rhine.

The city entered into a league with Zurich and St. Gall in 1424, and with Zurich, Bern, Lucern, Schweitz, &c. in 1501, and in 1529 embraced the doctrines of the Reformation.

About a quarter of a league from Schaffhauſen is a tremendous cataract on the Rhine, where that river precipitates from a rock ſaid to be ſeventy feet high, and ninety paces in breadth. Even before the Rhine reaches this cataract, the ground is very rocky; and at the fall divides itſelf into three ſtreams, of which the green beds and ſilver vortices make an agreeable contraſt to the beholder; but at the ſame time his mind cannot help being filled with a mixture of dread and amazement at the roar of the waters: on the ſouth, or the Zurich ſide, is the moſt impetuous breach, the violence of the fall altering the water, as it were, to a white duſt, part of which, like a light cloud or miſt, hovers in the air, and with the intercepted ſun-beams forms a variety of moſt brilliant rainbows.

SECT. XVI.

The Canton of APPENZEL.

Its Situation, Extent, Produce, and Rivers: the Religion of the Inhabitants, their Manufactures, and military Strength; with a conciſe Account of the Town of Appenzel.

APPENZEL is bounded on the eaſt by the Rheinthal, on the ſouthward by the canton of Zurich and that of Schweitz, to the weſtward by Tockenburg, and to the northward by the territory of the town and abbey of St. Gall, extending thirty miles in length, and about twenty-four in breadth.

The country along the Rheinthal is very fruitful, but that bordering on the high chain of hills to the ſouthward is rugged and mountainous; yet its natural ſterility has been overcome by the perſevering induſtry of the laborious inhabitants, in ſuch a manner, that ſcarce any barren ſpots are to be ſeen; at leaſt they afford good paſture; but their agriculture is both chargeable and toilſome. The country produces wheat, rye, barley, oats, peas, beans, and flax in abundance and of extraordinary goodneſs, though they are too frequently injured by the froſt in the ſpring. This canton alſo produces a ſufficient quantity of wine to ſupply the whole country; but the white wine made here is tart, though the red is good; and there are ſuch plenty of fruit, that vaſt quantities of cyder and perry are made here. Wood abounds every where, ſo that the inhabitants are enabled to ſupply the adjacent countries.

This canton abounds in mineral waters, and the rivers and brooks in moſt parts contain plenty of fiſh, particularly of fine trouts. The principal river is the Sitter, which iſſues out of the Alperſee, the largeſt lake in the whole country, and being increaſed by the rivulets called the White-water, the Weiſhach, and the Urnach, enters the territories of the abbot of St. Gall. The Aach, another river that riſes in this country, after traverſing the territories of the abbot of St. Gall, where it is called the Goldach, diſcharges itſelf into the lake of Conſtance.

There is only one town in the whole canton, and only eight villages; the other dwellings of the inhabitants being ſcattered about. There are, however, twenty pariſhes, of which four, with two chapels of eaſe, are Popiſh, and nineteen Calviniſt. From the year 1522, in which the Proteſtant religion was firſt introduced till 1588, very great animoſity ſubſiſted between the country people on account of religion, till, by the mediation of the other twelve cantons, peace was reſtored. Thoſe of the Romiſh church are in ſpiritual matters under the juriſdiction of the biſhop of Conſtance.

The Proteſtants annually weave many thouſand pieces of linen, which are either vended at home, or at Trogen, St. Gall, and other places, and from thence exported into France, Italy, Spain, and Germany. The thread ſpun by the women at Appenzel, and thoſe beyond the Sitter is ſo fine, as to ſell for upwards of ſixteen guilders the pound. Great quantities of thread are alſo bought up in the Rheinthal, Tockenburg, the Thurgau, and Swabia, and manufactured here. The other conſiderable exports of this canton are cheeſe, cattle both fat and lean, horſes, wood, and charcoal.

The arms of this canton are argent, a bear erect ſable, with paws gules.

The common defence of the country is not only provided for by means of a war-office; but every man is to furniſh himſelf with a muſket, powder, and ball. Both the young and old are exerciſed at certain periods, and their arms inſpected from houſe to houſe. In each pariſh are five draughts of their young men ranged under commiſſion and non-commiſſion officers, who are always ready to march on the firſt notice. This canton is able to bring a conſiderable force into the field, and next to Bern, Zurich, Lucern, and Freyburg, is the moſt powerful of the whole confederacy. The Calviniſts are three times the number of the Papiſts, the ſoldiery of the latter not exceeding three thouſand; whereas thoſe of the former amount to ten thouſand.

The principal place in this canton is Appenzel, in Latin called Abbatis Cella, which name it obtained from an abbot's cell, built here in the eighth century. It is ſituated in a delightful valley, on the bank of the river Sitter, in the forty-ſeventh degree thirty-ſix minutes north latitude, and in the ninth degree one minute eaſt longitude, thirty-one miles to the eaſt of Zurich. It has one pariſh church, with a convent of Capuchins, a nunnery of Clariſts, an armoury, and a town-houſe: here alſo the antient general record-office of the whole canton is kept, and the courts of juſtice are held.

We have now laid before the reader as diſtinct a view as we were able of the thirteen cantons, and ſhall proceed to thoſe bailiwics, or governments, which, though not within any of the above cantons, are jointly poſſeſſed by two or more of them; and ſhall then proceed to deſcribe the aſſociated countries.

SECT. XVII.

Of the Places ſubject to the Thirteen Cantons, and firſt of Thurgau: its Situation, Extent, Produce, and Rivers; the Manner in which it was obtained by the Swiſs; with its Government, and a Deſcription of the Cities of Frauenfeld and Arbon.

THE bailiwick of Thurgau, or Thurgaw, is bounded on the eaſt by the lake of Conſtance; on the ſouth by the countries belonging to the prince and abbot of St. Gall; on the weſt by the cantons of Zurich and Schaffhauſen; and on the north by Swabia and the Lower lake, which by ſome is held to be a part of the lake of Conſtance.

Though this country is ſomewhat mountainous towards the ſouth, yet it there affords rich paſtures, and its other parts, which approach nearer to plains, produce plenty of grain, with vegetables and fruit of all kinds, as alſo wine. The ſupreme juriſdiction over that half of the lake of Conſtance which borders on this country, belongs to thoſe cantons that are ſovereigns of the Thurgau.

Its principal river is the Thur, which gives name to the country, and flows out of the territory of the abbot of St. Gall, after which it receives the Sitter, and being

ing at length joined by the Murk, passes on to the canton of Zurich.

The country is populous and well cultivated, containing six towns, a great number of seats, and upwards of one hundred and seventy villages. About one third of the inhabitants are Papists, and in church affairs subject to the bishop of Constance. The other two-thirds, who, ever since the year 1542, have been Calvinists, are divided into forty-nine parishes, which are ranged under three deaneries.

The Thurgau is a very antient bailiwic, which in 1460 was in the possession of the house of Austria; but in that year the Swiss being at war with arch-duke Sigismund, wrested this country from him, and by the peace concluded the following year at Constance, it was confirmed to them. The cantons to which the sovereignty of this country belong are, the eight old cantons of Zurich, Bern, Lucern, Uri, Schwitz, Underwald, Zug, and Glaris. These eight every two years alternately appoint a bailiff, who resides at Frauenfeld; and since the year 1499, the cantons of Freyburg and Solothurn have also obtained a seat in its criminal court.

Of the places within this country, some are immediately under the eight cantons; but the greatest part belong to spiritual and temporal justiciaries, who in their respective lordships and places, are possessed of the lower jurisdiction, and every year hold a meeting at Weinfelden, in which an officer presides who is elected by the cantons from among the persons proposed by the justiciaries out of their own body.

The principal places in this bailiwick are the following:

Frauenfeld, in Latin Gynopedium, is seated on an eminence near the river Murk, over which it has a bridge, at about an hour's distance from the place where it joins the Thur. In the mansion-house here resides the bailiff of Thurgau. The greatest part of the inhabitants are Calvinists, and within the town are two churches, one for each sect; but the mother-church stands at a small distance, at a place called Oberkirch, where also the Popish priest resides, and the dead of both communions are interred. In the council-house are usually held the general meetings of the cantons for auditing the annual accounts, especially for those cantons that are possessed of the regency of the German districts of Thurgau, the Reinthal, &c. Here is also a Capuchin convent, which contains a church.

The regency consists of a lesser council, composed of twelve members, and a greater council of thirty, including the above twelve. Two parts of these councils are of the Calvinist religion, and one Popish. The principal persons in the council are the prætors, one of whom is always a Protestant, and the other a Papist, who act alternately. These two prætors with a Calvinist burgher, all chosen by the whole body of the burghers, are stiled the three counsellors.

Arbon, or Arben, a town in the prefecturate of the same name, is situated on the lake of Constance, and is supposed to be the Arbor Felix of Antoninus. Most of the inhabitants are Calvinists; but the rest, a few Lutheran families excepted, are all Papists. It has but one church, which the Calvinists and Papists make use of alternately, and the Lutherans also attend the divine worship with the former. In the mansion-house resides the bailiff belonging to the bishop of Constance, who has a seat both in the council and the town court, whenever cases of trespasses, or life and death are to be tried there; on occasion of enacting any new laws, or issuing a new edict; but has no vote, the civil and criminal jurisdiction being vested solely in the town. The president both of the council and town court is stiled the amman, who is nominated by the bishop, and every year presented to the whole body of the people by that prelate's bailiff. This officer must be a Papist; but has no vote. The town council is composed of six Calvinist, and a like number of Popish members; but the town clerk is always a Protestant. This council has the direction of the affairs of the town, and takes cognizance of every thing punishable by the laws. Its members are annually elected in the presence of the town amman and clerk, out of the counsellors and deputies of both communions, and confirmed by the bishop of Constance.

SECT. XVIII.

Of the Bailiwics of Rheinthal and Sargans, subject to the Swiss Cantons; with a particular Description of the Baths of Pfeffers.

THE bailiwic of the Rheinthal, or Rhein Vale, lies on the Rhine, which is its eastern boundary, and in this part enters the lake of Constance; to the southward it borders on the canton of Zurich; to the westward on the canton of Appenzel, on which side also a small tract of it terminates on the territory of the abbot of St. Gall; and to the northward it is bounded by the lake of Constance. It is divided into the Upper and Under Rhein Vale.

The soil is fertile, and produces a great deal of excellent wine, the first vines being planted here so long ago as about the year 918. At the foot of the Camor or Gamor-hill, in the Upper Rhein Vale, is a famous crystal-pit, in which are found many thousand quintals of yellow, brown, and white crystal, all hard and transparent.

In this whole tract are only two towns. The greatest part of the inhabitants are Calvinists, and compose nine parishes, whose ministers are chosen from the university of Zurich.

The inhabitants of Appenzel purchased this landgravate in 1460; but in 1490 were obliged to cede it to the cantons of Zurich, Lucern, Schwitz, and Glaris, which at the same time admitted those of Uri, Underwald, and Zug, into a participation with them; as in 1500 they also did Appenzel; and in 1712 all the eight cantons concurred in paying the same mark of regard to Bern. Thus the territorial sovereignty belongs to nine different cantons, which alternately appoint a bailiff over it every two years, who resides at Rheinec; but the abbot of St. Gall enjoys half of the juridical power, and the greatest part of the revenues of the Upper Rhein Vale come into his coffers.

The whole country is divided into five courts, over each of which are two ammans, one appointed by the nine cantons, and the other by the abbot abovementioned. The latter is also possessed of the lower jurisdiction in the Upper Rhein Vale, and in civil processes an appeal lies from the courts to the abbot's council at St. Gall.

The principal places in the Rheinthal are the following:

In the Upper Rheinthal is Altstetten, a small town, in which the abbey of St. Gall is possessed of the lower jurisdiction, and some particular prerogatives, which are exercised by an amman and twelve judges. The first of these officers is chosen out of three select persons among the burghers. From the courts in this town causes are removed to the aulic-council of St. Gall; and of the amercements, one third belongs to the regent cantons, one third to the abbey of St. Gall, and the other third to the town. At Altstetten is also held the criminal court for the Upper Rhein Vale, at which the twelve judges of the town assist, in conjunction with those of other courts. The inhabitants are intermixed, some being Calvinists, and others of the Romish church. In 1410 the town was sacked and laid waste by the Austrians, and it has never since recovered its former grandeur.

In the Lower Rhein Vale the only town is that of Rheinec, a small place seated on the Rhine, but the capital of the Rhein Vale, and the residence of the bailiff of the cantons. This officer dwells in the bailliage-house, the seat which stood above the town being fallen to ruin. In 1410 and 1445 this town was destroyed by fire.

The country of Sargans is seated on the Rhine near the country of the Grisons, and, though very mountainous, breeds great numbers of fat cattle, while the valleys produce grain and fruit. In the lofty mountain of Gunz

Gunz are found three ſpecies of ore, black, red, and aſh-coloured, which on fuſion, after a proper mixture, without any other proceſs, yield a genuine ſteel.

In this country are two towns, the inhabitants of which are partly Calviniſts and partly Papiſts. The former have their miniſters from the univerſity of Zurich, and the latter in eccleſiaſtical affairs are under the biſhop of Chur.

This country was antiently ſubject to the counts of Werdenberg, from whom it was alienated; but in 1436 reverted to them again. The people then entering into a perpetual community of rights with the city of Zurich, the count, in 1437, alſo formed a perpetual community of territorial rights with Schwitz and Glaris, and permitted the caſtles of Freudenberg and Neidberg to be garriſoned with Auſtrians. This alarming both the inhabitants of this country and the city of Zurich, the latter inſtantly marched two thouſand men into the country, who laying ſiege to the two caſtles, took and demoliſhed them. On this count Henry of Werdenberg mortgaged the whole country to the cantons of Schwitz and Glaris, for the ſum of eighteen hundred florins, with a view of ſetting them at variance with Zurich. Accordingly they came to an open rupture, but a peace was ſoon concluded, and in 1485 George count of Werdenberg ſold this country to the ſeven old confederate cantons, which in 1712 admitted Bern to a ſhare of the regency. Theſe eight cantons ſend in their reſpective turns a bailiff to Sargans.

The principal places in this country are,

Sargans, the capital, which is ſeated near the Rhine, and is the reſidence of the bailiff ſent by the cantons, who chooſes an avoyer, who is always a burgher of the town.

Pfeffers, in Latin Fabarium, and in French Faviere, is famous for its rich Benedictine abbey and its baths. The former ſtands on the river Caminge, about two leagues from Sargans on a high mountain, and its abbots are ſtiled princes of the empire; yet the cantons, being ſovereigns of the country, are both inſpectors and protectors of the abbey and its territories. The baths are ſeated in a valley at the bottom of two ſteep rocks or mountains, through which the river Tamin ruſhes down with a frightful noiſe. The crags of the rocks advance ſo as to form a kind of arch. The deſcent to the baths was firſt by ropes, as into a well; afterwards a paſſage was made down to them by wooden bridges faſtened to one another, and ſuſpended between the rocks, and then with infinite labour they built the bagnios and lodging-rooms; but they were ſo darkened by the rocks, that they were forced to light up candles in them at noon-day. In 1629 theſe buildings were all burnt down, and next year the abbot cauſed others to be erected, in a pleaſanter and more lightſome place, by cutting paſſages in the rock, erecting wooden bridges, where the earth was wanting, and making an aqueduct to bring the water from the ſpring to the bathing-rooms; ſo that now they have commodious lodgings, and always good company. The water is perfectly clear, without either taſte or ſmell. It generally riſes about the beginning of May, and goes quite away about the middle of September, except after very dry winters, when it does not riſe till the middle or end of May, and then goes off later in the year. They are informed of its approach by little bubbles of water coming up in the great baſon of the bath, and ſoon after it ſuddenly flows with a great noiſe with a ſtream ſufficient to turn a mill. It is impregnated with the ſpirits of ſulphur, nitre, vitriol, and of ſeveral metals, particularly gold. It is hot in the ſecond degree, and good againſt ſeveral diſtempers, particularly obſtructions of the brain and nerves, pains in the head, epilepſies, apoplexies, deafneſs, weak eyes, palſy, obſtructions of the viſcera, fiſtulas, ulcers, &c.

With reſpect to the abbey, though it is on a high mountain, it ſtands in the midſt of a fine plain, ſhaded with woods, and intermixed with meadows. It was entirely deſtroyed by fire in 1665; but rebuilt with greater magnificence, and lined with black marble, ſtreaked with white, from the ground-floor to the roof.

SECT. XIX.

Of the Bailiwics of Gaſter, Utznach, Gams, and the Town and Diſtrict of Rapperſchweil, ſubject to the Swiſs Cantons.

GASTER, or Gaſtal, in Latin Caſtra, borders to the eaſtward on the country of Sargans; to the ſouthward on the lake of Wallenſtadt, and the cantons of Glaris and Schwitz; to the weſtward on Utznach; and to the northward on the territory of Tockenburg. It is in ſome parts mountainous; but is very fertile. This country was mortgaged by the houſe of Auſtria in 1438 to the canton of Schwitz and Glaris, which ſtill continue in poſſeſſion of it. Theſe two cantons, as ſovereigns of the diſtrict, govern it by a bailiff, who holds his office two years, and is appointed by them in turns. With every new bailiff the people renew their homage, and that officer ſwears to maintain the liberties of the country. With reſpect to the canton of Glaris, it is obſervable, that when that canton nominates a bailiff, he is only choſen by the Papiſts out of their own body. His officers are an under-bailiff, who is elected by the regent cantons, with a treaſurer, a recorder, a ſerjeant, and a meſſenger choſen by the people.

The country court is compoſed of nine judges, who, in conjunction with a bailiff, as preſident, annually hold three ſeſſions in the town-houſe of Schanis to decide civil cauſes without appeal, and impoſe fines for petty treſpaſſes; but in amercements for greater crimes, one half belongs to the town, and the other half to the regent cantons.

The principal place in this country is,

Schanis, or Schennis, a town ſituated on the banks of the Linth, or Lint. It has a church and council-houſe, with an abbey for ladies, the abbeſs of which is reckoned a princeſs of the empire; and though the ladies under her inſpection are permitted to marry, yet ſhe muſt devote herſelf to a ſingle life. The patronage and ſovereignty of this abbey, which has very large poſſeſſions, is veſted in the two regent cantons.

The diſtrict of Utznach lies between Gaſter, Tockenburg, the cantons of Zurich and Schwitz, and the territory of the town of Rapperſchweil. It was once a county of itſelf, which was mortgaged by the heirs of Frederic count Tockenburg to the cantons of Schwitz and Glaris. The inhabitants of this diſtrict, as well as the former, are of the Romiſh religion; and the above cantons, every two years, appoint a new bailiff over it, who is preſented to the people at Utznach; and upon this occaſion they renew their homage.

It contains only Utznach, a ſmall town, which has a prætor and council of its own, with five or ſix villages.

The county of Gams is very ſmall, and lies between the counties of Werdenberg and Tockenburg, and the lordſhip of Saxe. In 1497 the inhabitants put themſelves under the protection of the cantons of Schwitz and Glaris, with the reſerve, however, of their liberties; and it is, like the former, governed by a bailiff. It contains only a village or two, and a few ſcattered houſes.

The town of Rapperſchweil, with its precinct, terminates on the lake of Zurich, the canton of the ſame name, and Utznach.

The town of Rapperſchweil, in Latin Ruperti Villa, ſtands on an eminence, near the above lake, over which it has a bridge eighteen hundred and fifty paces in length, reaching to a point of land which advances a great way into the lake. The town has ſome fortifications, with a pretty ſtrong caſtle. The inhabitants both of the town and its precinct are of the Romiſh church, and in eccleſiaſtical affairs ſubject to the biſhop of Chur, who has a Capuchin convent here. Its magiſtracy conſiſts of the little and great council, the former of whom are compoſed of twelve, and the latter of twenty-four members. It was ſubject to the houſe of Auſtria, but in 1464 the inhabitants put themſelves under the protection of the cantons of Uri, Schwitz, Underwald, and Glaris, with a reſerve, however, of its liberties; yet theſe were at laſt ſeized, but in 1712 were reſtored, and the country

now remains under the ſovereignty of Zurich, Bern, and Glaris.

SECT. XX.

Of the County of BADEN.

Its Situation, Rivers, and Produce. The Manner in which it became ſubject to the Swiſs. Its Government, a Deſcription of the City of Baden, and of its Baths.

THE county of Baden is ſeated in the Argau, or Ergow, being bounded on the weſt by the river Aar; on the north by the Rhine; and on the ſouth and eaſt by the canton of Zurich; though ſeveral villages belonging to it lie on the other ſide of the Aar and Rhine. The Limmat paſſes almoſt directly through the center of the country, and mingles with the Aar, which a little before its conflux with it is joined in this diſtrict by the Reus.

The whole territory in general abounds with fruit and grain, particularly on the Limmat and Aar, where it produces good wine: it likewiſe yields great quantities of good iron ore.

In this tract are only three towns. The greateſt part of the inhabitants are Papiſts, under the juriſdiction of the biſhop of Conſtance, and the reſt are Calviniſts, except a few Jews, who are tolerated.

This country antiently belonged to the dukes of Auſtria, but in 1415 the archduke Frederic being put under the ban by the empire, and excommunicated by the council of Conſtance, the inhabitants of Schwitz made themſelves maſters of the town and county; on which the emperor Sigiſmund mortgaged it the ſame year to the city of Zurich, for four thouſand five hundred guilders; and that city, out of mere ſocial friendſhip, admitted the cantons of Lucern, Schwitz, Underwald, Zug, and Glaris, into a ſhare of the mortgage; and afterwards the city of Bern and the canton of Uri received the ſame mark of regard. Theſe eight old confederate cities and cantons were proprietors of this county, over which they every two years alternately appointed a bailiff, till the Tockenburg war in 1712, when the regent Catholic cantons of Lucern, Uri, Schwitz, Underwald, and Zug, having thrown a garriſon into the town of Baden, the cities of Bern and Zurich made themſelves maſters of it, and the five above-mentioned Catholic cantons, at the peace of Arau, gave up their ſhare in the regency of the county, Glaris alone excepted.

Thus the cities of Zurich and Bern poſſeſs ſeven parts of the regency of this county, the eighth belonging to Glaris. By virtue of this right the former nominate the bailiff fourteen years ſucceſſively, after which Glaris takes its turn for two years. The above two cities have, however, each their option, whether the bailiff ſo nominated ſhall continue during ſeven years, or another be appointed at pleaſure.

The bailiff reſides in the town of Baden; but judges only in ſuch civil cauſes as are brought before him by appeal from the courts which are held almoſt in every village, and the members are elected from among the ſeveral pariſhes, the under-bailiff ſitting as preſident.

Baden, the capital of this country, is ſituated on the Limmat, over which it has a bridge, which, though of conſiderable length, has neither walls nor rails to it. The town is ſeated in the forty-ſeventh degree thirty-five minutes north latitude, and in the eighth degree fifteen minutes eaſt longitude, between two very high hills on both ſides the river, and has two caſtles; the new one lies on the other ſide the Limmat, oppoſite the town, and is the reſidence of the bailiff, for whoſe convenience, in 1734, great improvements were made. The council-houſe conſiſts of two buildings; in one, are held the aſſemblies of the cantons in general, who meet for that purpoſe in a very handſome room. The deputies of Zurich have the moſt honourable ſeat at a little table at the upper end of it, having the ambaſſadors of the foreign powers on the right and left, and the deputies of the other cantons ranged below them on both ſides. They all ſit and are covered, except the bailiff of Baden, and his deputy, who ſtand all the while uncovered; but when the ſuffrages happen to be equal, the bailiff is allowed the caſting vote. In the other building the particular councils and courts of Baden meet. To the Papiſts belong the church of the Aſſumption of the bleſſed Virgin, which ſerves as a canonry; a convent of Capuchins, and a nunnery; and they have another church on the road to the baths. The Calviniſts aſſemble in a church built by them in 1714, which ſtands alſo on the road between the town and the baths.

Theſe baths, to which the grandeur of this city, as well as its origin, is chiefly owing, were famous ſo long ago as about the time of our Saviour. Theſe baths are about a quarter of a mile below the town, on both ſides the river Limmat. The largeſt of them are at Imrapen, a pretty little borough, which conſiſts of handſome houſes ſeated on an eminence, and has a church dedicated to the Three Kings. It is computed that the water is conveyed by no leſs than ſixty canals to the ſeveral inns and private houſes. They come from ſeveral ſprings by the ſide of the river, and it is ſaid from one in the midſt of the river itſelf. The waters are hot in the third degree, being impregnated with a great deal of ſulphur, with a mixture of allum and nitre. The ſprings always riſe the ſame, without increaſe or decreaſe; but are thought to have moſt virtue about the beginning of May and September, becauſe they then abound moſt with the flowers of the ſulphur.

The water is good for drinking as well as bathing, and recommended for the cure of diſtempers, not only of the hot kind, as fevers; but for thoſe proceeding from cold humours, pains in the head, vertigoes, &c. diſorders in the breaſt and bowels, aſthmas, obſtructions, and particularly the diſorders peculiar to women. In the center of the place is the poors bath, called St. Verena's, formed by a ſpring that riſes in the very middle of the ſtreet. Here the poor people bathe in a place quite open to the ſtreet, and its water being eſteemed a cure for ſterility in women, it is ſaid that ſcarce any young woman of diſtinction marries in this county without making it an article in the marriage-contract, that her huſband ſhall take her every year to the baths of Baden, the ladies being here permitted to wear thoſe dreſſes, and allowed thoſe diverſions, that are prohibited in other parts of Swiſſerland. Blainville obſerves, that thoſe who bathe in the public baths, who are generally ſuch as cannot afford the expence of the private ones, have their ſhoulders cupped in them, and that inſtead of cupping-glaſſes, they uſe large horns of rams or bucks; ſo that in theſe baths are ſometimes ſeen two or three hundred naked perſons of both ſexes with horns on their ſhoulders. The people who ſtay at Imrapen for the uſe of the baths, are obliged to buy the water they uſe for drinking and dreſſing their victuals, it being brought from Baden, or ſome ſprings on the other ſide of the Limmat, the water of that river being always thick and muddy, from the rapidity of its courſe among the rocks and ſand.

The harbour on the river belongs to the town; but the cuſtoms to the cantons of Zurich and Bern. The inferior magiſtrates are appointed by the governor or bailiff, and theſe, with the judges of each diſtrict, decide cauſes in his name; but capital cauſes are determined by twenty-four judges, who are choſen out of the whole county by the bailiff; but he has power to mitigate their ſentence. The great council conſiſts of forty members; but the leſſer, which is only of twelve, and included in the greater, decide all cauſes civil and criminal; and theſe two councils chooſe the prætor, the treaſurer, and other magiſtrates.

SECT. XXI.

Of that Part of the Countries ſubject to the Swiſs termed the Free Provinces; their Situation, Extent, Produce, and Government; with a Deſcription of the free independent Towns of Bremgarten and Mellingen.

THE Free Provinces contain a tract of land and certain villages lying along the river Ruſs, which traverſes all the eaſtern border of this country,

try, which is bounded towards the north by the county of Baden; to the eaſtward by the cantons of Zurich and Zug; to the ſouthward by that of Lucern; and to the weſtward by the cantons of Lucern and Bern.

This country produces an extraordinary plenty of grain and fruit. The inhabitants are of the Popiſh religion, and in ſpiritual affairs are ſubject to the biſhop of Conſtance. The inhabitants were formerly free; but at length became ſubject to the houſe of Auſtria; but the emperor Sigiſmund having in 1415, put Frederic arch-duke of Auſtria under the ban, and engaged the Helvetic confederates to invade his territories, the troops of Lucern alone took poſſeſſion of the greateſt part of the Free Provinces, and were for retaining them; but were oppoſed by the cantons of Zurich, Zug, Schwitz, Underwald, and Glaris, who claimed their reſpective ſhares, as having taken the field at the time they were conquered; it having been previouſly agreed, that what any one or more cantons ſhould conquer after the others were in the field, ſhould be eſteemed conquered by the whole body. This produced a conteſt that laſted ten years, till at length, in 1425, Bern ceded the Free Provinces to the cantons of Zurich, Lucern, Schwitz, Underwald, and Glaris. Uri alſo reſigned all ſhare in them; but in 1532, that canton was admitted into the co-regency. At the ſecond peace of Arau in 1712, it was agreed that a boundary line ſhould be drawn from Lunkhofen to Farwangen, and that all below it ſhould be the property of Bern and Zurich alone; but that all above it ſhould continue in the poſſeſſion of the ſeven cantons to which it had been hitherto ſubject, though Bern was afterwards received into the co-regency of the ſame department. Thus the Free Provinces have ever ſince been divided into the Upper and Lower.

The Upper Free Provinces lie to the ſouth of the boundary line, and their government is veſted in the eight old cantons of the confederacy, that is, in Zurich, Bern, Lucern, Uri, Schwitz, Underwald, Zug, and Glaris, the laſt of which every fourteen years appoints a bailiff over them. This officer, however, inſtead of reſiding there, viſits them only in ſpring and autumn, when the courts are held; on which occaſion he lodges at the convent of Muri, and the commandery of Hitzkirch, where, without any colleague or aſſiſtant, he decides all cauſes brought before him, and inflicts penalties on delinquents. In the interval alſo, if two parties deſire his attendance, he repairs thither; but it is at their expence, as he does likewiſe on any important affairs that will not admit of a delay.

The firſt hearing of all civil cauſes is held at the courts of the ſeveral provinces, under the preſidentſhip of the under-bailiffs. From theſe courts appeals are carried firſt to the bailiff, who paſſes his verdict ſingly; but if after this any of the parties think themſelves aggrieved, they are at liberty to carry the cauſe before the deputies of the regent-cantons, and afterwards from theſe again to the cantons themſelves.

In capital caſes the recorder uſually ſends information of the criminals to the bailiff, who generally commiſſions him, in conjunction with an under-bailiff, to try them, for which purpoſe he orders a court to be held at the inn of Bremgarten, where he takes up his quarters, and in his abſence, even to paſs ſentence on the convicts; but this ſentence muſt be tranſmitted to him, either to be confirmed or mitigated. If it be death, he goes with the judges to the uſual place of execution, which is in the high road between Bremgarten and Wollen, where the ſentence is openly pronounced, after which the execution immediately follows.

The Lower Free Provinces, which lie on the north ſide of the boundary line, have ſince the year 1712, been under the ſovereignty of Zurich and Bern, Glaris only retaining the ſeventh part, which belonged to it before, and every fourteenth year putting in a bailiff for two years; whereas Zurich and Bern are poſſeſſed of that privilege every two years alternately. The proceedings here, both in civil and criminal caſes, and in every thing relating to the government, are the ſame as in the Upper Free Provinces.

We ſhall now give ſome account of the towns of Bremgarten and Mellingen, or Meldingen.

Bremgarten is ſituated on the river Reus, between the Lower Free Provinces and the county of Baden, eight miles to the north of Zug. The town is divided into Upper and Lower: the former ſtands high; but the latter, in which is the pariſh church, with a Franciſcan nunnery, is ſeated on the bank of the Reus, over which it has a bridge, and at the farther end of it a Capuchin convent. It is a place of great trade, particularly in making paper. The inhabitants are of the Romiſh church, and within the dioceſe of Conſtance. The town, which was formerly imperial, has undergone ſeveral revolutions, and is now ſubject to the cantons of Zurich, Bern, and Glaris. The regency conſiſts of the little and great council; the former is compoſed of twelve members, among whom are two prætors or avoyers, who, when they enter upon their office, take a formal oath of fidelity to the deputies of Bern, Zurich, and Glaris, at the next annual meeting for auditing the public accounts. The great council conſiſts of forty members, out of whom is elected the town court, appeals from which are firſt carried to the little and great council, and from thence to the deputies of the regent cantons at the annual meeting; and laſtly, even to the cantons themſelves. All criminal and capital caſes are immediately tried before both councils, the town being poſſeſſed of the privilege of beheading and hanging.

Mellingen is a little Popiſh town, with one church, ſeated on the river Ruſs, and is at preſent ſubject to Zurich, Bern, and Glaris. The ingenious Mr. Addiſon, who viſited this town, gives a more particular and a more entertaining account of it than any author we have ſeen. It contains, ſays he, an hundred citizens, and about one thouſand ſouls. The government is modelled after that of the other cantons, as much as it is poſſible for ſo ſmall a community to imitate thoſe of a large extent: for which reaſon, though they have but little buſineſs, they have all the variety of officers and councils that are to be found in the greater ſtates; they have a town-houſe, adorned with the arms of their protectors, and three councils; the great council of fourteen, the little council of ten, and the privy-council of three. The chief perſons of the ſtate are the two avoyers; and when our author was there, the reigning avoyer of the commonwealth was ſon to the inn-keeper where he lodged, the father having enjoyed the ſame honour before him. The revenue of this high poſt amounts to about thirty pounds a year. Every Thurſday, he adds, the ſeveral councils meet upon affairs of ſtate, as the repairs of a trough, the mending of a pavement, or the like important buſineſs. A river which runs through their dominions puts them to the expence of a very large wooden bridge, which is covered over-head like the reſt in Swiſſerland. All who travel over it pay a certain toll for its maintenance, and the French ambaſſador frequently paſſing this way, his maſter allows the town a penſion of twenty pounds ſterling a year; on which account they are extremely induſtrious in raiſing all the men they can for his ſervice. The preſerving this bridge, and the regulation of the dues ariſing from it, are the grand affairs that cut out employment for the council of ſtate.

There are alſo the four diſtricts of Schwartzenburg, Murten, Grandſon, and Eſchalens, which are ſubject to Bern and Freyburg, who alternately appoint prætors over them, whoſe office laſts for five years; but theſe are little diſtricts that contain no place of any conſequence.

SECT. XXII.

Of the ſeven Italian Bailiwics ſubject to the Swiſs Cantons, namely, Bellinzona, Riviera, the Valle di Blegno, Lugano, Locarno, Val Maggia, and Mendris.

IN the ſeven Italian bailiwics the inhabitants are univerſally Papiſts, and ſpeak the Italian language. The three firſt of theſe belong to the cantons of Schwitz, Uri, and Underwald; and the other four to the cantons in

in general, excepting only Appenzel, which at the time of their acquiſition was not a member of the confederacy.

The firſt of theſe is the bailiwic of Bellinzona, which is bounded on the eaſtward by the Upper Griſons and the dutchy of Milan, to the ſouthward by the bailiwic of Lauis and Locarno, to the weſtward alſo by Locarno, and to the northward by the bailiwic of Riviera.

A part of it is watered by the river Ticino, into which the Mæſa diſcharges itſelf. The hills and mountains afford excellent paſturage for cattle, and likewiſe abound in cheſnuts; and the plain near Bellinzona produces good wine. All the pariſhes, three excepted, which are in the dioceſe of Milan, are under the biſhop of Como.

In the year 1500 the town of Bellinzona ſubmitted to the cantons of Uri, Schwitz, and Underwald; and three years after it was ceded to them as their abſolute property by Lewis XII. king of France; and this ceſſion was ratified by Maximilian Sforza, duke of Milan, in acknowledgment of their having reſtored him to his dutchy. Every two years theſe cantons alternately nominate a ſteward, or bailiff, under the title of commiſſary, which is always the perſon whom the two preceding years had diſcharged that office in the bailiwic of Riviera. Every year too each of the regent cantons ſends a deputy to Bellinzona, to audit the commiſſary's accounts and hear appeals, and to tranſact other public affairs.

The principal place in this bailiwic is,

Bellinzona, or Bellentz, a large, trading, and well fortified town, ſituated in a plain near the conflux of the Ticino and the Mæſa. Almoſt in the center of a large ſquare ſtands the manſion-houſe of the commiſſary. The collegiate and abbey church of St. Peter and St. Stephen is a handſome building, and in the ſuburbs without the town are two convents and one nunnery, each having its church, beſides an edifice called the Reſidence, which has been converted into a college, in which the abbey of Einſidlen appoints profeſſors for the inſtruction of youth in humanity and moral theology. The town ſtands between three hills that command it every way, and have each a ſtrong old caſtle fortified in the antient taſte, and provided with cannon. In one of them reſides the caſtellan of Uri, in the ſecond the caſtellan of Schwitz, and in the higheſt that of Underwald.

The bailiwic of Riviera, or Poleſe, is bounded on the ſouth by the bailiwic of Bellinzona; to the weſtward on that of Locarno, or Lugarus; to the northward by the Valle di Blegno and Liviner; and to the eaſtward by the Upper Griſons. This diſtrict is watered by the Ticino, which in theſe parts receives the Blegno. It came to the cantons of Uri, Schwitz, and Underwald, at the ſame time, and is governed by them in the ſame manner with the bailiwic of Bellinzona. Within its juriſdiction are only nine pariſhes, the town of Riviera, and a few villages.

The bailiwic of the Valle di Blegno, otherwiſe called di Bregno, is bounded to the ſouthward by the diſtrict of Riviera, to the weſtward by the Vale of Liviner, and to the north and eaſt joins to the country of the Upper Griſons. It is environed by lofty mountains; but the barrenneſs of ſome of them is made up by the fertility of others. The length of this territory, according to Buſching, is not leſs than ſeven hours, all watered by the Blegno; but its breadth does not much exceed half that ſpace. It feeds multitudes of cattle, and yields ſeveral kinds of grain and fruit, eſpecially cheſnuts and tolerable wine; but in ſummer the men remove to Italy to earn money by working in the fields, leaving all their work at home to the women. In the year 1512 this Valley ſuffered extremely by the fall of two mountains, which ſtopping up the courſe of the river, it ſwelled to that degree that the far greateſt part of the vale became a lake; and this inundation laſted till the year 1514, when the waters forced themſelves a paſſage.

About the year 1500 the inhabitants ſubmitted to the canton of Uri, though with a reſerve of their liberties, and that canton admitted Schwitz and Underwald into a co-regency. Theſe ſeveral cantons every two years alternately appoint a bailiff over it; but the eccleſiaſtical affairs of this diſtrict are only cognizable by the archbiſhop of Milan. It is divided into three parts, each of which contains ſeveral villages.

The bailiwic of Lugano, by the Swiſs called Lauis, is on all ſides ſurrounded by thoſe of Locarno, Mendris, Bellinzona, and the dutchy of Milan. To it belongs the greateſt part of the lake of Lugano, which is about ſeven miles long, and three broad, excluſive of its many little bays. The country itſelf, in which are no leſs than a hundred and ſix populous burghs and villages, was in 1512 conferred on the confederate cantons in general, which at that time were twelve in number, by Maximilian Sforza, duke of Milan, in return for the effectual aſſiſtance they had granted him againſt the French; and accordingly they every two years appoint a governor over it, under the title of capitaneo. It is divided into four quarters, three of which, in eccleſiaſtical concerns, are under the biſhop of Como, and the other under the ſuperintendency of the archbiſhop of Milan.

The bailiwic of Locarno, or Lugarus, is ſituated between the Milaneſe, the Mayenthal, the Livinerthal, and the bailiwicks of Riviera, Bellinzona, and Lauis, comprehending alſo a part of the Lago Maggiore. It has three or four fruitful valleys, and fine rivers that run into the lake, and is divided into four communities and forty-nine pariſhes. It came to the twelve allied cantons in the ſame manner and time with Lugano, and its government is the ſame. Its capital is of the ſame name, beſides which it has a town called Aſcona, and a few villages.

Val Maggia, or the Mayenthal, is ſurrounded by the dutchy of Milan, the Liviner Vale, and the Captainry of Locarno. It is thirty-three miles in length, and derives its name from the river Maggia, which traverſes it. It came to the twelve confederate cantons at the ſame time, and in the ſame manner as the above-mentioned bailiwics, and thoſe cantons every two years appoint a bailiff over it. It contains the towns of Cevio, or Civio, and Maggia, with a few villages.

The laſt of theſe bailiwics is that of Mendris, which is ſurrounded by the dutchy of Milan, and a part of the bailiwic of Locarno. This alſo came to the twelve United Cantons at the ſame time, and in the ſame manner, with the three preceding diſtricts, and accordingly they every two years alternately appoint a bailiff over it. In this country is a town of the ſame name, and ſeveral villages.

We ſhall now proceed to the aſſociated countries, ſummoned to the legiſlative diets of Swiſſerland in quality of allies, and that have a vote in thoſe aſſemblies. Theſe are the abbey of St. Gall, the country of the Griſons, with their ſubjects, the principality of Neufchatel, and the republic of Geneva. We ſhall begin with the former.

SECT. XXIII.

The Territories of the Abbey of St. Gall.

Their Situation and Extent: a conciſe Account of the Abbey, with the Prerogatives and Arms of the Abbot; their Government and principal Places, with a particular Deſcription of the City of St. Gall, a ſmall Proteſtant Republic independent of the Abbey.

THE abbey of St. Gall, which is of the Benedictine order, is included within the ſame walls as the town of that name, but has very conſiderable territories, and the abbot is capable of raiſing an army of twelve thouſand armed men, he being ſovereign of the whole country, and under the protection of the cantons of Zurich, Lucern, Schwitz, and Glaris.

This country is divided into the Old Territory, alſo called the territory of the people of God's houſe, and a diſtrict called the county of Tockenburg; the former is bounded on the eaſt by the lake of Conſtance and the Rhein Vale, on the ſouth by the canton of Appenzel, on the weſt by Tockenburg and the Thurgau, and on the north alſo by the latter; it being fourteeen miles long and ten broad. The ſoil bears a near affinity to that of Thurgau, and its inhabitants are Popiſh.

Till the year 1567 this abbey was parted from the city only by a ſingle hedge; but afterwards, by a particular agreement, it was divided by high walls, in which is a gate opening into the city, and another towards the territories of the abbey. Within the circuit of this convent is the minſter abbey church, in which, among the bones of other lords, are kept thoſe of St. Gallus, the original founder of the abbey; and adjoining to it is St. Othmar's church, in which are preſerved the relicks of that ſaint. Next to theſe are the palace of the abbot, with the convent itſelf, in which are uſually upwards of ſixty monks, and a library famous for its antient and curious manuſcripts. The abbot is choſen by the monks of the abbey from amongſt themſelves, and inſtantly becomes a prince of the empire, immediately ſubject to the pope himſelf. On his acceſſion to his dignity he is, by a grant from the emperor, inveſted with the regalia, and fief over the old territory belonging to the abbey, and the county of Tockenburg; but does not aſſiſt at the diets of the empire. On the other hand, by virtue of the perpetual community of defence entered into with the confederate cantons of Zurich, Lucern, Schwitz, and Glaris, the abbey was admitted as an incorporated place, and enjoys both a ſeat and voice in the general meetings of the confederacy which are granted to its deputies, immediately after thoſe of Appenzel.

The arms of the abbot are quarterly, in the firſt field dexter a bear rampant ſable, for the abbey: in the firſt field ſiniſter, azure, an *agnus Dei*, argent, for the abbey of St. John: in the ſecond dexter field, the family arms of the abbot; and in the ſecond ſiniſter or, a dog ſable, with a collar argent, for the county of Tockenburg.

Formerly the abbey had the duke of Swabia for its ſteward, the counts of Hohenzollern for its grand marſhal, the counts of Hochberg for its arch-cupbearer, and the baron of Regenſberg for its high-chamberlain; but theſe offices are at preſent borne by other perſons of diſtinguiſhed rank.

In the old diſtrict, and the county of Tockenburg, the biſhop of Conſtance is veſted with all epiſcopal rights and emoluments, in conformity to the privileges granted by ſeveral popes. The abbot of St. Gall enjoys, however, not only the diſpoſal of all the convents belonging to him, but likewiſe of all benefices, both in the old territory, the county of Tockenburg, and within his diſtricts in Thurgau and the Rhein Vale. To him likewiſe belongs the juriſdiction in civil, criminal, and mixed caſes, with the viſitation, &c. but the greateſt part of theſe prerogatives he exerciſes by a repreſentative, who is always a monk of the abbey. He has alſo an eccleſiaſtical court for the deciſion of religious conteſts, which, beſides the above repreſentative, who ſits as preſident, is compoſed of four conventuals, and ſome lay-aſſeſſors.

The members of the aulic-council at St. Gall, are the dean of the abbey, who ſits as preſident, the ſtadtholder, three conventuals, and ſome laymen. This council hears appeals from the lower courts within the juriſdiction of the abbey; but decides without appeals, only an order may be obtained from the abbot for a reviſal.

The chief town in the abbot's antient territories is Rorſchach, which is ſeated in a pleaſant fruitful country by the ſide of the lake of Conſtance, oppoſite to Lindaw. It has many fine houſes in proportion to its extent, with a good harbour, and great markets frequented by multitudes of people from all the towns and villages round the lake; and a conſiderable trade is carried on in linen, corn, fruit, cattle, and good wine. In 1409 this place being attacked by four thouſand Imperialiſts, was defended by two thouſand burghers, who fought with the utmoſt intrepidity till they were all cut to pieces, and then the town was taken and burnt; but by degrees it roſe again, and the houſes were rebuilt with free-ſtone. By the ſide of it is a magnificent convent on an eminence that commands the town, and above the convent is an antient fort belonging to the abbot. There is here alſo a college for the inſtruction of youth.

The county of Tockenburg is ſurrounded by the antient territory of the abbey of St. Gall, the Thurgau, the canton of Zurich, the diſtricts of Utznach, Gaſter, and Sargans, the lordſhip of Werdenberg, and the canton of Appenzel, and is, according to Dr. Buſching, ten hours in length, and its greateſt breadth three.

The ſoil reſembles that of Appenzel and other cantons, and the country is full of fertile mountains that abound in numerous breeds of cattle. The militia here form a body of about nine thouſand men, two thirds of whom are Calviniſts, and one-third Papiſts. The Papiſts in the upper part of the country are under the biſhop of Chur; but in the lower part within the dioceſe of Conſtance.

The abbot of St. Gall bears the title of natural ſovereign and lord of the country of Tockenburg, and the people take an oath to him and pay him ſuitable ſervices, but without any violation of their rights and liberties. He appoints a bailiff over the country, and may nominate either a native or a foreigner: he likewiſe puts in the recorder and ſerjeant, who muſt be natives and perſons of eſtate in the country. The council is compoſed of thirty Papiſts, and the like number of Proteſtants, who are choſen by the pariſhes and diſtricts. This council attends to the liberties of the people, conducts the public and private affairs of the country, impoſes taxes, ſettles the military expences and thoſe of any public improvements, and likewiſe audits the accounts of the parties concerned. This council meets once a year, and oftener when neceſſary. All males of fourteen years of age and upwards are ſummoned to take the country oath. The preſident of the country court is always the bailiff for the time being; but its twenty-four judges are appointed by the abbot, one from each of the twenty-two old pariſhes, and two from Lichtenſteig and Watweil. This court is held in the abbot's name as prince, and takes cognizance of all cauſes; and being the prince's council, the ſalaries attending it are paid by the prince, to whom belong all confiſcated eſtates and effects of malefactors executed, with thoſe of ſuicides, and fugitives for capital crimes. Half of the judges of the inferior courts are nominated by the prince, and the other half by the pariſhes. The court of appeals has for its preſident the bailiff for the time being, but the twelve aſſeſſors muſt be natives of the county and landholders. The prince here nominates three Papiſts and three Calviniſts, and the country council chooſes a like number from among their own members.

Lichtenſteig is the capital of the country of Tockenburg, and is a ſmall town ſeated on the river Thur. It is the reſidence of the bailiff, who dwells in the new manſion-houſe, and the old one is uſed for holding the country court and court of appeals; but the council of Tockenburg, with the Calviniſt ſynod, the matrimonial court, and the town-council, aſſemble in the town-houſe. The government of this place is veſted in a prætor and a council, the former alternately choſen out of both religions; the ſame equality is obſerved in filling up the council and other poſts.

We ſhall now return to the city of St. Gall, which is a little Proteſtant republic entirely independent of the abbot, and under the protection of the cantons. It is ſeated between two mountains in the forty-ſeventh degree thirty-one minutes north latitude, and in the ninth degree twenty minutes eaſt longitude, two leagues to the ſouth-weſt of the lake of Conſtance. It is ſituated near the river Steinbach, which drives ſeveral mills; but its moats receive their water from a rivulet called Iren. Here are ſpacious ſtreets, good houſes, and ſeveral public ſtructures. The cathedral of St. Laurence is a pariſh church, and without the walls is another, with a chapel. Here was a convent dedicated to St. Catharine; but now converted into a gymnaſium of nine claſſes, under the like number of maſters aſſiſted by two profeſſors, and in this building is the city library. Here is alſo a town-houſe and an arſenal. Mr Addiſon obſerves, that it is ſurpriſing to find ſuch a number of rich burghers in the city of St. Gall, and ſo few poor people, in a place that has ſcarce any lands belonging to it; but the wealth of this little ſtate conſiſts in its linen manufacture, in which people of all ages and conditions are employed. The adjacent country furniſhes them with vaſt quantities of flax, of which they are ſaid to make every year forty thouſand pieces of linen cloth, reckoning two hundred ells to each piece, and ſome of it as fine and white as any that can

be found in Holland. This linen they ſend upon mules into Germany, Spain, Italy, and all the adjacent countries. In the city of St. Gall, and the houſes ſcattered about it, there are computed near ten thouſand ſouls, of which ſixteen hundred are burghers, out of which body their councils and burgomaſters, the town amman and ſtadtholders, are choſen, as in other governments of Swiſſerland, the difference conſiſting in little more than in the number of ſuch as are employed in ſtate affairs.

The military eſtabliſhment is under the conduct of the council of war, and the burghers are divided into nine quarters, with a captain and proper officers to each; but the firſt officer is the town-major. Here are alſo a company of matroſſes and bombardiers, with one of light infantry, two of grenadiers, and a troop of horſe.

The town is generally thought to owe is original to the abbey, which it is certain has not a little contributed to its increaſe. The abbey and the town are ſaid to have a great averſion to each other, and yet in the general diet of the cantons their repreſentatives ſit together and act in concert.

About four years before Mr. Addiſon's arrival, the city and abbey were on the point of coming to an open rupture. In one of their annual proceſſions a Benedictine monk carried his croſs erect through the town, followed by a train of three or four thouſand peaſants; but he had no ſooner entered the abbey, than the whole town was in a tumult, occaſioned by the prieſt's carrying the croſs contrary to all precedence, in that manner. Inſtantly the burghers put themſelves in arms, and drew down four pieces of their cannon to the gate of their abbey: upon which thoſe who had formed the proceſſion did not dare to return by the way they came; but after their devotions were ended, went out at the door that opened into the abbot's territories. The abbot, exaſperated at this proceeding, raiſed an army, blocked up the town on the ſide that faced his dominions, and forbad his ſubjects furniſhing it with any of their commodities. But while things were thus ripe for a war, the cantons, their protectors, wiſely interpoſing as umpires in the quarrel, ſentenced the town, for appearing too forward in the diſpute, to pay a fine of two thouſand crowns; and at the ſame time enacted, that whenever any proceſſion entered their walls, the prieſt ſhould let the croſs hang about his neck without ſo much as touching it with either hand, till he came within the precincts of the abbey.

The town and abbey of St. Gall carry a bear in their arms. The Roman catholics have the memory of this bear in very great veneration, and repreſent him as the firſt convert made by their ſaint in this country. One of the moſt learned of the Benedictine monks, with tears of affection in his eyes, gave Mr. Addiſon the following hiſtory of him. It ſeems that St. Gall, who is here termed the great apoſtle of Germany, found all this country little better than a vaſt deſart; and as he was walking out on a very cold day, happened to meet a bear, when inſtead of being ſtartled at the rencounter, he gravely ordered the bear to bring him a bundle of wood, and to make him a fire; upon which the bear ſerved him to the beſt of his ability, and at his departure was ordered by the Saint to retire into the very depths of the woods, and there to ſpend the reſt of his life without ever hurting man or beaſt. From this time, added the monk, the bear lived irreproachably, and till his dying-day obſerved the order given him by the Saint.

SECT. XXIV.

The Country of the GRISONS.

Its Situation, Extent, Produce, and Rivers. The Language and Religion of the Inhabitants; their Hiſtory, Government, Manners, and military Forces: with a Deſcription of the three Leagues, or Confederacies, into which this Country is divided, and the principal Places in each; with a particular Deſcription of the City of Chur.

THE country of the Griſons is bounded on the eaſtward by Tirol and the territories of Venice; on the ſouth by the Italian bailiwics, the Valteline, and the county of Chiavenna; on the weſt by the cantons of Uri and Glaris; and on the north by the canton of Glaris, the county of Sargans, and a part of Tirol; extending from eaſt to weſt in its greateſt length about eighty-five miles, and in its breadth from ſouth to north about ſeventy-ſix.

The greateſt part of the country is mountainous, but the levels and valleys produce almoſt all ſorts of grain, with pulſe, plenty of hay, fruits of ſeveral kinds, and wine. Its hills, which are of a middling height, and enjoy a mild air, yield not only good graſs and hay, but alſo rye and barley, and in ſome parts cherries: even on the higheſt ſpots are good paſture-grounds, beſides many kinds of palatable and wholeſome berries.

The principal buſineſs of the inhabitants is the feeding of horned cattle, ſheep, goats, and ſwine. They likewiſe export a great deal of butter and cheeſe; but the breeding of horſes is ſo much neglected, that the greateſt part of thoſe uſed in the country are purchaſed of foreigners; the few that are bred there are hardy and laborious, but ill ſhaped. They have plenty of poultry and wild fowl; but the only fiſh worthy of notice are the eel-pout, and a few pikes. They have mines in ſeveral parts; but the produce of them is inconſiderable.

The principal rivers of this country are the Rhine, the Inn, and the Adda, all which have their ſource here. Beſides theſe, there are ſome ſmall rivers, or rivulets. Here are alſo ſeveral lakes, moſt of which lie on the ſummits of the mountains, where they riſe from fine ſprings.

In the whole country of the Griſons are but three towns. The German tongue is not only uſed in their general ſtate aſſemblies, and public inſtruments; but is alſo continually growing more and more in vogue. It is ſpoken at Chur, and in its territory, and almoſt every where in the Ten Juriſdictions. In many places the inhabitants ſpeak both the German and Italian. The Roman or Chur Italian is principally ſpoke among the Griſons. At Engadin, the Ladinum, a kind of Latin, is the prevailing language; and at Pregel is a corrupt kind of Italian.

Both the Calviniſt and Popiſh religions are by the laws entitled to an entire freedom. The profeſſors of the firſt form about two-thirds of the inhabitants, and their clergy are divided into ſix *colloquiums*. In every league is a dean, and each *colloquium* has its own *præſes*. The deans are annually choſen by lot in a ſynod of the three leagues, which have alſo a college at Chur for the inſtruction of youth, each of which has its inſpector, who is always a layman. The greateſt part of the Popiſh clergy in the three leagues are under the ſee of Chur, and divided into chapters.

Every community is ſo entirely of one religion, that if any perſon changes his ſentiments, he muſt go into another. The Papiſts in their proceſſions ſometimes go from one community into another; but when they enter thoſe belonging to the Proteſtants they lower the croſs, and leave ſinging till they are again upon popiſh ground.

The country of the Griſons is a part of the antient Rhætia. The people were formerly ſubject to ſeveral princes, ſome to petty ſovereigns, ſome to the biſhop of Chur, and others to the houſe of Auſtria, to whom the Rhætians behaved with ſuch extraordinary fidelity, that the emperor Frederic II. rewarded them with a grant of ſeveral privileges and immunities. In 1419, the biſhop of Chur, who bore great ſway here, in conjunction with the city of that name, concluded an alliance of fifty-one years with the city of Zurich.

The free communities in this part of Rhætia, by a mutual compact among themſelves, formed three republics, which are now called Leagues or Confederates: theſe go by the names of the Grey or Griſon League, that of the Houſe of God, and that of the Ten Juriſdictions. The firſt concluded its alliance in 1424; the ſecond claims a more antient date; the third acceded to the union in 1436; and in 1471, the three leagues entered into a perpetual alliance with each other, which has been ſince ratified and explained.

The three leagues, by virtue of theſe engagements, form one united republic; but inſtead of one united common

mon coat or ſeal, each league has its particular arms; but in inſtruments that relate to the whole body, a ſeal is uſed that has the arms of the three united leagues. However, a general diet is annually convoked by the heads of the three leagues, and annually meet on St. Bartholomew's-day, one year at Ilantz in the Grey league, the next at Chur in that of God's Houſe, and the third year at Davos in the Ten Juriſdictions. At the ſame time notice is ſent to the ſeveral communities, of the affairs on which they are to ſend their plenipotentiaries with full powers. This general diet uſually ſits a fortnight or three weeks, and two deputies are ſent from every community in each league, by which means the number of votes in the general diets amounts to ſixty-ſix; of which the Grey league has twenty-eight, that of God's Houſe twenty-three, and that of the Ten Juriſdictions fifteen; the chief of the league where the diet is held being always preſident.

In the general diet are diſcuſſed and regulated affairs of ſtate, negotiations with foreign powers, and the deciſions of all appeals. This diet likewiſe receives the public revenue, and adminiſters the oaths to new officers of the provinces. However, in affairs relating to the whole united body, and to negotiations with foreign powers, no final reſolution is taken; but at the riſing of the diet, a committee of the heads of the three leagues, aſſiſted by two repreſentatives from each, is appointed for digeſting the proceedings, and to determine what particulars are to be communicated to their ſeveral communities, either as reſolved and enacted, or on which their opinions are deſired. The reſolutions of each community are formed by a plurality of voices, each community ſending up its opinion in writing to the new congreſs.

The country of the Griſons is extremely populous; and as there are no people more free, ſo there are none more jealous of their liberty. Hence they have a ſingular method of puniſhing thoſe ſuſpected of treaſon, or of any crime againſt the ſtate, which makes the greateſt men in the country tremble. When the diet is aſſembled, the peaſants flock to it in crowds, to demand a court of juſtice for the trial of the offender, which the diet is bound to grant. This court conſiſts of ten judges, and twenty advocates of each league, who have the power of applying torture, and doing every thing neceſſary to diſcover the truth of the accuſations. Its proceedings are vigorous and ſummary, and generally end in a ſentence of death, or a heavy fine. In other reſpects the Roman law prevails among the Griſons, though ſomewhat modified by their cuſtoms. Thus a man who has an eſtate by his wife, enjoys it after her death till he marries again, and then is bound to divide it among the children he had by her.

The married women here ſcarce ever appear abroad except at church; but the young women have more liberty before they are married.

Though here is plenty of every thing, yet their habits and furniture are plain. With reſpect to their proviſions, their meat is very juicy, their fowl excellent, and the fiſh of their lakes, eſpecially their trouts, inferior to none in the world; and though the wine they drink is brought on horſes four or five days journey, they have it cheaper than in moſt parts of Italy and France. The inns upon the mountains are very good, and beſides good bread and wine, there is always a great quantity of game and veniſon, according to the ſeaſon of the year, with neat chambers and good beds. There is nothing paid in this country for importation or exportation; but every one enjoys the fruit of his labour, and the revenue of his lands.

The three leagues have contracted friendly alliances with the neighbouring cantons and their aſſociates. In 1600 they all entered into a perpetual league with the republics of the Valais, in 1602 with Bern, and in 1707 with Zurich. In 1497 the Grey league, and the next year the league of God's Houſe, entered into a like engagement with Zurich, Uri, Lucern, Schwitz, and Glaris; and in 1567, the Ten Juriſdictions ſued to be admitted into that alliance; but at a diet held at Baden received for anſwer, that though their application was not then complied with, yet the confederate cities and cantons aſſured them of their ready friendſhip and ſervices on all occaſions, and in their inſtruments and letters ſtiled them confederates and allies.

The Griſons maintain no troops, and even apply themſelves very little to the uſe of arms. But as they furniſh foreign powers with regiments, they are never without experienced officers and ſoldiers, and on occaſion the three leagues are able to bring thirty thouſand fighting men into the field. But the principal ſtrength of the country conſiſts in its high mountains and narrow paſſes, in which a handful of reſolute men are able to make head againſt a conſiderable army.

The Upper, or Grey league, which contains ſeveral high mountains, is bounded on the eaſt by the other two leagues; on the ſouthward by the dutchy of Milan, and the bailiwic of Bellinzona; on the weſtward by the canton of Uri; and on the northward by the canton of Glaris and the bailiwic of Sargans.

In this league are eight communities, the principal town in which is the following:

Ilantz, in Latin Ilantium, a ſmall town ſeated at the foot of a hill, between the Farther Rhine and the Glenner. This is the chief place in the Upper or Grey league, and every third year the general diet of the Griſons is held here, as are likewiſe the courts of juſtice. The inhabitants are Calviniſts.

The league of the Houſe of God, or, as it is called, La Caddée, from the Italian Caddea, a corruption of Caſa Dei, probably owes its appellation to the biſhopric of Chur. This country is bounded by the Grey league on the weſt; the county of Tirol, and that of Bormio on the eaſt; the Ten Juriſdictions on the north, and the county of Chiavenna and the Valteline on the ſouth. It is about ſixty-ſeven miles in its greateſt length, from the north-eaſt to the ſouth-weſt, and forty from eaſt to weſt.

The ſoil is for the moſt part rugged and barren; yet about Chur and the banks of the Rhine, they have moſt ſorts of fruit except oranges and olives.

The arms of this league are argent, a goat ſaliant and ſable.

The principal place of this league is the following:

Chur, or Coire, in Latin Curia Rhætorum, and in Italian and Roman Coira, and in the language of the country Chur, is the capital of the whole republic of the Griſons, and is ſituated in the forty-ſixth degree fifty-two minutes north latitude, and in the ninth degree thirty-two minutes eaſt longitude; fourteen miles to the north-eaſt of Ilantz; by the river Pleiſſur, which waſhes the walls of the city, and may be conveyed through all the ſtreets, and about half a league before that river diſcharges itſelf into the Rhine. The eaſt part of the city lies at the foot of a hill, as does the ſouth part at the foot of another; but towards the north and weſt is a fine plain, beautifully diverſified with corn-fields, meadows, orchards, and vineyards; and towards the north-eaſt, an eminence, alſo covered with vineyards.

This city is of tolerable extent, and all the inhabitants are Calviniſts. It has two churches, each containing a miniſter, one of whom, who officiates at the cathedral of St. Martin, is ſtiled Antiſtes. Beſides theſe, it has a church ſet apart for funeral ſermons, with a *collegium philoſophicum* of two profeſſors, founded in 1700 by the Calviniſt communities of the three leagues, and over which every league nominates its own particular inſpector. It has alſo a grammar-ſchool of three claſſes. In the town-houſe every three years is held the general diet of the Griſons, as likewiſe the extraordinary diets and congreſſes. In the town-houſe are alſo kept the ſtate-office and record-office of the Houſe of God in particular, as well as of the three leagues collectively; and under it is a magazine for keeping the goods of the merchants paſſing to and from Italy and Germany. On the cloiſter ſquare is the arſenal, in which are kept the artillery both of Chur and the whole ſtate of the Griſons. Adjoining to this is the granary, in which a corn-market is held twice a week.

The fineſt private buildings here is the palace erected by Peter lord of Salis, to which belongs a moſt beautiful garden, and the houſe of the late burgomaſter Otho Schwartz, which is built in the Italian taſte.

The ſupreme power is lodged in the burghers, who are divided into five companies, and by proclamation from the council, meet on all deliberations relative to the ſtate, in which every freeman of thoſe companies is aſked his opinion, the reſolutions are taken according to the majority of the ſuffrages, and communicated in writing to the council. Whatever is approved by three companies, the other two muſt acquieſce in.

The great council conſiſts of ſeventy perſons annually choſen by the burghers; that is, fourteen out of each company, on the firſt Sunday after St. Criſpin's-day. Theſe ſeventy chooſe the leſſer council, conſiſting of twenty perſons. The principal perſon in the city is the burgomaſter, who is annually elected by the free choice of the great council. The leſſer council, with the addition of two eccleſiaſtics, conſtitutes the matrimonial court.

The origin of this city is involved in obſcurity; but it gradually obtained all the immunities and privileges of an imperial city, and has from time immemorial been poſſed of the right of coinage. The origin of the ſee of Chur is no leſs uncertain. The ſeries of its biſhops annually begins with Aſimo, who is ſuppoſed to have lived about the year 440, and the ſee is generally held to be one of the moſt antient. The ſeveral communities of this part of the country of the Griſons, have acquired the right of protection over the ſee, and have ſhewn themſelves on all occaſions the courageous protectors both of the ſee and the biſhops.

The biſhop of Chur is a prince of the empire, and his title is, Biſhop of Chur, of the holy Roman empire, lord of Furſtenſburg and Furſtenau.

His arms are the ſame with thoſe of the city, and the biſhop enjoys a ſeat in the diet of the empire, and in the college of princes, ſits next to the biſhop of Lubec; but in church affairs he is under the juriſdiction of the archbiſhop of Mentz. He is elected by the chapter of Chur, which conſiſts of twenty-four prebends. The biſhop, with the chief of the prebends, that is, the provoſt of the cathedral, with the dean, ſcholaſticus, cantor, cuſtos and theſaurarius, live juſt without the city of Chur, on an eminence called the Hof, which is encloſed with walls and gates, and in which alſo ſtands the cathedral. The revenues of the biſhop are, however, far from being ſo conſiderable as they were formerly.

The Ten Juriſdictions border to the ſouth and eaſt on the league of God's Houſe; to the weſtward on the ſame league, and the county of Sargans; and to the north on Sargans and the principality of New Lichtenſtein. This is the ſmalleſt of the three leagues, and conſiſts of ſeven diſtricts. It for the moſt part conſiſts of rugged and deſart mountains, and has no corn or other fruit, except in that part called the Vallis Rhætica, on the banks of the Rhine; but it has plenty of paſture, cattle, milk, butter and cheeſe, not only for their own uſe, but for exportation; and the lakes abound with fiſh, eſpecially trouts. The air on the mountains is very cold, and the people often in danger from the ſnow and ice which fall from them.

The Ten Juriſdictions are Davos, Cloſter, Caſtels, Schiers, Mayenfeld, Bellfort, and Schanfig; the three laſt are each ſubdivided into two juriſdictions, which makes the whole ten.

The principal place in theſe Juriſdictions is,

Mayenfeld, or Meyenfeld, a pretty town in a fine country, which is the moſt fruitful of any belonging to the Griſons. It ſtands on the banks of the Rhine, with mountains riſing round it like an amphitheatre, well planted with vines, which produce excellent wine. Beſides its church, which is dedicated to St. Lucius, there is a caſtle, in which the bailiff reſides, and ſeveral magnificent houſes. The town has its ſeparate council and civil government, and the bailiff is choſen for two years, alternately by the Griſon leagues and the community.

SECT. XXV.

Of the Countries ſubject to the Griſons, viz. the Valteline, Bormio, and the County of Chiavenna. Their Situation, Extent, Produce, Government, and principal Towns.

WE now come to the ſubjects of the Griſons, who poſſeſs three fine countries at the foot of the Alps, near the entrance of Italy; theſe are the Valteline, Bormio, and the county of Chiavenna; the whole being, properly ſpeaking, one valley, which extends to the foot of the Rhætian Alps, and is bounded on the eaſt by Tirol, on the ſouth by the dominions of Venice and Milan, and on the weſt and north by the country of the Griſons; extending about ſixty Italian miles in length, but is very unequal in breadth.

We ſhall begin with the Valteline, in Latin Vallis Tellina, which lies between the league of God's houſe, the county of Bormio, the territories of Venice, the dutchy of Milan, and the country of Chiavenna; extending upwards of thirty-eight miles in length, and in breadth from nine to twenty-three.

It is exceeding fruitful, and throughout its whole extent watered by the Adda, which diſcharges itſelf into the lake of Como. The ſun-beams ſhine in every part of this valley, and it is fenced from the northern blaſts by high mountains. In ſome parts the heat is intenſe, but in others more moderate; and on the hills and greateſt part of the adjacent valleys the air is moſtly cool. This difference in its temperature neceſſarily cauſes a variation in the products of the earth. The levels in this valley, through which the Adda purſues its meandering courſe, exhibit a pleaſing variety of corn-fields, meadows, vineyards, and orchards of cheſnuts and other fruit. The vineyards on the mountains towards the north produce the beſt wine in the whole country, and above them are corn-fields and paſture lands. The hills on the ſouth ſide are covered with fine woods of cheſnuts, and rich paſtures, in which graze numerous herds of cattle. The country alſo abounds in an excellent red wine, of a moſt delicious flavour, and of ſo good a body, that it will keep for a whole century, improving both in taſte and wholeſomeneſs, and gradually turning paler till its redneſs at length entirely diſappears. Great quantities of this wine are exported. In moſt places the apples and pears are not very good; but the peaches, apricots, figs, and melons of this country are exquiſite. Here are likewiſe plenty of citrons, lemons, almonds, and other delicious fruit.

The ſoil would alſo produce all kinds of grain and pulſe; but the level ſpots being interſperſed with ſwampy ground, that has hitherto remained without culture, and the attention of the inhabitants being chiefly engroſſed by their trade in wine, it does not yield ſufficient corn for ſo populous a country, and therefore they are obliged to have recourſe to importation. In ſome parts they raiſe hemp. Bees and ſilk-worms are here bred in vaſt numbers. But as to their game, it is much reduced by the avidity of the hunters. The Adda yields plenty of fiſh, and is famous for its trouts, which are very fat and delicious, and of ſo large a ſize as to weigh from fifty to ſixty pounds.

There are here numbers of goats, Alpine mice, bears, boars, wolves, lynxes, foxes, martens, hares, and ſquirrels.

The men are comely, ſtrong, good ſoldiers, ingenious, and apt to learn all arts and ſciences. The women are civil, cunning, and amorous; and here are many people of quality, who are as polite as any in Italy.

The language of the inhabitants is a corrupt kind of Italian. At preſent Popery is the only religion, though before the year 1620 the Calviniſts conſtituted a conſiderable body, and had their churches and ſchools; but in that year the Papiſts of the Valteline extirpated them by a general maſſacre, in which no regard was paid either to age, quality, or ſex. Their clergy are under the juriſdiction of the biſhop of Como.

The principal officers are appointed every two years by the Griſons, and every two years each league ſends three perſons, with two clerks and a ſerjeant, to hear the complaints of the people againſt the officers ſet over them, to redreſs their grievances, and decide in caſe of appeals. A farther appeal in civil affairs alſo lies to the general diet of the Griſons. The inhabitants are poſſeſſed of particular privileges, and have certain laws and ſtatutes granted them by the Griſons, as the ſole rule of their conduct, and they chooſe their council and chancellors out of their own countrymen.

The

The whole Vale is divided into the Upper, Middle, and Lower, called Tergeros. The Upper part conſiſts of eleven communities, the Middle part of eighteen, and the Lower part of only two.

Tirano, the capital of the Upper part, is only ſix miles from the territory of Venice, and is ſeated on the river Adda. It is large, populous, and a place of ſome trade. Formerly it was encompaſſed by a wall, and defended by a citadel. On the other ſide of the Adda is a ſplendid church of white marble, adorned with many embelliſhments, which are continually increaſing, it being much reſorted to by pilgrims, who make rich offerings, and having a large income.

The country of Bormio, or of Worms, lies between the country of Tirol, the territories of Venice, and the Valteline, and is on all ſides environed by ſteep mountains, of ſuch a height that their ſummits are ſeldom free from ſnow. A conſiderable part of the country alſo conſiſts of theſe ſtupendous heights, and the narrow paſſes are ſometimes rendered impaſſable, by the ſnow rolling down from the tops of the mountains.

The air is rather cold than warm; but yet pure and healthy. In this country is produced no wine, and but little fruit; it has, however, more corn than is ſufficient for home conſumption, and the paſtures are ſo rich, that the inhabitants keep vaſt herds of horned cattle, beſides great numbers of ſheep and goats. The honey too of this country is particularly good; and it alſo abounds in iron ore; but its other metals and minerals are inconſiderable.

The Adda, which has its ſource in theſe parts, iſſues from a water that falls down a rock into the Freel, or Frayl valley, in which is a lake, and from other currents that precipitate themſelves down the mountains.

The inhabitants, who amount to about fourteen thouſand, are Papiſts, and the whole country is under the dioceſe of Como.

Though Bormio or Worms is governed by an officer named a podeſta, in the name of the Griſons, yet the inhabitants ſtill enjoy all their antient rights and privileges, and all trials here are regulated by the laws of the country; but with right of appeal to the three leagues. Every four months they elect by ballot two officiales or chiefs, from their own body, with ſixteen counſellors and thirteen juſticiaries, who try both civil and criminal cauſes.

The whole country is divided into five diſtricts, the principal place in which is,

Worms, in Latin Bormium, a town ſeated on the rivulet of Fradolf, which at a ſmall diſtance runs into the Adda. This town is the reſidence of a governor called the podeſta, ſent hither every two years from the Griſons. It is a pretty and populous place, and had formerly a good caſtle; but it has ſuffered much by fires, and that building has been conſumed.

The county of Chiavenna takes up the weſt part of this great valley, and is environed by the Upper league, that of God's Houſe, the Valteline, and the territory of Como; extending, according to Dr. Buſching, between ſeven and eight hours in length, and ſix in breadth.

It lies among high and ſteep mountains, and has ſome vallies of conſiderable extent. The ſummer heats are frequently exceſſive, during which a noxious effluvia are brought from the lake of Como, when the wind is ſouth. However, both the mountains and vallies, the St. Jacob's vale excepted, are well peopled, and the country in moſt parts not only abounds in paſtures, but in all kinds of fruit and wine; but the inhabitants have not a ſufficient quantity of corn: they, however, export ſome wine and cattle, and the culture of ſilk is an important article. They have here the lavezzi-ſtone, in Latin lebetes, out of which they turn kitchen utenſils, which they ſend all over Italy.

The principal rivers of this country are the Maira, or Mera, and the Lira, which unite their ſtreams in this country, and then fall into the lake of Como.

The inhabitants are Papiſts, and in ſpiritual affairs are ſubject to the biſhop of Como.

This country is divided into two governments, each under a commiſſary, who is appointed every two years by the three leagues. Theſe repreſent the ſovereignty, and judge both in civil and criminal caſes; but take an oath to be regulated by the particular laws and ſtatutes of the country. Ever ſince the year 1639, the court of Chiavenna, at every nomination of a new commiſſary, chooſes two lawyers, and the commiſſary one, who muſt be natives, as his aſſeſſors in penal cauſes. Civil conteſts are firſt referred to a certain number of perſons of ſenſe and probity, from whom they may be carried to the college of laywers, next to the commiſſary, then to the ſyndics whom the Griſons ſend hither every two years; and after all, the diſcontented party may bring his ſuit before the three leagues themſelves.

The city of Chiavenna, in Latin Clavenna, the capital of the county, is ſeated on the Maria, in the forty-ſixth degree twenty minutes north latitude, and in the ninth degree thirty minutes eaſt longitude, thirty-two miles to the ſouth of Chur, and is a pretty large well built town, in a delightful ſituation, among fine vineyards. It was formerly walled in, and had two forts on two peeks of a broken rock; but in 1526, both theſe were demoliſhed by the Griſons. It is the reſidence of the commiſſary, and contains a collegiate church, and within and near it are five other churches, with a convent, a nunnery, and a handſome cuſtom-houſe for the goods which are forwarded on pack-horſes to Italy or Germany, according to the conſignments of the owners. The inhabitants have dug large caverns in the neighbouring mountains, where they ſtow their wine, which by this means is kept freſh all the ſummer, and drinks as cool as if it had been all the time in ice; and near theſe grottos they have built ſummer-houſes, to which they go in the evening to partake of a collation, and to enjoy the freſh air. The city was formerly much larger than at preſent; but about five hundred and fifty years ago, all the north part of it was buried in the ruins of a mountain.

It will be proper, before we take leave of the county of Chiavenna, to mention the town of Piuri, which ſtood in a diſtrict of the ſame name, and was built on the ſide of the village of Bellfort, which has been deſtroyed by a flood, and contained one hundred and twenty-five houſes, beſides ſome handſome churches, and other public edifices, with a manſion-houſe for the podeſta or commiſſary, and an arched ſtone-bridge over the Maira. Towards the ſouth was a hill of a looſe texture, that had many currents iſſuing from it; but in the evening of the fifteenth of Auguſt 1618, a prodigious part of this mountain, with a dreadful craſh, ſuddenly fell on the town of Piuri, and alſo into Chitau, an adjacent village of ſeventy-five houſes, and overwhelmed both places ſo effectually, that not the leaſt trace of them have ſince appeared. Some repreſent the number of perſons who periſhed by this calamity as amounting to nine hundred and thirty; others compute them at fifteen hundred, and others maintain that they amounted to upwards of two thouſand. The river Maira was for ſome time obſtructed by the rubbiſh of the maſs which thus fell. The people of Chiavenna, though near the town, knew nothing of this dreadful diſaſter till they ſaw the river ſink, it not receiving a drop of water for three hours. By one of the palaces which was at a ſmall diſtance from the town, and therefore not overwhelmed with it, a judgment may be formed of the magnificence of the reſt. It was a pleaſure-houſe of the family of Francken, which, with its gardens, could not coſt leſs than one hundred thouſand crowns, and might be compared with many palaces of Italy.

SECT. XXVI.

The VALAIS.

Its Situation, Extent, Produce, and Face of the Country. The Manners, Language, and Hiſtory of the Inhabitants; their Arms and Government: with the principal Places in the Upper and Lower Valais; and among the reſt, an Account of the Baths of Leuck, of the City of Sitten, and of the famous Monaſtery on the Convent of St. Bernard.

THE Valais, in Latin Valleſia, the next of the countries ſtiled the allies or confederates of the Swiſs,

is bounded on the north by the canton of Bern and the lake of Geneva; on the weſt by Savoy; on the ſouth by Piedmont and Milan; and on the eaſt by the Mayenthal, which belongs to the cantons in general, and by the canton of Uri; extending, according to Dr. Buſching, about thirty-three or thirty-four hours in length, and in ſome parts upwards of ten in breadth.

The whole country is one large vale that extends eaſt and weſt, and on the north and ſouth ſides is bounded by very high mountains. Among the ſouthern mountains, the moſt remarkable is that called Great St. Bernard's, antiently named Mons Penninus, a name given to the whole Appennine chain. The principal hill on the north ſide is the Gemmi, which lies towards the frontiers of the canton of Bern, and is impaſſable in winter, and its deſcent towards the valley of the Valais was of a dangerous ſteepneſs, and very narrow. To remedy this inconvenience, in 1736 ſeveral rocks were blown up, the road in moſt places widened to the breadth of ſeven feet, and walls raiſed in the moſt ſteep and looſeſt parts; ſo that travelling is at preſent much more ſafe and commodious than formerly. St. Anthony's hill is alſo of an aſtoniſhing height.

The Valais is a very hot country, remarkable for its fertility. The harveſt begins in May, and laſts till the latter end of October; the corn in the bottom of the chief valley being brought in firſt; next that in the ſide vallies; and laſt of all, that on the mountains, which yield grain at an uncommon height. The low lands excel the upper in the produce of winter, and theſe again the former in ſummer fruits. Beſides the beſt kinds of grain, as wheat, barley, and rye, this country abounds in good wine, particularly in a fine muſcadel, with plenty of apples, pears, plums, cherries, mulberries, cheſnuts, and ſmall nuts; and about Sitten, Siders, and Grundis, alſo grow pomegranates, figs, almonds, and other rich fruits. Theſe parts are alſo remarkable for producing good ſaffron. Both the hills and vallies feed great numbers of cattle, and afford plenty of deer, hares, and other game. It is ſuppoſed to have alſo mines of ſilver, copper, and lead; but the produce, it is ſaid, will not anſwer the expence of working them. Here is likewiſe pit coal.

The Valais is from one end to the other watered by the Rhodan or Rhone, to which the country people give the name of Rotten, and which has its ſource on the Furke mountain. At firſt it precipitates itſelf with great noiſe among ſeveral rocks, and down to the very plain in the valley has the appearance of a ſingle cataract, with ſeveral caſcades. It is afterwards joined by the Meyenwang rivulet, which iſſues from the Grimſel mountain, and then directing its courſe due ſouth, enters the Valais, where it runs from eaſt to weſt, till after winding northward, it diſcharges itſelf with great impetuoſity into the lake of Geneva; all the ſtreams and leſſer rivers of the Valais iſſuing from the mountains mingle with it.

The Valeſians are a brave and courageous people; but it is uncommon to find either a man or woman without a large wen in their necks, which is ſuppoſed to be owing to the clayey ſandy water, that leaves a ſediment in the glands of the body. The apparel and diet of the common people are coarſe; but the quality live very ſplendidly. Moſt of their houſes are of wood, particularly of the larch-tree, which is very durable, and grows as black as ebony. They cover them with ſlate, and in ſome places build their houſes with turrets and wings.

In the Upper Valais the prevailing language is the German; but the inhabitants of Siders and Sitten, with thoſe in the Lower Valais, ſpeak a corrupt French; tho' in both parts they apply themſelves to the German, French, Italian, and Latin, which are indiſpenſibly neceſſary in their intercourſe with the cantons of Bern and Uri, Savoy, Piedmont, and the Milaneſe; and therefore a ſtranger cannot fail of being ſurpriſed at the fluency with which the meaneſt people here ſpeak theſe four languages.

The antient inhabitants of this country were the Lepontii Viberi, with the Seduni and Veragri. In the middle ages it came to be called Valeſia, and in 1032, it devolved to the German empire, as a part of the ſecond Burgundian kingdom; but three years after the emperor Conrad II. made over the Lower Valais to the counts of Savoy. The inhabitants, on ſeveral occaſions, have reſolutely maintained their liberties. In 1475, the biſhop of Geneva fell on the Upper Valais with a body of eighteen thouſand men, conſiſting of Lower Valeſians and Savoyards; but the Upper Valeſians being aſſiſted by three thouſand troops ſent by Bern, Freyburg, and Solothurn, their allies, defeated the biſhop, and even made a conqueſt of the Lower Valais, which has ever ſince been ſubject to them. In the ſame year they formed a perpetual alliance with Bern, which has been renewed with the whole Helvetic body; and in 1533, they entered into a particular union with the ſeven Popiſh cantons.

The arms of the republic of the Valais are, party per pale gules and argent, three mullets in each field, with one on the pale.

The republic of the Upper Valais conſiſts of ſeven parts, called Zenten or Tytnings. In ſix of theſe the government is democratical; but that of the ſeventh, which conſiſts of the city of Sitten, is ariſtocratical. Each Tything ſends a repreſentative to the general diet, which aſſembles twice a year, that is in May and December, at Sitten. This diet has the management of the public concerns, both civil and military, beſides appeals in proceſſes brought before the Tythings: it likewiſe gives audience to envoys, &c. Over each Tything is a chief, called a meyer, or mayor, with a particular regency and juriſdiction; but the Tything court is compoſed of the Tything judge, aſſiſted by twelve aſſeſſors and judges, who act both in civil and criminal caſes. The military affairs of each Tything are under the direction of a banneret and captain.

The principal places in the Upper Valais are the following:

Brug or Brieg, a large open town, and the capital of a Tything of the ſame name, is ſeated on the river Saltana, at the foot of the mountain of Brug, in the paſs of Simplon. Here are ſeveral fine buildings, particularly a handſome Jeſuits college and nunnery of Urſulines, and here alſo are held the Tything courts. In the year 1755, the greateſt part of the town was deſtroyed by an earthquake.

Leuck is a village ſeated on an eminence near the conflux of the Dala and the Rhone, and has two churches, a fine town-houſe, and an old caſtle, which belongs to the biſhop of Sitten. As it ſtands near the center of the Valais, the deputies of the country often aſſemble here.

The famous hot baths, called the Baths of Leuck, are in a valley about two leagues diſtance, incloſed on all ſides by high mountains, through which there is only a narrow paſſage to a wood on the ſouth ſide. They are formed by five ſprings, not far from each other. The largeſt, which fills eight baths, flows plentifully, and the water is hot enough for boiling eggs. It is for the moſt part clear; but ſometimes changes its colour. It is purgative, and good againſt colds, the gout, weak ſtomachs, diſeaſes of the liver, lungs, and ſpleen, dimneſs of ſight, convulſions, defluxions, the dropſy, ſtone, ulcers, diſtempers of the womb, &c. There is another of the ſprings good againſt the leproſy, and at a ſmall diſtance from theſe are ſeveral cold ſprings, the largeſt of which flows only from May to September, that is, during the ſummer, when other ſprings are dried up; but this is aſcribed to the melting of the ſnow on the Alps.

Sitten, or Sion in French, and in Latin Sedunem, the capital of all the whole Valais, is ſeated on the river Sitten, at a ſmall diſtance from the Rhone, in the forty-ſixth degree ſeven minutes north latitude, and in the ſeventh degree forty minutes eaſt longitude. It ſtands almoſt in the center between the Upper and Lower Valais, in a delightful plain, overlooked by pretty high hills on the eaſt ſide, on the higheſt of which is a fort, in which the biſhop reſides in very hot weather, or in ſickly ſeaſons. Here is alſo another fort, called the Valeria, which has a church, and ſeveral fine houſes. The city is neat and well built, with four churches: the moſt remarkable of theſe is the cathedral, which has at the great gate a fragment of Roman marble, with an inſcription to the honour of the emperor Auguſtus.

The

The ſubjects of this republic conſiſt of the inhabitants of the Lower Valais, which contains ſeveral diſtricts.

In this country is the mountain of St. Bernard, which has on its ſummit a large convent, where the friars maintain all travellers for three days gratis, whether Papiſts or Proteſtants; but people of faſhion and gratitude make ſome civil acknowledgement on their leaving this houſe of hoſpitality. If any one dies here, they do not inter him, but carry him to a chapel at ſome diſtance in the midſt of ſnow, where the dead body lies without corruption from the extreme coldneſs of the place. A thouſand travellers would be in danger of periſhing on this rugged mountain, were it not for theſe honeſt friars, who ſend out people with brandy and other cordials to comfort them, eſpecially in the winter, and upon great thaws, when they ſometimes find the poor travellers ſtretched on the ground, and almoſt ſtarved to death by the violence of the cold, or ready to drop down with fatigue from the difficulty of the road. This renders theſe friars ſo well beloved all over Swiſſerland, that when they ſend thither for a collection, which they do once a year, there is ſcarce a family, rich or poor, Proteſtant or Papiſt, but gives freely to the relief of the convent, which though it is ſaid to be large enough to hold ſix hundred people, and to be ſo ſhut up in ſnow and ice that nothing grows near it, yet ſuch care is taken, that this houſe wants for nothing.

St. Maurice is a large handſome town, ſeated between two hills on the Rhine, over which it has a ſtately ſtone bridge, reaching from one hill to the other. On the weſt ſide of the bridge, cloſe to a high mountain, ſtands the governor's ſeat; on the eaſtern ſide is a tower, and below both a gate, which is ſhut by night. This paſs is a great thoroughfare for all goods and perſons going from the lake of Geneva through the country of the Valais, and over the mountains of St. Bernard. In this town is an Auguſtine canonry, the abbot of which is veſted with the lower juriſdiction in ſeveral villages; and the abbey contains many pieces of antiquity, particularly a great number of Roman inſcriptions, and near the high altar is a curious Moſaic pavement.

SECT. XXVII.

The Principality of NEUFCHATEL.

Its Situation, Extent, and Produce, the Language, Religion, Hiſtory, and Government of the Country; with a Deſcription of the City of Neufchatel, and an Antiquity on the top of a Mountain.

THE next of the allies of Swiſſerland which we ſhall now mention, is the principality of Neufchatel, bounded on the north by Baſil; by the lake of the ſame name on the eaſt; the county of Bern on the ſouth; and by the Franche Compté on the weſt; it being about forty miles long, and twenty broad.

It is every way hilly, and along its northern and weſtern borders runs the Jura chain. The mountainous part produces very little, except herbage for cattle; but the inhabitants, who are chiefly artificers, procure themſelves a comfortable ſubſiſtence by their labour. However, the ſmalleſt eminences, with the valleys and plains, not only produce red and white wines, but fruit, corn, hemp, and flax.

The Neuenburg lake, ſo called from the town of Neuenburg, which ſtands on its bank, is nine hours in length, and two in breadth; but not of any conſiderable depth. It affords plenty of fiſh, particularly pike and trout: on the ſide of the town it receives the river Orbe, and into its weſtern part run the two ſmall rivers of Areuſe, or Reuſe, and Seyon. Its north ſide forms an outlet to the Zill, by which means it has a communication with the lake of Biel.

In the whole principality are three towns, one borough, and twenty-five pariſhes, with ten chapels of eaſe, ſixty-four villages, and a great number of ſcattered houſes. The current language is French; but with a mixture of the Burgundian, both in the accent and dialect.

The greateſt part of the inhabitants are Calviniſts, but in the caſtellany of Landeron Popery is the prevailing religion. The twenty-three head pariſhes, and nine of the filials, are Proteſtants, and divided into the three colloques of Neuenburg, Boudry, and the Val de Travers. All their ſeveral miniſters meet annually at Neuenburg chapel, in the month of May; and this aſſembly being veſted with the ſuperintendency of all eccleſiaſtical affairs, confirms the church officers who are newly choſen, and collates and ejects miniſters, except in the town of Neufchatel. In the caſtellany of Landeron are two Popiſh pariſhes, and one chapel of eaſe, which in eccleſiaſtical affairs are under the juriſdiction of Lauſanne.

This country anciently belonged to the laſt kingdom of Burgundy, with which, in 1032, it devolved to the German empire. Since that time it has been poſſeſſed by many different families, and in 1707 the high tribunal of the ſtate of Neufchatel, after a mature and impartial examination of the claims of ſeveral illuſtrious families, paſſed a decree in favour of Frederick I. king of Pruſſia, who immediately took poſſeſſion of it, and the uſual homage was performed to him, he on his part confirming all the liberties and privileges of the ſtate, and its alliances with the neighbouring powers. At the peace of Utrecht, concluded between France and Pruſſia in 1713, the French king acknowledged the king of Pruſſia as ſovereign-lord of Neufchatel and Vallangin; and the inhabitants are in all parts of France intitled to the ſame rights and privileges that are indulged to the natives of the Swiſs cantons, or which they enjoyed before the king of Pruſſia became their ſovereign.

On the other hand, by virtue of the community of rights which the lords of Neufchatel have entered into with the cantons of Bern, Lucern, Freyburg, and Solothurn, both the ſovereign and the town are reckoned aſſociates of the cantons.

The king, as head of the ſtate, preſides in its aſſemblies, convokes them at pleaſure, collects their ſuffrages, and, when equal, decides the point in deliberation. He has alſo the management of all military affairs, with reſpect to which he is ſtiled lieutenant-general, and with him is connected the council of ſtate. The number of the members depends alſo on the ſovereign's pleaſure. This council ſuperintends all the affairs of the ſtate and police, and decides in any occurrences or conteſts. The governor here ſits as preſident, and in caſe of his abſence the ſenior counſellor. He likewiſe ſummons them together, whenever he pleaſes, though their uſual time of meeting is every Monday and Tueſday in the morning. Under him are many general and particular officers nominated by the ſovereign, as the treaſurer, to whom the receivers pay the ſeveral branches of the revenue; the firſt ſecretary to the council of ſtate; the general procurator, who attends to the maintenance of the ſovereign's rights; the general commiſſary; the general advocate, who carries on the proceſſes of the ſovereign; the caſtellans, and the mayers or mayors, who are placed over the lower courts, with a ſtadtholder or lieutenant under them.

The principal court of juſtice, which judges without appeal, is that of the three ſtates of the ſovereignty of Neufchatel. The firſt of theſe ſtates is compoſed of four nobles, who are generally the four eldeſt noblemen in the council of ſtate. The ſecond is called the ſtate of officers, and conſiſts of the four caſtellans of Landeron, Boudry, the Val de Travers, and Thielle, and any deficiency in theſe is ſupplied by the mayers or mayors. The third ſtate is compoſed of four burghers of Neufchatel, annually elected by the town council from among their own members. In this aſſembly the governor preſides, and on an equality of votes has the caſting voice: the general procurator takes care that nothing be tranſacted contrary to the prerogative of the ſovereign. This aſſembly finally determines all ſuits brought before them from the lower courts in the ſovereignty of Neufchatel, explains the acts of the council of ſtate, and gives their aſſent to any new edicts of the ſovereign, or to the repeal or alteration of the old ones.

Among the ſuperior courts, is that for the trial of criminals, in which the decrees are executed without appeal, unleſs the ſovereign, or his governor, are diſpoſed

to favour the convict, either by mitigating, or annulling the ſentence; but to aggravate it is not in the power of either. Thoſe courts for the puniſhment of criminals are of two kinds, ſome inveſted with the high juriſdiction, and others confined to the lower; and their ſentences extend no farther than impriſonment, the pillory, whipping, &c. Of this laſt kind are all the country courts.

Their militia, excluſive of that of the precinct of the city of Neufchatel, amounts to upwards of eight thouſand men, who are ranged into ſeveral companies; and the whole military eſtabliſhment is under the direction of a general inſpector, four lieutenant-colonels, and the like number of majors.

Neufchatel, called by the Germans Welſch-Neuenburg, and in Latin Neoconum, or Novicaſtrum, the capital of the country, is ſeated on two eminences adjoining to the lake of the ſame name, which here receives into it the little river Seyon. It is a fine town, conſiſting of four large ſtreets, and an old caſtle, in which the governor reſides, to which there is an aſcent by one hundred ſteps, ſome of them cut out of the rock. The houſes are generally well built, and among them are ſeveral handſome ſtructures and good fountains. Near the caſtle is a fine old church, and a terrace that affords a view both of the town and lake. In the plain at the bottom is another church, the town houſe, and likewiſe a gymnaſium. Here are ſeveral monuments of antiquity, particularly a ſtately tower on the deſcent of one of the hills, ſaid to have been built by Julius Cæſar. Round the town are on all ſides vineyards, gardens, and country villas. The city is governed by a council of ſixty burghers, who enjoy ſuch privileges that they are almoſt independent. Neufchatel has ſeveral times ſuffered greatly by fire, and in 1750 endured as much from two inundations of the Seyon.

It ought not to be omitted that on one of the ſummits of the Jura chain, near a ſcattered village called la Cote aux Fees, is a very ſuperb temple hewn out of the rock, in which Mercury was anciently conſulted by means of certain propheteſſes. It is with great difficulty that a perſon can deſcend to the entrance, before which is a ſtately portal, where an almoſt inacceſſible rock forms an arcade of a ſtupendous magnitude.

SECT. XXVIII.

The Republic of GENEVA.

Its Situation and Produce. With a particular Deſcription of the Lake of Geneva, and of the City of that Name.

THE republic of Geneva, by the Germans called Genff, and by the French Genevé, is the laſt of the allies of Swiſſerland. This republic is but of ſmall extent, for, excluſive of the city of Geneva, it does not contain above eleven pariſhes, eight of which are partly under the juriſdiction of the duke of Savoy; yet it is a conſiderable ally of the Swiſs cantons. The country in general is very fruitful and populous: its villages are large, well built, and adorned with many fine houſes belonging to the citizens of Geneva. It abounds with fruit, and produces white and red wine; the former indeed is ſmall, but the latter excellent. The only corn ſowed here is wheat, which its ſoil bears here in great plenty; and the republick conſtantly keeps a large magazine of it againſt a time of ſcarcity, when they ſell it out at a reaſonable rate; and in a time of plenty, they alſo oblige the bakers, and thoſe who keep public houſes, to buy it of them, but at a moderate price.

The lake of Geneva reſembles the ſea, both in the colour of its water, the ſtorms that are raiſed on it, and in the ravages it makes on its banks, and is as little ſubject to froſt as the lake of Conſtance. It receives different names from the coaſts it waſhes, and has in ſummer ſomething like the ebbing and flowing of the tide, occaſioned by the melting of the ſnows, that fall more copiouſly into it at noon, than at other times of the day. It has five different ſtates bordering on it; theſe are France, the dutchy of Savoy, the canton of Bern, the biſhopric of Sitten, and the republic of Geneva. This lake is in ſhape like a half moon, whoſe convex ſide looks towards Swiſſerland; ſo that it is ſixteen leagues in length on this ſide; while towards Savoy, it does not exceed twelve. It is pretty narrow at both ends; but widens by degrees to the middle, where it is twenty-five miles over. As to its depth, it is ſaid in ſome places to be unfathomable, and is therefore navigable by larger veſſels than are commonly ſeen in rivers. Near Villeneuve, the Rhone diſcharges itſelf into it with ſuch rapidity, that for the diſtance of half a league its water, which is very foul, continues unmixed with that of the lake, which is very clear; but afterwards, ſays Mr. Keyſler, there is no viſible diſtinction, though ſome of the ancient, and ſeveral of the modern writers affirm the contrary. Formerly this lake afforded trouts of fifty or ſixty pounds weight; but now one of twenty or thirty is reckoned very large.

The Rhone, at its influx, forms an iſland, on which, together with the banks on both ſides, ſtands the city of Geneva, which is thus divided into three unequal parts, that have a communication by four bridges, and is ſituated in the forty-ſixth degree twelve minutes north latitude, and in the ſixth degree nineteen minutes eaſt longitude. The greateſt part of the city is ſeated on a hill, and has its view bounded on all ſides by ſeveral ranges of mountains; but theſe are at ſo great a diſtance, that they leave open a ſurpriſing variety of beautiful proſpects, and from their ſituation, cover the country they incloſe from all winds except the ſouth and north, and to the laſt of theſe winds the inhabitants of this city aſcribe the healthfulneſs of the air; for as the Alps ſurround the city on all ſides, forming a vaſt baſon, within which is a well watered country, there would here be a conſtant ſtagnation of vapours, did not the north wind put them in motion, and ſcatter them from time to time. From this ſituation Mr. Addiſon obſerves, the ſun riſes later at Geneva, and ſets ſooner, than in other places of the ſame latitude; and the tops of the neighbouring mountains are covered with light above half an hour after the ſun is down at Geneva. Theſe mountains alſo much increaſe the heats of ſummer, and form an horizon that has ſomething in it very ſingular and agreeable. On the one hand a long range of hills, diſtinguiſhed by the name of mount Jura, is covered with paſture and vineyards; and on the other huge precipices, formed of naked rocks, riſe in a thouſand odd figures, and being cleft in ſome places, diſcover high mountains of ſnow, at the diſtance of ſeveral leaguesbehind them. To the ſouthward, the hills riſing more inſenſibly, leave the eye a vaſt uninterrupted proſpect; but the moſt beautiful view is that of the lake, and its borders, that lie north of the town.

The part on the right ſide of the Rhone, which from a church of that name is called St. Gervais, is very much inferior both in its dimenſions and beauty to the buildings on the eminence on the left ſide of that river; but for theſe thirty years paſt, daily improvements have been made in every part of the city. The large and beautiful fortifications have drawn hither ſeveral ſorts of workmen, and occaſioned many judicious meaſures for procuring materials for building at a reaſonable rate; ſo that what might at firſt appear to raiſe the price of private building, has had a very contrary effect. New-ſtreet conſiſts of fine buildings, particularly the houſe facing the Treille, or walks made behind the town-houſe. Theſe walks conſiſt of lime-trees, and being on an eminence, afford a beautiful proſpect of the large gardens beneath them, and of the fields and meadows towards the mountains. One of the moſt magnificent houſes is that of Mr. Lullin, an eccleſiaſtic, which is ſaid to have coſt him above eighty thouſand dollars. Some ſtreets of the Lower Town have a kind of piazzas; but they are loftier than thoſe of Bern, and project farther. Shelters of this kind are very convenient in a city without coaches.

Among the public buildings we ought not to omit St. Peter's church, which was formerly a cathedral, and is a ſpacious antient ſtructure, in the form of a croſs. In the front is the figure of the ſun, which was worſhipped in the time of the Pagans, and which the city ſeveral ages after took for its device, with this motto,

POST

POST TENEBRAS SPERO LUCEM; but after the inhabitants had embraced the Reformation, the motto was changed for POST TENEBRAS LUX; the former denoting that after darkneſs, it hoped for light, and the other, that light was come. In the nave of the church behind the pulpit are the ſtatues of the twelve apoſtles carved in wood, as on the other ſide are the twelve prophets.

It is remarkable, that in the churches the kings of England and France are nominally prayed for. The Chriſtian behaviour and peaceable temper of the clergy here, may ſerve for a pattern to their brethren differing from them in ſome doctrinal points. Both the clergy and laity are averſe to any diſcourſe on the proceedings againſt Servetus, and wiſh that the whole matter was buried in oblivion.

On the Plainpalais without the city, is the general burial-place, and in this church-yard the body of Calvin lies interred; but the inhabitants of Geneva, to ſhew their averſion to ſectariſm, will not tell or ſeem to know in what place it is depoſited; but it is ſaid, that a Lutheran eccleſiaſtic was buried cloſe by Calvin.

Adjoining to the cathedral of St. Peter is the chapel of the Maccabees, where both the Germans and Italians perform divine worſhip, and where alſo the profeſſors of philoſophy read their lectures. Beſides the two churches and this chapel, already mentioned, there are four other churches. The general hoſpital is a new building that has a particular chaplain of its own. The French have likewiſe an hoſpital for the relief of their brethren. The town-houſe is a ſtately edifice of free-ſtone, ſituated on an eminence not far from the cathedral, and in it is a ſpiral paſſage paved with ſquare ſtones, where a perſon may walk or ride under cover from the bottom to the top; and at a ſmall diſtance from it is the arſenal, in which are ſhewn the ladders, a charged petard, and other implements made uſe of by the Savoyards in their famous deſign of ſurpriſing the city by night in 1602, when they were repulſed and beaten off with all the ignominy their perfidiouſneſs deſerved. The univerſity, which is reckoned among the moſt celebrated in Europe, was founded in 1558, and has twelve profeſſors belonging to it, with a very valuable library, in which are ſome curious manuſcripts. At the efflux of the Rhine out of the lake is a building in which are kept the public barges, yachts, and veſſels built for their defence.

Without the gates are handſome ſeats, delightful gardens, and pleaſant walks. The ſalubrity of the air, with the excellent proviſions, the agreeable ſituation of the place, the politeneſs of the inhabitants, the great number of manufacturers and artificers, as alſo of perſons paſſing through it from Germany or France to Italy, or from Italy to France, as likewiſe of young foreign gentlemen reſiding here to perfect themſelves in the French tongue, polite literature, and other academical exerciſes, contribute to render this city extremely delightful.

Great quantities of beautiful manufactures and fabrics are made here; and among many works of ingenuity that of watch-making is carried on with great ſucceſs. Its trade is, however, ſomewhat declined; but is ſtill very conſiderable, on account of its being a thoroughfare for goods paſſing from France to Germany and Italy, as alſo from Germany to France, they being eaſily ſhipped from hence on the Rhine or the Rhone.

The revenues of the city, beſides that ariſing from the ſale of the corn, which is inconſiderable, annually amount to about a hundred and thirty thouſand dollars, the greateſt part of which are employed in the ſalaries of the civil and eccleſiaſtical officers, in the building and repairs of the public edifices, and in the payment of the garriſon, which conſiſts of eight hundred men well diſciplined, who wear an uniform of blue faced with red.

The power has been immemorially lodged in the people, who conſiſt of about fifteen hundred burghers; their chiefs being four ſyndics, who, with twenty one councilmen, conſtitute the ſupreme court of twenty-five, of which two perſons of one family cannot be members at the ſame time.

The next is the more ſevere court, conſiſting of ſixty, and the great council of two hundred. The ſyndics are choſen by the people out of the council of twenty-one; and they continue in office but a year: however, they retain their ſeat in the council, and are capable of being choſen again. For the ſupport of credit it is enacted by an expreſs law, that no ſon who does not diſcharge his father's debts ſhall be capable of any office.

This little republic has ſome peculiar ordinances relating to matrimony. No marriage is permitted unleſs both parties be Proteſtants; all previous promiſes or engagements of a Reformed with a Roman catholic, are declared void, and the agents, with thoſe who have given their aſſent to it, are puniſhable according to the nature of the circumſtances. A woman of forty years of age cannot marry a man that is ten years younger than herſelf; if above forty, her choice is confined to five years younger. A man about ſixty is not to marry a woman who is not at leaſt above half that age; and a widow muſt remain ſuch ſix months before ſhe can alter her condition. In this particular a man is not expreſly limited; but is, however, enjoined to wait a reaſonable time, with this ſingular addition, "both to obviate "ſcandal, and to ſhew that he has felt the hand of "God."

The maintenance of a good police, and the ſuppreſſion of luxury, is the province of a particular chamber; but a very extraordinary fund here, is that ariſing from the dirt of the ſtreets. In other places money is paid for having it carried away, whereas here it is farmed for eight hundred livres paid to the city, for the excluſive privilege of taking it away for manuring land.

CHAP. XXIII.

Of ITALY.

SECT. I.

Of ITALY *in general.*

Its Names, Situation, Figure, Extent, Mountains, Rivers, and Produce. The Arts, Language, Religion, Cuſtoms, Manners, and Food of the Inhabitants, with the Diviſions of the Country.

ITALY was antiently known by the names of Saturnia, Oenotria, Auſonia, and Heſperia. The firſt was derived from Saturn, the ſecond and third from its primitive inhabitants, and the fourth, which ſignifies a weſtern country, from the Greeks; becauſe lying to the weſt of them. In ſucceeding times it obtained the name of Italia, according to ſome authors from Italus, a king, of Sicily; but in the opinion of others from the Greek word Ιταλος, which ſignifies an ox, this country, from the richneſs of its paſtures, being remarkable for the abundance of its fine oxen. Each of theſe appellations, at firſt peculiar to diſtinct territories, were afterwards given to the whole country.

Italy, including Sicily, lies between the thirty-ſeventh and forty-ſixth degree of north latitude, and between the ſeventh and nineteenth degree of eaſt longitude. Nature has fixed its boundaries; for towards the eaſt, ſouth, and weſt, it is waſhed by the Adriatic and Mediterranean ſeas, and to the north by the high and lofty mountains of the Alps. Its figure is generally compared to that of a boot, and is therefore divided into three parts; the top of the boot containing antient Lombardy; in the upper part of the leg are the territories of the church and of Tuſcany; and in the ſmall of the leg and foot is the kingdom of Naples. The length from Aoſta, at the foot of the Alps, to the promontory called Capo del Armi, in Lower Calabria, is computed at near eight hundred Italian miles, which make about ſeven hundred and twenty-ſix Engliſh ſtatute miles. Its breadth at the foot of the Alps is five hundred and ſixty Italian miles; and through the middle, that is, between Ancona and the mouth of the Tiber, one hundred and thirty-ſix; but in ſome places hardly twenty-five.

The principal mountains in Italy are the Alps and the Apennines. The Alps, of which we have given ſome account in treating of Swiſſerland, are a long chain of mountains, that begin at the mouth of the river Var, and, after many irregular windings, terminate near the river Arſia in Iſtria. They divide Italy from France, Swiſſerland, and Germany, and are variouſly denominated according to their ſituation. The Alps on the ſea-coaſt reach from Vada or Vado, to the ſource of the Var, or even to that of the Po; the Cottian Alps, from the ſource of the Var to the city of Suſa; the Greek Alps, from the city of Suſa to mount St. Bernard; the Peninian Alps, from mount St. Bernard to mount St. Gotthard; on theſe border the Rhætian Alps, which extend to the ſource of the river Piava; and laſtly, to mention no more, the Noric, or Carnician Alps, which extend from the river Piava to Iſtria, and the ſource of the Sauſtrom. We have already given an account of ſome ſurpriſing particulars relating to theſe ſtupendous mountains, and ſhall give others no leſs extraordinary in treating of Savoy and Piedmont.

The Apennine mountains take their riſe near the Alps, on the ſea-coaſt, in the territories of Genoa, and dividing Italy into almoſt two equal parts, reach to the ſtreights that ſeparate Italy from Sicily, and give riſe to an incredible variety of rivers that water this delightful country. The largeſt and moſt remarkable of the rivers of Italy are the following:

The Po, which riſes in mount Veſo, one of the higheſt of all the Alps, and after receiving upwards of thirty ſmall rivers, diſcharges itſelf into the Adriatic by ſeven different mouths. The Adige, in Latin Atheſis, has its ſource in the Rhætian Alps, and waters the cities of Trent and Verona, it being the only large river in Lombardy, and inſtead of joining the Po, runs like that river into the Adriatic. The Arno flows from the Apennine mountains, and falls into the Tuſcan ſea near Piſa. The Tiber riſes alſo out of the Apennine mountains, and at a ſmall diſtance from Rome, empties itſelf into the Tuſcan ſea. Beſides theſe there are many others.

This country produces in great plenty all the neceſſaries and conveniencies of life; for all the variety of delicacies that lie ſcattered, as it were, in other countries, are here almoſt every where met with in profuſion. Theſe conſiſt in corn, rich wines, and the choiceſt fruits; as oranges, citrons, lemons, olives, pomegranates, &c. raiſins, almonds, ſugar, oils, mulberry-trees, beyond number, to facilitate the producing of ſilk; tame and wild beaſts, alabaſter, jaſper, gold, ſilver, ſulphur, iron, alum, &c. On this account authors have been extremely laviſh in their praiſes of this fine country, which they have ſtiled the parent of plenty; the ſource of earthly felicity; the pride of our earth; the garden of Europe; and the beauty of the world. But it muſt be acknowledged that the fine plants, which, from time to time, have been introduced into the weſtern and northern countries from Italy, as the reputed mother of them, are not all original natives, the far greater part being tranſplanted to the Italian ſoil from the eaſt. Thus all the fruit-trees, the produce of which the Latins called *mala*, were tranſplanted to Italy after the conqueſt of the Romans in Africa, Greece, Aſia Minor, and Syria. The apricots came from Epirus, and are called *mala Epirotica*; the peaches are named *mala Perſica*, from their being brought from Perſia; the citrons *mala Medica*, from their being tranſplanted from Media; the pomegranates *mala Punica*, from Carthage; and cheſnuts were tranſplanted from the town of Caſtania, in the diſtrict of Magneſia, in Macedonia. The beſt pears were ſent from Alexandria, Numidia, Greece, and Numantia, as their Latin names ſufficiently indicate. The firſt plums were imported from Armenia and Syria, eſpecially from Damaſcus. Lucius Lucullus was the firſt who introduced cherry-trees from Pontus, which ſoon after became the growth of all other countries in Europe.

But however rich and fertile Italy in general may be deemed, yet no ſmall difference is diſcoverable with reſpect to the fruitfulneſs of the ſoil, the ſalubrity of the air, and the pleaſantneſs of its provinces. It is ſubject to ſeveral great inconveniences, particularly in the middle and lower parts, and in moſt countries the number of inhabitants is far from being ſufficient for the improvement and culture of this fruitful ſoil. On conſidering the multitude of people in Italy, during the reigns of the Roman emperors, its preſent deſolateneſs, which is moſt perceptible in the papal dominions, cannot but appear ſurpriſing. The ingenious Mr. Addiſon was of opinion, that the Campania of ancient Rome contained more people than are at preſent throughout all Italy, and that there is not a town of any conſequence in the whole country where the eccleſiaſtics do not make at leaſt one-third of the inhabitants.

The ancient inhabitants of Italy were the triumphant conquerors and rulers of the world. The ſofter arts have now taken place, and ſeem the chief employment of the modern Italians. Painting was indeed introduced at Rome by Caius Fabius, and was brought to conſiderable perfection before the time of Auguſtus; but a corrupt taſte ſoon after prevailing, the politer arts were obliterated, and by degrees ſunk into oblivion. Since the decay of the Roman empire, Painting paid Italy a ſecond

An Accurate Map of ITALY

MEDITERRANEAN SEA

EUROPE

PART OF TURKY IN ASIA

SARDINIA

CORSICA

GULPH or VENICE or ADRIATIC SEA

GERMANY

SWITZERLAND

CROATIA

MOREA

LIVADIA

CHURCH

TUSCANY

MILANESE

PARMA

Gulph of Lyons

viſit, and the maſters that excelled in it for a long time preſerved an unrivalled reputation. Whether the firſt Greek painters came to Bologna, Florence, or any other city, has been warmly diſputed. In the thirteenth century, moſt of the church painting was either in Moſaic or freſco. The firſt painters who diſtinguiſhed themſelves, were generally alſo ſtatuaries and architects, and their works are ſtill the admiration of the curious. The invention of engraving is claimed by the Italians; but that honour is only juſtly due to the Germans; for Andrew Mantegna, who died in 1517, in the 69th year of his age, was the firſt who applied himſelf with ſucceſs to this art in Italy. The Italians ſtill maintain their ſuperior character for ſkill in ſtatuary. Some cauſes of the advancement of this ſcience among them, is their having the nobleſt models, which they keep before them; the many lectures and conferences in the academies; the liberal payments; the conſtant opportunity of diſplaying their ſkill; the incentives of praiſe; and the gaining of prizes. Almoſt every city has an academy of ſculpture and painting, and ſome places more particularly diſtinguiſh themſelves by excelling in particular branches of ſculpture. The Italians have alſo diſtinguiſhed themſelves in architecture.

Italy has produced great men in all ſciences, and formerly gave birth to thoſe generals, orators, poets, and hiſtorians, whoſe actions and writings will be revered as long as manly fortitude, polite learning, and elegant compoſition, are conſidered as ornaments of human nature. Yet its ſtate of literature cannot now be deemed conſiderable, though encouraged not only by ſeveral univerſities, but by a multiplicity of academies or literary ſocieties, which are to be found almoſt in every city. Some of theſe affect very odd and whimſical names, as the Otioſi, Humoriſti, Lincei, Fantaſtici, Immobili, Imperfecti, Inquieti, Incogniti, Diſcordanti, Occulti, Ardenti, Catenati, &c. and indeed moſt of their productions are tinctured with the ſingularity of theſe appellations.

The Italian language is originally derived from the Latin, with which the many nations of Goths, Huns, Vandals, &c. that over run Italy, ſo mingled their dialect as to give birth to a new language, at firſt very laviſh; but gradually poliſhed, and ſoftened into its preſent agreeable ſmoothneſs. Its genius ſeems particularly adapted to poetry and muſic; for which the Italians are alſo famous: and hence the Italian ſingers are more in requeſt than thoſe of any other nation.

The Popiſh is the only religion generally tolerated in Italy, and here the pope has his ſeat in quality of head of the church of Rome. The Jews indeed enjoy a kind of toleration; but it is in moſt places under great reſtrictions. However, they enjoy an entire liberty in the city of Leghorn.

The Italians are polite, affable, and ingenious; they endeavour to recommend themſelves by their wiſdom and gravity; obſerving a juſt medium between the ſtately gravity of the Spaniards, and the airy levity of the French. They are ſaid to act a buffoon, a mimic, or a ſcaramouch, better than any other nation; and to be as apiſh and whimſical during the carnival, when under a maſk, as any other people; but are too wiſe to do it with a bare face. They have a warm ſenſe of gratitude, and upon all occaſions are ready and willing to return an obligation, though ever ſo ſmall; but, on the other hand, are jealous and revengeful; very retentive of the ſenſe of an injury, eſpecially where their own honour, or that of a wife, ſiſter, or miſtreſs, is concerned, and in theſe caſes ſcruple not to proceed to treachery and murder: but as they are very courteous to ſtrangers, eſpecially after they have begun an acquaintance or friendſhip with them they are very cautious of diſobliging or quarrelling with them. They are extrenely nice in all the punctilios of civility, and no people are more profuſe of ſtrained compliments, and pompous titles. Whiſpering in company, ſpeaking in another language, and interrupting a man before he has done ſpeaking, are eſteemed the height of ill breeding, and are ſcrupulouſly avoided by all polite people; and reflecting upon perſons, either abſent or preſent, is no leſs deteſted.

The nobility and gentry laviſh their money on fine houſes, paintings, ſtatues, beautiful gardens, grottos, fountains, and caſcades, more than in keeping a ſplendid table, and indulging in the luxuries common in other parts of Europe; and though the great are fond of rich equipages, coaches, and a large retinue of ſervants, they do not ſuffer the latter to interfere with the œconomy of their table; but commonly keep their ſervants at board-wages.

They commonly ſleep about two hours after dinner, which is but a ſlight meal in compariſon with their ſuppers. Theſe laſt they begin with roaſt meats, and end with ſoops, and the like. Boiled ſnails, ſerved up with oil and pepper, or fried in oil, and the hinder part of frogs, are eſteemed delicacies; and ſeveral ſorts of fowl are eaten here by the great, which the pooreſt amongſt us would hardly touch, as kites, hawks, jackdaws, and magpies. They both eat and drink very ſparingly, and have their wine cooled by ice or ſnow.

The inns in the little towns, ſays Mr. Miſſon, are ill furniſhed with proviſions, eſpecially on ſome roads. The firſt courſe, called the antipaſto, is a diſh of giblets boiled with ſalt and pepper, and mixed with whites of eggs, after which come two or three ſmall diſhes, one after another, of different ragouts. Between Rome and Naples, the traveller is ſometimes regaled with the fleſh of buffaloes and crows; but that of the buffaloes is black and hard, and that beaſt muſt be hunted, otherwiſe it is impoſſible to chew its fleſh. In all our travels through Italy, ſays the above author, we never ſaw either a hare or a partridge in the fields: and I might alſo add, that we ſaw none in the inns, which is the more extraordinary, as there are large ſpots of ground in Italy that are almoſt uninhabited, and conſequently might be expected to abound with game, like other places of the ſame kind, in other parts of the world: beſides, the lords of theſe grounds ſeldom reſide upon them, and yet are as jealous of their rights as thoſe of other countries. Quails, however, are not ſuch rarities; for on the approach of ſpring, they come in ſuch flocks from Africa, as to cover the whole country; at which time they are ſo tired with their long paſſage, that they throw themſelves into the ſhips, and wherever they can find a place to repoſe themſelves, and may be caught in heaps without the leaſt ſtruggling; but as they are extremely lean, thoſe who take them uſually feed them ſome time before they eat them.

Among the various ſorts of wine in this country, is one called Lacryma Chriſti, or the tears of Chriſt. About Loretto their wine caſks are made ſhort and broad, like a dutch cheeſe; but towards Pavia, their length is about ſeven times their diameter.

Towards Parma and Placentia, where there are excellent paſtures, they make cheeſe of all their milk. As butter is ſcarce in Italy, they uſe oil in all their ragouts and fricaſees; but though they draw it from their own olive-trees, it is frequently worſe than in thoſe countries where none of thoſe trees grow; for what will yield a price, and keep longeſt, is always exported for the ſake of gain.

It is remarkable that the Italians begin the day immediately after ſun-ſet, and their clocks always ſtrike twenty-four hours from one ſun-ſetting to another. According to this manner of computation, the hour of noon varies daily; for when the ſun ſets at four o'clock according to our calculation, they reckon one when we count five, and conſequently it is noon at twenty hours; and in like manner, when the ſun ſets at eight on our dials, it is one o'clock with them when we reckon nine, and juſt noon at ſixteen hours; and yet with reſpect to the artificial day between ſun-riſing and ſun-ſetting, they, like us, uſe the words yeſterday and to-morrow.

The Italian manufactures and trade are in a flouriſhing condition. Italy has a great variety of excellent wines, fruits, and commodities, which it exports, and its ſilks alone make a very conſiderable article. The moſt famous annual fairs in Lombardy are held at Aleſſandria, Cremona, Bergamo, Breſcia, Verona, Reggio, and Placentia.

Each ſtate has its own coin both great and ſmall, the knowledge of which, though requiring a particular application, may be gathered from the following account, which contains only what is neceſſary.

In Savoy and Piedmont.

Twenty ſoldi make one lira, or pound, which is equal to one ſhilling Engliſh. The louis d'ors and Spaniſh piſtoles are worth ſixteen liras; the Savoyard piſtoles, fifteen liras three-fourths. Other Italian piſtoles, fifteen and a half. The Italian ſilver crown is valued at five liras and five ſoldi; a ducat or ongaro at eight liras thirteen ſoldi; a Milaneſe filippo at four liras thirteen and a half ſoldi.

In the Milanese.

Three Milaneſe liras are equal to two Piedmonteſe. One filippo is worth ſeven liras and ten ſoldi, about five ſhillings ſterling, two ſhillings being equal to three liras. A Spaniſh piſtole, twenty-four liras and between three and four ſoldi. An Italian piſtole, twenty-four liras. A ducat in gold is worth thirteen liras ſixteen ſoldi. A ducatoon of Milan, Venice, and Florence, or a ſilver crown, is equal to eight liras: and a zechine in gold is worth fourteen liras ten ſoldi.

At Venice.

Two ſoldi make one caſſetti, ten caſſetti one lira, equal to about ſix-pence two-fifths ſterling. One ducato corrento is worth ſix liras and a half, ſixty-two caſſetti, or one hundred and twenty-four ſoldi. A ducato di banco, or four ſhillings and four-pence ſterling, is an imaginary coin, and worth five liras one-ſixth. A doppia, or a Venetian, Spaniſh, Genoeſe, Florentine, and French piſtole, is equal to twenty-nine liras current, or thirty-ſix of the baſer liras. A zecchino is eighteen liras and a quarter. A ducat of gold, or ongaro, is equal to ſixteen liras. A large ſilver crown, eleven liras current, in common currency thirteen baſe liras eighteen ſoldi. A juſtinian and filippo, eight liras ten ſoldi; but common currency, ten liras two ſoldi.

At Genoa.

Twelve denari make one ſoldi, and twenty ſoldi are equal to one lira; which is about eight-pence three-fifths ſterling. A piece of eight goes here for five liras. A ſcudo d'oro, or half doppia di Spagna, is nine liras eight ſoldi. A ſcudi d'argento is worth ſeven liras twelve ſoldi. A ſcudo di Cambio, four liras. A filippo di Milano, five liras eight ſoldi. A ſcudo d'argento, ninety ſoldi moneta carta, in which coin the cuſtoms are paid. A doppia d'Eſpagna, French weight, is nineteen liras two ſoldi current. A doppia di Genoua, eighteen liras ſixteen ſoldi. A doppia d'Italia, full weight, is eighteen liras eighteen ſoldi.

At Florence.

Twelve denari make a ſoldo; twenty ſoldi a ſcudo. A ſcudo d'oro is an imaginary coin, which is reckoned at ſeven and a half liras, or one hundred and fifty ſoldi. A teſtoon is worth two liras, or three giuli. A Spaniſh piſtole is valued at twenty liras and about four ſoldi, or between thirty and thirty-one giuli. An Italian piſtole, twenty liras, or thirty giuli. A ducat, or ſilver crown, ſeven liras, or ten giuli and a half. A piece of eight, ſix liras; but in paying of cuſtom one hundred and fifteen ſoldi, or five liras three-fourths.

At Leghorn.

One gratia is equal to one ſoldo and one-third or five quatrini. One giuli di Roma is eight gratie. One teſtoon is two liras, or three giuli. One lira, which is an imaginary coin, is one giuli and a half, twenty ſoldi, or two hundred and forty denari; and one ſoldo, twelve denari. One pezzo is twenty ſoldi; one pezzo d'ollo reali, or piece of eight, is ſix liras nine giuli, or a hundred and twenty ſoldi, about four ſhillings ſterling. Seven liras make one ducat, which is the piaſtre or ſcudo of Florence. One Spaniſh piſtole is valued at twenty liras, and between four and five ſoldi or thirty-two giuli. One Italian piſtole is twenty liras, or thirty giuli.

At Bologna.

Twelve denari make ſix quadrini, which are equal to one ſoldo; twenty ſoldi, or bajochi, or Bolognini, make one lira, and two giuli are equivalent to one lira. A ſcudo, or pezzo d'otto, is four liras five ſoldi, or eighty-five Bolognini, about four ſhillings and three-pence Engliſh. One Spaniſh piſtole is ſixteen liras, and between ten and twelve ſoldi. One zechino is nineteen giuli. One ducat, or ongaro, is eighteen giuli, or nine liras ten ſoldi, or about five ſhillings and three-pence Engliſh; a ducatoon, or ſilver crown, ten giuli and a half.

At Rome.

One bajocho, a copper coin, is equal to five quatrini. Ten bajochi are worth one giulo, as alſo one paolo. Seven gazetta, and one quatrini, are likewiſe equivalent to one paolo; and one gazetta is ſeven quatrini. Ten giuli make one ſcudo monita, or current, which is about four ſhillings and four-pence ſterling. A Spaniſh piſtole is thirty-two giuli, or paoli, more or leſs. One Italian piſtole is thirty-one giuli, or paoli.

At Naples.

Three quatrini make one grana; ten grana, one carlini; two carlini, one taro; five tari, one ducato; forty-five carlini, one Spaniſh piſtole; twenty-ſix carlini, one zechino; twenty carlini, one ongaro.

With reſpect to the diviſions of this country, antient and modern, it was originally formed into a multitude of ſmall ſtates, and afterwards the Gauls ſettling in the weſtern, and many Greek colonies in the eaſtern provinces, it was, from its different inhabitants, divided into three large parts, called Gallia Ciſalpina, Italy properly ſo called, and Magna Grecia; and this diviſion is generally met with among antient geographers and hiſtorians. But the Romans at length ſubdued all Italy, after which it was divided by Auguſtus into eleven provinces; but his authority dying with him, the old diviſion was again received, and continued under the Roman emperors till the invaſion of the Goths and Herulians in the fifth century. The Grecian or eaſtern emperors at length drove out the Oſtrogoths, and made themſelves maſters of Italy. But the Longobardi poſſeſſing themſelves of the upper parts, at laſt reduced what belonged to the eaſtern emperors under the name of the exarchate; which was alſo on the other ſide aboliſhed by the Saracens, who had ſeized upon Sicily and Naples. The pope thus on the point of loſing all, had recourſe to the Franks, and Charlemagne their king, after his conquering the kingdom of Lombardy, was proclaimed Roman emperor at Rome on the twenty-fifth of December, 800. But the authority of the Roman emperor was of ſhort continuance in Italy, it being inſenſibly curtailed by the ambition and avarice of the popes, and at laſt brought to the loweſt ebb on the extinction of the Swabian line. Hence Italy was again parcelled out into a great number of ſmall territories.

Mr. Addiſon's obſervations on this ſubject are extremely juſt: "If a man conſiders, ſays he, the face of Italy "in general, one would think that nature had laid it "out into ſuch a variety of ſtates and governments as "one finds in it. For as the Alps at one end, and the "long range of Apennines, that paſſes through the "body of it, branch out on all ſides into ſeveral different "diviſions, they ſerve as ſo many natural boundaries and "fortifications to the little territories that lie among "them. Accordingly we find the whole country cut "into a multitude of particular kingdoms and common-"wealths in the oldeſt accounts we have of it, till the "power of the Romans, like a torrent that overflows "its banks, bore down all before it, and ſpread itſelf "into the remoteſt corners of the nation. But as this "exorbitant power became unable to ſupport itſelf, we "find the government of Italy again broken into ſuch "a variety of ſub-diviſions as naturally ſuits with its "ſituation."

Italy includes both the main land and the iſlands. The main land is commonly divided into three large parts, the

the Upper, Middle, and Lower. This diviſion is very proper, and coincides with that of the antient geographers. Upper Italy at preſent contains the greateſt part of the antient Gallia Ciſalpina and Lombardy, which conſiſts of ſeven large dutchies, ten ſmall principalities, and three republics. Middle Italy forms a part of Gallia Ciſalpina and of the antient Italy, or, in other words, of the grand dutchy of Tuſcany, the eccleſiaſtical ſtate, and ſome other ſmall countries. Lower Italy contains a part of the antient Italy Proper, and Magna Grecia, at preſent the kingdom of Naples. We ſhall begin with Upper Italy, and, in giving an account of the ſeveral ſtates, ſhall comprehend under one head the deſcription of the countries belonging to the ſame prince, whether on the continent, or in the iſlands.

In deſcribing the ſeveral countries of Upper Italy, we ſhall firſt treat of the king of Sardinia's dominions, and having given an account of thoſe on the continent of Italy, ſhall from thence proceed to the kingdom and iſland of Sardinia; previouſly obſerving, that this kingdom and the principality of Piedmont are independent countries, but that the dutchies of Savoy and Monferrat are fiefs of the empire.

SECT. II.

Of the Dutchy of SAVOY.

Its Situation, Extent, and Produce; a particular Deſcription of the Montagnes Maudites, or Curſed Mountains; and of the Alavanches, or monſtrous Snow-Balls. Of the Rivers and Lakes of Savoy, particularly of the aſtoniſhing Courſe of the Arve, and the Road near it. The Manners and Way of Life of the Savoyards, with a particular Account of their Method of carrying Travellers over Mount Cennis, and of their ſliding down from that Mountain. The Oppreſſion of the Nobility, with the Titles and Arms of the King of Sardinia; an Account of the principal Order of Knighthood, with the Prerogatives and Revenues of the Sovereign. A conciſe Account of the principal Places in Savoy.

THE dutchy of Savoy, called in Latin Sabaudia, is bounded on the weſt by France; on the ſouth by France and Piedmont; on the eaſt by Piedmont, the Milaneſe, and Swiſſerland; and on the north by the lake of Geneva, by which it is ſeparated from Swiſſerland. Its greateſt length from eaſt to weſt is eighty-eight Engliſh miles, and its breadth from north to ſouth ſeventy-ſix.

Savoy ſeems ſequeſtered from all incentives to luxury and ſoftneſs, by their lofty barren mountains and enormous rocks, by which the greater part of it is overrun, and are known to produce only ſome moſs and ſhrubs, with box-trees, which grow in ſuch plenty, that brooms are made of them. The valleys between the mountains yield ſome grain; but abound more in paſture; for the induſtry of the inhabitants has made the beſt improvements in the mountains themſelves which the ſoil would admit of. The wine about the lake of Geneva, Momelian, and St. John Maurienne, is not contemptible; and ſome parts have ſuch a good breed of cattle, that moſt of the oxen in Piedmont and the Milaneſe are ſent from Savoy. Mules are alſo bred for exportation; but all this is inconſiderable in proportion to the greateſt part of the country, which is taken up by huge mountains.

Some of the higheſt of theſe mountains are called the Glacieres, or Ice Valleys, and the Montagnes Maudites, or Curſed Mountains in Faucigny, the perpendicular height of the latter, from the ſurface of the lake of Geneva, is computed to be at leaſt two thouſand fathoms, which are equal to twelve thouſand eight hundred and ſixteen feet, or above two Engliſh miles; and the ſurface of the lake of Geneva is four hundred and twenty-ſix fathoms higher than the level of the Mediterranean. The aſcent to theſe mountains is very ſteep, craggy, and ſlippery, but not continued; a new ridge of mountains frequently appearing on the other ſide, higher and more ſteep than that which is left behind; till at length, from the laſt eminence to be ſurmounted, the proſpect of the frozen valley appears in full view, and on the oppoſite ſide a chain of craggy inacceſſible rocks, covered with ice and ſnow, and ſo ſcarped and ſplit, that at ſome diſtance they appear like prodigious piles of Gothic buildings and ruins, while the ſurface of the frozen valley below ſeems ſpeckled, if we may thus expreſs ourſelves with rocks of a monſtrous ſize, that are broken off, and fallen from the higher grounds. Here the air is ſo extremely cold and piercing, that though the months of July and Auguſt are alone fit for this journey, men are then forced to go cloathed as in the depth of winter. Mr. Addiſon obſerves, with reſpect to the ſharp rocks on the tops of the mountains, that they were probably once much higher than they are at preſent, the rains having waſhed away abundance of the ſoil, and left the veins of ſtone ſhooting out of them; as in a decayed body, the fleſh continues ſhrinking from the bones.

It is proper here to take notice of the Alavanches, or monſtrous ſnow-balls, which are the more dreadful as they always come ſuddenly down with ſuch incredible rapidity, that they carry all before them; ſo that whenever they happen to fall along theſe ſteep declivities, it is next to impoſſible for travellers to avoid being ſwept away with them. They are commonly occaſioned only by the dropping of ſome ſmall quantity of ſnow blown by the wind from ſome prominent rock, or ſhook off by the ſtumbling of a horſe, the firing of a gun or piſtol, or by any thing elſe that ſhakes the air. This piece of ſnow, though at firſt very ſmall, rolling down the ſteep deſcents, gathers up ſuch freſh quantities as it rolls, and increaſes ſo aſtoniſhingly in bulk, that it tears up trees and ſometimes part of a wood by the roots, with houſes, churches, men, and horſes, nothing being able to reſiſt the force of theſe balls, till they have got quite down to the bottom, where they generally break in pieces by the violence of the ſhock, and ſometimes cover a whole village, which lies buried under it. Theſe balls are more particularly dangerous for travellers in thoſe roads which are along the ſides of the high mountains, where, to prevent their being overtaken by them, they commonly fire a piſtol or gun at every quarter or half a mile, to ſhake off all the looſe ſnow that is apt to occaſion them; after which they travel through that ſpace with all the ſilence and ſpeed they can.

Theſe amazing kind of ſnow balls are not peculiar to this country; but are common in Swiſſerland, ſeveral parts of Germany, and Italy; but they are more frequently found in theſe parts of Savoy, where they are alſo larger and more dreadful. Some of them by the tract they leave behind are found to be above a hundred yards in diameter. In the year 1695 one of them fell upon a village called Valmedia, which deſtroyed eleven houſes, and as many barns and ſtables ſo entirely, that there ſcarce remained one ſtone upon another; and a number of men, women, children, and cattle were loſt. The noiſe they make reſembles a long and loud clap of thunder, and is heard among the ecchoing rocks and mountains at ſeveral leagues diſtance; and yet ſo rapid is their motion, that paſſengers have not time to avoid them.

The chief rivers in this country are, the Rhine, which flows out of the lake of Geneva, and on that ſide ſeparates it from France; into it run the following rivers: the Arvo, which riſes in Faucigny, and, near Geneva, diſcharges itſelf into the Rhone: the Suſſes and Siers, the ſources of which are in the Genevois, and fall into the Rhone near the Seiſel: the Iſere, which riſes at the foot of Mount Iſeran, and, among other rivers, receives the Arc, which, having a great many water-falls, is very rapid, and full of foam.

The river Arvo, juſt mentioned, runs for many miles between high craggy and inacceſſible rocks, which ſeem as if ſplit on purpoſe to give its rapid waters a free paſſage. The ſurpriſing echoes and continual ſounds occaſioned by its ſtreams, the trampling of the horſes and mules, the hallowing of paſſengers, &c. in theſe places are reverberated three, four, and even in ſome parts ſix or ſeven times, with ſuch frightful loudneſs, as ſtrikes the traveller unaccuſtomed to them with terror; and the firing of a gun, or piſtol, is here more terrible than the loudeſt claps of thunder. The roads which are cut along the ſides of the ſteep rocks, and in many places are not above five or ſix feet wide, afford both above and below

the dreadful proſpect of a ſteep precipice, with impending monſtrous rocks that ſeem juſt ready to fall, which, joined to the roaring noiſe of the river, ſtrikes the amazed beholder with horror. The great cataracts of that river in ſeveral places are more or leſs loud and terrible, according as the waters are more or leſs ſwelled by the melting ſnows, with which the tops of the mountains are covered. One in particular, called by the inhabitants the Nun of Arpena, falls from a prodigious high rock with great noiſe and violence. The fall of this cataract is here ſaid to be above eleven hundred feet. We ſhall only add, that the Arvo, which travellers are obliged to croſs over ſeven or eight times, has all along that way bridges, ſome very ſtrong and beautiful, and others ſo old and crazy, that it is almoſt impoſſible to paſs over them without fear.

Beſides the four rivers above-mentioned there are many ſmaller ones, with innumerable ſprings and rivulets which flow down from the adjacent hills; and what appears ſurpriſing, many of theſe, which are ſeveral yards in breadth, run a long way by the ſides and declivities of the hills two or three miles above the valleys, watering a number of large villages ſituated along the hills before they fall down into the plains. The beds of theſe rivulets ſeem indeed to have been made by art, and are deep enough to receive the waters that come from the higher parts of the mountains, which increaſe with their courſe, till meeting with ſome impediments, they fall with great violence into the flat grounds, and there either form themſelves into lakes, or diſcharge themſelves into ſome of the greater rivers.

The principal lakes are thoſe of Annecy in the Genevois, and Bourget in Savoy. The laſt has a fiſh unknown in other countries, called lavaretta, which frequently weighs four or five pounds, and is ſo palatable, that it never fails of bringing a good price at Chamberry. Here are alſo ſome remarkable ſprings, particularly near the lake of Bourget is one that riſes and falls with ſome noiſe; but not at ſtated and regular times. After Eaſter this alteration is frequently perceived ſix times in an hour; but in dry ſeaſons not above once or twice: it iſſues from a rock, and is called la Fontaine de Merveille. Of a different kind are the ſprings of this country, that ſometimes throw up more or leſs water, according to the alterations in the Rhone; but not by ſuch a ſhort and frequent flux and reflux as in the ſpring juſt mentioned.

The Savoyards, from the nature of their country, are generally ſo poor, that a traveller meets few people on the public road, who do not recommend themſelves to his benevolence; and a farmer with a yoke of oxen, two horſes, four cows, a few goats and ſheep, and a ſmall parcel of land, is eſteemed a man of conſiderable fortune. Their bread is of oats; but the more wealthy uſe ſome wheat. Their other food conſiſts of butter, cheeſe, walnuts, garden-ſtuff, and ſometimes, though ſeldom, fleſh meat; and their drink is milk and good water. However, thoſe who live in the valleys fare ſomewhat better. They are all, however, chearful, have healthful florid complexions, and are remarkable for their fecundity. Among both ſexes a great many are ſeen deformed and lame; and the women in particular have wens that reach from ear to ear. One-third at leaſt of the males ſeek a ſubſiſtence in France and other countries in quality of chimney-ſweepers, ſhoe-blacks, rary-ſhew men, &c. yet they are ſo honeſt, that they may be truſted to change gold; and if they are once able to ſet up a little ſhop, they are ſuch maſters of the thriving talents, that it is often the foundation of a very conſiderable fortune; yet ſo prevalent is the love of their country, that when they have acquired a little ſtock abroad, they generally return home.

The inhabitants of Mount Cennis, and the neighbouring mountains are called Marrons, or Marroniers. "One "would imagine, ſays Mr. Keyſler, that from the heavy "burthens they daily carry up theſe ſteep mountains, "they would ſoon or late fall into conſumptions. In our "cities in Germany, what a noiſe do our chairmen "make, if they are to carry a perſon of any bulk two "or three hundred paces; while here the chairmen, "without the leaſt panting or reſting, run directly up "a mountain, whoſe height is a good hour's journey, "and then on the plain above outſtrip us; and as ſoon "as they have refitted the chairs, which is diſpatched "in a few minutes, they carry the company over the "worſt part of the way, for two hours together, making "only four pauſes, and thoſe very ſhort; ſuch is the "effect of cuſtom, and of the ſimple diet to which they "owe their uncommon longevity, many of them attaining to above a hundred years of age. Their uſual "drink is milk, and they ſeldom taſte any wine. The "better to ſecure their footing, their ſhoes are without "heels, and the ſoles rubbed with wax and roſin. The "machines in which travellers are carried are a kind of "ſtraw chairs, with low backs, two arms, and inſtead "of feet a little board hanging down by cords for reſting "the travellers legs. The ſeat, which is made of bark "and ropes twiſted together, is faſtened to two poles, "and carried like a ſedan, with broad leathern ſtraps."

In winter the plain on the top of Mount Cennis, being covered with ſnow, is croſſed in ſledges drawn by a horſe or a mule. The deſcent is in ſome places always performed in chairs; but from Mount Cennis to Laneburg, it is conducted in a very extraordinary manner. On the ſpot where the declivity begins is a houſe called la Ramaſſe, where the travellers getting into a ſledge, with his guide, ſlides down with ſuch ſwiftneſs, that he is carried about three miles in ſeven or eight minutes, the rapidity of the motion almoſt taking away his breath. The guide ſits forward ſteering with a ſtick, and has on each ſide an iron chain, which he drops like an anchor, either to ſlacken the courſe of the ſledge, or to ſtop it. Travellers having been ſometimes much impoſed upon, the king has lately laid a tax on all kind of carriages over the mountain; and on both ſides is an officer, to whom travellers, in caſe of any impoſition, may apply for redreſs.

In Savoy every one ſpeaks French, and moſt of the names of the towns and villages are of that language; but the inhabitants in their cuſtoms and diſpoſitions reſemble the Germans. They are all of the Romiſh religion; but do not acknowledge the decrees of the council of Trent.

The nobility both in Savoy and Piedmont are greatly oppreſſed; the king's ordinances are, however, in ſome reſpects of advantage to them, by having eſtabliſhed in all fiefs the perpetual right of primogeniture. In 1724 the king reſumed all the alienated domains, by which means the dignity of the antient nobility gradually declines, as it alſo does by the continual increaſe of the new; for whoever purchaſes an eſtate that has the title of a marquiſate or barony, is thereby enobled and ſtiled marquis or baron, and ſuch eſtates may be purchaſed of the king for ſix or eight thouſand livres. Every nobleman muſt prove from whence he derives his arms, or elſe is deprived of the right of uſing them, and muſt be at the expence of purchaſing a new coat; and an eſcutcheon intirely new coſts from ten to ſixteen thouſand livres. In order to bear the title of duke, prince, marquis, count, or baron, it is neceſſary to have a patent ſigned by the king or his anceſtors, and the ſame alſo regiſtered.

The liberty of hunting is under ſevere reſtrictions, and of all mines diſcovered and worked a certain ſhare belongs to the king. No perſon is to fell trees even in his own wood, without leave obtained from the intendant; nor is any timber to be exported. No money is to be placed at intereſt or lent on mortgage out of the country: nor is any penſion or order of knighthood except that of Malta to be accepted of, from any foreign prince. The nobility are prohibited from entering into any foreign ſervice, or travelling abroad without a written licence from the king. None are to be ſeen with fire-arms out of their fief; and a perſon not poſſeſſed of a fief, and even the officers in the army, are not to keep any.

A foreigner who intends to ſettle in the country muſt be naturalized and take the oath of allegiance; but if he afterwards happens to be above three years out of the country, he forfeits all his privileges. No foreigner, who is not naturalized, is capable of being heir to a Savoyard or Piedmonteſe.

The preſent royal family of Savoy has long been dignified with the title of royal highneſs on account of their

claim to the kingdom of Cypus, though till the year 1713 that houſe was only in poſſeſſion of the ducal dignity. In that year Victor Amadeus II. duke of Savoy, obtaining the kingdom of Sicily on the peace with France, aſſumed the royal title, and was actually crowned king of Sicily at Palermo. Such he continued till 1718, when, agreeably to the quadruple alliance, he reſigned the kingdom of Sicily to the emperor Charles VI. and in the room of it had Sardinia ceded to him as a kingdom, which he took poſſeſſion of in 1720.

The titles of the king of Sardinia run thus: Charles Emanuel III. by the grace of God king of Sardinia, Cyprus, and Jeruſalem; duke of Savoy, Montferrat, Chablais, Aoſta, and the country of Geneva; prince of Piedmont and Oneglia; marquis of Italy, Saluzzo, Suſa, Ivrea, Ceva, le Maro, Oriſtan, and Sezana; count of Maurienne, Geneva, Nice, Aſti, Aleſſandria, Tende, Gocean, and Romont; baron of le Vaud and Faucigni; lord of Vercelli, Pignerol, Tarentaiſe, of la Lomeline, and Val de Seſia; prince and perpetual vicar of the holy Roman empire in Italy.

The king's arms are quarterly with a point central, ſhield and heart-ſhield. The dexter field is again quartered. In the firſt argent is a croſs potencee or, with four ſmaller for the kingdom of Jeruſalem: the ſecond chequered argent and azure, with a crowned lion, gules, for the kingdom of Cyprus: the third or, with a crowned lion gules, for the kingdom of Armenia; and the fourth argent, a crowned lion gules, by ſome thought to indicate the dutchy of Luxemberg, or, according to the others, the kingdom of Cyprus. The ſecond field conſiſts of three parts; the dexter gules a horſe rampant argent, for the dutchy of Lower Saxony: the ſiniſter is ſable and or chequered with a wreath of green, for the dutchy of Upper Saxony; and the lower point ſuperadded argent three chapes of a cimeter gules, for the dukedom of Engern. The third field is party per pale, the dexter is argent variegated with ſmall ſhields ſable; and a lion ſable, for the dutchy of Chablais: the ſiniſter for the dutchy of Aoſta, a lion argent in a field ſable. The fourth field is alſo party per pale, and for the dutchy of Genevois, contains chequered or and azure: the ſiniſter for the dutchy of Montferrat, a target gules. The point or is a black eagle, for the county of Maurienne. The central ſhields argent, with a croſs gules, and four Moors heads with ribbands argent at the cantons, for the kingdom of Sardinia. The heart-ſhield gules, a croſs argent, denoting the dutchy of Savoy.

The principal order of knighthood is that of the Annonciada, or Annunciation, which was inſtituted by Amadeus VI. in 1562. The badge is always worn appendant on the breaſt from a gold chain round the neck. The collar is about an inch broad, and each link contains theſe four letters F. E. R. T. wrought in the manner of love knots. The ancient motto of the houſe of Savoy, alluding to theſe initial letters, is *Fortitudo Rhodum Ejus Tenuit*, that is, His courage preſerved Rhodes. From this collar faſtened to a ſmall chain, hangs a medal repreſenting the angel appearing to the virgin Mary, ſet round with gold on a ſilver ground, in the innermoſt circle of the Star with the abovementioned four letters. The circle is alſo environed by a ſilver wreath, and the wreath with fiery tongues formed in gold. All the knights of this order have the title of excellency; but none can be inſtalled, without being firſt of the inferior order of St. Maurice, inſtituted by Amadeus VIII.

The order of St. Maurice, by maintaining in its commanderies three gallies againſt the Turks, bears ſome affinity to the order of Malta. The knights indeed are allowed to marry, but not to widows: ſecond marriages are alſo prohibited; but in both caſes a little money laid out at Rome procures a diſpenſation.

The king's prerogative is unlimited, and though ſuperſtition is carried to as great a height in this country as any where in Europe, yet, in church affairs, the authority of the pope has been reduced as low as poſſible. No bull can be made public without a licence from the privy council; nor can the inquiſition of Turin moleſt or lay any one under an arreſt, without previouſly acquainting that council. All eccleſiaſtical preferments are at the king's diſpoſal, aud he is inveſted with the power of aſſigning penſions on them to the amount of one third of their income. He can alſo nominate a perſon for the dignity of cardinal, who muſt be created at the next promotion. His palace-chapel, with the eccleſiaſtics that ſerve in it, and the foundation of Superga, inſtead of being under the archbiſhops of Turin, are ſubordinate to the lord almoner, who has a diſtinct juriſdiction. What the convents poſſeſſed before the year 1600 has been left to them as endowments out of the royal domain; but every thing elſe, whether moveables or immoveables, are ſubject to taxes equally with the laity. All civil contracts, though relating to eccleſiaſtics, muſt be tranſacted in the preſence of the temporal judge; before whom are alſo tried cauſes wherein eccleſiaſtics are concerned, either as plaintiffs or defendants.

The principal boards, or colleges, are the privy council, which conſiſts of a prime miniſter, two ſecretaries of ſtate, and other perſons of rank and great employments; the council of Sardinia is compoſed of the ſovereign, the firſt preſident, and ſome other members; and the council of ſtate, which has alſo its peculiar members.

The royal revenue, by the reaſſumption of the antient crown lands, has received an addition of upwards of a million of Piedmonteſe livres. All future alienations of the domains are prohibited; the fiefs, as they eſcheate, are alſo to be added to them, and all ſurvivorſhips to be annulled. The total of the revenue cannot, however, be preciſely determined. The taxes are raiſed without farming, except that of tobacco, but are ſcrewed up to the higheſt pitch, and levied with an inflexible ſeverity, to the extreme vexation of the diſtreſſed Savoyards; while the Piedmonteſe landholders are conſiderably eaſed, or do not feel the burthen ſo ſenſibly.

The king's ſubjects in Savoy, Piedmont, and other parts of the continent, are ſaid to amount to above two millions.

The king's military forces in 1729 conſiſted of between twenty and twenty-two thouſand regular troops, beſides the horſe-guards, the matroſſes, and fifteen regiments of militia, which make about ſix thouſand men, and are trained up in the military exerciſes like the regular troops. In the year 1741, the army, including the militia, amounted to about forty thouſand; but in time of peace the king commonly keeps no more than fifteen thouſand.

The high court of juſtice, which is here called the Parliament, ſits at Chamberry. As the king is, on account of Savoy, a member of the antient kingdom of Arles, and a vaſſal of the empire, he has a ſeat and voice in the diet of the Germanic body.

The duchy of Savoy is divided into ſix provinces; theſe are, Chablais, Faucigny, the Genevois, Proper Savoy, the Tarantaiſe, and the county of Maurienne: the principal places in which are the following:

Chamberry, the capital of all Savoy, is called in antient records Camberiacum, and Chamarium. It is ſituated in a pleaſant valley, on the river Leiſe, in the forty-fifth degree forty minutes north latitude, and in the fifth degree forty-five minutes eaſt longitude. The ſtreets are moſtly ſtraight and clean, the town being waſhed by ſeveral branches of the Alban, and many ſprings that flow down from St. Martin's Hill. It is well built, and has ſeveral ſquares, and many ſtately edifices, though not in the modern ſtile; and is of a middling ſize, its chief ſtrength conſiſting in its walls. It is the ſeat of the higheſt court, or parliament of Savoy, and the reſidence of many of the nobility. It belongs to the dioceſe of Grenoble. The collegiate church of the Holy Chapel was founded by duke Amadeus, and the head of the chapter is ſtiled dean of Savoy. It has often been taken and retaken; and in the year 1731, was almoſt entirely deſtroyed by fire.

Aix, in Latin Aquæ Gratianæ, or Sabaudicæ, is, as well as the former, ſituated in Savoy Proper, near the lake of Bourget, eight miles to the north of Chamberry, and is celebrated for its hot baths, the uſe of which is free to every one, on giving a trifle to the rubbers. The lower flows from a very ſtrong ſpring, and has a ſulphureous taſte; but the other is quite inſipid. The water is clear,

clear, and of a green colour; but no fish or any other creature will live in it. Here are the ruins of a Roman triumphal arch.

Lanesbourg is a large village, in the county of Maurienne, seated at the foot of Mount Cenis, which lies so near it on the south and east, that, from the end of November to the 17th of January, the inhabitants never see the sun, which on that day makes its first appearance on the tops of the mountains.

SECT. III.

The Principality of PIEDMONT.

Its Situation, Extent, and Produce, particularly of its large Truffles, and its Silk. Of the Mountains and Vallies of Piedmont, and the Animals on those Mountains, particularly white Hares, the Chamois, the Bouquetin, and the Tumar; with a concise Account of the Waldenses. Of the Rivers of Piedmont. The Persons, Manners, Religion, and Trade of the Piedmontese. A particular Description of the City of Turin, and other remarkable Places.

PIEDMONT, a part of the antient Lombardy, is bounded on the north by Savoy and Italy; on the west by France; on the south by the Mediterranean and the republic of Genoa; and on the east by the duchies of Montferrat and Milan; extending about one hundred and fifty miles from north to south, but much less from east to west. It is called Piedmont, and in Latin Piedmontium, from its situation at the foot of the mountains, or Alps, which separate France from Italy. This country is in some parts mountainous, but is every where very fruitful. The plains produce fine corn, and Montferrat and the Milanese yield great quantities of Turky wheat, which commonly serves for bread, and with which people of the middle rank mix rye: the pods are used for fuel, and the stalks, being thick, serve to mend the roads. The hills produce plenty of wine, which, like the Italian wines, is very luscious when new; especially the white. There is also a tartish red wine, called vino brusco, said to be very wholesome for fat people, and, on the other hand, the sweet wine is recommended as a stomachic. The neighbourhood of Turin is famous for its fine fruits, and many long walks of chesnut and mulberry trees, which produce both pleasure and profit. Marons, or large chesnuts, are a favourite dainty among the common people: these are put into an oven, and when thoroughly hot, and cooled in red wine, are dried a second time in the oven, and afterwards eaten cold. Truffles grow here in such abundance, that Piedmont has obtained the name of the Truffle Country. Some are black, others white marbled with red, and the larger they are the dearer. Sometimes they are found of twelve or fourteen pounds weight; and many country people earn from sixty to seventy dollars a year only by digging for them.

The trade in cattle is said to bring into Piedmont no less than three millions of livres per annum. The cultivation of silk is also a profitable article, the Piedmontese silk being, on account of its fineness and strength, esteemed the best in Italy. Many peasants annually sell four or five rubbs of silk, each weighing twenty-five pounds before it is wound off from the cocons, at twenty-five sols the pound. The fine silk sells for about a Louis d'Or per pound. The Piedmontese gentry breed vast numbers of silk-worms under the care of their tenants, who have the eggs and mulberry-leaves delivered to them, and in return they give half the silk to their masters.

The mountains contain minerals. Rochemelon, which lies eastward, between Ferliere and Novarese, is esteemed the highest of all the Italian Alps, and it is a day's journey to ascend to the top, where, in clear weather, it affords a most beautiful prospect over all the Milanese, Trevigo, Venice, &c. The explosion of a musket is here only heard as the crashing of a stick when broken. On this mountain is said to have formerly stood a statue of Jupiter, but it was made to give way to an image of the Virgin Mary, before which an annual mass is read on the 5th of August, to a vast concourse of people. Even at that time of the year, they are obliged, in some places, to clamber over heaps of ice; and as, on this occasion, they are to pass one night at least upon the mountain, if they are not well provided with good covering, they suffer extremely from the frost. Mount Piso, which stands to the south of the valley of Lucern, is said to be one of the most lofty in Europe, and is supposed to be that over which Hannibal made his memorable passage into Italy. The road hewn through the rock requires near two hours travelling, and is quite dark.

The vallies of Piedmont lie to the westward, contiguous to Dauphiné in France: these are the valley of Lucern, that of Perouse, and that of St. Martin. The last is sixteen Piedmontese miles in length, but very narrow. The lower parts abound in wine and other fruit, the middle in chesnuts, and the upper in fine pastures. This valley is the strongest fortified of any; for besides the prodigious mountains, covered at least eight or ten months in the year with snow, and consequently impassable, it is accessible only by a very narrow cavity called the Tower Bridge, and no broader than the rapid river, or rather brook, of Germanesque, running through it, over which is a lofty bridge, which, on being broke down, it is impossible to enter the valley. On the Alps which surround it are seven fine lakes, on the side of the valley of Lucerne.

In the above valleys, especially that of St. Martin, among the highest of the mountains and impassable rocks, are large woods and thickets, abounding in white hares, which retain that colour all the year round; besides foxes, large pheasants, and brown and white partridges. These thickets are also remarkable for being the haunts of bears and wolves. On the highest part of the Alps, and in open places, where only a little herbage grows, are found the marmotte, a kind of rock-rat, a creature somewhat larger than a rabbit, and in colour of a mixed brown and red. The flesh, which is eaten, has much the taste of pork. This animal has a very shrill cry, and passes eight or nine months of the year, that is, while the mountains are covered with snow, in a profound sleep.

The chamois is a kind of wild goat, but much stronger; they generally keep on the mountains; but are very difficult to be caught, because they place centries on the hills about them, and on the adjacent eminences, which, upon any appearance of danger, give the rest the alarm by a certain noise; upon which the whole herd run down the next steep declivities, which they seem made by nature to climb up and down with surprising dexterity and swiftness. Their horns are short, crooked, and smooth; their flesh is very good, and of their skins is made the true chamoy leather.

The bouquetin is another kind of wild goat, but much larger and less shaggy: its constant abode is on the mountains, which, on account of their height, are continually covered with snow. It generally sleeps on the ice, is much fleeter than the chamois, and the common people reckon the flesh very strengthening. When a person is deprived of the use of his limbs by cold, some drops of this creature's blood are administered in warm wine or broth, which, upon the patient being put to bed, throws him into a great sweat, after which he recovers. It is also used in pleuritic disorders, and in sudden frights: and as the fresh blood cannot always be had, they dry it, and reduce it to powder. It is said that these creatures defend themselves with their horns, which are two or three feet long, and thick in proportion; and that when closely pursued they will throw themselves down high precipices, and break their fall by the help of their horns, so as to receive no hurt.

Among the tame beasts are the tumar, which, Dr. Busching says, is of two sorts, one engendered by a bull and a mare, and the other by a bull and a sheass: the latter species, says he, is considerably smaller than the first, and is called the bif; the former, called baf, has the upper mandible shorter than the lower, and both almost resemble those of swine; yet the incisory teeth in the upper jaw are an inch or two more backward than in the lower, and are also much longer, like those of hares and rabbits. The head and tail of both resemble those of an ox; but the former, instead of horns, has only knobs; in all other respects they are shaped either

either like a horſe or an aſs. Though not ſo large as a mule, they are of ſurpriſing ſtrength, eat little, are very ſwift of foot, and are excellent beaſts for travelling.

These valleys have always belonged to Piedmont. The Waldenſes, or Vaudois, their inhabitants, have rendered themſelves famous in hiſtory for their diſſenting from the errors of the Romiſh church a long time before the birth of Luther and Calvin, and for the perſecutions they have ſuffered on that account: but ſince the year 1730, they have not been openly moleſted for their religion; but, in order to ſuppreſs them by degrees, a Popiſh church has been built in every pariſh. The number of people in theſe valleys ſcarce at preſent exceeds ſeven thouſand, of which one thouſand are catholics.

The chief river of Piedmont is the Po, which flows out of Mount Viſo. The river Seſia, the Doria, Baltea, the antient Druria, the Tenaro, and ſeveral others, run into it. The Var, antiently called the Varus, riſes in the county of Nice, and, after watering it, empties itſelf into the Mediterranean.

The Piedmonteſe are eſteemed lively, artful, and witty, the inhabitants of the mountain of Aoſta excepted, who are farther diſtinguiſhed by large wens, as are even their horſes, dogs, and other animals. If the Piedmonteſe were allowed to give full ſcope to their genius, which is ſhackled by the Romiſh religion and their manner of government, great literary advancements might be ſeen among them; but the introducing of any books that differ in the leaſt from the Romiſh tenets, is ſeverely prohibited. Turin has an univerſity, which is well founded and regulated after the Romiſh manner; but neither the Jeſuits nor any other regulars are allowed openly to keep ſchools. This was ordered by king Victor Amadeus II. who not only new-modelled the univerſity, but publiſhed a rule for the uniform education of youth throughout the country.

The language of the Piedmonteſe is a mixture of French and Italian. In this country are about fifty earldoms, fifteen marquiſates, a multitude of lordſhips, and twenty abbeys. Though the country be entirely popiſh, except ſome valleys inhabited by the Waldenſes, the king reſerves to himſelf the greateſt part of that power in church affairs, which in many other places is given up to the pope, and the *conſtitution unigenitus* is here univerſally oppoſed. In the valleys of Lucerne, Peyrouſe, and St. Martin bordering on Dauphine, as hath been already intimated, live the celebrated Waldenſes, a name which they derive from their living in the valleys, the Italians calling them Waldeſi, that is, people of the valleys.

The chief trade of this dutchy conſiſts in hemp and ſilk; and though moſt kinds of ſilk commodities are made at Turin, and as good as in other places, yet they are dear, the Piedmonteſe workmen being leſs quick and expert than thoſe of other places; and indeed this trade is of no great conſequence, both on account of the high duty and the land carriage on mules.

The principal city of Piedmont is Turin, or Turino, antiently Auguſta Taurinorum, the capital of all the king of Sardinia's dominions. It is ſeated in the forty-fourth degree fifty-ſix minutes north latitude, and in the ſeventh degree ſixteen minutes eaſt longitude, at the confluence of the Po and Doria, in a very pleaſant country, that affords a moſt delightful proſpect, the neighbouring hills being covered with villas, convents, and other buildings. The city is pretty large, the circle of the ramparts being about four miles and a half. The fortifications are remarkable for their ſtrength, and particularly the ſubterraneous works, which cannot be ſeen without permiſſion from the governor. The citadel is a regular pentagon, with a vaulted deep well in every baſtion, ſo that the garriſon cannot be deprived of water; and, conſidering the number and extent of the ſubterraneous works, the whole city may be almoſt ſaid to ſtand in the air. The ground on which it is erected being a little raiſed above the adjacent country, no water can be conveyed into the ditches, which is here of advantage, as the mines would in a great meaſure be rendered unſerviceable, could they be overflowed. Both the city and the citadel mutually add to each other's ſtrength.

From the city ſide you paſs over ſeveral bridges and ditches through an entrance, which leads to a kind of dungeon, or a large round tower, with a flat roof. This is a magazine for proviſions and part of the military ſtores. It is bomb-proof; the French, in the ſiege of 1706, having thrown ſeveral hundred bombs upon it, but to no effect. This tower has alſo its ſubterraneous paſſages, or galleries, towards the other baſtions; ſo that if the enemy ſhould become maſters of the latter, the dungeon alone would eaſily hold out fourteen days before it would be obliged to capitulate. Here is kept the main guard. On the left hand towards the area of the citadel is the commandant's houſe, and on the right that of the governor; both theſe form an elegant amphitheatre facing the area, on the left hand of which are the barracks, from which one is led by torch-light into the ſouterraines, which indeed are ſurpriſing. At the entrance are vaulted ſtables for fifty horſes: a hundred and thirty paces behind theſe, and forty or fifty more under the main ditch, you come under the counter-guard, where are other ſtables for fifty horſes more. Here the ſubterraneous paſſages extend in two branches, the one to the Po, the other to the diſtance of two or three Piedmonteſe miles, not ſo much for the ſake of an outlet, as to lead to the vaſt number of mines, which take up every part of the ground.

In one of theſe galleries is ſhewn the place where Micha, the brave pioneer, devoted his life for the good of his country. The French were, however, greatly miſtaken in thinking themſelves ſure of being maſters of the citadel by means of this large gallery, which is broad enough for a carriage to turn about in; for the ſmall gallery is over the larger, and has ſeveral trenches from whence they may fire upon the enemy; and, in caſe of neceſſity, iron portcullices may be let down, and granadoes, bombs, and other inſtruments of deſtruction thrown into it, through loop-holes provided for ſuch extremities. Beſides, this large gallery is fortified at the end of every thirty paces, and there are many mines underneath it.

Indeed there are properly four galleries over one another, the lowermoſt of which is at the depth of a hundred and ſeventeen feet under ground. Into theſe none but Germans are admitted, as being conſtant friends to the houſe of Savoy, and therefore the officer who attends foreigners here always enquires their country. The mines, counter-mines, and other ſubterraneous works, are very ſurpriſing. In the loweſt gallery there are ſpiracles to let in the air and keep it dry. From the ſubterraneous works of the one baſtion an idea may be formed of the other four. Beſides all theſe conveniences, every one is provided with an oven, a well, and a magazine for proviſions.

The walls and baſtions are all lined with free-ſtone, and take up an hour and a half in walking round the fortifications. The walks ſhaded with oaks on the ramparts appear very delightful at a diſtance, and thoſe who walk there have a moſt agreeable proſpect of beautiful villas and gardens, and on one ſide of the mountains, which, during the greateſt part of the year, are covered with ſnow. If Turin continues to increaſe in ſize and magnificence, as it has lately done, it will have the nobleſt ſtreets of any city in Europe, they being at preſent exceeded by none in Germany, Holland, France, or Italy. But this is true only with reſpect to the New City, in which are the royal palace, New-ſtreet, and Po-ſtreet, which are all remarkably fine. From the door of the king's palace is a view which extends ſeventeen hundred paces over the palace court, and St. Charles's-ſquare, along the New-ſtreet to the New Gate. The houſes in St. Charles's-ſquare are very magnificent, and have all arched piazzas, ſo that in the heavieſt rains one may walk dry under ſhelter. New-ſtreet is eighteen paces broad, the houſes four ſtories high, and every houſe exactly reſembles that oppoſite to it on the other ſide of the ſtreet, and is at leaſt a hundred paces in front. There are but three buildings on each ſide from the area before the palace, to the entrance into St. Charles's-ſquare, where the New-ſtreet begins, which extends a hundred and twenty-three paces in front. The inner court of the

palace is a hundred and forty-four paces long: the palace du Chateau is a hundred and ninety-ſeven: the ſtreet between this ſquare and that of St. Charles four hundred and twenty-three: the ſquare of St. Charles two hundred and eighty-four: the Farther-ſtreet four hundred and fifty-ſeven; and the open ſquare before the gate a hundred paces. Bernini, the celebrated architect, is ſaid to have preferred this ſtreet to any in Italy; yet the ſtreet of the Po ſeems ſuperior to it; that ſtreet is eleven hundred common paces in length, and the houſes only three ſtories high. The ſpacious and lofty piazzas of the Caſtle-ſquare are continued in a direct line on both ſides of the ſtreet, and the houſes within the gate form a fine amphitheatre.

The houſes are moſtly of brick, overlaid with plaiſter of Paris, which while new has a good effect; and, what is not commonly ſeen, they have a range of balconies to every ſtory: but the houſes are diſfigured by the great number of paper windows.

The ſtreets are kept clean by a very ingenious contrivance. Between the citadel and the Port de Suſa the water is brought in by a canal out of the Doria, and thence conveyed through an aqueduct over the town-ditch into the city, where it is diſtributed at pleaſure through all the ſtreets, and carries off all the filth and ſoil. This contrivance alſo ſerves to clear the ſtreets of the ſnow in the winter, unleſs it be ordered to leave it on the ground for the diverſion of the prince, who often rides upon the ſnow in a ſledge. The city is alſo lighted by lanthorns hung up in the ſtreets and croſs lanes.

The moſt ſplendid ſtructure is the front of the palace where the king reſides, which is built of free-ſtone, and ſuperbly decorated with columns and ſtatues, and has a magnificent ſtair-caſe, where ſtands a brazen ſtatue of Victor Amadeus on a horſe of white marble. The hall before the king's apartment, and the other chambers, are hung with tapeſtry repreſenting the life of Cyrus. Theſe hangings were a preſent from the emperor Charles V. to the houſe of Savoy; and both for their beauty, antiquity, and the number of pieces of which the whole ſet conſiſts, are extremely valuable. The king's apartment is very well furniſhed, and in his bed-chamber is an admirable piece of tapeſtry, repreſenting a battle in which the Lorrainers were entirely defeated.

On the left hand of the late queen's apartments, in which are ſome good pictures of the royal family, is a gallery in which are three hundred marble ſtatues, moſt of them antiques, placed on each ſide of the gallery. It was on this floor, but fronting the court, that the late king reſided. The cloſet where he conferred with his miniſters is near the audience-chamber. This apartment opens into a fine gallery of paintings, in which the largeſt and fineſt pieces are by Paul Veroneſe. The freſco painting on the wall, and particularly that on the cieling, is admirable, and done by the chevalier Daniel, a German.

Upon the left hand, on the ſecond floor of the wing of the palace which looks into the garden, is the chapel of the Holy Sudary, which, that it might be adapted to the tragical relic preſerved there, is built entirely of a dark grey marble. The ſheet, as the clergy here pretend, in which Chriſt was wrapped after his crucifixion, has imprinted on both ſides the bloody figure of a man, and is kept in the middle of the chapel in a tabernacle, within an incloſure of iron work. It is publicly ſhewn on great ſolemnities, as the marriage of the hereditary prince, &c. It ought not, however, to be omitted, that the pretended ſudary is alſo ſhewn at Liſbon, Mentz, and in above twelve Romiſh churches beſides.

The reſt of this palace is old and of brick, as is alſo another palace. The royal library is worth notice. Among other ſpacious buildings contiguous to the palace is the king's theatre, which is reckoned a maſter-piece in its kind; it having five galleries, one above another, finely decorated with ſculpture and gilding. Clapping, hiſſing, or other noiſy indications of applauſe or diſlike, are forbidden, when any of the royal family are preſent: a decorum that muſt be very agreeable to a curious ſpectator. The other buildings contiguous to the palace are the record-office; the new royal printing-houſe, which has twelve preſſes; and the arſenal, which is quite new, and a well contrived ſtructure.

In the old city the ſtreets are crooked and narrow, though here and there are ſome good houſes. The univerſity, which was founded in 1405, is a large quadrangle, and is eſteemed a fine building. In the inner court is a double row of piazzas over each other; and the univerſity library, beſides twenty thouſand printed volumes, has a very valuable collection of antient manuſcripts, which conſiſt of a hundred and ſixty-nine Hebrew, three hundred and ſixty-nine Greek, a thouſand and eighty-four Latin, two hundred and ten Italian, and a hundred and ſeventy-two French.

With regard to the eccleſiaſtical buildings in this city, they are very antient, and in the Gothic taſte. There are forty-eight churches and convents, and ſeventeen more may be ſeen in the neighbourhood from the ramparts. The chapel of St. Laurence near the palace is the fineſt in the city, and is celebrated for its ſeveral marble ſtatues and its lofty roof. The tabernacle on the great altar conſiſts of beautiful ſmall pillars of Oriental marble, and the pix in which the hoſt is kept is made of lapis lazuli.

The chapel of the Holy Trinity is ſmaller, but has many magnificent decorations: it has a lofty cupola, ſuperb altars, and curious works in marble of all colours. Here is alſo a rich foundation for pilgrims.

The Corpus Chriſti chapel in the green-market is remarkable for a miracle ſaid to have been wrought there. It is pretended that in 1453 the Savoyards having pillaged Exilles, a conſecrated hoſt was brought along with the booty to Turin, packed up with ſome other things upon an aſs; but when the beaſt came to this ſpot, he devoutly kneeled, and could not be made to ſtir a ſtep farther. Mean while the box with which it was loaded flew open, and the wafer ſhot up into the air, where it continued hovering in the ſight of the people till the biſhop arrived, into whoſe ſacred hand it gently deſcended, and was by him carried into this chapel.

One of the fineſt churches in Turin, named la Conſole, has a miraculous image of the Virgin Mary, which brings many pecuniary offerings; and the Franciſcan church in St. Charles's ſquare is beautified on the outſide with fine ſtatues and pyramids.

The Jeſuits church, though ſomewhat dark, is equalled by few churches in the city for fine paintings in freſco, and marble decorations. Adjacent to it is a college, which is ſo large as conveniently to lodge the fifty fathers of which that ſociety conſiſts.

Among the laudable foundations at Turin, the five hoſpitals for the poor, ſick, and diſabled, may be reckoned the moſt uſeful. The largeſt and fineſt of theſe hoſpitals is that of St. John, for lying-in women and their children, foundlings, and the ſick. Such ſingle women as are with child are admitted here, as are alſo thoſe who are married. This hoſpital contains about twenty ſuch patients, beſides four hundred foundlings and orphans, one hundred incurables, and two hundred patients who are judged curable. The children are employed in ſpinning of ſilk, and in other works, till they are fit to be taught ſome mechanic trade. The ground-floor is for the male patients, and the upper ſtory for the females; both are ſo lofty as to be equal in height to three ordinary ſtories. The beds are placed at a diſtance from each other, and in the center is an altar which may be ſeen by all the patients, who may hear maſs without getting out of their beds. The front is a hundred and eighty common paces in length, and appears ſo magnificent that it reſembles a royal palace. The annual revenue generally amounts to about thirty thouſand crowns.

Another laudable foundation in this city is ſtiled la Charité, or the hoſpital for the poor, which takes up a great part of the ſtreet of the Po, and has a conſiderable revenue ariſing from rents and the annual ſubſcriptions of the citizens. The king gives every year to this hoſpital three hundred ſacks of corn, three of which are computed to make a ſufficient quantity of bread to ſerve one perſon a whole year. This houſe generally contains two thouſand, and often three thouſand poor people, picked out of the ſtreets, and employed in ſeveral ſorts of manufactures. Here the young and old of both ſexes are

preſerved from idleneſs, and provided with meat, drink, cloaths, and attendance, when ſick, or grown decrepit with age. Forty ſoldiers in blue, with red bandeliers, are daily diſperſed about the city to take up all beggars and vagrants. Thoſe who are foreigners are baniſhed the city, and the natives brought to the hoſpital. The main building conſiſts of two quadrangles, with galleries round them, one for the men, and the other for the women. The church is worth ſeeing on account of its roof, on which the Aſcenſion of the Virgin Mary is admirably painted by the chevalier Daniel; and in the paſſages of the ground-floor are the buſts of the benefactors, with elegant Latin inſcriptions.

With reſpect to the government of the city, the king takes care to be exactly informed in what manner the laws are executed, and has been formerly known to go by himſelf muffled up in a cloak, that he might with his own eyes obſerve the ſtate and management of the city. In order to prevent the exactions of the peaſants in raiſing the price of wood during winter, there are four large ſtore-houſes of wood and coals; and when the peaſants endeavour to take advantage of the weather, fuel is ſold at this magazine at a reaſonable rate.

Turin, however, labours under ſeveral inconveniences. The thick fogs, which in autumn and winter continually riſe from the Po and other waters, render the air thick and moiſt, and conſequently unhealthy. Theſe exhalations are of great diſadvantage to the city, which is often involved in fogs and rain, while Rivoli, a town at no more than three leagues diſtance, enjoys the ſereneſt ſky and brighteſt ſun-ſhine.

Another of the moſt conſiderable diſadvantages that attend this city is the foul muddy water in moſt of the wells, which is chiefly owing to the negligence of the people in not keeping them ſweet and clean, dead dogs, cats, and other filth, being frequently thrown into them.

Beſides, the inns require great regulations, to prevent travellers being impoſed upon; for there is not a place in all Italy where the entertainment is ſo bad, conſidering the price. The country produces plenty of good wine, yet none of it can be obtained without paying extravagantly for it, that uſually ſold at the inns being the moſt execrable ſtuff imaginable. On meagre days the Papiſts fare extremely ill; for though the Po affords variety of fine fiſh, as pike, carp, perch, trout, and ſturgeon, from eighty to an hundred pounds weight; the avaritious landlords will not put themſelves to the expence of freſh fiſh, but their gueſts muſt take up either with ſalt-fiſh, or an amulette.

The manner of burying the dead is one of the moſt diſagreeable circumſtances that attends this city. The corpſe is carried in proceſſion to the grave, where it is put in the ground without any coffin. This is not only extremely ſhocking when the deceaſed happens to die of the ſmall-pox, meaſles, and ſuch contagious diſtempers; but may have a very unhappy effect on pregnant women, and other perſons liable to catch the infection. The maſked fraternities who frequently attend at funerals, and of whom nothing can be ſeen but the eyes, make indeed not only a dreadful but a ſhabby proceſſion. It is alſo extremely diſagreeable, that even when there is a contagious diſtemper in the city, three or four dead bodies are ſuffered to lie a whole day in the churches uncovered. Perſons of rank have family vaults in the churches and chapels; but people in inferior circumſtances are thruſt into a vault belonging to their pariſh-church, fifty or a hundred together, without any coffin. Indeed theſe receptacles are very deep, and have ſeveral doors, the paſſage leading to them being vaulted. But this cannot prevent the cadaverous ſmell and noxious effluvia from penetrating into the churches.

In the neighbourhood of Turin are the following palaces: the moſt frequented by the royal family is that called la Venerie, where the court generally continues from Spring to December. It ſtands about a league from Turin, the road leading to it is well paved, and the greateſt part of it planted on each ſide with trees, it running a little winding between fine meadows, fields, and vineyards.

Before the palace is a ſtreet of houſes built of ſtone two ſtories high, and in a direct line, belonging to private perſons. In two chambers contiguous to the king's apartment are the pictures of thirty of his majeſty's anceſtors, with Latin inſcriptions expreſſing their moſt famous achievements. Beyond theſe is a chamber of pictures of the emperors of Germany, another with thoſe of the kings of France, and a third of the kings of England, all as big as the life. The gallery is a hundred and twenty-five paces in length, twenty-two broad, and very lofty. At each door ſtands two large twiſted pillars of red and white marble, and the pavement conſiſts of ſquare pieces of green and white marble. This edifice, which is extremely admired, was deſigned by Filippo. The royal chapel was alſo deſigned by the ſame architect. The cupola is of a graceful height: within it are the ſtatues of St. Ambroſe, St. Chryſoſtom, St. Auguſtine, and St. Jerom, ſtanding on pedeſtals of red, green, and yellow marble. The ſtatues, which are of a gigantic ſize, are of white marble, and were brought hither from Rome. The high altar is extremely beautiful, and there is ſcarce any kind of marble which is not to be ſeen, either in the pillars or altars of this chapel. The ſtables are two hundred and thirty paces in length, and within them are above two hundred and twenty horſes. On entering them it is an eſtabliſhed cuſtom that a ſtranger muſt deliver up one of his gloves, which muſt be redeemed with a piece of money.

The road to the palace of Rivoli runs in a direct line through fields, meadows, and vineyards, and perhaps has not its equal. It was planted ſince the ſiege of Turin in 1712, the French, among other devaſtations, having rooted up every tree in the country. This walk affords a very beautiful proſpect; at one end of the viſta ſtands the palace of Rivoli upon an eminence, and at the other the city of Turin; and about two leagues beyond that in a ſtraight line the magnificent church of Superga. Rivoli, beſides having the beſt apartments, has the fineſt paintings, and the royal family are much better lodged there than at la Venerie or in Turin.

Near the city ſtands a villa of the princeſs of Piedmont, very agreeably ſituated upon an eminence. The building is not large, but regular, and the garden is in the form of an amphitheatre.

Montcallier is a ſpacious caſtle ſituated upon a hill on the other ſide of the Po, at about the diſtance of a league from Turin. This is a quadrangular building, with a large ſquare tower. The hill, as well as the neighbouring country towards Aleſſandria, is very delightfully variegated with vineyards, corn-fields, villas, and gardens; but is at preſent never honoured with the preſence of the royal family.

It will be proper here to take notice of the church of Superga, which was built by the late king in purſuance of a vow he made at the laſt ſiege of Turin. It ſtands upon the higheſt mountains in the neighbourhood of the city, at an hour and a half's ride on horſeback. At each end of the church ſtand two elegant towers; and the cupola is ſupported by eight large Corinthian columns of dark green marble. The baſes of theſe columns are between five and ſix feet high, ſtreaked with white, and their fronts ſo curiouſly inlaid with large pieces of white and red marble, that they reſemble agate. Within the dome is a gallery that has eight windows in the circumference, and is a hundred paces round. Within the dome are three galleries, one above another; the two loweſt have ſtone baluſtrades, and the upper iron work. The proſpect from this gallery is more beautiful than can be imagined: from thence may be ſeen Rivoli, with its long terrace planted with trees; the valley towards Suſa; its mountains covered with ſnow; the meanders of the Po, the Doria, and the Stura; with the fine plains along thoſe rivers, which extend as far as the eye can reach; the valleys and plains beyond Montcallier; as likewiſe the delightful eminences in the neighbourhood, covered with vineyards, gardens, and fine ſeats; and laſtly Turin itſelf. Contiguous to the church is a large ſquare building, for the occaſional devout retirement of any of the royal family, where his late majeſty has ſeveral times ſpent ſome weeks in Lent.

The

The other places worthy of notice in Piedmont are Fort Brunette, which has not its equal in the world, and is a very ſtrong fortreſs formed to guard againſt the French frontier fort of Briançon, a few miles diſtant. It conſiſts of eight baſtions, which, together with all the out-works, are hewn out of a rock. The baſtions and other works have a communication by ſubterraneous paſſages under the rocks, ſo large that carriages and heavy cannon, with ſeveral horſes, may conveniently go from one place to another. In the whole fortreſs not a ſingle building is to be ſeen, and of the garriſon only ſome centinels. Batteries and mines would here be of no effect, and two thouſand men, with ſufficient proviſions and ammunition, might eaſily hold out againſt a numerous army. This fortreſs commands two valleys.

Suſa, formerly Seguſium, a city on the Doria, and the capital of a marquiſate of the ſame name, is ſeated at a ſmall diſtance from the above fort, and is an inconſiderable place; but though it is only defended by a wall, it has always a ſtrong garriſon. Here is a marble triumphal arch erected by king Cottius, in honour of Auguſtus.

Nice, the capital of a county of the ſame name, which anciently belonged to Provence, is ſituated in the forty-third degree, forty minutes latitude, and in the ſeventh degree twenty-five minutes eaſt longitude, and is a ſea-port at the mouth of the river Paulon; but its harbour is only convenient for ſmall veſſels, though conſiderable ſums have been lately expended in improving it, and great encouragement given to traders by declaring it a free port. It has ſeveral remains of Roman antiquities. In 1691 it was taken by the French, and in 1696 reſtored to Savoy. In 1706 it was again taken by the French, who demoliſhed part of its fortifications, and in 1708 totally deſtroyed them. In this principality are ſeveral other diviſions beſides thoſe already mentioned, as the dutchy of Aoſta, the lordſhip of Vercelli, the marquiſates of Saluzza, Ivrea, Soligno and Cleva, and the county of Aſti.

SECT. IV.

Of the other Territories ſubject to the King of Sardinia, as the Dutchy of Montferrat, ſome other Diſtricts that formerly belonged to Milan, and the Iſland of Sardinia. The Situation, Extent, Face of the Country, and Produce of that Iſland: Its Hiſtory, the Manners and Cuſtoms of the Inhabitants, with a Deſcription of Cagliari, its principal City.

THE dutchy of Montferrat, ſtiled in Latin Mons Ferratus and Mons Ferranus, probably from the fertility of its ſoil, is bounded on the eaſt by Milan, on the ſouth by the republic of Genoa, and on the weſt and north by Piedmont; it is computed to be ſixty-two miles in length, and forty-eight in breadth.

This country, though very hilly, is pleaſant and fertile, and abounds in corn, a variety of fruit, and excellent muſcadine wine; it alſo affords a great quantity and variety of game, eſpecially of pheaſants and partridges: it contains about two hundred cities, towns, and caſtles.

In 967, the emperor Otho I. is ſaid to have raiſed this country to a marquiſate, in favour of Aldran prince of Saxony, and upon the death of the laſt male heir of this houſe in 1305, the marquiſate came to his ſiſter Violenda, the wife of the Greek emperor Andronicus Palæologus, whoſe family enjoyed it till the year 1532, when the ſovereignty was extinguiſhed. In 1536, the emperor Charles V. adjudged it to the duke of Modena, whoſe wife was of the Palæologan family; and in 1572, Maximilian II. raiſed it to a dutchy. In 1631, ſeventy-five places in the dutchy of Montferrat were transferred to the duke of Savoy, in lieu of a yearly income of fifteen thouſand crowns, due to him from the duke of Mantua; and in 1703, the emperor alſo gave to the duke of Savoy that part of Montferrat which the dukes of Mantua had held as a fief from the empire and emperor, to be held by him by the ſame tenure.

Caſſal, the capital of the dutchy, is pleaſantly ſituated on the Po, in a delightful plain, in the forty-fifth degree ſix minutes north latitude, and in the eighth degree thirty minutes eaſt longitude, forty-two miles to the eaſt of Turin. The town was once ſo well fortified, and its citadel ſo ſtrong, that it was reckoned one of the moſt defenſible places in all Italy. It was ſurrounded with very ſtrong ramparts, a large ditch, with baſtions, ravelins, and other works, to which the duke of Modena added a very noble citadel which had ſix baſtions. This city has a biſhop, who is ſuffragan to the archbiſhop of Milan, and is famous for its many ſieges.

Here are alſo Creſcentino, a fortified town and marquiſate, and alſo the marquiſate of Pomaro; with the towns of Trino, Verua, St. Salvitore, and ſome others.

The king of Sardinia poſſeſſes ſeveral diſtricts which formerly belonged to the dutchy of Milan; theſe are the territories of Aleſſandrino, Lomelina, Vigevenaces, the Novareſe, the Tortoneſe, Anghiera, St. Fedele, and Bobio.

One of the moſt conſiderable cities in theſe diſtricts, is Aleſſandria, in the territory of Aleſſandrino, which took its name from pope Alexander III. who built it in 1160, and is ſurnamed Della Paglia, from the inhabitants for want of wood uſing ſtubble to heat their ovens for baking bread. It is ſeated in a marſhy country on the river Tenaro, which divides it into two parts, that are joined by a wooden bridge 400 feet in length, covered over on the top. It is a ſtrong town with an excellent citadel; the houſes are of ſtone; but it is neither large nor handſome, though it is ſaid to have 12,000 inhabitants. It is the ſee of a biſhop, ſuffragan to the archbiſhop of Milan, and is endowed with ſome conſiderable privileges: the Jews, in particular, are permitted to live here, and carry on a ſmall trade. They have a ſeparate quarter allotted them, where they live among themſelves, and when they go abroad, both men and women are obliged to appear with ſome mark of diſtinction: the former wear grey hats and long beards; the married, a groteſque kind of head-dreſs, and the maids go bare-headed.

When the city and its territories were ceded to the duke of Savoy, in the late wars that prince ordered a fort to be built on the other ſide of the Tenaro, and another in the ſuburbs of the city; but the emperor taking offence at theſe innovations, it was alledged, by the court of Turin, that ſuch fortifications had been built in thoſe places many years before, and that no more was meant than to repair them. If Aleſſandria is not covered by them, the reſt of the ceded country is at leaſt, in ſome meaſure, ſecured. Indeed, the king of Sardinia's dominions are greatly expoſed on the Milaneſe ſide. In the cathedral of this city are ſome good ſculptures in marble, and paintings in freſco. Upon the pavement of a chapel is an humble epitaph, which informs us that "Philip Maria Reſta, the leaſt of biſhops, and the greateſt of ſinners, recommends himſelf to the prayers of the reader." In another chapel, a ſquare ſtone over the entrance of a vault has the following extraordinary inſcription: — "For the benefit of the pious worſhippers of the virgin mother of God, who expired while her ſon hung on the croſs, the governors of this chapel cauſed this vault to be dug in virgin ground, that the dead, as well as the living, may feel the influences of the mother of mercy."

We now come to that part of the king of Sardinia's dominions, from whence he obtains the titles of royalty.

Sardinia is ſituated in the Mediterranean; and, on the northward, is divided from the iſland of Corſica by the ſtreights of Boniſacio, it being ſituated between the thirty-eighth degree forty-five minutes and, the forty-firſt degree twenty minutes north latitude, and between the eighth degree thirty minutes, and the tenth degree twenty-five minutes eaſt longitude. This iſland, next to Sicily, is the largeſt and moſt fertile iſland in the Mediterranean; it extending a hundred and ſeventy miles in length from north to ſouth, a hundred in breadth from eaſt to weſt, and about ſeven hundred in circuit, comprehending the turnings and windings of the coaſt.

The moraſſes, and the high mountains on the north ſide of this iſland, obſtructing the wind, render the air very wholeſome, upon which account the ancient Romans made it a place of baniſhment. The country is, however, extremely fertile, it producing all ſorts of corn

and fruit. In ſome parts of it are woods of five or ſix miles in length of orange and citron trees; and as for olives, plums, pears, cherries, and cheſnuts, they grow in ſuch plenty, that they hardly yield any price. There are here alſo bred vaſt herds of large and ſmall cattle, ſo that this iſland furniſhes Italy with wool, hides, and a fine ſort of cheeſe. Few countries afford a greater quantity of game of all ſorts; the moſt profitable of which to the inhabitants is that of their buffaloes, wild-boars, and various kinds of deer, ſome of which are ſo finely marked, that their ſkins might be taken for thoſe of tigers. The ridges of the mountains on the northern ſide are no leſs rich within than barren without, they yielding great quantities of metals and minerals. Round the coaſt are many ſea-ports, ſpacious and deep enough to receive a conſiderable number of the largeſt ſhips, beſides many inferior ones for ſmaller veſſels.

This iſland has undergone many changes with reſpect to its government: it was once ſubject to the Carthaginians; the Romans held it next, and kept poſſeſſion of it till the decline of their empire, when, in the ninth century, it fell into the hands of the Saracens, who were afterwards expelled by the Genoeſe and Piſans; from which time the inhabitants were governed by petty princes of their own. It ſuffered greatly during the wars between the Piſans and Genoeſe, as well as afterwards during thoſe between the emperors of Germany and the popes. Boniface VIII. at laſt granted it, in the year 1298, to king James of Arragon, whoſe ſon, Alphonſus IV. after much oppoſition, made himſelf maſter of it in 1324. From this time it continued under the dominion of Spain, and was governed by a viceroy, till the year 1708, when the Engliſh making a conqueſt of it for king Charles III. afterwards emperor, by the title of Charles VI. it was confirmed to him by the treaty of Utrecht. In 1717 it was recovered by the Spaniards, and the next year the emperor exchanged it for Sicily with the duke of Savoy, who was put in poſſeſſion of it in the year 1720.

This kingdom is of more importance to the houſe of Savoy as a monarchy than on account of its revenues; for the charges of the army and civil officers being deducted, the remainder does not much exceed a hundred thouſand livres. It is governed by a viceroy.

The whole iſland is divided into two parts; Capo di Lugatori forms the north part of the iſland, and Capo Cagliari the ſouth. It has three archbiſhoprics, and four biſhoprics, which, as well as the ſeveral collegiate churches in the iſland, are immenſely rich; and both the clergy and monks have ſuch vaſt privileges and immunities, that every family ſtrives to have one or more of their children of that number: hence they ſwarm every where, to the no ſmall detriment and oppreſſion of the mercantile and working part of the inhabitants, who are forced to ſtarve themſelves to maintain the others in pride and luxury.

The inhabitants have been generally repreſented as bruiſh, ignorant, poor, proud, and lazy; ſo that, notwithſtanding the fertility of the country, and the many advantages the inhabitants enjoy from their ſituation and ports, their lands are in a great meaſure neglected, and the people indigent: but their ignorance, poverty, and indolence, are probably owing to the tyranny and oppreſſion of their governors and of their overgrown clergy and nobility, both which enjoy ſuch exorbitant privileges as muſt neceſſarily cramp the induſtry of the middling ſort of people. As for the nobility and gentry, they have always taken care to extort ſuch privileges from their new maſters, that they are not only exempt from the payment of taxes, but from being tried for any crime, even that of treaſon, by any but a council of ſeven of their peers, who uphold each other in all theſe caſes; ſo that the viceroys can ſeldom puniſh the moſt guilty of them, by having the majority of votes on his ſide, and even then it only ends in ſome fine, or at moſt in baniſhment. This makes every one that can afford the price purchaſe nobility from thoſe governors at any rate; by which means they are grown ſo numerous and arrogant, that the whole burthen of the public taxes, as hath already been intimated, fall on the people of the lower rank. Indeed it does not ſeem to have been the deſign either of the crown of Spain formerly, or of Savoy ſince, to remedy any of theſe evils, and put the iſland in ſuch a flouriſhing condition as it might ſoon be raiſed to, by the encouragement of agriculture and commerce.

Cagliari, the capital of the iſland, and the ſeat of the viceroy, of an archbiſhopric, and an univerſity, is ſeated on a large bay of the ſame name, on the ſouth part of the iſland, in latitude thirty-nine degrees twenty five minutes, and in nine degrees fifty-three minutes eaſt longitude. It has a ſecure harbour, capable of receiving a great number of ſhips of burthen, and, beſides other works, is defended by a caſtle. The city being ſituated on the declivity of a hill, is divided into high and low. On the higher appears the ſtately cathedral covered all over with marble, and adorned both without and within with the fineſt architecture, ſculpture, paintings, and every thing that is rich and beautiful. The whole upper town is ſurrounded with a good wall, and is handſome and well built; but the lower, which ſtands near the ſea-ſhore, being ſeated juſt under the other, and receiving all the filth which falls down upon it, is generally dirty and unwholeſome, eſpecially in winter, and is but poorly inhabited. There are in the whole but four pariſhes, including the cathedrals, twenty-two monaſteries, and three ſuburbs.

There are many ſmall iſlands round Sardinia, the largeſt of which are Aſinaria, Tavolara, Antioca, and Pietro. The moſt conſiderable of theſe iſlands is that of Aſinaria, which is about twenty-five miles diſtant from Cape Doria, and was ſtiled by the antients the great iſland of Hercules. It is about twenty-eight miles in compaſs, and is ſeated in the forty-firſt degree north latitude, and in the eighth degree forty-five minutes eaſt longitude.

Having now concluded our account of the dominions of the houſe of Sardinia, we ſhall proceed to thoſe of Auſtria in Upper Italy.

SECT. V.

Of the Dutchy of MILAN.

The Situation, Extent, and Produce of the Milaneſe; with the Trade, Revenues, Forces, Manners, and Cuſtoms of the Inhabitants. A particular Deſcription of the Lake called Lago Maggiore, with its two beautiful Iſlands Iſola Madre and Iſola Bella, and of the City of Milan.

THE Auſtrian dominions in Upper Italy at preſent conſiſt of the moſt conſiderable part of the dutchy of Milan, including Pavia, Cremona, &c. and the entire dutchy of Mantua.

The dutchy of Milan is bounded to the weſtward by Savoy, Piedmont, and Montferrat; on the north by Swiſſerland; on the eaſt by the territories of Venice, and the dutchies of Mantua, Parma, and Placentia; and on the ſouth by the dependencies of the republic of Genoa; extending from ſouth to north upwards of a hundred Engliſh miles, and in its greateſt length from eaſt to weſt above a hundred and eight.

There is ſcarce a country in Europe more fertile in a variety of excellent productions. It is every where watered either by rivulets or canals, and, after the harveſt of the uſual kinds of grain, the people ſow Turky wheat, chiefly on account of their poultry, which they have in great plenty, and exceeding good. The paſtures are very rich, eſpecially in the diſtrict of Lodi, which is famous for the breeding of cattle. The cheeſe made in the country, and improperly called Parmeſan, is uſed all over Italy in the beſt ſoups. Here are alſo excellent wines, and all manner of vegetables and fruits in perfection; together with a conſiderable number of mulberry-trees for breeding the ſilk-worms. The charms of this country are alſo heightened by three large and beautiful lakes: theſe are the Lago Maggiore, the Lago di Lugano, which is twenty Engliſh miles in length, and the Lago di Como, which extends from north to ſouth thirty-ſix Italian miles.

The trade of the Milaneſe is conſiderable; but the greateſt part of the commodities the country affords is

conſumed by the inhabitants, their exports generally coming far ſhort of their imports. They, however, manufacture great quantities of woollen and linen cloths; ſilk is alſo here in great plenty, but it is not ſo fine as the Piedmonteſe, and the ſtuffs made of it are chiefly for home conſumption; but the fine ſilk ſtockings, gloves, and handkerchiefs made here are uſually exported. Milan is alſo famous for its curious works in ſteel, cryſtal, agates, hyacinths, and other gems; and the country every where abounds with ingenious artificers.

From the extraordinary fertility and richneſs of this country, it may be ſuppoſed to produce a conſiderable revenue for its ſovereign. It is ſaid to have brought in to the kings of Spain above two millions of dollars per annum; and Keyſler ſays, that the Auſtrian general-governor has an annual income of two hundred thouſand florins.

The regular forces in the dutchy amount to eighteen thouſand men, the greateſt part of whoſe cloathing, arms, and other neceſſaries, come from Germany, to the no ſmall diſcontent of the Milaneſe, who think it hard that as the money for the payment of theſe troops is raiſed among them, it ſhould not be laid out and circulated in their country.

The political viciſſitudes of the ſtate, from this country devolving from the French to the Spaniards, and from theſe to the Germans, have occaſioned the reſort of troops into this dutchy compoſed of theſe different nations; and theſe have introduced a much more ſocial and free way of living than is found in the ſouth parts of Italy. To theſe the fertility of the country and the wealth of the nobility do not a little contribute. The ladies can hardly be under leſs reſtraint even in France than they are here; for, during the carnival, they give balls and maſquerades by turns at the public taverns, in order to avoid the inconveniencies with which ſuch entertainments would be attended at their own houſes; while their huſbands ſeem perfectly eaſy with regard to theſe feſtivals, either from puſillanimity or a confidence in the virtue and diſcretion of their ladies, and ſome are ſo paſſionately fond of them as to grudge them nothing that can contribute to their pleaſure. The women of the lower claſs imitate their ſuperiors as much as poſſible, and indulge themſelves in liberties which in other parts of Italy are denied them. Here, as in Paris, trade is moſtly managed by women, who amuſe themſelves with ſowing and embroidery, and the ſhops, though they are quite open while the ſeaſon permits, are places of rendezvous for a great deal of company. Even in convents the auſterities of the monaſtic live are ſo far relaxed, that a traveller may not only talk, rally, and laugh with the nuns at the grate, but join in a concert with them, and ſpend whole afternoons in theſe familiarities.

We have already mentioned the beautiful lakes in this dutchy, and it will be proper before we proceed to deſcribe the principal cities, to give a deſcription of the Lago Maggiore, or Lago di Locerno, which is the moſt extraordinary. It is ſixty-five Italian miles in length, in moſt places it is ſix broad, and its depth about the middle is eight fathoms. Towards Swiſſerland it terminates in a canal that is of vaſt advantage to commerce. The lake is every way environed with hills, covered with vineyards and ſummer-houſes, and above the vineyards are plantations of cheſnut trees, the fruit of which is conſumed in ſuch quantities, that when cheſnuts are in great plenty, the price of corn falls, eſpecially at Genoa. Along the banks of the lake are fine rows of trees, and walks arched with vine branches, eſpecially near the town of Aleſco. This beautiful proſpect is farther heightened by large natural caſcades falling from the mountains.

Two leagues from Seſti the lake begins to widen, and on entering the bay appears the two celebrated iſlands Iſola Madre and Iſola Bella; the former belonging to count Boromeo, and the latter to the emperor. Theſe two iſlands have been compared to two pyramids of ſweetmeats, adorned with green feſtoons and flowers. At one end of the garden of the Iſola Bella are ten terraces, the perpendicular height of which, taken together, ſays Mr. Keyſler, is ſixty ells above the height of the water, each ell conſiſting of three ſpans. Theſe terraces decreaſe proportionably in their circuit as they riſe towards the top of the hill, where an oblong area, paved with fine ſtone, and ſurrounded with a baluſtrade, affords a moſt delightful proſpect. It is in length from forty-five to fifty common paces, and on every ſide ſtands a range of marble ſtatues of a gigantic ſize. The rain-water runs into ciſterns underneath, to which alſo other water is conveyed in order to ſupply the water-works. Round every terrace is a pleaſant walk, and at the four angles are large ſtatues and pyramids placed alternately. The walls from the bottom to the top are covered with laurel hedges, and eſpaliers of orange, lemon, peach-trees, &c. The laurels ſtand in the open air during the whole winter; but the lemon and orange-trees are ſheltered over with a covering of boards, and in ſharp weather cheriſhed with heat, from fires provided for that purpoſe at a great expence. The annual charges of theſe Boromean paradiſes amount to forty thouſand Piedmonteſe livres. But to raiſe ſo noble a ſuperſtructure upon ſuch a foundation, and to bring theſe iſlands to their preſent incomparable beauty and magnificence, ſeems an undertaking beyond even the revenue of a prince to accompliſh. The Iſola Bella was no longer ago than the middle of the laſt century only a barren rock, to which every baſket of earth, and whatever is found there, muſt have been brought by water at a prodigious expence.

The garden of Iſola Bella has a ſouth aſpect, and at the two angles of its front are two round towers, in which are very lofty apartments, adorned with red and black marble. Here is alſo a covered gallery, ſupported by ſtone columns, and ſhaded with lemon-trees. On the other ſide, that is towards the eaſt, is a delightful walk of large orange-trees diſpoſed in four or five rows.

At a ſmall diſtance is a fine grove of olives, with narrow walks, and a caſcade that falls down above twenty ſteps. Here is alſo a plantation of large pomegranate-trees. The lake comes up ſo cloſe both to the palace and gardens, as ſcarcely to leave ſo much dry ground as to ſet one's foot upon, except a ſmall ſpace before the north front of the palace, which has a fine proſpect towards Iſella. On the eaſt and weſt ſides are large vaults, upon which the earth has been raiſed to the height above-mentioned; and the whole may be compared to the hanging gardens of antiquity. Theſe vaults are not only a foundation for the ſoil, but an ornament to the gardens, all of them reſembling ſo many grottos. Near the palace are kept in a ſhed built on purpoſe three fine gondolas for parties of pleaſure upon the water.

In the palace are a great number of fine paintings, vaſes, buſts, and other curioſities. Among the pictures, the flower-pieces, ſome of which are done upon marble, cannot be ſufficiently enough admired; ſeveral of the chambers are hung with portraits of the cardinals who were of the Boromean family. The vaults on which the palace ſtands are contiguous to the lake, and like grottos are adorned with marble and ſhell-work. The floor is a ſort of Moſaic formed of ſmall ſtones, placed ſo as to repreſent a variety of figures. Beſides this aſſemblage of the beauties of art and nature, the lake, with its undulating waves, continually waſhes the entrance into theſe grottos; ſo that a more delightful ſummer retreat can hardly be imagined.

On going from the houſe towards the garden, the ſmell is immediately refreſhed with the mingled odours of fruits and flowers. The firſt contre-eſpalier, after aſcending a few ſteps, conſiſts of bergamot, lemon, and citron-trees; next to this appears a high range of orange-trees, beyond which you come to a lofty grotto adorned with water-works and ſtatues. Over its center is an unicorn of enormous ſize, in a ſpringing attitude, with a Cupid on his back, and on both ſides is an aſcent by ſteps to the oblong area which terminates the ten terraces.

From Iſola Bella to Iſola Madre is about half an hour's ſailing, though their great height makes them appear much nearer. The latter has ſeven terraces, which are high but ſloping, and a conſiderable diſtance from each other, by which means it appears to be lower than Iſola Bella, though according to the original plan they are of an equal height. The greateſt part of the external foundation of Iſola Madre is a high perpendicular rock, projecting conſiderably over the water, ſo that it did not require

require ſo much maſonry as Iſola Bella. That part of the front of the palace is only completed which looks towards Seſti and the above iſland, and is adorned with fine paintings of flowers, portraits, and landſcapes.

The garden of this iſland alſo abounds with beauties, particularly a fine eſpalier of citron-trees, with a low contre-eſpalier of orange-trees, an arched walk of cedars, a ſmaller eſpalier of jeſſamine, an eſpalier of acacia, and another of roſemary not leſs than eight feet in height. Here are alſo ſeveral ſmall groves of laurel, with walks cut through them. Some of theſe trees are of an uncommon thickneſs; and one of theſe eſpaliers of laurels is above eighteen feet high: ſuch a hedge, by means of the mildneſs of the air, and its being fenced from the north wind by the neighbouring mountains, ſhoots up to this height in ſix or ſeven years.

The Iſola Madre is a ſecure place for keeping of pheaſants, which are eaſily confined here on account of the great breadth of the lake: for when any of them attempt to fly over it, they ſoon flag and drop into the water, from which they are immediately taken up by a waterman who puts off for that purpoſe, and brought back. This, however, ſeldom happens; for as this iſland is larger than Iſola Bella, and abounds with every thing proper for them, as well as places for ſhelter, they ſeldom attempt to make their eſcape. There is a little houſe built for the young pheaſants, and near it a beautiful grove of lofty cypreſs trees. This appears to be the fineſt part of the iſland, and recals to one's mind the fabulous deſcriptions that have been given of enchanted groves and iſlands. The walks through this cedar plantation lead by a deſcent to the ſummer-houſe near the lake. The ſhores of both iſlands are ſet round with painted flower-pots, and when any foreign prince comes in the night, or makes ſome ſtay here, both iſlands are illuminated with lights of all colours, which exhibit a very glorious ſpectacle.

But to return, the dutchy in general is divided into the Milaneſe, properly ſo called, the earldom of Anghiera, the diſtricts of Como and Lodigiano, with a part of the Paveſe and the Cremoneſe; the two laſt of which, with their capitals, will be deſcribed in a ſeparate article.

Milan, in Latin Medilanum, the capital of the dutchy, is ſituated in the forty-fifth degree twenty-three minutes north latitude, and in the ninth degree twenty minutes eaſt longitude, and is ten Italian miles round; but would not, perhaps, take up half the ſpace, were its many gardens excluded. Its chief defence is a lined rampart. The citadel ſtands at ſome diſtance from the city, yet, being in the form of a creſcent, environs a conſiderable part of it. This conſiſts of ſix baſtions, which, with the moraſs on the land ſide, ſecures it pretty well from being approached with trenches or mines. Towards the city are two turrets, the walls of which are twelve ells in thickneſs, and faced with ſquare blocks of marble. The city is provided with a foundery for guns, and an arſenal with arms for twenty thouſand men, and over the gate is an inſcription in honour of Philip II. king of Spain, which gives him the title of defender of the faith.

The city of Milan is not to be compared for beauty and convenience with Turin, moſt of the ſtreets being narrow and crooked. Paper windows are here alſo more common than either at Turin or Florence, and have a worſe appearance; as even in the houſes of noblemen, glaſs and paper are often ſeen in the ſame window, the latter being ſtuck on to ſupply the place of a broken pane. All the houſes are covered with pantiles, and in many of the croſs ſtreets, and at the ſtations where the public proceſſions ſtop, figures are erected, ſome of marble; but moſt of them of braſs. The inhabitants are computed at three hundred thouſand.

Here are twenty-two gates, two hundred and thirty churches, of which ninety-ſix are parochial, ninety convents, a hundred religious fraternities, and a hundred and twenty ſchools. The archbiſhop's cathedral, dedicated to St. Maria and Thecla, is four hundred and eighty feet in length, and is built in the Gothic taſte. It excels in the number of its ornaments and ſculptures, with which it is entirely covered both within and without; and, to form a true idea of this edifice, it is neceſſary to conceive a vaſt collection of roſes, trees animals, pyramids, groteſques, ſtatues, and a thouſand other varieties, mingled without taſte or regularity. The ſtatues are done by good hands, and ſome of them deſerve admiration, particularly one of St. Bartholomew juſt flayed, and his ſkin hanging over his ſhoulders; though ſome give the preference to thoſe of Adam and Eve over the main portal. The great number of pillars that ſupport the roof, many of which can ſcarce be fathomed by three men, are all of marble, of which every where, both without and within the church, there is a vaſt profuſion. Between the pillars are placed large paintings repreſenting the life of St. Charles Boromeo, and among other paſſages his ſelling the principality of Doria, and in one day diſtributing eighty thouſand dollars among the poor. Near theſe are ſilver votive offerings to the weight of ſome thouſands of ounces, repreſenting heads, ears, and other parts of the body, which had been hurt or diſeaſed, but ſuppoſed to have been reſtored to perfect ſoundneſs by the interceſſion of St. Boromeo. The ſilverſmiths expoſe to ſale ſuch votive pieces of different ſizes ready made, that a recovered patient may immediately pay his vow, leſt his gratitude ſhould be cooled by delay.

The church is paved with Moſaic work, formed of pieces of red, black, and white marble, inlaid ſo as to repreſent circles, foliage, feſtoons, flowers, &c. ſo that when it is viewed from the cupola, it reſembles a beautiful carpet.

The tabernacle in the choir, where the hoſt is kept, is ſupported by four angels of braſs of the ſize of a man, and at ſome diſtance on each ſide ſtands another angel. The ſtalls of the prebends are made of walnut-tree, on which all the remarkable actions of the emperor Theodoſius and St. Ambroſe are admirably executed in ſculpture, and every action repreſented on a diſtinct compartment. The canons are divided into three claſſes, thirty of which are nobles, and, like cardinals, wear a red veſtment. The ſecond claſs conſiſts of wealthy citizens, who are cloathed in green; and the reſt wear the common habit of the clergy.

The two chancels facing the entrance of the choir are encompaſſed with fine braſs ſtatues, and its outſide contains the hiſtory of the New Teſtament, admirably expreſſed in baſſo relievo upon white marble, by Andrea Biffi; but the beſt of them is that of the birth of Chriſt, which is accounted a maſter-piece.

The body of St. Charles Boromeo is placed on the altar of a ſubterraneous chapel, directly under the principal cupola; it is dreſſed in epiſcopal robes, and depoſited in a cryſtal ſhrine within a coffin made of wood. There is but one key to it, which is kept by the archbiſhop, without whoſe order this relic is not to be ſeen. The walls of the chapel are almoſt every where lined with ſilver; but the epitaph is on marble. Every fourth of November this body is expoſed with great ſolemnity and devotion. The treaſury is extremely rich, and contains a prodigious number of gold and ſilver veſſels, buſtos, ſtatues, oſtenſoria, rings, chalices, crucifixes, &c. of which the metal is the leaſt valuable part. Among theſe is a ſilver image of St. Boromeo, bigger than the life, with a diamond crucifix of immenſe value, hanging at his breaſt. The front of the mitre, which is always put upon the deceaſed archbiſhop's head when his body is carried in proceſſion, is entirely covered with pearls.

On the roof of the choir hangs one of the nails with which it is pretended Chriſt was faſtened to the croſs; it is caſed in cryſtal, and near it is a machine by which ſix perſons at once may be drawn up to it. On the third of May, the feſtival of the invention of the croſs, this relic is carried about in a grand proceſſion, the archbiſhop holding it under a magnificent canopy, the whole body of the clergy, the governor-general, and the principal perſons of the city aſſiſting at the ceremony. Among other curioſities ſhewn here, is a piece of Aaron's rod, which, however, the church of St. John de Lateran at Rome pretends to have quite entire; ſome pieces of it are alſo ſhewn in the palace church at Hanover among the relics which Henry, ſurnamed the Lion, brought from the Holy Land.

A marble

A marble ſtair-caſe carried round one of the main pillars, leads up to the firſt outward gallery. Here is a marble ſtatue of duke John Galeazzo Viſconti, on the top of a pyramid, with a flag in his hand. This duke in 1386 laid the foundation of this edifice. Many ſtatues of ſaints, dukes, and other eminent perſonages, ſtand round this gallery. The roof of this church will be entirely covered with marble, part of it being ſo already. The large ſquare blocks of marble uſed for this purpoſe are ſo cloſely cemented together with ſtucco, that no rain can penetrate through the joints. Hence it may be eaſily conceived that the pillars and arches muſt ſuſtain an immenſe weight. Upon one ſide of this gallery are marble ſtatues of all the architects who have conducted the building of this church.

On mounting ninety-one ſteps higher, you come to a gallery which leads round the inſide, and at the height of thirty or forty ſteps above this gallery, hang three large bells, one of which was conſecrated by St. Charles Boromeo; and here, through an aperture, is a view of the inſide of the principal cupola, which is divided into a great number of ſquare compartments, and adorned with ſeventy-ſix ſtatues. Four flights of ſteps, and other curious works enriched with ſtatues, bring you to the top of the cupola.

With reſpect to the outſide of this church, the eaſtern part, or that belonging to the choir, is completed; but the part moſt expoſed to view, particularly the front towards the great ſquare, is in a bad condition; probably that perſons of fortune and a liberal diſpoſition may be incited to contribute largely towards it. It is already four hundred and fifty years ſince the church was begun, and the whole ſquare behind it is filled with workmen employed in ſawing, cutting, and poliſhing the marble; and there is reaſon to believe that ſomething or other will always remain to be done, a yearly income of eighteen thouſand crowns being levied till the church ſhall be entirely completed. It is pretended that two thouſand ſtatues are ſtill wanting for the front, and that the other parts of the edifice require at leaſt five thouſand. The number of ſtatues about the church ſo long ago as the year 1714, amounted to four thouſand four hundred; and ſome affirm, that above ſix hundred of thoſe already ſet up, are worth a thouſand dollars each: but it is not improbable, that in theſe computations, the word ſtatue is a little overſtrained beyond its uſual import.

Oppoſite to the cathedral ſtands the archbiſhop's palace, a very ſpacious building that has two courts, in one of which are the ſtatues of St. Charles Boromeo, and St. Ambroſe; the latter with an iron rod in his hand, as an emblem of his heroic oppoſition to the emperor Theodoſius. This palace has a communication with the cathedral by a ſubterraneous paſſage.

With reſpect to marble ſculptures, paintings, gilding, and ſtucco-work, St. Alexander's church ſurpaſſes any in Milan, except the cathedral. The high altar of this church, the chancel, and two confeſſionals, are enriched with lapis lazuli, agate, jaſper, and other gems. The life of this ſaint is painted on canvas in ſeveral compartments.

The church of St. Ambroſe is divided between the Bernardines and the canons regular. The choir is common between them, and is, as well as the cupola, adorned with Moſaic-work. The tabernacle for the hoſt ſtands between four pillars of porphyry. Near the chancel is ſhewn upon a marble pillar, a brazen ſerpent, which the vulgar believe to be the ſame which Moſes ſet up in the wilderneſs, though others, more modeſt, judge it to be made only of ſome fragments of the former; while others again imagine it to be a ſymbolical image of the god Æſculapius. However, on Eaſter Tueſday, a great number of ſickly children are placed before it, from a ſuperſtitious expectation of their being reſtored to health.

The body of St. Ambroſe is depoſited near the high altar. The gates of the portal are by tradition ſaid to be the ſame which St. Ambroſe ſhut againſt the emperor Theodoſius, till he had done penance for his cruelly maſſacring the inhabitants of Theſſalonica on account of a ſedition. Pilgrims generally pick little ſplinters out of theſe gates, and carry them away as ſacred relics.

The Ambroſian college, which ſtands near the center of the city, is a foundation for teaching the ſeveral branches of literature, where youth are inſtructed gratis by ſixteen profeſſors. What is here principally worth a traveller's notice is the library, which, except in vacation time, is open every morning from ten to twelve, and alſo two hours in the afternoon. It contains forty-five thouſand printed volumes; but theſe, however, are far leſs valuable than its treaſure of manuſcripts, which are ſaid to amount to fifteen thouſand; but though this number is probably much exaggerated, it muſt be acknowledged to contain ſome good pieces. The moſt curious manuſcripts in the whole library are, a tranſlation of Joſephus's hiſtory of the Jews by Rufinus, it being reputed to be above one thouſand three hundred, or according to others, one thouſand one hundred years old, and written on the bark of a tree; and the works of Leonardo da Vinci. Mr. Addiſon obſerves, that in the Ambroſian library is ſhewn the Italian genius; for they have ſpent more money on pictures than on books; but among the heads of ſeveral learned men, there is no Engliſhman to be met with except biſhop Fiſher, whom Henry VIII. cauſed to be beheaded for not owning his ſupremacy. Books are indeed the leaſt part of the furniture which people uſually go to ſee in an Italian library; for theſe are generally ſet off, after the example of the old Greeks and Romans, with pictures, ſtatues, and other ornaments, where they can afford them.

In an apartment behind the library are ſeveral rarities often mentioned by travellers, as a head of Titian by his own hand, with the pictures of perſons eminent for their learning, among which are thoſe of Lucretia Cornara, and Iſabella de Roſales; the former of whom was miſtreſs of ſeven languages, and by her ſkill in philoſophy, gained the applauſe of the univerſity of Padua.

In the Ambroſian college is alſo an academy of painting, where, in the ſummer months, the artiſts both in painting and ſculpture frequently draw and make models from the life.

Some adjacent rooms ſerve for a muſeum, where, among other curioſities, is the ſkeleton of a woman of great beauty, who directed that her bones ſhould be diſpoſed of in this manner, that the living, by viewing the dead, might be better able to reſtore health to the ſick. There is here alſo an image which walks about the room, and performs many geſtures by clock-work.

The church of St. Angelo, beſides the ſtatues in the front, has abundance of fine paintings and marble ſculptures; as has alſo the church of St. Antonio del Fuoco, which, among other paintings, has a fine piece by Annibal Carracci, and is adorned with inlaid work in the Florentine taſte, conſiſting of pieces of oriental marble, mother of pearl, and gems, in the form of birds and flowers, and altar-pieces of the fineſt Florentine marble.

Before the main entrance of St. Celſo's church are two large ſtatues of Adam and Eve; the latter is particularly eſteemed a maſter-piece. In the front are four fine ſtatues of the Evangeliſts, alſo of white marble, with many other ſtatues, whoſe pedeſtals are of braſs. In the church are ſeveral fine pictures, as alſo the tomb of Annibal Fontana, the famous ſculptor, with a pompous inſcription, in which it is ſaid that nature ſtood amazed while he transformed marble into men.

The church of St. Francis is remarkable for the maſſacre of the innocents, painted in freſco over the great altar, and the picture of our Saviour's feeding five thouſand people.

The church of St. Giovanni da Caſarotti is ſmall, but adorned with decorations in marble: it has a vault for the interment of executed criminals, and belongs to the fraternity of Cavalieri, who wear a ſmall croſs upon one ſhoulder on their upper garment, and are of the beſt families in Milan. It is an indiſpenſible duty incumbent on this order, that when a malefactor is to be executed, ſome of the members viſit him the night before, in order to prepare him for the other world. At the place of execution, one of the moſt eminent among them aſcends a ladder up to the gallows, holding the crucifix before the criminal, who goes up backwards, and at parting pronounces the benediction; while the capu-

chins

chins, whoſe uſual office is here to attend criminals in their laſt hours, remain below. On this occaſion two ladders are placed againſt the gallows, one for the executioner and the criminal, and the other for the cavalier, who attends maſked, and when the criminal is dead, cuts him down. Others of the fraternity aſſiſt in taking up the dead body, and carrying it to the chapel in order to be interred. The fraternity have, however, few opportunities of performing theſe humble offices at Milan; for the ſoldiers are exempt from the civil juriſdiction, they being tried by martial law; and ſuch is the fertility of the ſoil, and the opulence of the people, that even the poor by begging find no difficulty in obtaining ſubſiſtence, without taking to dangerous courſes. Beſides, the privilege of ſanctuary granted to churches and monaſteries, ſhelters many criminals from the hands of juſtice.

The church of St. Paolo, belonging to the Bernardine nuns, is remarkable for its fine frontiſpiece, upon which is a ſtatue of the Madonna di Loretto, and the converſion of St. Paul, in baſſo relievo, on a ſingle piece of white marble, in which the efforts of the horſe to recover from his aſtoniſhment are moſt admirably expreſſed. Within the church the whole life of that apoſtle is repreſented in ſeveral beautiful pictures, by four brothers of the name of Campi, who are natives of Verona. The moſt remarkable of the other paintings are the decollation of John the Baptiſt, the Lord's ſupper, and Chriſt committing to St. Peter the power of the keys.

The church De la Paſſione is one of the fineſt eccleſiaſtical buildings in the city, particularly its front, which is crowded with excellent ſtatues, and ſcripture hiſtories in baſſo relievos. It belongs to the canons regular, who reſide in a very ſtately building adjacent to it. In their refectory the Lord's ſupper is excellently painted, according to ſome, by Chriſtopher Cibo; but others attribute it to Gaudentio. Their garden is very large, with pleaſure-walks arched over by vines, and a very fine gallery adorned on both ſides with ſtatues of black and white marble.

What appears very ſingular is, that both here and in other churches of the Milaneſe, the entrances are crowded with old women ſpinning, or buſy about ſome other employment. As they do not beg, they probably conceive it to be a work of merit to ſpend the whole day, as it were, in the houſe of God.

In moſt churches of Milan the Ambroſian ritual is uſed, which differs from the Romiſh only in ſome forms of prayer, and a few ceremonies; but the convents of regulars adhere to the Romiſh.

Among the charitable foundations, the principal is the great hoſpital, a noble building, founded by duke Franciſco Sforza. The middle court of this ſtructure is ſurrounded by a piazza, each ſide conſiſting of twenty arches, ſupported by marble pillars, and is two hundred and fifty feet ſquare, with three galleries running round the building. Beſides this large court, there are eight ſmaller, and twenty-four wards for the ſick and wounded, who are diſtributed according to their different diſeaſes. The conſumptive patients have their particular ward, another is appointed for fevers, a third for the ſmall pox, a fourth for the venereal diſeaſe, &c. There are ſometimes four hundred patients in the fever ward, which is very long, and in the form of a croſs, with an altar in the center; ſo that all the patients may ſee it from their beds. In the admiſſion of expoſed foundlings, or of the ſick and wounded, no difference is made with regard to country or religion. The proteſtants lie in the ſame wards with the other patients, but at the farther end; and while the hoſt is elevated or carried about, a curtain is drawn between them and the reſt. Thus, by a very commendable and humane indulgence, the adoration of the hoſt is diſpenſed with, and the conſcience freed from all compulſion; nor are ſtrangers obliged to kneel on meeting the hoſt, either in the churches or ſtreets.

The number of patients exceeds one thouſand five hundred, the females being diſtributed into nine particular wards, and the officers and ſervants of all ranks are ſaid to amount to five hundred.

At the expence of the hoſpital, but at another place, are maintained about three hundred idiots and lunatics, and alſo above five thouſand foundlings, ſome of whom are kept in the country. The boys are brought up to handicraft trades, and the girls are taught the uſe of the needle and houſhold buſineſs. It has been ſometimes known, that perſons in good circumſtances, having no legitimate children, or near relations, have taken a child out of this hoſpital, and adopted it as their own. Its annual income amounts to ninety or one hundred thouſand dollars. The inquiſition in this city chiefly exerciſes its ſeverities on the Jews, for none of that perſuaſion muſt come within the city, without firſt making his appearance before this tribunal, and at the Dominican convent in the ſuburbs of the Porta Vercellina. This court, beſides eccleſiaſtics, conſiſts of ſixty noblemen, and one hundred and fifty reputable merchants.

It is ſurprizing what a number of miſhapen dwarfs, and people afflicted with wens of a monſtrous ſize, are to be found in the ſtreets of Milan.

In moſt of the Milaneſe inns, a young traveller is generally aſked whether he would have a letto fornito, which means a female bedfellow, who never unmaſks till ſhe enters the bed-chamber. How dangerous is this to the morals of young travellers! and to what an extreme riſque is their health expoſed, while it depends on the choice of a mercenary landlord!

In the neighbourhood of the city are many beautiful ſeats, among which, that of the marquis Simonetti's villa, a few miles from Milan, is particularly remarkable for its ſurprizing echo, which towards the garden from two wings of the building, parallel to each other, and ſtanding at the diſtance of fifty-eight common paces, without windows or doors, diſtinctly repeats the ſound of a man's voice, but chiefly the laſt ſyllable forty times, and the report of a piſtol above ſixty.

SECT. VI.

A Deſcription of the City of Pavia, and of a celebrated Carthuſian Convent near that City; with an Account of the City of Cremona.

THE greateſt part of the Paveſe, as hath been already intimated, belongs to the king of Sardinia; and both this diſtrict and that of Cremona are included in the dutchy of Milan.

Pavia, or Ticinum, the capital of the Paveſe, is ſituated in the forty-fifth degree eighteen minutes north latitude, and in the ninth degree forty-four minutes eaſt longitude. It is a large, but old and deſolate city on the river Teſſino, with very indifferent fortifications, and a caſtle and citadel in the old taſte. The ſtreets are indeed broad and ſtraight; but the houſes are mean, and the city has no remains of its ancient ſplendor, when capital of the kingdom of Lombardy. It has nine churches, a like number of convents, and is a biſhop's ſee; but the cathedal is old and of brick, as are moſt of the public edifices. In the area before it ſtands a braſs equeſtrian ſtatue called Regiſola, by ſome thought to be Antoninus Pius, and by others Marcus Aurelius. The Auguſtine convent is only remarkable for the noble marble monument in which are ſaid to be depoſited the bones of St. Auguſtine. Its univerſity, founded by Charlemagne and re-eſtabliſhed by Charles IV. has ſeven colleges. Here is alſo another college founded by pope Pius V. whoſe ſtatue is erected before it; but a much finer of the ſame pope may be ſeen in the college.

Five miles from Pavia is a Carthuſian monument, celebrated for its magnificence. The church is remarkably ſuperb, the front being entirely of white marble, ornamented with ſculptures, and is covered with wires to ſecure it from being ſullied or damaged. Within the church is curious iron-work, a great part of which is gilt: it is ſaid to have coſt 60,000 dollars. Here are alſo twelve incomparable ſtatues of Carrara marble, four of which on the out-ſide repreſent the cardinal virtues; the other eight, which ſtand in the middle aile of the church, are the four evangeliſts, with St. Gregory, St. Auſtin, St. Ambroſe, and St. Jerom. Here are likewiſe two large baſons for holy water, of curious workmanſhip. Beſides the high altar, there are ſixteen others,

in as many chapels that ſtand oppoſite to each other, exactly alike, with regard to the marble columns and the architecture, and only differing in the paintings and ornaments before the altars. The colours and diſpoſition of the alabaſter, granates, and different kinds of marble, cannot be ſufficiently admired. Moſt of the altars are adorned in the new Florentine taſte, with exquiſite imitations of flowers, &c. formed of precious ſtones inlaid in marble. The great altar is richly adorned in this beautiful manner, and before it ſtand ſeveral bronze pyramids, and it is ornamented with a chandelier of the ſame taſte. Indeed this altar glitters with a profuſion of gems, and the tabernacle upon it is ſo curiouſly inlaid with onyx, lapis lazuli, agate, &c. that it is valued at eighty thouſand dollars. The roof of the church is blue, with ſtars of gold, in imitation of the ſky ſpangled with ſtars in a clear evening. In ſhort, the ſplendor of this ſuperb church is daily increaſing, ſome diſtinguiſhed artiſts being conſtantly retained for improving, and adding new ornaments.

The library of the convent is far from being anſwerable to its outward magnificence. The building on the right hand of the entrance into the great court has very fine apartments in the ſecond ſtory, in which the preſent empreſs was once entertained. In a little ſquare garden adjoining to the convent are water-works, with which the grave fathers take a great delight in putting tricks upon other monks of their order; and whenever the conductor intends a perſon the favour of a deluge of water, or a ſhower, there is no eſcaping it.

There is, beſides, in the area of the building a large garden of a quadrangular form, with a very beautiful walk covered over with an intertexture of vines, five hundred common paces in length, and adorned with marble ſtatues on each ſide. Oppoſite the wall of this ſpacious ſquare are the cells of the monks, built ſeparately, with a little private garden behind every cell. The number of monks in this convent amount to between fifty and ſixty.

We now come to the Cremoneſe, the laſt diſtrict we ſhall deſcribe in the duchy of Milan, which is exceeding fruitful, and, beſides delicious wine, produces great quantities of honey and flax.

Cremona is a walled city in the Cremoneſe, ſituated in the forty-fifth degree twenty minutes north latitude, and in the tenth degree thirty-ſix minutes eaſt longitude. It ſtands on the Po, which has a bridge over it guarded by a fort: it is alſo defended by a caſtle, and is five Italian miles in compaſs. Its ſquares are ſpacious, and its houſes handſome, with ſtraight and broad ſtreets. The cathedral is a magnificent ſtructure, beſides which there are ſixty-two churches, chapels, and convents.

The Dominican church is adorned with ſome good paintings, and a ſuperb altar of lapis lazuli, agate, and beautiful marble. On the cieling is ſeen the picture of the virgin Mary, who, in token of her peculiar protection, lays her mantle over three monks and as many nuns of the Dominican order. In the area before the church is a ſtatue of St. Dominic, holding a croſs in his right hand, and in his left a dog with a lighted torch in his mouth. St. Peter's church, which belongs to the canons regular, is a beautiful ſtructure, adorned with elegant paintings. The Auguſtines have a good library, and their church alſo exhibits ſeveral good pieces of painting. The univerſity in this city is now in little repute.

Cremona owes a part of its reputation to the attempt made on that city by prince Eugene in 1702. By means of a correſpondence carried on between the Imperialiſts and ſome of the citizens, and particularly with Caſoli, the curate of St. Maria Nuova, a church that ſtood near the ramparts, he got poſſeſſion of the Porta Santa and town-houſe, where marſhal Villeroy reſided, and on the firſt of February entered the city by a canal or aqueduct, through which the French had formerly ſurpriſed the place. But the troops which were to ſupport this bold enterprize, having loſt their way by the darkneſs of the night and a fog, came up too late, and gave the French time to recover from their panic, and put themſelves in a poſture of defence; ſo that the Imperialiſts were obliged to retreat, contenting themſelves with the honour of carrying off Villeroy priſoner from a garriſon of ſix thouſand men. The French, in the firſt tranſport of their rage againſt Caſoli, pulled down the church of St. Maria Nuova to the ground; ſo that nothing of it is now to be ſeen. But near the place where the church ſtood, is ſhewn the ſubterraneous paſſage through which the Germans entered the city, which is now ſecured with a ſtrong iron grate.

SECT. VII.

The Dutchy of MANTUA.

Its Situation, Extent, Produce, and beautiful Face of the Country: Its Hiſtory, and a Deſcription of the City of Mantua.

THE dutchy of Mantua, alſo called the Mantuan, is bounded on the eaſt by the dutchy of Ferrara and the Padovan, on the north by Breſciano and the Veroneſe, on the weſt by the Milaneſe, and on the ſouth by Modena and Mirandola, extending about fifty-ſix Engliſh miles in length, and forty in breadth.

Its principal river is the Po, beſides which it is alſo watered by the rivers Oglio, Menſo, Secchia, and ſome others, all which diſcharge themſelves into the Po.

The country abounds in corn, fruit, vegetables for the kitchen, with ſome wine, great quantities of flax, and a conſiderable number of good horſes. In winter, after great rains, the road between Cremona and Mantua, which are forty Italian miles diſtant, is almoſt impaſſable, from the ſoftneſs and depth of the ſoil: but this inconvenience is fully compenſated by the exuberant fertility of the whole country; and one cannot ſufficiently admire the verdure of the fields and meadows, which are divided by beautiful rows of trees, with abundance of vines twining round their trunks and ſpreading among their branches. The great number of nightingales that frequent this tract of land, by their plaintive warblings, render the charming ſcene ſtill more delightful. Indeed a perſon who makes any ſtay in Italy, is ſo accuſtomed to fine proſpects and enchanting landſcapes, that they in time grow familiar to his eye, and are leſs regarded than when they firſt preſented themſelves to his view.

With reſpect to the hiſtory of this country, Lewis Gonzaga, having extirpated the Bonacolſi family, made himſelf maſter of Mantua in their room: he was of German deſcent, and took upon him the title of imperial vicar of Mantua, for which he appears to have obtained permiſſion from the emperor Lewis of Bavaria, though the pope refuſed to acknowledge him as ſuch. He was ſucceeded by his iſſue both in the government of Mantua and the imperial vicarſhip. In 1432 John Francis obtained from the emperor Sigiſmond the title of marquis, and Frederic II. who was created a duke by the emperor Charles V. by marriage obtained Montferrat, which was afterwards alſo raiſed to a dukedom. At length, on the acceſſion of Philip duke of Anjou to the crown of Spain, the duke of Mantua, in conſideration of receiving ſixty thouſand piſtoles, and a monthly ſubſidy of thirty-ſix thouſand dollars for maintaining a French garriſon of four thouſand men, admitted the French troops into his capital. France alſo engaged to procure him the reſtitution of the poſſeſſions that formerly belonged to the houſe of Gonzaga in Italy, and to make good the damages he ſuffered by the approaching war. But this league with France proved his ruin; he was on that account put under the ban of the empire, and in 1703 the emperor transferred to the duke of Savoy that part of the dutchy of Montferrat which the dukes of Mantua enjoyed as a fief. Two years after the Imperialiſts over-ran the whole dutchy of Mantua, and in 1708 duke Charles IV. dying under the ban of the empire, the houſe of Auſtria has continued in poſſeſſion of this dutchy, which is now annexed to the government of the Milaneſe.

Mantua, the capital of the dutchy, is ſituated in the forty-fifth degree twelve minutes north latitude, and in the eleventh degree thirty-four minutes eaſt longitude, and ſtands on a lake, or moraſs, formed by the inundations of the Mincio, twenty Italian miles in circumference, and two broad. The ſeveral parts of this lake have different names, and the two chief bridges extending over it to the city are Ponte di Molini, defended by

two

two citadels, and Ponte di St. Giorgio, with fortifications at both ends. The city is divided by the water into two almoſt equal parts, that have a communication with each other by means of ſix bridges. In the heat of ſummer, when the lake is low and ſtagnates, the air becomes ſo noxious, that the wealthy part of the inhabitants leave the city. The greateſt part of the ſtreets are long, broad, and ſtraight; and the city abounds with handſome ſtone houſes, fine ſquares, and magnificent churches.

On the other ſide of the lake are three ſuburbs, namely, to the north Porto Fortezza, to the north-eaſt Il Borgo di St. Giorgio, and to the ſouth Il Thé. The walls, which in ſome places are fortified with baſtions, and in others plain, are computed to be about four miles in circuit. Here are in all four collegiate churches, twenty-one parochial, fourteen other churches and alms-houſes, eleven oratories, forty convents, and without the city three pariſh churches, two other churches, and ſeven convents. The Jews, of whom there are about four or five thouſand, live in a diſtinct quarter. The number of inhabitants, excluſive of the garriſon, was formerly computed at fifty thouſand: but in this century, ſince no court has been kept there, the number has ſo decreaſed, that the inhabitants ſcarce exceed ſixteen thouſand.

In the cathedral, which is the work of Julio Romano, and is a magnificent ſtructure, are ſeen paintings of the moſt celebrated maſters, as the calling of Peter and Andrew to the apoſtleſhip; the martyrdom of a female ſaint, whoſe breaſts are torn off with pincers: but the fineſt of all is a night-piece of St. Antonio del Fuoco, by Paul Veroneſe, and cannot be viewed without admiration. The cathedral is very ſpacious, and divided by rows of pillars into five ailes. The church of St. Anthony is more famous for relics than any other in Mantua, a conſiderable quantity, as it is pretended, of the blood of Chriſt being kept in a ſubterraneous chapel with ſixteen altars, and once every year ſhewn to the people. They alſo here pretend to have the blood of St. Longinus. The Franciſcan church has an elegant inſide, and ſuch as few of the Mendicant order can ſhew in Italy: it has alſo a good library.

The building that was antiently the ducal palace, is far from being a modern ſtructure, but is very large. The ducal gallery and muſeum, which was once famous, was in the year 1630 pillaged by the Imperialiſts under general Colalto, who took the city by ſtorm; and all the curioſities, which were worth ſome millions, fell into the hands of the ſoldiers, by whom they were partly deſtroyed and partly diſſipated, or ſold to perſons who knew little of their value. At that time a common ſoldier was ſo lucky as to get a booty of eighty ducats; but was ſo bad an œconomiſt as to game it all away in one night, for which Colalto cauſed him to be hanged the next day. However, ſome apartments in the palace are worth ſeeing, the cieling being painted by Julio Romano, and they contain ſeveral tables of Florentine work inlaid with very beautiful pieces of lapis-lazuli and agate; ſome marble ſtatues and buſts; a Moor's head on a pedeſtal of white marble, with a turban ſo curiouſly inlaid, as to imitate very exactly a kind of Indian ſtuff; two large pieces of painting by Palma, two others by Coſta, and a female ſaint in a chapel painted by Annibal Caracci. Here are alſo two galleries of portraits, and three ſaloons, which are ſomewhat dark, but well painted in freſco; however, but little care is taken to preſerve them. The beſt thing here is the academy, which indeed for the grotto-work, pillars, ſculpture, galleries, and height, has not its equal of the kind. However, a moſt valuable treaſure of gold and ſilver crowns, ſtatues, relics, and other altar-furniture, ſtill remain in the palace church, where are likewiſe ſeen two capital pictures of ineſtimable value, one of the baptiſm of Conſtantine the Great, and the other of the martyrdom of St. Andrew, both by Coſta.

The ſilk and other manufactures, and the general commerce of the city, were formerly extremely flouriſhing, but are now very inconſiderable.

At the diſtance of half a league from Mantua is the palace of Thé, ſo called from its being built in the form of a T. The Imperial ſoldiers are now quartered on the ground-floor, but more care is taken of the upper apartments, on account of the fine paintings in freſco. Julio Romano drew the plan and elevation of this palace; moſt of the pictures were painted from his deſigns, and not a few of them received the finiſhing ſtrokes from his pencil: the moſt admired are the fall of Phaeton, and Jupiter's victory over the giants.

At the diſtance of two Italian miles from Mantua is the duke's menagerie, called Virgiliana, from the grotto where Virgil is ſaid to have paſſed the ſtudious hours of youth; and near it is Pietola, antiently called Andes, which was the birth-place of Virgil.

SECT. VIII.

Of the Dutchies of PARMA, PLACENTIA, *and* GUASTALLA.

Their Situation, Extent, Produce, and Rivers. Their Hiſtory; with a Deſcription of the Cities of Parma and Placentia.

THE following countries, including Guaſtalla and Modena, were, by the treaty of Aix la Chapelle, ceded by the houſe of Auſtria and king of Sardinia to the infant Don Philip, and from him were to deſcend to his male heirs; but in caſe of his dying without male iſſue, or that any of his deſcendants ſhould be ſeated on the throne of the Two Sicilies, or Spain, theſe dominions were to revert to the former poſſeſſors; that is, to the houſe of Auſtria and the king of Sardinia.

The dutchies of Parma and Placentia have always been united. To the northward and weſtward they terminate on the Milaneſe; to the ſouthward on the territories of Genoa; and to the eaſtward on the dutchy of Milan; extending fifty-ſix miles from eaſt to weſt, and forty-four from north to ſouth.

The ſoil is extremely fertile, eſpecially in the production of olive-trees, large truffles, and cheſnuts. The paſtures and cattle are likewiſe very fine, particularly about Placentia, where the meadows may be laid under water from a ſmall river, which, from its ſlimy water, fertilizes the ground. However, the celebrated Parmeſan cheeſe is no longer made in this country, but at Lodi in the Milaneſe, at Trino, Bologna, and ſome other places. Petroleum, or rock-oil, is gathered in many places, and ſome without any mixture of water, as at Miano and Vizzole; but in other parts it is found floating on the ſurface of the water. There are here alſo found ſexangular-cryſtals, and in the Apennine mountains, which run along the ſouth frontiers of this country, are copper and iron mines.

The principal rivers are the Lenza, which partly divides the dutchy of Parma from Modena; the Taro, which riſes in the dominions of Genoa, and is larger than the Lenza; both theſe, with the Nura and Trebia, diſcharge themſelves into the Po.

The cities of Parma and Placentia were for a conſiderable time ſubject to the Roman empire; yet, like other Italian ſtates, ſtruggled for liberty, but have ſeveral times changed their maſters. They have been governed by France, and by the popes; and at length pope Paul III. in the year 1545, conferred them on his natural ſon Peter Alviſius Farneſe. Many diſputes have ſince ariſen in relation to theſe dutchies; but in the quadruple alliance of 1717 it was agreed, that on the demiſe of the duke of Tuſcany and Parma, Don Carlos, the infant of Spain, ſhould ſucceed to theſe countries; but Anthony, the laſt duke of the Farneſe line, dying in 1731, without male iſſue, the infant Don Carlos was inveſted with the poſſeſſion of thoſe dutchies; but in 1735, it was ſtipulated in the preliminary articles of peace, that Don Carlos ſhould be king of the Two Sicilies, and that the emperor ſhould poſſeſs the dutchies of Parma and Placentia. Thus they continued in the houſe of Auſtria till the peace of Aix la Chapelle in 1748, when they were ceded to the infant Don Philip.

The prince's annual revenue is computed at between five and ſix hundred thouſand ſcudi.

Parma

Parma is the capital of the duchy of the ſame name, and is a large and populous city, ſeated on the river Parma, which divides it into two parts, in the forty-fourth degree forty-five minutes north latitude, and in the eleventh degree eaſt longitude. The ſtreets are long and broad, and the houſes are in general tolerably elegant. It is of a circular form, and about three miles round. The fortifications are far from being conſiderable; but on the eaſt ſide ſtands a ſtrong citadel. The ducal palace is on the ſouth ſide of the river, and has a communication with the citadel by means of a bridge. It conſiſts of three parts, two of which are newly built; but the gallery, which was formerly remarkable for its ineſtimable collection of paintings, medals, antiquities, and other curioſities, together with the library, was ſtripped by Don Carlos, who carried away with him every thing of value to Naples: ſo that the chief thing remarkable in this city is, the large theatre built by duke Renatus I. in the year 1618, in the form of a Roman amphitheatre: the pit is ſixty-five common paces in length, and the ſtage ſixty-two. In the former are twelve rows of ſeats, riſing behind each other, and above them two galleries. There is alſo a ſmaller theatre in an adjoining hall.

Parma has ſeveral pompous churches, and its biſhop is ſuffragan to the archbiſhop of Bologna. The cathedral is a noble edifice, that has ſeveral rows of Corinthian columns on the outſide, and the cupola is beautifully painted by Correggio, and repreſents the aſſumption of the Virgin Mary. Near this ſtructure is the church called Il Battiſterio, the outſide of which is covered with marble. In this edifice, which is of great antiquity, all children born in the city, and within two miles round, muſt be baptized; and here, on Eaſter eve, the proviſion of holy water is prepared for the whole city.

Here is an univerſity, which was founded in 1599 by duke Renatus I. and alſo an academy inſtituted for the nobility in 1601, by the ſame patron of the ſciences. It is under the direction of the Jeſuits, and two hundred and fifty noblemen are admitted at once.

There are here manufactured great quantities of ſilk ſtockings, and indeed ſilk is the only commodity foreigners take from hence. This city and Placentia warmly diſpute the precedence. In 1734 the French and Sardinian forces fortified themſelves ſo well in the neighbourhood of this city, that being attacked by the imperial general count Merci, he loſt his life, and the troops he had commanded were obliged to retire.

There are only a few inconſiderable towns in this duchy, beſides the above capital.

The city of Placentia, called by the natives Piacenza, is pretty large, and deſervedly obtained its name, which ſignifies pleaſantneſs, from its ſituation in a moſt rich and delightful country, at a ſmall diſtance from the Po. It is ſeated in the forty-fifth degree north latitude, and in the tenth degree twenty-four minutes eaſt longitude. Its fortifications are inconſiderable, but the citadel is pretty ſtrong. The ſtreets are ſtraight, and the principal ſtreet, called Stradone, the place of reſort for taking the air, is twenty-five common paces broad, and three thouſand feet long, in a direct line, with ſix hundred ſtone poſts for ſeparating the foot from the carriage way, and on both ſides are eleven ſpacious convents. The other buildings of the city are not very remarkable, though it contains forty-five churches, twenty-eight convents, and two alms-houſes.

The cathedral is pretty much in the Gothic taſte; but the church of the Auguſtines is reckoned the moſt beautiful, and eſteemed worthy of its architect, the celebrated Vignoli. In its veſtry is a ſingular curioſity repreſenting the crucifixion, cut on a piece of wood by an unknown artiſt, who has taken pains to illuſtrate that great event with a multiplicity of figures, ſome on horſeback, others on foot, and all inimitably executed. St. Maria in Compagna is alſo a very fine church, and St. Sixtus's church has a moſt beautiful monument of black and white marble, with the ſtatue of Margaret of Auſtria, conſort of duke Octavius. The ducal palace, though large, makes no great appearance on the outſide; but within are ſome good apartments. In the area before the town-houſe, ſtand two admirable braſs ſtatues of Alexander and Renatus IV. both of the houſe of Farneſe, and dukes of Parma and Placentia.

The biſhop is ſuffragan to the archbiſhop of Milan. Here is alſo an univerſity. At this city begins the Via Æmilia, which extends as far as Rimini on the Adriatic.

This duchy has alſo no other town beſides its capital worthy of notice.

The duchy of Guaſtalla is about twelve miles in length, and five in breadth, and with the principalities of Sabionetta and Bozzolo, was formerly ſubject to the houſe of Mantua; but on the death of Joſeph Maria in 1746, Maria Thereſa, queen of Hungary and Bohemia, took poſſeſſion of the duchy; but in 1748, reſigned it by the treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle to the infant Don Philip.

The principal town of this duchy is Guaſtalla, which is a ſtrong place ſeated near the river Po, on the confines of the duchy of Modena, fifteen miles to the north of Reggio, and is remarkable for a battle fought near it between the French and Imperialiſts, in 1734, to the diſadvantage of the latter.

SECT. IX.

The Dutchy of MODENA.

Its Situation, Extent, and Produce; with a Deſcription of the City of Modena, and the other Places moſt worthy of Notice.

THE duchy of Modena is ſurrounded by the duchies of Parma and Mantua, the eccleſiaſtical ſtate, the duchy of Florence, and the republic of Lucca; extending fifty-ſix miles from north to ſouth, and between twenty-four and thirty-ſix from eaſt to weſt.

This country abounds in corn, garden-fruits, excellent wine, and other productions. Near St. Paolo is found an excellent alcaline earth, ſometimes as a powder, but more frequently as a moiſt oleaginous tophus, which being pulverized is bright, ſmooth, white, and quite inſipid: it is uſed as an excellent remedy againſt poiſon, fevers, dyſenteries, and hypochondriac diſorders. In the mountain Caſtello di Monte Baronzone, and at Fiunetto, are wells from forty to ſixty feet deep, and on the water floats a reddiſh petroleum, which abounds moſt in ſpring and autumn. Theſe wells are incloſed, and every fortnight the oil is ſkimmed off the ſurface. Caſtello di Monte Gibbio has wells of the ſame nature, which are not only perpetual, but yield a yellowiſh oil, eſteemed the beſt in the country, and is uſed for embalming, varniſhing, painting, and as an ingredient in ſome medicinal preparations. At Saſſo and Quercola amber is dug out of a ſoil impregnated with petroleum.

Two Italian miles from Saſſuolo is an aperture in the earth, which frequently, but moſt commonly in ſpring and autumn, emits ſmoke, flames, aſhes, and ſtones of a ſtrong ſulphureous ſmell, which it ſometimes throws ſixty or eighty feet high. Theſe eruptions are often attended with a very loud noiſe; the hill upon which is this aperture is quite barren, and during the time that the aſhes and ſtones are briſkly thrown out, the petroleous wells of Saſſo and Monte Gibbio are very turbid. This hill alſo affords ſeveral kinds of petrifactions.

The chief rivers of Modena are the Croſtolo, the Secchia, and the Panaro.

The duchy of Modena, properly ſo called, has its name from its capital, and, beſides that, and the places dependent on it, contains the province of Frignano, the valley of Cartagnana, the diſtrict of Soraggio, the dutchy of Reggio, the principalities of Corregio, Carpi Novellara, the earldom of Rivolo, and the dutchy of Mirandola; the principal places in which are the following:

Modena, in Latin Mutina, the capital of the whole country, and the uſual reſidence of the duke, is a pretty large and populous city; but the ſtreets are narrow, and the houſes without either beauty or ſymmetry. It is ſeated in a ſpacious plain between the rivers Panaro and Secchia, in the forty-fourth degree thirty minutes latitude, and in the eleventh degree twenty-ſeven minutes longitude, and is almoſt of a circular form. It appears moſt beautiful at a diſtance, from the great number of

its ſteeples and towers, eſpecially that of the cathedral, which is very high and large; but neither the ſtreets nor houſes are handſome, nor the fortifications in good repair. The citadel is, however, a good regular fortreſs, but is on a level with the town; and though the houſes in all parts have piazzas, they are both low and dark, and the churches in general are very little worthy of notice, though there are ſome fine ones. In a chamber under the tower of the cathedral is hung up by an iron chain the bucket of a well, with iron hoops; it was taken in a petty war from the inhabitants of Bologna, and is here preſerved as a monument of courage and victory. The handſomeſt churches are thoſe of the Jeſuits, of the Theatines, and of St. Dominic. The Jeſuits church, in particular, is extremely beautiful, and the roof painted from a deſign of father Boſſi. The altars are very elegant, and behind the high altar is the hiſtory of St. Bartholomew, painted in ſeveral capital pictures by Procaccini. The biſhop is a ſuffragan to the archbiſhop of Bologna. In the college founded by St. Boromeo ſeventy or eighty young noblemen are maintained and inſtructed. The ducal palace is indeed a noble and ſplendid ſtructure, and the gallery of pictures, including the lobby, conſiſts of ſix rooms, all filled with ſelect pieces of the moſt famous maſters: the moſt admired is Corregio's night-piece, repreſenting the birth of Chriſt, with the Virgin Mary and the ſhepherds: the refulgence from the child, who lies in his mother's lap, in a moſt beautiful manner ſhines on the faces of the virgin and the ſhepherds, and illuminates the whole piece. The houſe of Eſté has been in poſſeſſion of this duchy ever ſince the year 1288.

The city of Reggio, the capital of a duchy of the ſame name, was anciently called Regium Lepidi, and is ſituated in a very fertile plain, in the thirty-eighth degree twenty-eight minutes north latitude, and in the fifteenth degree fifty minutes eaſt longitude. It is a ſmall but very handſome and ſtrong city. The citadel is ſaid to have been built by Charles the Great, who is alſo ſuppoſed to have rebuilt the city, and to have ſurrounded it with a ſtrong wall, which is ſtill ſo firm that a cannon ball can make but little impreſſion upon it. In the heart of the city is a ſquare, adorned with the ſtatue of the famous Brennus, a Gauliſh chief, which is highly eſteemed by the connoiſſeurs, and the inſcriptions round the pedeſtal are no leſs curious.

Reggio is the ſee of a biſhop ſuffragan to the archbiſhop of Bologna, and its cathedral is a large building of the Gothic order, adorned on the inſide with a great variety of ſtatues and paintings by the beſt maſters.

The city of Mirandola is very large, ſtrong, and beautiful, and is ſaid to have been built by Conſtans the ſon of Conſtantine the Great. It is ſituated in the forty-fourth degree fifty minutes latitude, and in the eleventh degree forty-five minutes eaſt longitude, twenty-ſix miles to the ſouth-eaſt of Mantua. It is ſurrounded with ſtrong and high ramparts, with ſeven baſtions and other works, and is defended by a good citadel. It is the ſee of a biſhop, and, beſides its cathedral, has fifteen churches and convents. In 1702 it was ſtrongly fortified by the Imperialiſts, and in 1705 taken by the French; but in 1707 ſurrenpered again. In 1734 and the following year the Imperialiſts bravely defended it, and repulſed the enemy.

We ſhall next deſcribe the four independent republics, Venice, Genoa, Lucca, and St. Marino, and ſhall begin with the former, with the dominions belonging to each.

SECT. X.

Of the Republic of VENICE.

The Situation and Extent of its Territories on the Continent of Italy. A conciſe Hiſtory of that Republic. The Perſons, Dreſs, Manners, Cuſtoms, and Diverſions of the Venetians. The different Ranks of the Nobility; with the Manner of chooſing the Doge, his little Power, the Ceremony of marrying the Sea, and the different Offices of State. The Arms of the Republic; its Orders of Knighthood, Religion, Revenues, and Forces; with a particular Deſcription of the City of Venice.

THE dominions of the republic of Venice on the continent of Italy extend eaſt and weſt from the river Adda, which flows from the lake of Como, and reach in one continued line to the dutchy of Carniola, where the curve they form along the Adriatic ſea is ſomewhat interrupted by the Auſtrian dominions, after which they extend from north to ſouth along the coaſt of the ſame ſea, and terminate at the province of Iſtria. Thus the Venetian territories are bounded on the north by Trent, Tirol, and the country of the Griſons; on the eaſt by Carniola and the gulph of Venice; on the ſouth by the ſame gulph, Romania, and the dutchy of Mantua; and on the weſt by the dutchy of Milan; extending about a hundred and eighty miles in length, and in ſome parts an hundred in breadth.

This is a fine champaign country, with a fruitful ſoil, producing rich fruits, corn, wine, and oil; with plenty of ſilk, rich paſtures, and all ſorts of cattle. Their Paduan ſheep have very fine wool, and the fleſh of their hogs is much valued. But we ſhall give a more particular account of each of the countries included in theſe territories, in treating of them ſeparately, and ſhall begin with the republic, which is confined to the city of Venice, the capital of the whole.

With reſpect to the origin and advancement of this republic to the grandeur it formerly enjoyed, and its preſent ſtate, it muſt be obſerved, that on the invaſion of Italy in the fifth century by the Huns, under Attila their king, when they ſpread a general deſolation wherever they came, great numbers of the people who lived near the Adriatic fled to thoſe iſlands on which at preſent ſtands the celebrated city of Venice, which, about the year 421, had in ſome meaſure been built upon by the Paduans, for the advantage of commerce. Here having ſettled ſmall ſtates, they were at firſt governed by conſuls, afterwards by tribunes, and formed a kind of republic, the council of which conſiſted of thoſe magiſtrates. Theſe iſlands became better inhabited on the ſucceeding incurſions of the Goths and Longobardi into Italy, when multitudes from Rome and other large cities repairing thither, this ſtate ſoon became able to make ſome head againſt theſe bold invaders; till at length the chiefs of the iſlands coming to an agreement with the Longobardi, were ſuffered to remain unmoleſted. This was the commencement of the city and ſtate of Venice.

About the end of the ſeventh or the beginning of the eighth century the former government of theſe iſlands was aboliſhed, and an unlimited power conferred on Paulucio Anafeſto, who obtained the title of doge, or duke. Under this ſovereignty the ſtate greatly increaſed, till the people being oppreſſed, became weary of the evils of domeſtic deſpotiſm; and on their chooſing a new duke, in 1171, curtailed his power, by aſſigning him a council of two hundred and forty perſons, compoſed not only of nobles, but of commons. At length duke Ziani ſiding with pope Alexander III. againſt the emperor Frederic, obtained ſuch a ſignal victory over him at ſea, that the pope preſented him with a ring, which he was to drop into the Adriatic, as a ſign of his marriage with and perpetual ſovereignty over it.

The Venetians, who had already extended their dominions into Lombardy, Dalmatia, Iſtria, Syria, and other places, made a very conſiderable acquiſition in the beginning of the thirteenth century, by poſſeſſing themſelves of the principal iſlands in the Archipelago and Mediterranean, particularly that of Candia. From this time they obtained immenſe profit by trading in Eaſt India goods, which they imported from Alexandria in Egypt, to which they came by the way of the Red Sea. Under duke Marino Moroſini was introduced the preſent form of electing the doge, and at this juncture jealouſy and envy occaſioned the war with Genoa, which, after continuing a hundred and thirty years, was at laſt concluded by a treaty in 1381. During this war duke Peter Gradenigo, in 1396, ordained that none but the nobi-

lity ſhould be capable of having a ſeat in the grand council, and thus the government became ariſtocratical.

In the fourteenth and fifteenth centuries the Venetians extended their poſſeſſions in Lombardy, and, in 1473, the laſt king of Cyprus appointed the ſtate of Venice his heir. Towards the end of the fifteenth century the commerce and power of the Venetians began to decline, the Portugueſe having diſcovered a way by ſea to the Eaſt Indies, which at length opened the trade to all the maritime nations. In the ſixteenth century affairs went ſtill worſe, for the pope, the emperor, France, and Spain joining in a league againſt them, they were ſtripped of all their countries and towns in the eccleſiaſtical ſtate and the Milaneſe. They alſo received another ſevere blow from the Turks, who drove them out of the kingdom of Cyprus. In the ſeventeenth century a ſharp conteſt aroſe between the ſtate, the clergy, and the pope, in which, however, they had the advantage. They were alſo long engaged in troubleſome wars with the Turks, loſing Candia, and gaining part of Dalmatia and all the Morea; but even the latter, with other places and diſtricts, the Turks recovered in the wars of the preſent century.

Thus has the republic of Venice continued upwards of thirteen hundred years, amidſt many foreign wars and inteſtine commotions; its grandeur was chiefly owing to its trade, and ſince the decline of the former its ſtrength and power have ſuffered a conſiderable diminution.

With reſpect to the perſons of the Venetians, the men are handſome and well ſhaped, and their dreſs, eſpecially that of the nobles, is grave, and yet becoming. The women are very agreeable, but their high-heeled ſhoes are ſaid to make them hobble in their gait; but they ſeldom appear abroad, except during the carnival, at their fairs, and ſome other public occaſions, when they are allowed to go in diſguiſe, ſo that they cannot be known. At Venice is a kind of ſumptuary court, which regulates the dreſs of the men, women, and ſervants; and no Venetian, of what quality ſoever, is allowed to wear either embroidery, gold or ſilver lace, or fringe. The ſame regulations are made with reſpect to their gondolas; and as for coaches they have very few, or elſe they would be ſubject to the ſame law. Indeed thoſe who have been ambaſſadors have the privilege of wearing a ſtole of cloth of gold, and gold buckles in their girdles; but they are generally ſatisfied with wearing a little gold galloon on their black ſtoles.

A noble Venetian never appears in public but in his robes, which reach to his heels, and are of black cloth, lined with greyiſh cloth in the ſummer, and with ermine in winter; theſe robes are faſtened with a belt of the ſame cloth, three inches broad, and adorned with ſilver buckles and plates. Inſtead of a hat he wears a long black worſted cap, with a worſted fringe, which he generally carries in his hand, that he may not incommode his large peruke. The phyſicians, advocates, notaries, and all thoſe called cittadinis, wear the ſame habits as the nobles, and, like them, claim the title of excellency. The manner of ſaluting them is to kiſs their ſleeve, which, about the elbow, is as wide as a moderate ſack, and ſometimes ſerves, as do alſo their caps, to carry proviſions in from the market; for many of them are much reduced, and are brought to ſo low an ebb, as even to go about begging among the more opulent families. This is frequently the conſequence of gaming, by which many houſes that ſtill make a figure are greatly embarraſſed. The procurators of St. Mark, the conſiglieri, and others of the council, ſometimes wear long red or purple robes. They are never ſaluted in the ſtreets, except by thoſe who wear the ſame robe. The rank of nobility is not reſtrained to the eldeſt ſons, and they are not allowed to traffic, much leſs to marry with foreigners.

The converſation of the nobility is more deſirable out of than within the city, they being then no more than private perſons. The high conceit of themſelves which is but too uſual in the city, would there be ridiculous, and not borne with.

The women of quality do not even ſhew their faces in the churches; and the ordinary women wear over their heads a large ſcarf, which opens a little about their eyes.

The females are educated in convents till they are married, without being allowed to ſee their future huſbands; whence the men commonly remedy the defects of their wives by keeping miſtreſſes. Many who are of a more tender conſcience than others ſatisfy themſelves with living with women whom they deſign to marry; but the ceremony is frequently deferred till a few days, or hours, before the death of one of the parties. The moſt general method with thoſe who are unmarried, is to keep their miſtreſſes at a certain allowance as long as both parties agree; and this is ſo frequently practiſed, that thoſe who are unable to be at the expence of keeping one woman, join with two or three other men to have her between them, and without the leaſt jealouſy viſit her by turns. To prevent young noblemen and gentlemen marrying too ſoon, or falling into worſe diſaſters, their mothers make no ſcruple to bargain with a poor girl's father or mother to have her for the uſe of their ſon, at a certain rate to be paid monthly or yearly, as they can beſt agree.

The carnival commences here the ſecond holiday in Chriſtmas, when they begin to wear maſks, and open the theatres and gaming-houſes. The maſquerade dreſs at Venice conſiſts of only a night-gown or a cloak, with a maſk on the face. In the beginning they act with ſome moderation, but the nearer they come towards Shrove-Tueſday, the more their madneſs increaſes. Theſe extravagances are allowed by the ſenate of Venice, to divert the people from feeling the heavy burthen of their government, which without ſuch amuſements would be intolerable. Beſides, the vaſt number of ſtrangers who come to Venice from all parts, to ſee the diverſions of the carnival, brings great ſums of money to the city. "I was credibly informed, ſays Mr. Miſſon, that during "the laſt carnival there were no leſs than ſeven ſovereign "princes, and thirty thouſand other foreigners." The general uſe of maſks prevents a ſtranger from making any acquaintance at this ſeaſon, and likewiſe from ſeeing any curioſities; for no perſon is permitted to go into a church or convent in any diſguiſe.

Their eunuchs make a prepoſterous figure in their operas; for it appears very odd to ſee one of theſe mutilated fellows act the part of a bully, and another with his withered wrinkled face repreſenting a young lover; and in every opera a buffoon intermixes his fooleries with the moſt ſerious and tragical parts. Their comedies are ſo ridiculous, that in other places they would ſcarcely paſs for tolerable farces; for Harlequin is commonly the head actor; and to make the ſpectators laugh, his grimaces are backed with the coarſeſt and moſt vulgar obſcenity.

The aſſemblies where they play at baſſet are called Ridottos. Ten or twelve rooms may be ſeen with gaming tables in each, crowded with ladies of quality, gameſters, and courtezans. They have alſo certain rooms where liquors and ſweetmeats are ſold. Every perſon thus maſked, provided he be well dreſſed, has the liberty of talking to the ladies of the higheſt quality; nobody, not even the huſband himſelf, taking notice of what is ſaid to his wife, becauſe the maſk is ſacred; but this ſometimes gives occaſion to an intrigue, in a place where the ſcarcity of opportunities enables them to do more execution with the wink of an eye, than in other countries by a long courtſhip. The chief place of maſquerading is St. Mark's ſquare at Venice, where you may aſſume what diſguiſe you pleaſe, provided you ſupport the character. The Harlequins ridicule one another very handſomely, and thoſe who perſonate doctors hold learned diſputes; but ſuch as have no inclination to venture upon theſe engagements, may appear in the habit of a nobleman, or in ſome foreign dreſs, and be only ſpectators; but all the maſkers muſt be without ſwords.

They encourage here, likewiſe, during the carnivals and fairs, a ſet of ſtrolling gypſies, who have a little ſtage, to which they draw the gazers to them by their ſhews and a peculiar eloquence they diſplay in favour of their art in telling fortunes. They are furniſhed with a kind of tube made of tin about ten or twelve feet long, and

and thoſe who have a mind to conſult them, need but throw them a fifteen-penny piece, and clap their ear to one end of the tube, and immediately the gypſy at the other end whiſpers to them and reſolves their queſtions. To raiſe the higher idea of their abilities, theſe impoſtors place on their little ſtages ſome paltry globes, and other aſtronomical inſtruments.

It muſt not be omitted that the carnival is not the only time when maſks are in requeſt at Venice, there being no feaſt where they are not uſed more or leſs: as at the audiences of ambaſſadors; on Aſcenſion-day, &c. all which are very profitable to the watermen, who, knowing all the turns and bye-ways, keep a correſpondence with the waiting-women, and for a good reward will furniſh a ladder of cord for an intrigue; one of their main buſineſſes being pimping. The Venetian gondolas may be hired either from place to place, by the hour, or by the day; and one of the beſt of them may be had for five or ſix ſhillings a day. They are prettily contrived, and very light. They are generally thirty or thirty-two feet long, and four or five broad, and a perſon may ſit in them much at his eaſe, under a cover like that of a coach, with glaſſes on both ſides. The boatmen are very dexterous in their buſineſs, and manage their oars with ſurprizing facility, ſtanding with their faces towards the place to which they are going. All the gondolas muſt be black, and even the little room is generally covered with black cloth or ſerge; but foreigners are not confined to this rule. The gondolas, particularly of the ambaſſadors, are extremely magnificent.

Among the ſeveral ſhows that are annually exhibited, there is one performed on Holy Thurſday, which is peculiar to the Venetians. A ſet of artizans, by the help of ſeveral poles laid acroſs each other's ſhoulders, build themſelves up into a kind of pyramid, ſo that there is ſeen a pile of men in the air of four or five rows riſing one above another; and yet the weight is ſo equally diſtributed, that every man is able to bear his part of it. The ſtories, if they may be ſo called, growing leſs and leſs in proportion as they advance higher, till a little boy repreſents the point of the pyramid, who, after ſtanding thus a ſhort time, leaps with great dexterity into the arms of one who catches him at the bottom; and in the ſame manner the whole edifice falls to pieces. This trick was, however, practiſed by the Romans.

Mr. Keyſler obſerves, that if a traveller cannot contrive to be at Venice in carnival-time, he would adviſe him to be there about Holy Thurſday; or if one of the two muſt be omitted, he ſays it ſhould be the carnival: for the feſtival of the Aſcenſion affords all the diverſions of the carnival, as maſquerades, operas, &c. except the ridottos and the diſſolute revels about the cloſe of the latter. But to a perſon of any taſte the loſs of thoſe extravagant feſtivities is ſufficiently compenſated by the delightfulneſs of the ſeaſon, the annual fair, and the ſolemnity of the doge's marriage with the ſea. The annual fair begins on the Sunday before Aſcenſion-day, and laſts till Whitſunday. During this fair St. Mark's ſquare is taken up with booths ſo arranged as to form ſeveral ſtreets. On Aſcenſion-eve veſpers are performed with great pomp and ſplendor, and the pretended miraculous blood of Chriſt, with other remarkable relics kept in St. Mark's treaſury, are expoſed to public view in the great church dedicated to that ſaint.

In this republic the power is lodged in the hands of the nobility, who are ſaid to amount to near two thouſand, including thoſe whoſe public employments in the provinces oblige them to reſide out of Venice. On the birth of the ſon of a nobleman his name is entered in the golden book, otherwiſe he forfeits his nobility. Every noble is a member of the ſenate, on which account it is a received maxim, that they are all of equal dignity; yet there is a conſiderable difference between the intereſt and authority of families. To the firſt claſs belong the antient houſes whoſe anceſtors choſe the firſt duke, and from thence are called *le caſe eletterali:* theſe conſiſt of twelve families, and on them preferably to others are conferred the higher offices. There are four other families who pretend to an equality with theſe, they being very little inferior to them in point of antiquity. Next follow eight houſes nearly of the ſame antiquity. Duke Gradenigo having paſſed a law that the council ſhould for ever conſiſt of the families of which it was then compoſed, and ſome others which he ennobled; this produced a ſecond claſs of nobility, which conſiſts of upwards of eighty families, and with theſe are alſo included the deſcendants of thoſe who were raiſed to nobility after the Genoeſe war, on account of their large contributions towards carrying it on with vigour. The third and laſt claſs is compoſed of the citizens whoſe nobility has been purchaſed for a hundred thouſand Venetian ducats; a reſource which the republic has made uſe of in neceſſitous times for raiſing money. Crowned heads, with German and other princes, have thought it no degradation to be made nobles of Venice.

The nobility, as the counts and marquiſes in the territories of the republic, though ſome of them are of very antient families, are now under great reſtrictions, to prevent their attempting any thing to the detriment of the ſtate. They are excluded all offices, and at Venice muſt ſhew a due deference and proper reſpect for the meaneſt noblemen, as one of their ſovereigns.

In order as much as poſſible to prevent all intrigues in the election of a doge, the ceremony is conducted in the following manner: Upon the deceaſe of a doge the nobles above thirty years of age meet in the palace of St. Mark, where a number of balls equal to that of the perſons preſent, are put into an urn. Thirty of theſe are gilt, and the others ſilvered over. Every noble, according to his ſeniority, draws a ball; and they who have drawn the thirty gilt balls retire into a private room to continue the election; but in drawing the gilt balls, leſt more than one perſon of a family ſhould happen to be appointed electors, the relations of him who drew a gilt ball are obliged to withdraw, and the ſame number of white balls are taken out of the veſſel. After this the thirty electors who had drawn the gilt balls draw from another urn in which are twenty-one ſilvered and nine gilt balls: they who draw the gilded chooſe forty other electors, all of different families, but are allowed to name themſelves of the number; and each of the four who drew firſt has a right of nominating five electors; but the five others can name only four each. Theſe forty electors are again by lot reduced to twelve, who name twenty-five; the firſt nominating three, and each of the other two. Theſe twenty-five draw lots a ſecond time to be reduced to nine, and of theſe nine each chooſe five others; and from the total forty-five, eleven are again ſeparated by lot, who chooſe forty-one others, who are confirmed by the grand council, and being locked up in a particular apartment of the ducal palace, there remain till they have choſen a new doge. The reſult of their determination is generally known in ſix or eight hours, and all the foregoing ceremonies ſeldom take up more than two days.

In order to render the election of a doge due and legal, it is neceſſary that out of the forty-one he ſhould have twenty-five votes. His election is followed by a kind of coronation, the ducal cap being placed with great ceremony on his head, on the upper ſtep of the entrance into St. Mark's church.

The doge of Venice has little more than the ſhadow of greatneſs, and has been juſtly defined to be in habit and ſtate a king, in authority a counſellor, in the city a priſoner, and out of it a private perſon. He is not ſo much as to ſtir from the city without the council's permiſſion; it is not in his power to pardon a criminal; all his counſellors have a conſtant eye over his actions, and may viſit his cloſet every hour: he is as much ſubject to the laws as the meaneſt perſon, and when he dies there is no public mourning.

Were it not an evident truth that the human heart is apt to be fond of external ſplendor, it might be concluded that the dignity of a Venetian doge, under ſuch diſagreeable circumſtances, would be rather avoided than eagerly ſought after. The ſtate and revenue of the doge on all public occaſions is indeed very magnificent. He is the preſident of all councils; and in the great council has two votes. All the courts ſtand up in his preſence, and pay their obeiſance to him. On the other hand, he never riſes from his ſeat, nor takes off his cap, except at the elevation of the hoſt, before a prince of royal blood,

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or a cardinal, to whom he alſo gives the right hand. His name is alſo ſtamped on the republic's money. All the credentials of the republic's miniſters to foreign courts are made out in his name, though they are neither ſigned nor ſealed by him. The letters of the republic's miniſters, and other inſtruments from foreign princes, are directed to him; yet he is not to open them, but in the preſence of ſome of the council. He has the diſpoſal of all preferments in St. Mark's church, of which he is inveſted with the entire juriſdiction; and the knights of St. Mark are created by him alone. He likewiſe fills up the lower offices belonging to the palace: and laſtly, his family is not ſubject to any ſumptuary laws. His annual income is twelve thouſand Venetian ducats: of this ſum he muſt ſpend one-half on the four grand entertainments he is obliged to give every year; and to live up to his dignity, he muſt alſo ſpend conſiderably of his own fortune.

Among the other reſtrictions are the following: During his life none of his children or brothers can hold any of the great honorary offices, nor be ſent on embaſſies. He is not to marry the ſiſter or relation of a prince, without the conſent of the great council; nor can he receive any preſent from a foreign prince. In ſtate affairs he cannot tranſact the leaſt matter without the council; nor can he reſign, though he may be depoſed. In general his authority is no greater than that of a private perſon, except he has ſuch abilities as to influence the whole council; then indeed his authority bears the ſway; but ſuch perſons are ſeldom choſen. On his death a formal enquiry is made whether he has abuſed his power; whether from a care of his own concerns, he has neglected thoſe of the public; whether he lived agreeably to his dignity, &c. If found guilty of the things laid to his charge, his heirs are fined in proportion to the nature of the crime. Notwithſtanding all this, the ducal dignity is ſolicited, and the perſon duly elected is not to decline it.

On Aſcenſion-day, the doge, or in caſe of his illneſs, the vice-doge, who is always one of the ſix conſiglieri, performs the annual ceremony of marrying the Adriatic Sea in a barge pompouſly gilt and carved. At about ten in the morning, the ſignal being given by the firing of great guns, and the ringing of bells, he goes on board the bucentaur, and accompanied by ſeveral thouſand barks and gondolas, a great number of gallies finely ornamented, and the ſplendid yachts of foreign ambaſſadors, is rowed out to ſea, about two hundred paces towards the iſlands of St. Lido and St. Eraſmo. The patriarch and dignified clergy come on board the bucentaur, and preſent the doge and ſignoria, as they paſs, with noſegays or artificial flowers, which, at their return, they make preſents of to their acquaintance. The doge at his putting off and return is ſaluted by the cannon of a fort on the Lido, and by thoſe on the iſland Eraſmo, and with the ſmall arms of the ſoldiers, who are drawn up along the Lido ſhore. Theſe iſlands lie about two Italian miles from the city; and an eminence on the iſland of Lido affords a diſtinct view of this pompous proceſſion, and of the vaſt number of boats, &c. which cover the ſurface of the water, and make a beautiful appearance. In the mean time ſeveral hymns are performed on board the bucentaur, by the band of muſic belonging to St. Mark's church, and ſeveral prayers appointed for the occaſion are read or ſung, till the doge has paſſed the two forts of Lodo and St. Eraſmo; and then he proceeds a little farther towards the Lodo ſhore, the ſtern of his barge being turned towards the main ſea.

Here the patriarch pours into the ſea ſome holy water, which is ſaid to have the virtue of preventing and allaying ſtorms. After this the doge, thro' an aperture near his ſeat, drops into the ſea a gold ring of a few dollars value, ſaying, in Latin, "We eſpouſe thee, O ſea, in token of our "real and perpetual dominion over thee." After this all return, and the doge with his company is ſet aſhore near the church of St. Nicholas, in the iſland of Lido, where the patriarch in perſon celebrates a ſolemn maſs. In the evening the principal members of the council, and all who waited upon the doge in the bucentaur, are entertained at the ducal palace.

The bucentaur is a kind of galleaſs, a hundred feet in length, and twenty broad. It has forty-two benches for the rowers, which are concealed under the two great cabins, and on every bench are four rowers. It is not manned with galley ſlaves, but with men belonging to the arſenal, who on this occaſion are allowed extraordinary pay. The bucentaur is never brought out of the arſenal but for theſe eſpouſals; it being there kept dry under cover, from whence it is launched about eight days before Aſcenſion-day, and remains on the water about eight days after the ceremony. The ſculpture on this veſſel repreſents the Pagan ſea-gods, water-nymphs, ſea-monſters, ſhells, &c. with the ſtatues of Juſtice, Truth, Fidelity, Vigilance, Peace, Plenty, Apollo, and the nine Muſes, the twelve months, and ſeveral other emblematical figures. The gilding coſt ten or twelve thouſand ſilver ducats. It is true, the bucentaur, ſays Mr. Keyſler, is very beautiful in its kind, yet it muſt be owned that the king of Great Britain's chief yacht makes a much more ſplendid and noble appearance, though it did not coſt near ſo much as the former.

In the grand council all nobles of twenty-five years of age may take their place. It uſually meets on Sundays and holidays in the large hall of the ducal palace.

The ſenate, or pregadi, are a committee of the grand council, by whom they are choſen, and have the management of the moſt ſecret and important affairs of ſtate, as the making of alliances, declaring war, concluding peace, coining money, impoſing taxes, &c. They conſiſt of ſixty ordinary, and as many extraordinary members; beſides the nine procurators of St. Mark, the *collegium*, the doge's ſix counſellors, the *il conſiglio di dieci*, the cenſors, the judges *della quarantia criminale*, and other inferior judges; ſo that the whole ſenate conſiſts of about three hundred perſons.

Mr. Addiſon obſerves, that among all the inſtances of their politics, there is none more admirable than the great ſecrecy that reigns in their public councils. "The "ſenate, ſays he, is generally as numerous as our houſe "of commons, if we only reckon the ſitting members, "and yet carries its reſolutions ſo privately, that they "are ſeldom known till they diſcover themſelves in the "execution. It is not many years ſince they had before "them a great debate concerning the puniſhment of one "of their admirals, which laſted a month together, and "concluded in his condemnation; yet was there none "of his friends, nor of thoſe who had engaged warmly "in his defence, that gave him the leaſt intimation of "what was paſſing againſt him, till he was actually "ſeized, and in the hands of juſtice."

The next council is the *collegium*, in which all public inſtruments directed to the ſtate and doge are read; audiences given to foreign miniſters, and other important affairs tranſacted. It conſiſts of the doge, his ſix counſellors, the three preſidents of the court of forty, the ſix chief officers of ſtate, &c.

Of theſe three great aſſemblies, the preſidentſhip is lodged in the *ſignoria*, or *il conſiglietto*, compoſed of the doge and his ſix counſellors, who conſult on all matters to be laid before the grand council; open all foreign letters directed to the doge and the republic; receive petitions; and, in concert with the doge, carry many particulars into execution. This council is annually changed, and when the doge is indiſpoſed, one of them is always vice-doge.

The procurators of St. Mark have not only the inſpection of the church of St. Mark, its library, and the records of the republic; but likewiſe manage all affairs relating to the poor; together with wills, guardianſhips, the redemption of the Chriſtian ſlaves, and bringing over rigid creditors to a reaſonable compoſition. Their number never exceeds nine; they hold their office during life, and out of them the doge is generally choſen. The titular procurators of St. Mark are more numerous, the republic in a ſcarcity of money ſelling theſe titles.

The *conſiglio di dieci* is a high penal court, which conſiſts of ten counſellors; the doge, who is preſident; and his ſix conglieri. Every quarter of a year three preſidents of it are choſen.—The judgment of this court is without appeal, and it is much dreaded for its ſeverity. It is the ſtrong cement which ſecures the whole ariſto-

cracy, it being chiefly inſtituted for the nobility, and its power extends even to the doge himſelf.

The ſtate-inquiſition conſiſts of three preſidents, who keep a very watchful eye over the ſafety of the republic; and their ſagacious and vigilant attention to every thing relating to the ſtate is ſo great, that to avoid the ſuſpicion of any evil deſign againſt the government, it is abſolutely neceſſary for every prudent perſon to be extremely circumſpect, and to obſerve an almoſt ſlaviſh caution in ſpeaking and acting. Theſe inquiſitors keep the keys of cheſts placed in ſeveral parts of the ducal palace, and ſhut up within the open jaws of lions heads carved in the walls; through which notes are conveyed into them by any one who pleaſes: and thus notice is ſecretly given to the republic of whatever may concern it to know. Such informations need not be ſigned, and are therefore generally anonymous; but if a reward is expected, the informer may at any time make himſelf known, by producing a piece of paper torn from the billet put into theſe *denuncie ſecrette*, as they are called, ſo as to tally with it. But what ſtreſs is to be laid on ſuch ſecret informations, which gives ſuch ſcope to malice and malevolence to ſpit their venom, belongs to the prudence of the inquiſitors to determine.

As the *conſiglio dieci* is peculiarly erected for the nobility; ſo the *quarantia criminale*, or the penal inferior court, takes cognizance of all other ſubjects of the ſtate.

The holy inquiſition, falſely ſo called, and which is ſo formidable in other Popiſh countries, is here confined by the republic within narrow bounds; but of this court we ſhall take farther notice, in treating of the religion of the Venetians.

There is a particular college, as hath been already intimated, to whoſe care the regulation of dreſs is committed by the republic. None are exempted from the juriſdiction of this college, but noblemen's wives for the firſt two years after their marriage, and ſtrangers. The former are however no farther indulged, than in wearing a pearl necklace, and a gold fringe at the bottom of their gowns, and in giving their gondoliers ribbons to wear in their caps. But here alſo, as in other countries, the women are, in this reſpect, connived at, particularly the courtezans, who readily find patrons, under whoſe protection they treſpaſs againſt this ſumptuary law with impunity; though there is ſometimes an inſtance of one or two being fined on that account. It is probably owing to the great number of perſons who offend againſt this law, that it is not ſtrictly put in execution.

The ſmaller arms of the republic are azure, a winged lion, or, with a book opened, argent, on which are theſe words, PAX TIBI, MARCE, EVANGELISTA MEUS, that is, "Peace to thee, Mark, my evangeliſt," St. Mark being the patron of Venice. The ſhield is ſurmounted by the ducal cap. The large and complete ſhield is compoſed of the arms of the ſeveral provinces and dependencies of the republic.

The principal order of knighthood is that of St. Mark; the badge of which is a large gold medal pendent on the breaſt. On one ſide is either the name of the reigning duke, or his image, with St. Mark delivering a ſtandard to him: on the other a winged lion, holding in one paw a naked ſword, and in the other a book with the above words.

The order of the Conſtantine knights have a croſs hanging from a gold chain. The reſidence of the grand maſter is at Briana near Venice.

With reſpect to the ſtate of religion, that eſtabliſhed by law is the Roman catholic; but Greeks, Armenians, and Jews are allowed the public exerciſe of their worſhip in the countries of the republic, and Proteſtants obſerving privacy remain unmoleſted. The pope, after a long oppoſition, has obtruded on the republic a court of ſpiritual inquiſition, the members of which are the pope's nuncio, the patriarch of Venice, an inquiſitor, and three lay-aſſiſtants; but the republic has ſo curtailed its power, that nothing can be tranſacted without the aſſiſtants, who lay before the republic every caſe of moment. Jews, Greeks, caſes of blaſphemy, ſuppoſed magic and ſorcery, uſury, and the cenſure of books, are not cognizable by this court, but by the civil magiſtrate; and the pope's bulls and briefs before they are made public undergo an examination, leſt they ſhould contain any thing contrary to the laws and liberties of the ſtate.

At the head of the church is the patriarch of Venice, who is always a noble Venetian, choſen by the ſenate, and though confirmed by the pope, is independent of the papal chair. He is primate of Dalmatia, and of ſome provinces of the continent; alſo metropolitan over the archbiſhops of Candia and Corfu, and the biſhops of Chiozza, Torcello, and Caorle: yet his power is very inconſiderable, he having only the diſpoſal of two benefices in the city of Venice, and being little regarded by the clergy out of it, who depend immediately on the ſenate.

The territories of the republic are under governors choſen out of the nobility, who are changed at the expiration of a certain term of years.

The annual revenue of the republic is computed at eight millions two hundred thouſand Venetian ducats. In war time both the nobles and the other ſubjects, even the doge himſelf, contribute in proportion to their incomes towards defraying the expences of the ſtate.

In the army the republic make little uſe of ſuch of their ſubjects as live under heavy oppreſſions: the flower of the infantry conſiſts of thirteen regiments of Dalmatians, men of great reſolution, but more expert in the exerciſe of the ſword than fire-arms. The Swiſs, on occaſion, furniſh ſix thouſand men, paid by the republic. If public accounts may be relied on, the whole army conſiſts of twenty-eight thouſand nine hundred ſeventy-ſeven men, over which is a field-marſhal, or commander in chief, who is always ſome foreign general of diſtinguiſhed reputation; but with him are joined two ſenators, without whoſe conſent he can do nothing.

The naval force of the republic is ſaid to conſiſt of fourteen men of war, twenty galleaſſes, and twenty-five gallies, commanded by a captain-general, who is always one of the prime nobility.

The dominions of Venice conſiſt of thoſe in Italy, of a conſiderable part of Dalmatia, of four towns in Greece, and of the iſlands of Corfu, Pachſu, Antipachſu, Santa Maura, Curzolari, Val di Compare, Cephalonia, and Zante.

The Venetian territories in Italy contain the dutchy of Venice, the Paduaneſe, the peninſula of Rovigo, the Veroneſe, the territories of Vicenza and Breſcia, the diſtricts of Bergamo, Cremaſco, and the Marca Trevigiana, with part of the country of Friuli. We ſhall begin with the dutchy of Venice, the principal place in which is the city of the ſame name.

Venice, in Italian Venezia, and in Latin Venetia, the capital and ſeat of the republic, is ſituated in latitude forty-five degrees forty-ſix minutes, and in thirteen degrees ten minutes eaſt longitude, and makes a very noble appearance at a diſtance, it ſeeming from its being built on a multitude of very ſmall iſlands, to float on the ſea, or rather, with its ſtately buildings and ſteeples, to riſe out of it. The number of theſe iſlands ſtill remains uncertain, ſome reckoning ſixty, others ſeventy-two, and others again maintaining that they amount to one hundred and thirty-eight; but the latter muſt comprehend in the calculation all thoſe places that have been gradually raiſed in the Laguna, by driving piles in the ground, and building on them.

The Laguna, or marſhy lake, which lies between the city and the continent, is five Italian miles in breadth, and too ſhallow for large ſhips: by the attention of the republic it is prevented from becoming a part of the continent, and from being ever frozen ſo as to bear an army; hence the city is inacceſſible on that ſide. Towards the ſea the acceſs is alſo difficult; but the ſafe and navigable parts are pointed out by piles, which at the approach of an enemy's fleet may be eaſily cut away. Beſides, as a conſiderable number of men of war and gallies may be expeditiouſly fitted out for ſea from the dock, which contains vaſt quantities of naval ſtores, the city is ſecure from any attack either by land or water, and is ſtrong enough without fortifications. The fiſh, which are caught at the very doors of the houſes, may be eſteemed a good preſervative againſt a famine, and the ſeveral canals lead-

ing to the city, between the ſand banks and marſhy ſhallows, are at a vaſt expence kept clear of the mud and ſlime brought with the flood. The return of the ſea is ſomething later here than every ſixth hour, and it generally riſes between four and five feet, keeping the water between the iſlands of the city in continual motion: but ſome of theſe canals being very narrow, the mud is not ſo effectually carried off as to prevent ill ſmells in hot weather.

The great canal, which winds in a ſerpentine form through the city, dividing it into two parts, is one thouſand three hundred paces long. The beſt way of going up and down the city is in gondolas, which glide ſwiftly on theſe canals: but Mr. Keyſler remarks, that as they are painted black, and lined with black cloth, or ſerge, they have a gloomy appearance; and the awning being ſo low that a perſon cannot ſtand upright in the gondola, when a ſtranger gets into one of them, it ſeems as if he was creeping into a hearſe or tomb hung with black. The left ſide is always in theſe vehicles accounted the moſt honourable and eminent, becauſe he who ſits on the right muſt face the rower, who intercepts the view, and ſometimes unavoidably ſplaſhes him.

Over the ſeveral canals are laid four hundred and fifty, and ſome ſay above five hundred bridges, great and ſmall, moſt of them of ſtone: the higheſt and longeſt is the Rialto, which in the midſt of the city croſſes the great canal at its narroweſt part, where it is but forty paces broad. This bridge conſiſts of only one ſingle arch, whoſe foundation takes up ninety feet, reſting on twelve thouſand elm piles. It is every where incruſted with marble, and is ſaid to have coſt the republic two hundred and fifty thouſand ducats. In the upper part it is thirty-ſeven common paces broad, with two rows of ſhops, forming, as it were, three ſtreets, of which that in the middle is the wideſt; and at each end is an aſcent of fifty-ſix ſteps. The city may indeed be every where traverſed on foot, but the ſtreets are very narrow, and the pavement of free-ſtone very ſlippery in wet weather; and, at the ſame time, the many ſmall bridges with their ſteps are not a little troubleſome and dangerous, very few of the bridges having any fence on either ſide.

The city of Venice is about ſix Italian miles in circumference, and contains ſeventy pariſh churches beſides others, fifty four convents of monks, twenty-ſix nunneries, ſeventeen rich hoſpitals, eighteen oratories, forty religious fraternities with their chapels, fifty-three ſquares, one hundred and ſixty-five marble, and twenty-three braſs ſtatues. The buildings are indeed all of ſtone, but the greater part make a very mean appearance; ſo that the city, in point of beauty and elegance, is inferior to many others. It is true St. Mark's ſquare is very fine, as are alſo the ſeveral ſtately marble palaces that border upon the great canal, though moſt of them are of Gothic architecture. In the churches and convents the paintings are moſt admirable; for in theſe Venice ſurpaſſes even Rome itſelf. Here are alſo two academies of painting. The number of inhabitants has been computed at two hundred thouſand. Theſe inhabitants are the nobility and the citizens, after whom may be reckoned the lawyers, notaries, phyſicians, wealthy merchants, glaſs-makers, and all handicraftſmen, whether dwelling in the city or the more diſtant iſlands, together with the ſeafaring people and the gondoliers.

This city, from the fertility of the country in its neighbourhood, and the facility of carriage, enjoys a conſtant plenty of all kinds of proviſions. The ſpring-water being very indifferent in moſt places, almoſt every houſe has a ciſtern, into which the rain water is conveyed from the roof, and clarified by being filtrated through ſand. Water is alſo brought from the river Brenta, and preſerved in the ciſterns.

From this general ſketch of the city, we ſhall now proceed to a particular deſcription. It is divided into ſix large parts, of which the three firſt lie on the eaſt and north ſide; and the three others to the weſt and ſouth of the great canal, which, as we have already obſerved, divides the city into two principal parts.

The firſt named Seſtiera St. Marco, particularly contains St. Mark's ſquare, with the adjacent buildings. This ſquare, which is the pride of the city, is on the ſhorteſt ſide two hundred and forty paces long, and ſeventy-five broad, from the ducal palace ſouthward of the canal Della Giudeca. The longeſt ſide runs in a direct line from eaſt to weſt between the churches of St. Mark and St. Geminiano, near 180 feet. In the upper part, or at the firſt church, it is one hundred and twenty-ſix paces broad on both ſides, excluſive of the piazzas; but in the lower part, or at the ſecond church, only eighty-nine. The ducal palace, towards the water-ſide, and St. Mark's palace, are entirely Gothic; but on the ſide of the ſmall canal and in the court, of tolerable good modern architecture, and is moſtly of marble. This ſtructure not only ſerves for the reſidence of the doge, but alſo for the meeting of the council. The fineſt ornaments in the council-chamber and other apartments, are the paintings of the great maſters; particularly in the middle of the ceiling of the council-chamber, the republic of Venice is repreſented above the clouds, and ſurrounded with a multitude of gods, while the tritons and nereids, at Mercury's command, bring ſhells, coral, pearls, &c. and preſent them to her, as the queen of the ſea. This is one of Tintoretto's beſt pieces; and in one of the apartments is another piece by the ſame maſter, in which Jupiter, with ſeveral other gods, conduct Venice, in order to lay the foundation of her power and grandeur in the Adriatic ſea; in which the artiſt has imitated the ancient pagans, in giving the god ſuch a glory round his head, as is uſually painted round that of our Saviour. But the fineſt piece among all the paintings in this palace, is the taking of the fortreſs of Zara.

In the palace is alſo a ſmall arſenal, where a conſiderable number of loaded muſkets are always kept in readineſs, that in caſe of an inſurrection of the people, the doge and the nobility may make uſe of them for their defence; for this purpoſe the council-chamber has a communication through a door with the armoury, and every three months theſe pieces are freſh loaded. Among other curioſities in this arſenal are two little ſtatues of Adam and Eve, cut with a knife in an uncommon kind of wood, by Albert Durer, during his confinement, for which he was rewarded with his liberty. Here is alſo a moſt curious lanthorn of rock cryſtal, for which a yearly penſion of four hundred ducats was ordered to the inventor, and his heirs to the fourth generation. On the ſteps in the court of the palace ſtand two marble ſtatues of Mars and Neptune. Towards St. Mark's church is alſo another of Francis Maria duke of Urbino, and at the church two others of Adam and Eve.

The lower gallery of the palace on the ſide oppoſite St. Mark's ſquare, together with the hall under the New Procuratie, is called the Broglio. Here at a certain hour of the day the nobility walk, and no Venetian of an inferior rank muſt be ſeen there; though a foreigner, being ſuppoſed to be unacquainted with the cuſtom, is not deſired to quit the place. That part of St. Mark's ſquare between the two buildings and the piazza receives an additional ornament from two pillars of oriental granate, on one of which ſtands St. Mark's lion in braſs, and on the other a marble ſtatue of St. Theodore. Between theſe is the place for the public execution of malefactors, through which no nobleman is ſeen to paſs. A galley compleatly rigged and armed lies cloſe to the Broglio, for the defence of the ducal palace, on any ſudden emergency.

Contiguous to the north part of the doge's palace is St. Mark's church, which is alſo ſtiled the doge's chapel. Its materials juſtly intitle it to be called magnificent, it being both on the out and inſide covered with fine marble: but the architecture is entirely Gothic. The beſt part of it are the Moſaic paintings, and the four horſes of braſs, which were formerly gilt, ſtanding over the great door, and ſaid to have been brought from Conſtantinople. Theſe are univerſally allowed to be maſterpieces. The treaſury of the church is very rich in gold and jewels, and here is a famous manuſcript of the Goſpel of St. Mark; but the dampneſs of the place has ſpoiled it to ſuch a degree, that it is ſo far from being legible, that it is not certain whether it be written in Latin or Greek. Before the church are two large maſts fixed on braſs pedeſtals, on which in feſtivals ſilken flags are hoiſted.

Oppoſite

Oppoſite the ducal palace is a fine new building, called the Procuratie Nouove, which takes up an entire ſide of St. Mark's ſquare. In it may be ſeen the public library and muſeum of antiquities. The former is only prized for the collection of Greek manuſcripts left to the republic by cardinal Beſſarion: but in the muſeum one cannot ſufficiently admire the multitude of Greek and Roman marble ſtatues, all highly finiſhed. Adjoining the Procuratie Nouove is the Procuratie Vecchie, which takes up the other ſide of St. Mark's ſquare as far as St. Geminiano's church. Theſe buildings are called procuraties, from the procurators of St. Mark's church reſiding in them. Facing the angle formed by the New Procuratie ſtands an inſulated ſquare tower three hundred and eighteen feet high, and the aſcent within is ſuch that one may ſafely ride both up and down. On the ſpire at the top ſtands an angel of wood ſixteen feet high, covered with gilt braſs.

The principal churches in this diviſion are thoſe of St. Moſes and St. Maria Zobenigo. Of the palaces by the great canal, one of the moſt ſtately is that of Peſaro. This quarter has a communication by a bridge with that of St. Pauolo over the Rialto, and near it is the German-houſe, in which are mercantile goods conſigned to or from Germany, and in it the Proteſtants perform divine ſervice.

The next diviſion, called Seſtiere de Caſtello, contains the magnificent churches of St. Zaccaria, St. Giovanni e Paolo, with the neighbouring Dominican convents, the Scuola di St. Marco, the hoſpital li Mandicanti with its church, St. Giuſtina, St. Franceſco della vigna, St. Pietro de Caſtello, called the patriarchate, and the ducal ſeminary. Here is alſo the celebrated arſenal, or dock, which is two Italian miles and a half in circuit, walled and moated, with twelve towers along its walls, and within the encloſure a great varity of buildings, in which every thing requiſite for a land or ſea armament is kept in readineſs. Theſe buildings conſiſt of an armoury, ſtore-houſes for iron-work, oars, cordage, bullets, tar, hemp, canvas, guns, &c. A rope-houſe, a ſalt-petre-houſe, ſmiths forges, a foundery, baſons, and ſlips for building of ſhips and gallies. Within it lie the men of war, frigates, gallies, galleaſſes, and galliots. The workmen commonly amount to upwards of a thouſand; they conſtantly live in the dock, and moſt of them were born there.

The third diviſion of the city is named the Seſtiere di Canale Regio, and has many churches, one of the fineſt of which is the Padri Gieſiti, or Jeſuits. This ſtructure has a ſuperb front, adorned with a profuſion of ſtatues and fine columns, and the ornaments within this edifice are anſwerable to its outward beauty and elegance. The walls between the pillars, the great altar, and the pulpit, are of white marble inlaid with green, and embelliſhed with flowers. The great altar has ſixteeen twiſted columns of white and green marble. The ſteps and the pavement before it are of yellow and green marble, and reſemble a beautiful carpet. The tabernacle is of lapis-lazuli. Among the multitude of other fine pictures with which this church is adorned, the moſt admired are the martyrdom of St. Lawrence, by Titian; the circumciſion and aſcenſion, by Tintoretto; the beheading of John the Baptiſt, by old Palma; and the Virgin Mary viſiting her couſin Elizabeth, by Andrea Schiavone. The veſtry is entirely painted by Palma.

In this diviſion is alſo the theatre, and in this quarter live the Jews, who amount to about fifteen hundred, and are diſtinguiſhed by their being obliged to wear a bit of red cloth on their hats.

The fourth diviſion of the city contains nothing remarkable.

The fifth, called the Seſtiere di St. Pauolo, contains the exchange, the bank, the Franciſcan church, the ſplendid chapel of St. Anthony, &c.

And the ſixth, named the Seſtiere di Dorſo duro, has many magnificent churches, adorned with the moſt beautiful ſculpture and paintings.

Round the city of Venice are a conſiderable number of ſmall iſlands, ſome of which have handſome gardens, walks, and beautiful churches. One of the principal of theſe is St. Murano, a populous iſland about a mile from Venice, and has its own magiſtrates, but, like the reſt, is under the juriſdiction of the city. In it are fifteen churches, of which St. Peter's, the principal, belongs to the Dominicans. In this iſland the famous large looking-glaſſes are made, and other curious glaſs-work performed.

We have already mentioned many of the diverſions of the city; and ſhall here add, that among the moſt rational and agreeable are the excellent concerts performed weekly in the churches of the hoſpitals degl 'Incurabili and della Pietà. In the former they are chiefly vocal, and in the latter inſtrumental; and, what is moſt extraordinary, the performers in both are poor maidens.

The trade of Venice in cloth, eſpecially ſcarlet, ſilk ſtuffs, and looking-glaſſes, is ſtill very conſiderable. Here are alſo manufactured gold and ſilver ſtuffs, for which they have a good vent in the Levant; and likewiſe brocatellas, a kind of ſtuff like brocade, made of coarſe ſilk, and much uſed for carpets.

Having given a very particular account of the republic, we ſhall proceed to give a deſcription of the ſeveral countries ſubject to it.

SECT. XI.

The PADUANO, *or* PADUAN.

Its Situation and Extent, with a particular Deſcription of the City of Padua, and a conciſe Account of Abano and Rovigo.

THE Paduan, or territory of Padua, is called by the Italians Paduano, and is a part of Lombardy: it is bounded on the north by Treviſano, on the eaſt by the Dogado, on the ſouth by the Poleſino, and on the weſt by the Veroneſe and Vicentino; it extending about forty miles in length, and thirty-five in breadth.

This is one of the moſt fertile ſpots in Italy; and the country is adorned with a great number of beautiful villas and gardens: but it is ſubject to ſtorms, particularly thoſe that come from the ſea, which are extremely violent.

Padua, in Latin Patavium, is an antient and large city on the Brenta, ſituated in the forty-fifth degree thirty-ſix minutes north latitude, and in the twelfth degree twenty minutes eaſt longitude. The inhabitants boaſt that the republic of Venice owes its origin and riſe to their city; but it is now ſome centuries ſince Padua has been brought under the Venetian yoke, which has occaſioned it greatly to decline from its former ſplendor; ſo that at preſent it ſcarcely contains forty thouſand inhabitants. The ſtreets are narrow, ill paved, and dirty; but almoſt all the houſes ſtand upon porticos, under which one may walk without being incommoded either by the ſun or rain: this, however, renders the lower part of the buildings dark. The city contains twenty-ſix pariſh-churches, twenty-three convents of monks, eighteen nunneries, four good hoſpitals, and is a biſhop's ſee.

The principal church is that of the Franciſcans, dedicated to St. Anthony, on account of the exceſſive veneration paid by the Paduans to this ſuppoſed ſaint. It is built upon the ruins of a temple of Juno, and is very ſpacious, full of gold, ſilver, precious ſtones, paintings, gildings, ſculpture, and every other kind of magnificence. The pavement is of marble of various colours; the choir is adorned with white and red marble, and the benches, which are very fine, are embelliſhed over head with baſs reliefs in eighteen braſs pannels, by Sanſovin, repreſenting ſeveral paſſages of the life of Chriſt, and are very much admired: but the richeſt part of this church is the chapel, which contains his body, and is entirely lined with white marble. "In the chapel of this ſaint, ſays Key-"ſler, I ſaw burning above fifty large ſilver lamps, and "one of gold; together with two very large ſilver candle-"ſticks ſtanding on pedeſtals of white marble. St. An-"thony's coffin is of ſerpentine, and lies under the altar, "which is adorned with ſeven angels of bronze, and "ſome exquiſite ſculpture; and, indeed, the chapel has "in every reſpect but few equals. On one ſide of it are "ſhewn two wax flambeaux, eight or nine inches in "diameter,

" diameter, and fixed in iron-work. Theſe are ſaid to " have been offered by a treacherous Turk, with a de- " ſign to blow up the chapel, by means of fire-works " concealed in them; but it ſeems St. Anthony prevent- " ed the calamity; for theſe flambeaux being lighted, " he cried out aloud three times from his coffin, that " they ſhould be put out, which occaſioned a farther " examination of the flambeaux, and thus the villainous " plot was diſcovered. St. Anthony's remains are ſaid " continually to emit a moſt fragrant perfume, which " is chiefly ſmelt at a crevice behind the altar; and it " is ſaid that this perfume is ſtronger in the morning " than in the evening, whence ſome have inferred that " the cleft is rubbed with perfumes every morning, be- " fore the people are permitted to approach it. The " ſaint's tongue is kept with great devotion in a glaſs " vaſe in the veſtry, and very fervent prayers are offered " up to it."

The church of St. Juſtina, deſigned by Palladio, belongs to the Benedictine convent, which is ſaid to be poſſeſſed of an annual income of a hundred thouſand ducats, and is remarkable for being a handſome, luminous, and diſencumbered building; and is eſteemed by many artiſts one of the fineſt works in Italy. The long nave conſiſts of a row of five cupolas, and the croſs one has on each ſide a ſingle cupola, deeper and broader than the others. The martyrdom of St. Juſtina, done by Paul Veroneſe, hangs over the altar. The chief relics of this church are the ſuppoſed bodies of St. Luke and St. Matthias.

The magnificence of the convent, which is built of large ſquare free-ſtone, is anſwerable to the beauty of the church: it is a vaſt fabric that has ſix cloiſters, ſeveral courts, and many gardens. The refectory is very fine, extremely neat, and adorned with an excellent picture of Jeſus at Emmaus, by Titian: they alſo highly value a ſtatue of the Virgin Mary here, which they ſay was at Conſtantinople when the Turks made themſelves maſters of that city; but was ſo frightened by thoſe barbarians, that ſhe flew directly to Padua.

What they call the library is a very magnificent building, but very ill furniſhed with books, the cellars being much better ſtocked with hogſheads of wine. The Benedictines of St. Juſtina boaſt of having diſcovered in their garden the coffin of Titus Livius, and that this convent is built upon the ruins of an old temple of Concord, ſome ſay of Jupiter.

The ſquare near it is the largeſt in Padua, and was antiently called the Field of Mars: its preſent name is Prato della Valle, and it ſerves for the quality to walk in. There is a ſmall ſpot in this ſquare named Campo Santo, or the Holy Field, from the great number of Chriſtians who formerly ſuffered martyrdom there. The cathedral is a very old ſtructure, and has a revenue of a hundred thouſand crowns for maintaining twenty-ſeven canons, who muſt be all of noble extraction, with ſome chaplains and other officers. There are here the tombs of many great men, and the church is adorned with a great number of excellent paintings by the great maſters. Other handſome churches are thoſe of the Carmelites, St. Franciſco di Paola, the Theatines, and St. Maria della Gratie.

The univerſity founded by the emperor Frederic II. was formerly in great repute; but has for many years been ſo decayed, that the ſtudents now ſcarce make five hundred. No difficulty is made of burying a Proteſtant traveller in a church or convent, if before his death care has been taken to have his name entered in the matricula of the univerſity. In this ſtructure are the ſtatues and arms of a great number of illuſtrious perſons who were members of it. The anatomical theatre being ſomewhat dark, the diſſections are generally performed by candle-light. The library is a handſome building, and the phyſic-garden, though not large, is ingeniouſly contrived, and was the firſt of the kind belonging to any univerſity in Europe.

The chief civil edifice is the town-houſe; but its large hall is kept in ſo dirty a condition, that were it not for ſome monuments it contains it would not be worth ſeeing: on the outſide of the four gates are the ſtatues of four celebrated Paduans, namely Titus Livius, Albertus Patavinus, Petrus Aponus, and Paulus Patavinus. In the large hall juſt mentioned is a ſtone, which has a Latin inſcription, by which it is termed the ſtone of ignominy and bankruptcy. For ſuch as became bankrupt, and were unable to pay their debts, by ſitting publicly three times with their bare poſteriors on this ſtone, and ſwearing that it was not in their power to diſcharge their debts, were cleared from any farther proſecution from their creditors: but this extraordinary ceremony has been diſcontinued for upwards of ſixty years.

The podeſta, or chief magiſtrate's palace, which joins to the town-houſe, contains a great number of buſtoes, ſtatues, and arms of former podeſtas; and in it is alſo the city library.

The pallazzo del Capitaneo ſtands in a beautiful area called Piazza de Nobili. It is an elegant building, and the ſecond ſtory is adorned with a gallery, ſupported by ſeventy-three columns of red marble. The tower is alſo a good piece of architecture, and has a clock which ſhews both the courſe of the ſun and moon.

The antient palace of the tyrant Acciolini is remarkable for its ſpacious vaults, and at preſent ſerves both for an arſenal and granary: it has two towers, on one of which is a Latin inſcription to the following purpoſe:

" Shed tears of compaſſion on this priſon, where the " blood of your anceſtors was abundantly ſhed; for thoſe " whom the inhuman Acciolini thruſt down alive, " without any diſtinction of age, ſex, rank, or con- " dition, into this dungeon, periſhed with hunger, grief, " and deſpair. After ſuch numbers of innocent victims, " who were buried alive in this dreadful ſepulchre, it was " at laſt the juſt fate of the execrable tyrant himſelf to " expire in it. Hence you ought to be ſenſible of your " preſent happineſs, in having a prince who, from being " objects of pity and compaſſion, has rendered you ſo " happy as to be envied for your proſperity. This in- " ſcription was placed over this dreadful dungeon by Se- " baſtiano Galvani, a native of Padua, commiſſary of " the proviſions and military-ſtores lodged in this caſtle, " in the year 1618."

Among the pleaſure-gardens in Padua that of d'Andola, a noble Venetian, is one of the beſt, it being adorned with great numbers of ſtatues; but the Papafava gardens exceed it for orange-trees, cypreſs, and other evergreens, which are diſpoſed into fine walks, labyrinths, and beautiful hedges. Of the latter ſome are of box-trees thirteen or fourteen feet high.

Though the air of Padua is eſteemed very healthy, yet few cities have ſo many apothecaries in proportion to the number of the inhabitants: but it muſt be obſerved, that moſt of theſe venders of medicines are alſo confectioners. Great quantities of vipers are collected here, ſome of which are kept alive for various uſes, and others dried and made into powder, which is ſuppoſed to be of great efficacy in medicine.

The Jews have their particular quarter allotted to them at Padua, out of which they are not permitted to ſtir.

The plain about Padua is a perfect paradiſe, and the neighbouring mountains yield excellent wine and oil. The paſſage from Padua to Venice is very convenient, and in fair weather the ſight of the many ſeats on both ſides the river renders it very pleaſant.

At the diſtance of about four Italian miles from Padua is the village of Abano, which is much frequented in ſummer on account of the warm baths, which are about half a mile from it. In theſe baths are three ſorts of water of very different qualities; ſome of theſe ſprings are impregnated with ſulphur, and have particular bathing-rooms, where, by means of ſteps, one may deſcend to any depth in the water: others are boiling hot, and the water ſprings up in ſuch quantities as to drive a mill at the diſtance of about twenty paces from the ſource. The wooden pipes through which the water is conveyed to theſe baths are often encruſted with a white ſtoney ſubſtance, not eaſily ſeparated from the wood; and the exact impreſſion of the veins and knots of the wood on this concretion make it perfectly reſemble petrified wood. A ſudatorium has alſo been built here, the effect of which is cauſed by the ſteam of the water. Some of the ſprings, which are tepid, are ſaid to be impregnated with lead,

and others, from their reddiſh ſediment, and other ſigns, appear to be chalybeate. In thoſe where ſulphur predominates, the pipes contract a cruſt of whitiſh ſalt. Here is alſo a mud-bath, where very obſtinate arthritic diſorders have been cured, by means of the warm mud.

The peninſula Rovigo, which is alſo ſubject to Venice, is very fertile, and environed by the rivers Adige, Po, Tattaro, and Caſtagnaro; and is interſected by ſeveral canals. It contains Rovigo, a pretty large city ſeated on the Adige, which runs through it. Its fortifications are antient, beſides which it has a caſtle, and is the reſidence of the biſhop of Adria. This diſtrict, beſides the above city, only contains Adria, which is now an inconſiderable place, and three other market-towns.

SECT. XII.

The VERONESE.

Its Situation, Extent, and Produce; with a particular Deſcription of the City of Verona.

THE Veroneſe, the next country ſubject to Venice, is bounded on the north by the country of Trent, on the eaſt by the Paduan and Vicentino, on the ſouth by the dutchy of Mantua, and on the weſt by Breſciano. Its utmoſt extent from north to ſouth is about forty miles, and its breadth from eaſt to weſt about thirty-two.

The Veroneſe is a delightful country, abounding in excellent peaches, melons, figs, ſtrawberries, truffles, very large artichokes, cheſnuts, apples, pears, plums, wine, oil, corn, and other vegetables. It has good marble, and petrifactions of ſeveral kinds. Among the mountains, that of Baldo is celebrated for its valuable plants. The lake of Garda, in Latin Benacus, Virgil repreſents as very ſtormy, comparing its waves to thoſe of the ocean: indeed it reſembles the ſea, and his deſcription is not very hyperbolical. It is upwards of twenty-eight Engliſh miles in length, and abounds in fiſh, particularly large fine trouts. The diſtrict of Verona annually brings in to the republic of Venice upwards of five hundred and ſixty thouſand ducats. The principal city of this diſtrict is the following:

Verona, the capital of the Veroneſe, is a very large city, ſituated in the forty-fifth degree twenty-ſix minutes north latitude, and in the eleventh degree fifteen minutes eaſt longitude. It is fortified in the antient manner, with three caſtles, two of which ſtand on a hill, and the other two in a plain, by the river Adige, which runs through the city, and over which are four ſtone bridges, one of them three hundred and forty-eight feet long.

This city makes a better appearance from its delightful outlets, than when one is within it; moſt of the ſtreets being narrow, crooked, and dirty, and the houſes but mean. The inhabitants are computed to amount to near fifty thouſand, but they were formerly much more numerous. The beſt ſtreet in the city is called Il Curſo, where the diverſions of the carnival conclude with foot-races, &c. Common proſtitutes were formerly permitted to enter the liſts, and to run for the prize; but this cuſtom has been aboliſhed, and altered to a horſe-race, which is exhibited on Shrove-Sunday, the laſt Sunday of the carnival. The prize is a piece of gold brocade, or ſome other rich ſtuff. The largeſt piazza in this city is La Piazza d'Armi, where the two annual fairs in ſpring and autumn are held, and in which ſtands a marble ſtatue repreſenting the republic of Venice in a female habit, with a crown on her head. In the town-houſe are the ſtatues of five celebrated perſons who were natives of Verona; theſe are Catullus, Æmilius Marcus, Cornelius Nepos, the elder Pliny, and Vitruvius; beſides which, on a high arch, ſtands the ſtatue of Gieronimo Fracaſtori, a learned phyſician, mathematician, and excellent poet, who flouriſhed in the ſixteenth century. The moſt valuable piece of antiquity here is the celebrated Roman amphitheatre, which is ſo perfect that the ſeats on which the people ſat are ſtill entire. Indeed but little of it appears antient, it having been carefully repaired from time to time at the city's expence. The learned count Maffei computed that it conveniently held twenty-two thouſand one hundred and eighty-four ſpectators, but the outer wall and the upper ſtory are wanting.

In the edifice where the learned Philarmonic Society hold their meetings is a very large hall, in which are the portraits of the *patres*, or preſidents of this academy, who are always four in number; and in an apartment on the left hand are kept the old muſical inſtruments with which the nobility of Verona uſed formerly to amuſe themſelves. An apartment on the right hand is appointed for the preſidents of the Philoti, who are inſtituted for the improvement of bodily exerciſes, as riding, fencing, vaulting, dancing, &c. There is alſo in this building a fine theatre for exhibiting operas and comedies, which has five galleries, and was built from a deſign of the famous Franceſco Bibiena, architect to the emperor. As the nobility aſſemble here ſeveral times in a week to divert themſelves with cards, &c. this theatre may be conſidered as a kind of exchange for the polite and the literati of Verona. In one room ſtands the ſtatue of a female of white marble. On the outſide of this edifice are to be ſeen a great number of inſcriptions and other remains of antiquity, many of which were dug up about Verona; and that they may not be expoſed to any future damage from the injuries of the weather, they are inſerted in a long wall facing the ſouth, the north wind being found very detrimental to ſtones. After theſe are ſeveral antient monuments in baſſo relievo, repreſenting the gods, ſacrifices, &c. In the proper arrangement of theſe pieces the marquis Scipio Maffei was at no ſmall expence, and ſpared no pains to increaſe their number; on which account the gentlemen belonging to this academy erected a marble ſtatue of him over the entrance of this building.

In Verona there are convents of Carmelite monks, both bare-footed and others. In the church of the former are three fine altars, the firſt of which is adorned with columns of verde-antico, the ſecond with pillars of a red and white veined marble, and the third with columns of a yellow marble. The high altar is alſo of beautiful marble finely executed, and adorned with a noble picture of the Annunciation.

In the church belonging to the other Carmelite monks is a beautiful altar of fine marble, and in the veſtry a fine piece of painting by one of the diſciples of the celebrated Raphael, repreſenting our Saviour when a child playing with John the Baptiſt, and the Virgin Mary looking with great complacency on their mutual fondneſs and ſportive innocence.

Among the other churches, one of the fineſt is that of St. George, belonging to the Benedictine monks. Over the door is the baptiſm of Chriſt painted by Tintoretto; on the high altar is a piece repreſenting the martyrdom of St. George, by Paul Veroneſe; and on one ſide near it our Saviour feeding five thouſand people, by Paul Taranati, who was ſeventy-nine years of age when he painted this piece; and on the other ſide a very fine repreſentation of the Iſraelites gathering manna. This piece is twenty-four feet in length, and twenty-three broad.

Between Verona and Vicenza are found all kinds of petrified fiſh, moſt of which are of the ſalt-water ſpecies, in a ſort of white loam. Theſe fiſhes are generally well preſerved, their bones being entire, and frequently even their ſcales; they chiefly conſiſt of pike, ſoles, thornbacks, flying-fiſh, perch, and gudgeons.

SECT. XIII.

The Territory of VICENZA, *or* VICENTINO.

Its Situation, Extent, and Produce; with a particular Deſcription of the City of Vicenza, and the Manners of the Inhabitants.

THE territory of Vicenza is alſo a part of Lombardy, and is bounded on the north by the territory of Trent, on the eaſt by the Treviſano, on the ſouth by the Paduan; and on the weſt by the Veroneſe, extending in length from north to ſouth, about forty miles, and in breadth about thirty-three.

The air is ſerene and healthful, and the inhabitants computed at a hundred and fifty or a hundred and ſixty thouſand ſouls. The country is indeed ſo fertile and de-

lightful, that it may be called both the garden and fleſh-market of Venice; it alſo produces good wine.

The principal city in this territory is Vicenza, or Vicentia, which is ſituated thirty Italian miles from Verona, in the forty-fifth degree thirty four minutes north latitude, and in the twelfth degree fifteen minutes eaſt longitude, and is watered by the rivers Bachiglioni and Rerone, which here unite their ſtreams, and contains many elegant and beautiful buildings, the tops of ſeveral of them ornamented with ſtatues, particularly the piazza before the council-houſe. This piazza makes a grand appearance, and before it ſtands two very lofty columns: on the top of one of them is St. Mark's winged lion, the arms of Venice, and on the other the image of our Saviour. There is in this city a literary ſociety ſtiled the Olympici, whoſe deſign is chiefly the improvement of the Italian language. The academicians hold their meetings in a theatre built by the celebrated Palladio, who was a native of this city. It is but ſeldom uſed as a theatre, yet the perſpective of the ſtage is admirable, and it is adorned with ſtatues of the Roman emperors and philoſophers. The pit is likewiſe adorned with ſeveral ſtatues, and the ſeats are diſpoſed after the manner of the antient amphitheatres. In the Campus Martius, without the city, is a triumphal arch built from one of Palladio's deſigns, in imitation of the antient ſtructures of that kind. The Monte della Pieta is alſo a ſtately fabric, and has a very fine library.

Of the churches, which are fifty-ſeven in number, fourteen are parochial, and twenty-nine conventual. Among theſe the great altar of the Dominican church is a ſuperb piece of Palladio's architecture.

The church della Madona di Monte, on a mountain without the city, is much frequented by pilgrims, and has a fine frontiſpiece, with a convent built cloſe by it. In the refectory of this convent is a picture painted by Paul Veroneſe, repreſenting pope Gregory the Great ſitting with ſeveral pilgrims at table, where our Saviour is alſo preſent. Though this piece be finely executed, the deſign is very abſurd. The pope ſits at the upper end, without his triple crown; and next to him Chriſt is repreſented without any particular mark of diſtinction: the next is a cardinal, and on the other ſide another cardinal, with a large pair of ſpectacles on his noſe; a page dreſſed in the Spaniſh manner waits at table, with a dog under his arm: under the table are repreſented a cat, a monkey, &c. The mountain on which this church and convent are built yields a very agreeable proſpect, which extends as far as Padua. For the convenience of the uſual proceſſions, and of pilgrims, a large aſcent by ſteps has been made up the acclivity of the mountain. In the valley at the beginning of the aſcent is a triumphal arch, and on the left hand of it is a ſtatue of the Virgin Mary.

The fineſt garden at Vicenza is that of count Valmarano, which for its ſituation, viſtas, arbours, and beautiful walks, may be eſteemed one of the nobleſt in all Italy. A covered walk of cedar and orange-trees, planted alternately, and above two hundred paces in length, is particularly admired. On one ſide of it is a broad canal, well ſtocked with large barbels and other fiſh, which at the ſound of a pipe immediately appear in great numbers on the ſurface, in order to be fed. Over the entrance into the garden is a Latin inſcription to the following purpoſe:

"If corroding cares have haply followed thee thus far, "though they be loth to leave thee, diſpel and baniſh "them, for this place is dedicated to genial mirth and "feſtivity. Whoever ſhall damage theſe cedars, or crop "a flower, let him be eſteemed ſacrilegious, and be pu-"niſhed, to appeaſe Vertumnus and Pomona, to whom "they are conſecrated.

"Native, friend, or ſtranger, who deſireſt to amuſe "thyſelf with the rural charms of this place, thou mayeſt "ſecurely enter theſe gardens deſigned for pleaſure and "recreation. Here is no fierce dog, no frightful dragon, "no deity with threatening weapon; but every thing "is here freely, and without danger, expoſed to thy "view. Such is the pleaſure of count Leonardo Val-"marano, the owner of theſe gardens, who relies on thy "modeſty and good breeding as ſufficient to guard the "place from outrages."

The inhabitants of Vicenza have the character of being more vindictive than the reſt of the Italians; and it is certain that travellers, eſpecially thoſe who are hot and quarrelſome, ſhould be very careful both here and in every part of Italy to avoid diſputes, eſpecially with the poſtillions and other perſons of the lower claſs; for the deſire of revenge is ſo predominant, that they have been known to follow a traveller ſix or eight ſtages to watch an opportunity of gratifying their malice. "Open violence, ſays "Mr. Keyſler, from whom we have borrowed theſe re-"marks, is little to be apprehended from them, on which "account the danger is the greater; for cowards are "always cruel. Murder is looked upon in Italy in a "very different light from what it is in other countries. "If a robbery is committed in the ſtreets, or market-"place, in any of the towns of this country, and the "people are called to ſtop the thief, there is always "aſſiſtance at hand to purſue the criminal; but upon "crying after a murderer, nobody offers to ſtir, and "the aſſaſſin ſaves himſelf by flying unmoleſted to a "church, convent, or other aſylum, where, to the "great honour of the clergy be it ſpoken, the villain re-"ceives all poſſible aſſiſtance, that he may eſcape the "hands of the civil power. I remember a poſtillion, the "above author adds, who once drove me, was treacher-"ouſly ſtabbed at the poſt-houſe of Piſtoia; and tho' "the fact was committed in the preſence of more than "ten perſons, not one of them ſtirred a foot to ſeize or "purſue the murderer."

The meaneſt citizens of Vicenza, in ſigning contracts or other deeds, add to their names the title of count of Vicenza; an empty piece of pride, which they are ſaid to derive from an anſwer given by Charles V. who when he was at Vicenza, to get rid of the importunate ſolicitations of ſeveral wealthy citizens to grant them the title of counts, ſaid in jeſt, *Todos contes*, "I make you all "counts."

SECT. XIV.

Of the Territories of Breſciano, or Breſcia, Bergamo, Cremaſco, Marca Trevigiana, Friuli, and Iſtria: with a Deſcription of the Cities of Breſcia, Bergamo, Crema, Treviſo, or Trevigio, and Udine.

THE territory of Breſcia is alſo a part of Lombardy ſubject to the Venetians, and, though mountainous, abounds in wine, oil, wheat, and other grain; alſo in ſilver, copper, iron, and marble of all colours. This territory is bounded on the eaſt by the Lago di Garda; on the weſtward by the Lago d'Iſeo, in Latin Sevinus; and on the ſouthward by the ſmall lake of Idro. The principal city in this diſtrict is the following:

Breſcia, in Latin Brixia, is a fortified city on the little river Garza, in the forty-fifth degree twenty-ſeven minutes north latitude, and in the tenth degree thirty-nine minutes eaſt longitude, and is defended by a caſtle ſeated on a hill. Beſides the cathedral it has nineteen pariſh-churches, forty-five convents, and ſome charitable foundations, with a general hoſpital. Its biſhop is a ſuffragan to the archbiſhop of Milan; he has large revenues, and bears the titles of duke, marquis, and count. The cathedral is a ſtately modern ſtructure; and the celebrated biſhop cardinal Quirini having greatly contributed towards the building of it, and made the city a preſent of a library, the magiſtracy, in 1750, erected two ſtatues of him, one in the church, and the other at the entrance of the library; and alſo cauſed a medal to be ſtruck to his honour. Among the relics of this church is an azure croſs, believed to be the ſame which Conſtantine ſaw in the air. The inhabitants are computed at near fifty thouſand, and the nobility live here in a very ſplendid and gay manner. The fire-arms, ſwords, and cutlery-ware of this city are much eſteemed, as are its linen-manufacture, which, with other commodities, render its trade very conſiderable.

In

In this territory are ſome other towns, and a conſiderable number of villages.

The diſtrict of Bergamo is alſo a part of Lombardy: towards the north it is mountainous and rocky, but about the capital very fruitful. Some valleys produce wine and oil, while others are barren, but abound in iron. The only conſiderable place in this diſtrict is

Bergamo, a well fortified city on ſeveral hills, at the bottom of which are ſome handſome ſuburbs. Between the city and a ſtrong caſtle which ſtands on the higheſt mountain, is a communication under ground. In the cathedral, which is a handſome ſtructure, are ſaid to be preſerved and venerated with great devotion the bodies of twenty-five ſaints. The biſhop is ſuffragan to the archbiſhop of Milan. This city is famed for its ſewing ſilk, and has a fair on St. Bartholomew's day, to which there is a great reſort of merchants and tradeſmen from Italy, Germany, and Sicily.

The diſtrict of Cremaſco, which is alſo a part of Lombardy, is very fruitful in corn, wine, and hemp, and contains

Crema, a pretty ſtrong city, ſeated in a very fruitful plain, on the river Serio, and defended by a caſtle. The biſhop is ſubordinate to the archbiſhop of Bologna. The houſes are elegantly built, and beſides the cathedral there are thirty churches, convents, hoſpitals, and charitable foundations.

The Marca Trevigiana is one of the richeſt and beſt ſpots in all Italy; particularly the country between Treviſo and Caſtel Franco is, as it were, one continued garden, every where planted with rows of wild mulberry trees, which ſerve as eſpaliers for vines; and in travelling from Treviſo to Maeſtre in the dutchy of Venice, each ſide is moſt charmingly variegated with the beautiful villas and gardens.

The principal place in this territory is Treviſo, or Trevigio, a very old fortified town, with a fort on the river Sile, into which, after dividing itſelf into three branches, and watering the town, the Piaveſella diſcharges itſelf. This place is of a middling ſize, with many neat houſes, and among its inhabitants are ſeveral noble families. In 1608, the academy Perſeveranti was erected here. It has alſo the academy of Solleciti. It is the reſidence of a biſhop, and became ſubject to the republic in 1388.

The fertile country of Friuli anciently belonged to the patriarch of Aquileia; but in the fifteenth century became ſubject to the republic of Venice. In the ſixteenth century a part of it devolved to the houſe of Auſtria.

The capital of the Venetian part is Udine, a city of middling ſize, ſeated on the river and canal of la Roia. The patriarch, who formerly reſided at Aquileia, ſome years ago took up his abode here. The conteſt between the houſe of Auſtria and the republic about the patriarchate, was compromiſed by the pope's ſuppreſſing the patriarchate, and erecting two archbiſhoprics out of it, one to be in the city, and the other in that of Gortz, which belongs to Auſtria. The archbiſhop of Udine is metropolitan of all the biſhops in the Venetian territories that were before under the patriarch. This city contains ſeveral churches, convents, and hoſpitals; a college for law, and an academy for martial exerciſes.

Iſtria is a kind of peninſula between two large bays of the gulph of Venice, namely that of Trieſte and that of Quarner, and is about ſixty miles in length, but not near ſo broad. It was a part of the ancient Illyricum; but being conquered by the Romans, between the firſt and ſecond Punic wars, was annexed to Italy. In the middle ages it belonged to the patriarchate of Aquileia, who was inveſted with it as a marquiſate by the emperor Henry IV. In 1190, moſt of the maritime part was conquered by the republic of Venice, which they have ever ſince enjoyed, though not without ſome interruption from the Auſtrians. It is fruitful, eſpecially in wine and oil, but is hilly, and the air unhealthy, on which account it is but thinly peopled.

Capo d'Iſtria, anciently Juſtinopolis, the capital of the territory, is a biſhop's ſee and a pretty ſtrong town, ſeated on a ſmall iſland, ſo near the continent that it is joined to it by a bridge. The cathedral is an old, but a ſtately building, and has three aiſles ſupported by eighteen marble pillars. The churches of the Servitæ and Dominicans are noble ſtructures, as is alſo that of the Franciſcans, who hold the tribunal of the inquiſition. The town-hall is a very ancient edifice, ſuppoſed to have been formerly a temple dedicated to Pallas; and it is even affirmed, that the ſtatue of Juſtice, which now ſtands in the front of the building, was that of the goddeſs.

In this diſtrict are ſeveral other towns; but they are moſt of them ſmall and inconſiderable.

With reſpect to the other parts of the dominions of Venice, we have already given an account of Venetian Dalmatia in page 136; and of the iſlands of Corfu, Santa Maura, Cephalonia and Zante, which belong to Venice, in treating of Turky in Europe, page 26, 27.

SECT. XV.

Of the Republic of GENOA.

The Situation, Extent, and Produce of Genoa. Its Manufactures, Trade, Hiſtory, and Form of Government. The Title and Arms of the Republic: Its Offices, Courts, Revenues, Military and Naval Force; with a particular Deſcription of the City of Genoa, and of the Manners of its Inhabitants.

THE independent republic of Genoa, beſides being poſſeſſed of a long tract which extends along the coaſt of an extenſive gulph of the Mediterranean, anciently called Mare Ligufticum, has alſo the ſovereignty of the iſland of Corſica. The above tract extends along the coaſt from eaſt to weſt, about one hundred and fifty-two miles; but from north to ſouth it is very narrow in ſome places, it being only eight, and in the wideſt not above twenty miles broad. It is bounded by the principality of Piedmont, the dutchies of Montferrat, Milan, Placentia, and Parma, the grand dutchy of Tuſcany, and the republic of Lucca.

The mountains take up a great part of the country; ſome of theſe are covered with woods; ſome are quite barren and rocky, and others yield good paſture. Though the Genoeſe, from their want of arable land, are obliged to furniſh themſelves with great quantities of corn from Lombardy, Sicily, Naples, and other countries, yet ſuch is their ſkill and induſtry in improving a mountainous, rocky, and ſterile ſoil, that all the year round Genoa is plentifully furniſhed with pulſe and vegetables for the kitchen in the higheſt perfection. The country alſo produces both common and muſcadel wine, with plenty of excellent fruit, particularly in the weſt part are lemons, oranges, pomegranates, figs and almonds; beſides many plantations of mulberry-trees, chiefly intended for ſilk-worms. The olives principally grow about Spatia-bay. It will not here be improper to obſerve, that the olive-tree very nearly reſembles a willow, and makes but a mean appearance. The beſt oil is the white and tranſparent; for the deep yellow is either made from over-ripe olives, or has been kept too long. The good oil has no ſmell nor any kind of viſcid fatneſs. Virgin oil, by the ancients called green oil, is preſſed both from ripe and unripe olives, and is the whiteſt, the moſt palatable, and in every reſpect the beſt. The inhabitants have alſo ſuch plenty of ſalt, that they can ſpare it for exportation, as they alſo can ſtone and marble. Theſe territories are watered by many rivers; but they are all of them ſmall and inconſiderable.

The inhabitants of Genoa are of the Romiſh religion, and the inquiſition, as in other parts of Italy, has been introduced here. However, a great number of Proteſtants live among them without moleſtation.

The Genoeſe manufactures are far from being ſo numerous as formerly, yet velvet, pluſh, and fuſtian, are ſtill made, together with damaſks, and other ſilk ſtuffs; for which conſiderable quantities of red ſilk are imported from Meſſina and other ports of Sicily; they alſo make gold and ſilver tiſſues, laces, and gloves; but theſe are inferior to thoſe of France and the Netherlands. The other Genoeſe merchandizes conſiſt of oil, fruit, Parmeſan cheeſe, anchovies and drugs, which laſt are brought

brought from the Levant. A briſk trade is carried on with theſe goods, eſpecially to Spain. Ships of moſt European nations, particularly Engliſh, Dutch, and French, are conſtantly ſeen at Genoa, which is alſo the great mart for the trade of Lombardy. Indeed the revenues principally ariſe from manufactures and trade; but the ſtate is far from making the figure it formerly did, which is chiefly owing to the improvement of manufactures in other countries, the dearneſs of the Genoeſe goods, and the danger of the harbour. Indeed Genoa was in 1751 declared a free port; but this freedom is under ſome reſtrictions not known at Leghorn. In the part properly called Porto Franco, any merchant may have a warehouſe, and both export and import goods free from duty; but ſuch as are diſpoſed of in the city or on the continent, pay very conſiderably. The city of Genoa is famous for having the richeſt bankers in Europe, and hence a very profitable article is its dealing in bills of exchange.

Genoa was the capital of ancient Liguria; it was deſtroyed by Mago the Carthaginian, but rebuilt by the Romans, and after them fell under the power of the Oſtrogoths, out of whoſe hands it was reſcued by the great Beliſarius, and rendered ſubject to the Eaſtern empire. In 670 it was ſacked by the Longobardi; but being afterwards rebuilt, continued under their dominion till they were expelled out of Italy by Charlemagne.

For ſome centuries Genoa was ſubject to the Roman emperors, but by degrees erected itſelf into an independent ſtate; and ſoon after its power became ſo increaſed by its flouriſhing trade, that in the year 806 it reduced the iſland of Corſica; and in the eleventh and twelfth centuries the inhabitants diſtinguiſhed themſelves in the croiſades. The Genoeſe in the twelfth century ſubdued half of Sardinia, and the city of Syracuſe in Sicily, and even made themſelves maſters of all the ports in the Black Sea, and ſettled themſelves in Crimea. In the thirteenth century they added to their conqueſts the towns of Albenga, Savona, Vintimiglia, and others in their neighbourhood, and engaged in a long and expenſive war with Venice, which laſted till the year 1381, and ſo weakened them, that they became unable to maintain the poſſeſſion of Crimea, from which they were entirely driven in 1471. At length this republic ſuffered many rude ſhocks from the inteſtine diſſenſions which aroſe about the form of government, by which the ſtate was ſo debilitated, that the people were obliged to put themſelves ſometimes under the protection of the duke of Milan, and ſometimes under that of the kings of France; but the latter treating them with intolerable rigour, they ſtruggled hard for liberty, but without ſucceſs, till that naval hero Andrew Doria, in 1528, reſcued his country out of the hands of the French, and eſtabliſhed its preſent form of government. Genoa has from that time generally ſided with Spain, which has frequently involved it in quarrels with France, and it has always had a dangerous neighbour in the duke of Savoy. In 1684, the capital was bombarded by the French, when the republic, to ſave it from total deſtruction, was obliged to ſubmit to very hard terms; two of which were, That the doge and four counſellors ſhould appear in perſon at Verſailles, and aſk pardon; and that the ſtate ſhould diſarm all their gallies, except ſix, and fit out no more without the French king's conſent.

In the year 1713, Charles VI. ſold the marquiſate of Final to the republic for a conſiderable ſum of money; and in 1730, the inhabitants of Corſica began their revolt, and will probably be never entirely reduced under the Genoeſe ſubjection. In 1743, the queen of Hungary having at the treaty of Worms, ceded to the king of Sardinia all her right to the town and marquiſate of Final, and he demanding that the Genoeſe ſhould deliver them up, they entered into an alliance with France, Spain, and Naples, and in 1745, declared war againſt the king of Sardinia; an unfortunate ſtep, for which they were ſeverely chaſtiſed in 1746, by Great Britain and the queen of Hungary. The king of Sardinia made himſelf maſter of all the Riviera di Ponente; ſeveral Genoeſe ports were bombarded by the Engliſh fleet, and the Imperialiſts even ſeized on the city of Genoa; but after a terrible ſlaughter on both ſides, were driven out by the inhabitants, and in 1747, failed in their attempt to recover it. However, the tranquility of this republic was reſtored by the treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle in 1748.

Before we deſcribe the form of government, it will be proper to give our readers ſome idea of the nobility, which are diſtinguiſhed into ancient and new. The ancient nobility conſiſts of twenty eight families, whom Andrew Doria, in the year 1528, declared alone capable of holding the dignity of doge, and the other chief offices; all the other inhabitants being reduced by him to the claſs of commoners. However, there are joined to theſe other eminent and wealthy families; but they are obliged inſtead of their former name to adopt one of the twenty-eight; for in ſubſequent times it was found neceſſary, for the preſervation of the public tranquility, to proceed to a new creation of nobles. The new nobility conſiſt of about five hundred families. The ancient nobility think themſelves much ſuperior to the modern, though both are now equally capable of public employments. However, in order to ſit in the great council, it is neceſſary to have been a nobleman four years, and ſix to ſit in the leſſer; but a procurator or ſenator muſt be a nobleman of ten years ſtanding, and to be doge requires fifteen. The great families of Doria and Spinola have given over commerce, but the other nobility make no ſcruple of being wholeſale merchants. They are alſo allowed to keep velvet, ſilk, and cloth manufactories; to farm the duties, and to have ſhares in merchant-ſhips; but all other buſineſs and handicraft employments are forbidden them. It may be ſaid in general, that the republic is poor, and the nobility rich, though not to ſuch a degree as is commonly ſuppoſed. Dr. Buſching ſays, he is credibly informed, that not above four or five houſes are poſſeſſed of three hundred thouſand liri per annum, (each liri is worth about eight-pence three-farthings ſterling) that there are many more from twenty to thirty thouſand; but the greateſt part of them have not above ten thouſand.

The form of government in this republic is ariſtocratical; the chief perſon is called the doge, or duke, to which dignity no perſon is promoted till he is fifty years of age. Every two years a new doge is choſen, and the former is incapable during five years of holding the ſame poſt again. However, he has a procurator's office aſſigned him, and a penſion of a hundred ſcudi for life, each worth four ſhillings and ſix-pence.

On the election-day, which is uſually on the third of January, the great council meet in the ducal palace, and by drawing gilt balls out of a box, where are alſo ſome ſilver ones, fifty perſons are choſen out of the leſſer council, who write down the names of ſuch as they think worthy of being promoted to the ducal office. From theſe ſo nominated, and alſo from the fifty who drew the gilt balls, the great council, by a majority of votes, ſelect fifteen; and of theſe again the leſſer ſix, of which each at leaſt muſt have three-fifths of the votes. It is out of theſe ſix that the great council, by a majority of ſuffrages, elect a doge.

On account of the kingdom of Corſica a crown is placed on the doge's head, and a ſceptre in his hand; and during the two firſt days after his election, he wears royal robes; but afterwards only the ſcarlet gown common to all the members of the council. He is ſtiled his ſerenity, but at the expiration of his government he is only ſtiled his excellence, like the reſt of the council. He and his family live in the palace, and have a body-guard of two hundred Germans. Without his conſent nothing can be propoſed, nor any reſolution of the council be of force. In all important affairs he makes the firſt motion, gives audience to ambaſſadors, and all orders are iſſued in his name.

The title of the republic is, the moſt ſerene republic of Genoa. Its arms are argent, a croſs gules; the helmet ſurmounted with a regal crown, to denote the ſovereignty of the republic over the iſland of Corſica. Its rank is immediately next to Venice, and it requires that its miniſters at foreign courts ſhould be treated as thoſe of crowned heads.

The chief authority, next to that of the doge, is lodged in the two colleges of the Governatori and Procura-

tori,

tori, who may alſo be conſidered as the council appointed by the doge. The former conſiſts of twelve, and the latter of eight, without including thoſe who having been doge, continue procurators all the remaining part of their lives. Theſe two offices are only biennial. Three governatori and two procuratori live in the palace with the duke; but are changed every three months. The governatori, together with the doge, conſtitute the ſignoria, or grand council of ſtate, who deliberate on the moſt ſecret affairs, and afterwards lay matters of importance before the great council, in order to their receiving a general approbation: they alſo, in conjunction with the procuratori, aſſiſt at any intereſting conſultations of the great council. Without the privity and advice of the procuratori no affair of importance can be determined, and it is to them that the direction of the treaſury and public revenues belong.

The great council is compoſed of four hundred, and the little council, which is as it were a committee of the former, of one hundred. None but nobles, and ſuch as reſide at Genoa, can be admitted into either. The members are annually changed by a new election, which is performed towards the end of December, by thirty perſons ſelected for that purpoſe by the leſſer council, out of one hundred perſons propoſed by it. Both colleges deliberate with the two higher colleges on the laws, cuſtoms, taxes, and contributions; but war, peace, and alliances, are only conſidered and determined in the leſſer council. The five ſupreme ſindicatori, who are generally choſen out of the leſſer council, examine the conduct of the doge, the governators, the procurators, and other officers at the expiration of their employments. The commiſſerios of peace, who are three in number, and thoſe of the laws two, are changed every two years. The former, who are citizens, inſpect into the matrimonial affairs of the citizens, adjuſt petty diſputes, or in caſe of obſtinacy lay them before the ſignoria. They likewiſe aſſiſt at the election of a doge, and of all other perſons in authority, eſpecially of the thirty directors for elections, with reſpect to whom they are to examine whether their proceedings be legal, and whether in every other reſpect due obedience be paid to the laws.

Proceſſes among the citizens are decided by the rota, a court conſiſting of five foreign doctors of civil and canon law, who live in the palace of the republic, and continue two years in office. Another college of ſeven native doctors of law, who are uſually changed every half year, appoint guardians, ſee that proceſſes are not protracted without cauſe, and that care is taken of the polity. There is alſo a particular penal-court called *rota criminalis*, and another that deſerves commendation, which manages the affairs of poor debtors, or others detained in priſon.

In ſhort, the five cenſors take cognizance of the manufactures and trade, the quality of proviſions, weights, and meaſures, and of the behaviour of the conſuls and wardens of companies. Beſides theſe there are ſeveral inferior offices, which the freemen are capable of exerciſing.

The ordinary revenue of the ſtate is computed to amount to about half a million of liri; it ariſes from the duties on imports and exports: the regalia at Sarzana, Gavi, Savona, Vintimiglia, and other places; the woods and foreſts; the monopoly of wine, with reſpect to vintners and others, who keep cellars, and have no wine of their own; and of corn ſold to bakers; together with fines, and the produce of all the revenues of Corſica: but theſe laſt, even when that iſland was quiet, ſcarce anſwered the charge of the troops, and the many civil officers kept there; which more particularly ſince the inſurrection in that iſland, muſt have been of great expence to the republic.

When the above revenues fall ſhort of anſwering the neceſſary expences, the ſtate borrows from the nobles and rich citizens large ſums, at a high intereſt on certain pledges, and even aſſignments on branches of the public revenue, which in 1407 gave riſe to the famous bank of St. George, ſo called from St. George's church, where the directors formerly held their meetings. The opulence and power of this bank are very extraordinary, whole towns, manors, and territories belonging to it; and even great part of the iſland of Corſica. Among other important privileges, it is inveſted with a particular juriſdiction, and is dependent only on the doge and ſtate. This company has not only advanced large ſums to the republic, but alſo to foreigners, as mortgages on lands or public revenues in other ſtates.

The republic, in time of peace, uſually keep on foot a body of above five thouſand regular troops; namely, four thouſand natives, the duke's life-guard of two hundred Germans, five hundred Swiſs, three hundred Italians, and one hundred bombardiers. Beſides theſe, there is alſo a militia, which, in caſe of neceſſity, is obliged to take the field. The cavalry raiſed in time of war only amount to about ſix hundred, who are but of little ſervice, on account of the badneſs of the horſes in this country. In the laſt war the republic had in pay eighteen thouſand men. The fleet of this republic, antiently ſo celebrated for its victories over the Saracens, Piſaneſe, Venetians, Spaniards, and Turks, and for continuing a conſiderable time maſters of Sardinia, Malta, Majorca, Minorca, Candia, Cyprus, and many other iſlands and places in the Mediterranean and Archipelago, and even of the Black-Sea, is now reduced to ſix gallies, which only ſerve, according to Addiſon and Keyſler, to import corn and wine, and in ſummer-time to give the principal ladies of Genoa an airing.

The territories of the republic on the continent are, Riviera di Levante, Riviera di Ponente, and the marquiſate of Finale.

The city of Genoa, which ſtands in the firſt of theſe diſtricts, is the capital and ſeat of this republic. It is ſituated in the forty-fourth deg. twenty-five minutes north latitude, and in the eighth deg. forty-one minutes eaſt longitude. Genoa is one of the moſt inconvenient, yet, at the ſame time, one of the moſt beautiful, cities in Italy, and is ſeen to the greateſt advantage at the diſtance of a quarter of a league at ſea, where its ſtately buildings, which have gained it the name of Superba, are ſeen to form a glorious amphitheatre, gradually riſing up the ſide of a hill. This declivity, and the narrowneſs of the ſtreets, exclude the uſe of coaches in Genoa, every body being ſatisfied with going on foot, except the principal ladies, who are carried in chairs and litters; but the loftineſs of the houſes and narrowneſs of the ſtreets abate the exceſſive heats of ſummer, by intercepting the ſun-beams, and thus tend to preſerve the healthfulneſs of the city. The ſtreets are exceedingly well paved, and in ſome parts with free-ſtone; beſides, the want of coaches and other carriages greatly conduce to their cleanlineſs. As the barrenneſs of the neighbouring ſoil requires great quantities of manure, the dung of horſes and mules is very carefully gathered up. This is chiefly obſerved in the ſuburbs of Pietro d'Arena, where the breadth of the ſtreets admits the uſe of all kinds of wheel-carriages.

Moſt of the houſes are flat-roofed, or at leaſt have a gallery at top. The roofs are moſtly covered with lavagna, a ſtone that very much reſembles ſlate, and in the ſhelving ſituation of the city theſe areas, which are planted with orange-trees, form a kind of penſile gardens, which, though they have nothing wonderful nor extraordinary, have a very agreeable effect.

On the rocks projecting into the ſea have been built ſeveral baſtions, which, in ſome places, ſtand two or three behind each other, and the length of theſe fortifications, with the lower town, is not leſs than three Italian miles. The number of guns mounted upon all the works for the defence of the city, is little ſhort of five hundred. Towards the land the city is ſurrounded with a double wall, and the outward, which is the neweſt, extends beyond the hill, beginning at the fanal, or light-houſe, and terminating at the river Biſagno. The city is ten miles in circumference, and ſuch is the inequality of the country, that it takes up three hours to ride round it; but this wall is of too great an extent to be of any conſiderable ſervice, unleſs, perhaps, in keeping out the banditti. The weſt ſide of the city is watered by the river Bonzevera, and on the oppoſite ſide runs the Biſagno.

The harbour of Genoa is large, but not very ſafe; however, no care or expence is omitted in improving it, and it has now a mole which extends upwards of ſeven hundred paces into the ſea. On the right hand, near

the light-houſe, is alſo a new mole, which projects ſeven hundred and ſeventy-four paces, and is defended by huge fragments of rocks. As the ſea is here very deep, thoſe works muſt have been very expenſive. In the middle of the harbour, at a place called the Royal Bridge, is a commodious watering-place for ſhips, the water being conveyed by pipes from the mountains. Within this harbour is the wet-dock for the republic's gallies, the largeſt of which carries only from ſixty to one hundred ſoldiers, and three hundred and twenty rowers, five or ſix on a bench.

The Darſena, or wet-dock, abounds with Turkiſh ſlaves, who are generally of a ſurly fierce aſpect, to which their long whiſkers do not a little contribute. They are dreſſed in a coarſe cloak, with a cowl to it like that of the Capuchins. In the Darſena they are at liberty; but in the city one meets them every where chained in couples, and crying cheeſe, cotton, cloth, &c. They alſo keep tippling-houſes, and petty ſhops in the Darſena, their officers giving them all poſſible encouragement, advancing them ſmall ſums, with which, in their trips to Marſeilles, Corſica, and other places, they buy all kinds of knick-knacks at a very cheap rate, and make a good market of them at Genoa, where every thing is extremely dear; but the officers come in for a ſhare of the profits. Some of theſe ſlaves are furniſhed with goods to trade with out of the republic's warehouſes, part for ready money, and part on credit at a ſtated price. At night none of them are to be abſent from the Darſena; for then they are muſtered and locked up.

The rowers on board the gallies generally conſiſt of three claſſes. The firſt, indigent people, who ſell themſelves for a certain term of years. The ſecond, criminals, who have been ſentenced to the oar for a limited time, or during life; and the third, Turkiſh or Barbary priſoners, who, though they ſhould become converts to Chriſtianity, do not recover their freedom; but their godfathers frequently put them in a better way of living, and, upon their good behaviour, give them their liberty.

The light-houſe is a tower which is aſcended by one hundred and ſixty-ſix ſteps, and ſtands on the weſt ſide of the harbour on a high rock, which is alſo fortified. Every night, except about the ſummer ſolſtice, a lanthorn with thirty-ſix lamps, is hung out at the top of it, towards the ſea; and when a number of ſhips, or any fleet, is known to be in theſe ſeas, an addition is made to the number of lamps, which, at a diſtance, reſemble a ſingle ſtar. Upon deſcrying a ſhip from the light-houſe top, a bullet is hung out, for two ſhips two bullets, and ſo on till five. The ſignal to give notice that a ſquadron is in ſight, is one bullet and a flag.

The only ſtraight and broad ſtreets are the New and the Balbi ſtreets. Theſe entirely conſiſt of magnificent palaces: in the former are thoſe of the families of Doria, Palavicini, Leſcari, and Correga, the ſecond ſtory of which opens into fine gardens and orangeries raiſed on brick-work. The Balbi ſtreet is greatly ornamented by the two palaces of the houſe of Balbi, the Jeſuits college, and the Durazzo palace, the beſt ſecular building in the whole city. The houſes of Genoa are, in general, well built, and painted on the out-ſide with different orders of architecture, and ſome of them with landſcapes. For the better enjoyment of the cool freſh air, perſons of rank frequently live in the third ſtory.

The palace in which the duke reſides is almoſt in the center of the city, and is an old large ſtone building, with two ſtatues of white marble in the court, erected in honour of Andrew and John Andrew Doria. From the court is an aſcent by a white marble ſtaircaſe, with very low ſteps, to the great hall, where the doge is elected, and foreign envoys have audiences, which is ſixty-ſix paces in length, and thirty broad. It is very lofty, but the floor is made of plaſter; however, the cornices and architraves are finely carved and gilt, and the ducal throne covered with crimſon velvet, enriched with gold fringes and taſſels. In this ſtately hall ſtand ſix white marble ſtatues of perſons by whoſe liberality the public has been eminently benefited, and on the wall at the two ends, and on the cieling, are painted ſix of the republic's principal atchievements.

This hall opens into the ſummer council-chamber, in which, among many other paintings, is a noble picture by Solimene, of the ſolemn reception of St. John the Baptiſt's aſhes at Genoa. Near the throne is alſo repreſented the diſcovery of America by Chriſtopher Columbus. Its private chapel is adorned with paintings in freſco of all the ſaints and celebrated natives of Genoa, among whom is alſo Chriſtopher Columbus, who was a native of that city.

From the audience hall a narrow paſſage leads to the arſenal, which is alſo in the palace, and is ſaid to contain arms for thirty-four thouſand men. Among the antient weapons is ſhown a ſhield, containing one hundred and twenty piſtol barrels, which a perſon named Julius Cæſar Vacche is ſaid to have made, in order to diſpatch, as it were, with one ſhot, both the doge and his counſellors, when aſſembled. But the moſt celebrated curioſity is thirty-three coats of mail belonging to ſo many Genoeſe heroines, who are ſaid to have performed a croiſade to the Holy Land, in the year 1301; but it is much queſtioned whether theſe coats of mail were ever uſed by women.

Prince Doria's palace and gardens near the harbour are very fine, and afford a moſt delightful proſpect.

In the whole city are reckoned thirty-ſeven pariſh churches, twenty collegiate, ſeventeen convents, and two large hoſpitals.

The principal curioſity to be ſeen in the cathedral, which is dedicated to St. Lawrence, is a diſh made of a ſingle emerald, ſaid to be one of the queen of Sheba's preſents to king Solomon, and the very ſame in which Chriſt ate of the Paſchal Lamb, at his laſt ſupper with his diſciples. On the left hand of the entrance of this cathedral is a chapel, where thirty ſilver lamps are continually burning, and in which they pretend to keep, with extraordinary veneration, the bones of John the Baptiſt. The altar is ſupported by four columns of porphyry, and over it is a picture by Vandyke, and it is adorned with a white marble ſtatue of John the Baptiſt.

St. Ambroſe's church belongs to the Jeſuits, and is a good ſtructure. Over the great altar is an excellent piece by Rubens, repreſenting the circumciſion of Chriſt, where the emotions of tenderneſs in a woman ſtanding by, are admirably expreſſed. The altar is adorned with four large columns of black marble, and the ſtatues of St. Peter and St. Paul of white marble, St. Ignatius performing a miracle by Rubens, on another altar, and the Aſſumption of the Virgin Mary, give ſenſible pleaſure to the connoiſſeurs in painting.

The Jeſuits college is a very fine building. At the foot of the ſtairs, next the entrance, are two large lions couchant, of white marble. The court is ſurrounded with two lofty galleries, both ſupported by columns of Carrara marble, of which there are an hundred in number.

Near the Jeſuits college is St. Ann's church, beautifully decorated with fine ſtucco, Florentine-work, and marble ſculpture, in all which, however, it is ſurpaſſed by the church of St. Cyr.

In the way from the piazza Sarſano to the magnificent church of St. Maria Carignan, which ſtands on an eminence, is a ſtone bridge, that joins together two hills ſeparated by a deep valley. This bridge conſiſts of one ſmall, and three large, arches, and is between eighty and ninety feet high, fifteen common paces broad, and between one hundred and ſixty and one hundred and ſeventy in length. Under it are dwelling-houſes from four to ſix ſtories high, and over them is ſtill an open ſpace of ten or twelve feet. The diameter of one of the arches in the ſtreet beneath is above thirty common paces; but the extent of the middle arch is ſtill wider. This bridge cannot be ſeen without aſtoniſhment.

In the church of St. Philippo Neri, belonging to the fathers of the Oratory, are ſome fine paintings and admirable ſculptures in marble, and in many places it is lined with a beautiful kind of marble, called Brocatello di Spagna. Every Sunday evening, during the winter, an oratorio, or religious opera, is performed in this church, founded on ſome ſcripture hiſtory, and is ſucceeded by a ſermon near half an hour long, and then the ſervice concludes with a piece of church muſic: but in the ſummer theſe fathers ſpend every Sunday in the afternoon at their garden without the city, in which is a beautiful edifice, where they have ſeveral kinds of games, as draughts, cheſs,

cheſs and billiards, but cards and dice are not allowed. It is true, they do not play for money; but for *Ave Maria's*, *Pater noſters*, and other prayers; and at the breaking up of a party, the loſers kneel before an image of the Virgin Mary, and there, according to their loſings, diſcharge them unto her, or unto God, by *Pater noſters*, &c. In the evening they leave off playing, and an oratorio is performed; next comes a ſpiritual exhortation, and this medley of levity and religion cloſes with a ſolemn piece of muſic.

St. Stephen's church is worth ſeeing, on account of its admirable altar-piece of the ſtoning of St. Stephen, by Julio Romano, in which the rancour and fury of his cruel perſecutors are incomparably expreſſed; and this is allowed to be one of the completeſt pieces that has appeared ſince the revival of painting.

In the year 1751, a new academy of painting, ſculpture, and civil architecture, was inſtituted here, under the protection of the council. The chief hoſpital for the poor of the city of Genoa, ſtands on an eminence, and at preſent above 2000 perſons, officers and ſervants included, are maintained in it. On this foundation, likewiſe, boys are brought up to handicraft trades, and when they have gained ſufficient experience in their buſineſs, are allowed to go into the world to ſeek their fortunes. They are employed in weaving, ſhoe-making, the woollen manufactory, and other trades required to ſupport ſuch an hoſpital.

Little of the beauty of the fair ſex is ſeen at Genoa, their blooming years being moſtly ſpent in the recluſeneſs of a nunnery. The married ladies are generally dreſſed in black ſilk or velvet, the liberty of chooſing what colours they pleaſe expiring with the firſt year of their marriage.

It ſeems but little to agree with the reſervedneſs and modeſty of that ſex, that moſt of the married ladies of diſtinction in this city are every where attended by a gentleman called a ciziſbeo, who walks before their chair in the ſtreets, and at coming into the church, holds the holy water to them, and, like a lover, does all the little arts of complaiſance. Some ladies, not ſatisfied with one ſuch obſequious dangler, admit ſeveral, who have their diſtinct offices; one attends the lady when ſhe goes abroad; another provides for the table; another has the management of diverſions and parties of pleaſure; a fourth is even conſulted about receipts and diſburſements of money. Indeed both the beauty and wit of the lady are commonly rated according to the number of theſe votaries. They all paſs under the denomination of Platonic lovers, and indeed, ſays Mr. Keyſler, one would almoſt imagine that the huſbands had nothing to fear from all theſe familiarities; for the Genoeſe being true Italians in point of jealouſy, cannot be ignorant how far theſe intimacies may be carried, as they, in their turn, are ciziſbei to other married ladies. Nor is this piece of gallantry confined to the young women only; for ladies advanced in years pique themſelves much on having their ciziſbeo. Strange as this cuſtom is, it is not peculiar to the Genoeſe: we have given an account of one very like it at Vienna, from the travels of the Lady Wortley Montague. However, this cuſtom is merely arbitrary at Genoa; cuſtom does not oblige them to obſerve it, and it now ſeems to be in ſome meaſure on the decline.

At the funerals of ſingle perſons a kind of garland, decked with all ſorts of white artificial flowers, is placed upon the coffin. When a perſon of diſtinction is buried, the religious fraternities walk in the proceſſion with their white hoods drawn over their faces, carrying flambeaux in their hands, which they hold horizontally, that poor boys may earn a few pence by catching the wax on paper as it drops off. This intention is doubtleſs humane, but the number of ragged boys thus mingling with the proceſſion, are no great ornament to the ſolemnity.

The inns of Genoa afford but an indifferent entertainment, and care ought always to be taken to agree for every thing before-hand. Their houſes are furniſhed with wine from the republic's vaults, in ſealed bottles, yet the wine is none of the beſt; and as all the landlord's profit ariſes from the empty bottles, he takes care to make it up in other articles. Beſides this monopoly of wine, which all who have none of their own growth muſt buy of the republic, it is the ſtate only that deals in corn, none being ſold in any market, but all bakers muſt apply for it to the public granaries.

SECT. XVI.

The Iſland of CORSICA.

Its Situation, Extent, Produce, Rivers, Hiſtory, and Inhabitants, with a conciſe Deſcription of the City of Baſtia.

CORSICA lies oppoſite to the Genoeſe coaſt, between the gulf of Genoa and the iſland of Sardinia; between the forty-firſt and forty-third degree of north latitude, and the eighth and tenth degree of eaſt longitude. According to Bellin, it extends eighty-eight Engliſh miles in length, and forty in breadth. The iſland being for the moſt part mountainous, has little arable land, ſo that the principal fruitful parts are the plains and valleys, which produce corn, wine, figs, and other fruit, with plenty of olive oil and honey, wax, and other neceſſaries; but the honey is ſaid to be bitteriſh, from the bees haunting the yew trees, great numbers of which are in the iſland. Here is alſo a conſiderable breed of cattle, and among the mountains very furious and untractable wild horſes. The county of Nebio has alum and iron. Some of the deep valleys between the ſummits of the mountain are continually covered with ſnow, and yet in them are found ſalt-works, ſulphureous hot baths, and beautiful cryſtals; and along the ſhore towards the Sardinian ſide, is a very fine coral fiſhery.

The chief rivers are the Guolo, or Gollo, the Tavignano, and the Talavo.

The unwholeſomeneſs of the air is an invincible obſtacle to the populouſneſs of the iſland, as appears from a calculation made in 1736, by Baron Theodore, according to which the inhabitants amounted to no more than 120,000. In the beginning of the preſent century, 600 Greeks flying out of the Morea, on account of the exactions and rapine of the Turks, the republic granted them all the country between the bay of Sagona and Ajaccio, where they built handſome villages, and during the diſturbances in this iſland, have given proofs of a firm attachment to the republic.

Corſica was anciently a ſmall kingdom inhabited by the Saracens, but in the year 806 was conquered by the Genoeſe, who drove them out of it. In the eleventh century the iſland was taken from them by the Piſaneſe, but was afterwards recovered. In 1453, the revenues and government of the iſland were aſſigned to the bank of St. George, the directors of which, in 1465, ceded it to the duke of Milan; but the Genoeſe being unwilling to acknowledge his ſovereignty, the iſland again fell to the bank of St. George. In 1553, the French ſeized upon the greateſt part of it, but five years after reſtored it to the republic.

In 1564 the Corſicans revolted from the republic of Genoa, and, though reduced to obedience in 1569, ſtill harboured in their breaſt an implacable reſentment and hatred againſt the Genoeſe, for their rigorous treatment, in diveſting their moſt eminent families of the privileges of nobility: excluding them from all eccleſiaſtical and military employments, prohibiting the natives in general all manner of trade, under-rating the beſt commodities, while they exacted an exorbitant price for any neceſſaries ſold them; in ſhort, oppreſſing them with heavy taxes; all theſe evils being aggravated by the haughtineſs and avarice of the republic's officers, the Genoeſe yoke became inſupportable. Some diſturbances which broke out in 1726, were ſoon quelled; but in 1729, a new tax being laid on the Corſicans, they abſolutely refuſed to pay, requiring the republic to permit them to make their own ſalt, inſtead of buying it at Genoa at an exorbitant price. Upon this, Pinello the governor not only rejected their petition, but had recourſe to violent meaſures for compelling them to pay the tax. This made them openly run to arms in their own defence, but in 1731 and 1732 tranquility was reſtored by means of a body of imperial auxiliaries, and the next year, by the emperor's mediation, the

republic made ſome abatement in their demands on the Corſicans. However, the imperial troops had ſcarce quitted the iſland, when the commotions broke out again. In 1735, the malcontents formed a plan for a new and independent form of government, and the next year proclaimed baron Theodore Van Neuhoff, a native of Weſtphalia, who had brought them ſome military ſtores, their king, and he eſtabliſhed certain fundamental laws for this new government.

The coronation of this monarch was performed with a laurel crown, on which occaſion he cauſed medals to be ſtruck, and on the ſixteenth of September inſtituted an order of knighthood, by the title of the order of Deliverance. On the fourteenth of November he left Corſica, in order to ſolicit foreign aſſiſtance, and in 1738, returned with three ſhips full of military ſtores; but ſoon went again to ſolicit more aſſiſtance. The ſame year a body of auxiliaries being ſent to the republic, in a great meaſure quieted the iſland: but on their leaving it in 1741, the animoſities againſt the Genoeſe began again to blaze out, and in 1743 were heightened by Theodore's ſecond return with aſſiſtance from England. His ſtay was then alſo but ſhort; he left Corſica, and never more returned. In this and the following year there ſeemed an appearance of peace; and though the Engliſh fleet bombarded Baſtia in 1745, and the malecontents got poſſeſſion of the city, yet they ſoon loſt it again, and have now to contend with a body of freſh ſuccours which the republic has obtained from France. As to Theodore their king, after coming to London to raiſe money and friends for ſupporting his claim, he was ſeveral years confined in the King's Bench priſon for debt, where he at length died, and a monument has been erected by ſome gentlemen to the memory of that unhappy nominal monarch.

In open ground the Corſicans are ſaid not to be a match for regular troops; but in the mountains, where they generally keep, they have the advantage, and from time to time make ſucceſsful ſallies.

The clergy are very numerous, and are ſaid to encourage a ſpirit of diſcontent among the people; a prieſt or monk having often been ſeen armed at the head of a body of Corſicans. It is computed that the Franciſcans, Capuchines, and Servites, have no leſs than ſeventy-five convents in the iſland.

Corſica is divided into two large parts, the country on this ſide the mountains, on the north-eaſt part, to which belong thirty pievi, or diſtricts; and the country beyond the mountains, or the ſouth-weſt part, which contains only eight diſtricts.

Baſtia is the capital of the whole iſland, and is ſeated in the diviſion on this ſide the mountains, in the forty-ſecond deg. twenty minutes north latitude, and in the ninth deg. forty minutes eaſt longitude. It is the ſee of a biſhop, and the reſidence of the Genoeſe governor. It lies on the ſea, and has a good harbour, defended by a caſtle. The malcontents of Corſica have made ſeveral attempts on this city, which is at preſent defended by a French garriſon. In this city is an academy of fine arts. In 1745, as has been already mentioned, it was bombarded by the Engliſh, and very much damaged, but after taking it, it was given to the Corſicans; yet they were again driven out of it, and, in 1748, it was beſieged by the Auſtrians and Piedmonteſe, but made ſuch a vigorous defence, that the beſiegers were obliged to decamp.

SECT. XVII.

The Republic of LUCCA.

Its Situation, Extent, Produce, and Government; with a particular Deſcription of the City of Lucca.

THE territories of this ſmall republic lie on that part of the Mediterranean called the Tuſcan Sea, and on the land ſide are chiefly bounded by the Tuſcan dominions, a part only terminating on the duchy of Modena. This little country, which is only about thirty Italian miles in circumference, is exceeding fruitful and well cultivated; for the fertility of the ſoil and the mildneſs of the government have been ſuch attractive inducements for ſettling there, that the inhabitants of the city, and the hundred and fifty villages belonging to it, are computed at upwards of one hundred and twenty thouſand, of whom between twenty and thirty thouſand are able, on occaſion, to bear arms.

Though this country is mountainous, it produces plenty of almoſt every thing but corn, of which they generally reap only as much as ſerves them half a year; and the reſt they have from abroad. They have a ſufficient quantity of rice, pulſe, beans, lupins, and fine cheſnuts, which the common people uſe inſtead of bread; with a variety of other fruits, and have plenty of wine: they likewiſe exceed all other countries in their olives, and the oil drawn from them. All corn is engroſſed and ſold by the ſtate, diſtributing it to the bakers, who ſell it to the public: in ſhort, the induſtry of the people in improving every ſpot of ground is equally ſurpriſing and commendable, and the inhabitants appear with an air of chearfulneſs and plenty, ſeldom to be found among thoſe of the neighbouring country. The vicinity of the grand duchy of Tuſcany keeps them conſtantly on their guard, in order to preſerve their freedom, on which account the protection of ſome foreign power is abſolutely neceſſary. In ſuch a ſituation an univerſal concord and harmony can alone enable them to tranſmit to poſterity the bleſſings of their darling LIBERTY, whoſe name they bear on their arms, and whoſe image is not only impreſſed on their coin, but alſo on the city gates, and all their public buildings.

The city of Lucca was anciently a Roman colony; afterwards it was comprized in the dominions of the kings of the Franks, and from them the emperors of Germany claimed its ſovereignty. At the long interregnum the inhabitants formed the project of independency, which they carried on privately till the reign of the emperor Charles IV. when they openly detached themſelves from the empire, and obtained the protection of Spain.

The principal perſon in the ſtate is the gonfaloniere, which ſignifies a ſtandard-bearer, and was formerly the title of the ſovereigns of Florence. He is dreſſed in a robe of crimſon velvet, with a bonnet and ſtole. His power reſembles that of the doge of Venice and Genoa, but he is ſtiled only his Excellency. With him are joined nine counſellors, called anziani, or elders. Theſe ten perſons, who bear the title of excellentiſſimi, while in the adminiſtration, live in the republic's palace, where their expences are defrayed at the charge of the ſtate; but when they go abroad on their own private concerns, it muſt be incognito, and in a cloſe ſedan, with the curtains drawn. Theſe are changed every two months, which, Mr. Addiſon obſerves, is the greateſt ſecurity to their liberty, and in a ſurpriſing manner contributes to the quick diſpatch of all public affairs; but in any remarkable exigence of ſtate, he adds, it certainly requires a much longer time to conduct any great deſign calculated for the good of the commonwealth, to its maturity and perfection. The gonfaloniere and the nine anziani are choſen out of the great council, which is compoſed of two hundred and forty nobles, one half of whom forms the ordinary council, and the other the extraordinary; but both, once in two years, are changed by a new election.

The title of the ſtate is the Moſt Serene Republic of Lucca. Its arms are azure, with the word LIBERTAS or, between two fretts of or. The ordinary revenue of the republic is about four hundred thouſand ſcudi, or about eighty thouſand pounds ſterling. It maintains a regular body of five hundred men, and ſeventy Swiſs as a guard for the gonfaloniere and the nine regent counſellors.

The city of Lucca, the reſidence of the government, is ſituated in the forty-third deg. fifty-two minutes north latitude, and in the eleventh deg. twenty-ſeven minutes eaſt longitude, in a moſt delightful plain of fifteen or twenty miles in extent, terminating in eminences, diverſified with villages, ſeats, ſummer-houſes, vineyards, meadows, and corn-fields. Every thing that can contribute to uſe and pleaſure is here in great plenty. The city is regularly fortified with eleven baſtions faced with brick, and is about three Italian miles in compaſs; the ramparts are very wide, where is a delightful walk for the citizens, under the trees planted on them. The inhabitants amount to ſomewhat more than forty thouſand,

among whom are great numbers of artizans and manufacturers, who carry on a conſiderable trade, particularly in ſilk goods. The houſes are handſome, the ſtreets broad and well paved, but moſt of them irregular.

The ſtate-palace is a large building, and includes the arſenal, which contains arms for twenty thouſand men. The cathedral is a Gothic ſtructure, which has ſome admirable paintings, and in the veſtry are eight large ſilver buſts, and a golden crucifix of moſt exquiſite workmanſhip, there being no leſs than twenty-four images upon it. This crucifix is ſaid to have been pledged by the Piſans for twenty-four thouſand ſcudi, for a limited term; but as they deferred redeeming it till the laſt day, and then came too late, the gates of Lucca were ſhut againſt them. The chief relic in this church is the volto ſanto, a wooden crucifix, which they believe was carved by the diſciple Nicodemus, and is very different from the others, the body being covered either with a robe of velvet or damaſk, embroidered with gold, and on the head, inſtead of a wreath of thorns, is a gold crown glittering with jewels. It has ſeveral ſilver lamps continually burning before it, and ſtands in a chapel adorned with columns of porphyry and marble, where it daily receives the moſt profound adoration of the people, and, as a farther mark of the city's veneration, the impreſſion of it is ſtruck on their coin.

The ſee of Lucca, like ſome others, is under the immediate juriſdiction of the pope, which intitles the biſhop to a pallium and croſs, like an archbiſhop, and on public ſolemnities, the canons are dreſſed like cardinals.

On the high altar of the church of St. Maria Corto Landini, is the aſſumption of the Virgin Mary by Guido Rheni; on each ſide are ſome other pieces by the ſame hand. Another altar exhibits the Virgin Mary in the clouds, and two perſons kneeling before her, with a Latin inſcription to this purpoſe, "May our ſins be covered by her ſnow-"like innocence." The roof of this church is covered with fine painting in freſco and gilding, and its altars are adorned with excellent pieces of ſculpture in marble.

In St. Auguſtine's church is an image of the Virgin Mary, with an infant Jeſus on her left-arm, under which is an inſcription in Latin to the following purport:

"This image of the Mother of God, which formerly "ſtood to be adored without the church of St. Auguſ-"tine, being ſtruck with a ſtone from the hand of an "impious gameſter, is famous for the wonderful effuſion "of blood which followed: ſhe received the blow her-"ſelf; and, to ſave her infant ſon, miraculouſly moved "him from the right to the left arm. It is likewiſe ter-"rible for having cauſed the earth to open, and through "the chaſm ſending this monſter of impiety quick into "hell. The moſt illuſtrious and reverend canons of "the Vatican, as a token of their veneration for this "three-fold miracle, cauſed a golden crown to be placed "on this image in the year 1690."

Without the church is ſhewn both the place where this fellow was at play, and where the image ſtood in the church wall; but it is now placed in a particular chapel, where is alſo ſeen the ſtone faſtened to an iron ring, and the opening of the earth, which the vulgar believe to be bottomleſs, and to terminate perpendicularly in hell, but is too narrow to receive a man of any bulk: however, it has an iron cover faſtened with two iron bolts, and near the image is this inſcription:

"To efface his crime the Virgin pours forth ſtreams "of blood; but the impious wretch dies ignorant of her "goodneſs and clemency."

In the center of one of the ſquares of this city, is a white marble ſtatue of the Virgin Mary upon a high pillar.

The ſkill and induſtry of the inhabitants in their ſilk and other manufactures have gained this city the honourable ſurname of the Induſtrious. Here are ſeen more young women in the ſtreets, ſhops, churches, and ſchools, than in any other part of Italy. The police is very commendable, and great attention is ſhewn to the ſuppreſſion of luxury, ſuperfluous magnificence, and ſuch diſſipations, as often prove deſtructive to families where no ſuch reſtraints take place. At entering the city, travellers muſt deliver up their fire-arms; but on informing the guard at what gate they intend to go out, when they leave the city, they are ſure to find them there: they are likewiſe allowed to wear their ſwords three days, but afterwards muſt have a particular licence, which is generally granted only to perſons of high rank, and to the knights of Malta and St. Stephen. No commoner, tho' he be one of the council, muſt appear with a ſword, and no ſoldier without one.

Travellers are always welcomed here with an evening ſerenade; but this is accompanied with an humble intimation that they would be pleaſed to make ſome return for the honour done them.

SECT. XVIII.

The Republic of St. MARINO.

Its Situation, Hiſtory, and Government.

THIS ſmall ſtate is incloſed by Romagna and Urbino, and conſiſts of a very high craggy mountain, with ſome eminences lying at its foot. The town, the ſeat of this republic, is ſeated on the ſummit of this lofty mountain, where it is generally hid among the clouds, and the ſtreets are ſometimes covered with ſnow, when it is clear and warm weather in all the country around. There is ſaid to be neither ſpring nor rivulet in the whole dominion; but the people are well provided with large ciſterns and reſervoirs of rain and ſnow water. The wine that grows on the ſides of their mountain is extremely good, and much better than any on the cold ſide of the Appenines, and their cellars have a natural advantage that renders them extremely cool in the hotteſt ſeaſons; for they have generally in the ſides of them deep holes that run into the hollows of the hill, whence there conſtantly iſſues a breathing kind of vapours, ſo very chilling in the ſummer time, that a man can ſcarce ſuffer his hand in the wind of them.

They have three caſtles, five churches, and three convents, and reckon about five thouſand perſons in their community. Both the inhabitants and the hiſtorians who mention this little republic, give the following account of its origin. St. Marino, by birth a Dalmatian, and by trade a maſon, was employed above one thouſand three hundred years ago, in the reparation of Rimini, and after he had finiſhed his work, retired to this ſolitary mountain, as finding it very proper for the life of a hermit, which he led in the greateſt rigours and auſterities of religion. He had not been here long before he wrought a reputed miracle, which, joined with his extraordinary ſanctity, gained him ſuch eſteem, that the princeſs of the country made him a preſent of the mountain, to diſpoſe of at his own diſcretion. His reputation quickly peopled it, and gave riſe to the republic which calls itſelf after his name; ſo that the commonwealth of St. Marino may boaſt at leaſt a nobler origin than that of Rome; the one having been at firſt an aſylum for robbers and murderers, and the other the reſort of perſons eminent for their piety. To this ſaint the beſt of their churches is dedicated, and there his aſhes are depoſited. His ſtatue ſtands over the high altar, holding in its hands a mountain crowned with three caſtles, which are alſo the arms of the commonwealth. To his protection they attribute the long duration of their ſtate, and conſider him as the greateſt ſaint next the bleſſed Virgin; and ſo high is their veneration for him, that, by a law in their ſtatute-book, ſuch as ſpeak diſreſpectfully of him are to be puniſhed in the ſame manner as thoſe who are convicted of blaſphemy.

This inconſiderable republic has laſted one thouſand three hundred years, in which time all the other ſtates of Italy have frequently changed their maſters and forms of government. Their whole hiſtory is compriſed in two purchaſes made of a neighbouring prince, and in a war, in which they aſſiſted the pope againſt the lord of Rimini. In the year 1100 they bought a caſtle in the neighbourhood, and another in the year 1170. The papers of the conditions are preſerved in their archives, and it is very remarkable that the name of the agent for the commonwealth, of the ſeller, of the notary and the witneſſes, are the ſame in both the inſtruments, though drawn up at ſeventy years diſtance from each other, which cannot proceed from a miſtake in the date, becauſe the names of

the popes and emperors, with the year of their reſpective reigns, are ſet down in both.

About two hundred and ninety years after this, they aſſiſted pope Pius II. againſt Malateſta lord of Rimini, and having helped to conquer him, received from the pope, as a reward for their aſſiſtance, four little caſtles. This they repreſent as the flouriſhing time of the commonwealth, when their dominions reached half-way up a neighbouring hill; however, they are now reduced to their antient limits: but were they to be attacked, they would probably ſell their liberty as dear as poſſible; for there is but one road to climb up to them, and they have a very ſevere law againſt any of their own people that enters the town by another path, leſt a new one ſhould be worn out on the ſides of their mountain; and all who are capable of bearing arms are exerciſed, and ready at a moment's call.

The government of this commonwealth was originally lodged in what they termed the arengo, a great council, in which every houſe had its repreſentative: but finding great confuſion ariſe from ſuch a multitude of ſtateſmen, they devolved their whole authority into the hands of the council of ſixty. The arengo, however, is ſtill called together in caſes of extraordinary importance, and if, after due ſummons, any member is abſent, he is to be fined to the value of about a penny Engliſh, which the ſtatute ſays he ſhall pay without any diminution or favour. In the ordinary courſe of government, the council of ſixty, which, notwithſtanding the name, conſiſts but of forty perſons, has the adminiſtration of affairs. They are made up half out of the noble families, and half out of the commoners, but are not admitted till they are twenty-five years of age. Theſe decide every thing by balloting, and chuſe the officers of the commonwealth. They thus far agree with the great council of Venice, but enjoy a much more extenſive power; for no ſentence can ſtand that is not confirmed by two-thirds of this council, into which no perſon can be admitted during the life of his father, nor two be in it of the ſame family, nor any one enter but by election.

The principal officers of the commonwealth are the two capitaneos, whoſe power reſembles that of the old Roman conſuls; but they are choſen every ſix months. Some have ſerved this office ſix or ſeven times, but the ſame perſon never enjoys it twice ſucceſſively.

The third officer is a commiſſary, who judges in all civil and criminal affairs; but as the many alliances, intermarriages, and friendſhips, and alſo perſonal feuds and animoſities, might, in ſo ſmall a ſtate, obſtruct the courſe of juſtice, if this office was in the hands of one of their own number, the commiſſary is always a foreigner, who is choſen for three years, and maintained out of the public ſtock. He muſt be a doctor of law, and a man of known integrity; he is joined in commiſſion with the capitaneos, and acts much in the ſame manner as the recorder of London under the lord mayor.

The fourth man in the ſtate is the phyſician, who muſt alſo be a ſtranger: he is maintained at the public expence, and is obliged to keep a horſe to viſit the ſick, and to inſpect all the drugs that are imported. He muſt be at leaſt thirty-five years of age, a doctor of the faculty, and eminent for his honeſty and piety, that the commonwealth may not be depopulated by his raſhneſs or ignorance; and that they may not ſuffer long under a bad choice, he is elected only for three years.

Another perſon, who makes no ordinary figure, is the ſchool-maſter, and there are ſcarce any perſons in the place who have not ſome tincture of learning.

The ſtatutes of the republic are printed in one volume in folio, and in the chapter on the public miniſters it is ſaid, that when an ambaſſador is diſpatched from the republic to any foreign ſtate, he ſhall be allowed, out of the treaſury, to the value of a ſhilling a day.

In ſhort, ſays Mr. Addiſon, who took a journey on purpoſe to viſit this little republic, and from whom we have borrowed this account, theſe people are eſteemed very honeſt and rigorous in the execution of juſtice, and ſeem to enjoy more content and happineſs among their rocks and ſnows, than the other Italians in the pleaſanteſt vallies in the world. Indeed nothing can be a greater inſtance of the natural love of mankind for liberty, and of their averſion to arbitrary government, than ſuch a ſavage mountain covered with people, while, in the ſame country, the Campania of Rome is almoſt deſtitute of inhabitants.

CHAP. XXIV.

Of the Middle Part of ITALY, containing the Grand Duchy of TUSCANY and the Dominions of the Pope.

SECT. I.

Of TUSCANY *in general.*

Its Situation, Extent, Produce, hot Springs, and Rivers. Its Hiſtory, the Arms of the Great Duke, his Forces and principal Officers, with the Diviſions of the Country.

IN the middle part of Italy is generally included the little republic of St. Marino, and ſome authors alſo include in it the republic of Lucca; but as we choſe to place all the four republics of Italy together, we have given theſe in the two concluding ſections of the laſt chapter, and ſhall now, in this middle part, conſider two grand diviſions, which will contain abundant matter to gratify the curioſity of the lover of antiquities and of the polite arts, the nobleſt productions of ſtatuary, painting, and architecture, both antient and modern. But all the wealth of theſe countries is depoſited in the palaces of princes, and in churches and convents; while the people are poor, ſome of the richeſt lands in the world uncultivated, and trade in many parts neglected, for want of the ſpecie neceſſary to give life to commerce.

The grand duchy of Tuſcany borders on the Mediterranean, which here receives its name from this duchy, and is called the Tuſcan Sea; it is alſo bounded by the Eccleſiaſtical State, the duchy of Modena, and the republic of Lucca. Some ſmall detached parts of this duchy alſo lie among the territories of Modena, Lucca, and Genoa. Theſe laſt excepted, it extends from north to ſouth one hundred and ſixteen miles, and from eaſt to weſt eighty.

The great variety of hills and vallies, riſing grounds and plains, render the country very pleaſant. The ſoil, which is extremely fertile, abounds in corn, oranges, lemons, and all the other ſorts of fruit known in Europe, beſides oil and excellent wine. The oil, however, bears little proportion to the multitude of olive-trees, which are ſubject to a diſtemper, that ſhews itſelf in knots and tubercles, occaſioned by worms. Of the wines a kind of white, called la Verdee, is particularly eſteemed, and the greateſt part is ſaid to be ſent to England. The paſtures here are alſo very rich.

The air of ſeveral places in this duchy is unhealthy, on account of the many fens and wild deſart places. The

ſalt

ſalt pits are in a thriving condition, veins of ſalt running under the ſtrata of alabaſter. Here are alſo found ſulphur and Chalcedony, amethyſts, fine jaſpers, beautiful marble, and cornelians, lapis-lazuli, borax, and black ſlate for tables, cryſtals, alum, ſtone, iron ore, quick-ſilver, and in Calabria manna is gathered from the aſh and elm. It oozes out on the taking off the rind, and conſequently is not a production of the air but of the tree. The bees carry off a great deal of it, the remainder is applied in Tuſcany to medicinal uſes, and in France to giving a gloſs to cloth.

At the foot of Mount St. Giuliano, on the borders of the territory of Lucca, are ſeveral hot ſprings, which have been mentioned by Pliny, and are ſtill in high vogue, great numbers having experienced their ſalubrious effects. They are not properly ſulphureous, and the taſte is pleaſant, like good ſpring-water. The degree of heat is not the ſame in all the ſprings; but at Acqua it is forty-nine degrees by Farenheit's thermometer. Cloſe by theſe ſprings are others quite cold. At Vicaſcio the bath is but juſt luke-warm; but that at Morba has a heat of one hundred and four degrees by Farenheit's thermometer. The Lagoni at Monte Cerboli have a vehement ebullition, attended with a great noiſe, and contain ſulphur, alum, vitriol, and ſalt: the heat much exceeds that of boiling water. Here is cryſtallized ſulphur, a new and uncommon ſpecies of cryſtal. Another ſpring in this part of the country has one hundred and ſixty degrees of heat, with a ſulphureous ſmell, and is uſed to bathe in. In the baths de la Galeria are both cold and warm ſulphureous ſprings, with petroleum floating on the ſurface. Beſides theſe there are ſeveral others.

The principal river in this country is the Arno, which riſes in the Appennine mountains in the territory of Florence, and after receiving the Sieva, Peſa, and Elſa, falls below Piſa into the ſea. The Ombrone has its ſource in the territories of Sienna, through which it runs into the ſea.

This country was called Etruria, or Tuſcia, from its ancient inhabitants the Etrurii or Tuſcani; though the preſent duchy does not comprehend all the ancient Etruria. In the ancient republic of Florence, the family of Medicis acquired by commercial arts the wealth and grandeur of princes, whence king Henry II. of France choſe his conſort the famous Catharine out of this family. The emperor Charles V. in 1531, created Alexander Medicis duke of Florence, and afterwards gave him Margaret his natural daughter in marriage. Coſmo I. the ſucceſſor of Alexander, was, in 1569, declared great duke of Florence, by pope Pius V. which was ratified by the emperor, on condition of his holding it as a fief of the empire; and in 1699 the emperor conferred on the great duke the title of royal highneſs.

John Gaſton, the laſt great duke, having no heirs, it was ſtipulated by the quadruple alliance in 1718, that the duchy ſhould for ever be acknowledged a fief of the Roman empire, and that with the conſent of the Germanic body, the emperor ſhould confer it on the king of Spain's eldeſt ſon by the ſecond marriage, from him to devolve to his male deſcendants; but that Leghorn was always to remain a free port. This was confirmed by ſeveral ſucceeding treaties; but a war breaking out in 1733, in which the emperor loſt the kingdoms of Naples and Sicily, Don Carlos, who had been brought up at the great duke's court, cauſed himſelf to be proclaimed king, and at the peace of 1736 retained the poſſeſſion of theſe kingdoms. On the other hand it was ſtipulated, that after the demiſe of the preſent poſſeſſor, Tuſcany was to devolve to the houſe of Lorrain in lieu of that duchy, which was to be reſigned to king Staniſlaus. This took place in 1737, and ſoon after the duke of Lorrain and the great duke of Tuſcany made an agreement with the princeſs dowager Palatine, ſiſter to the late great duke, concerning the moveable parts of the ſucceſſion, by virtue of which ſhe transferred to the duke the vaſt treaſure of jewels, ſtatues, paintings, and other curioſities, of which particular mention will be made in treating of Florence.

The arms of the great duke are, or, ſix globes gules, with the lilies of France in the uppermoſt. The ſhield is ſurmounted by a regal crown, in which is a full red lily. The helmet is alſo crowned, and the creſt is a bird holding in his right talons a ring, from which hangs a label, whereon the word SEMPER is written.

There is here an order of knighthood called the order of St. Stephen, inſtituted by Coſmo I. in 1554. Its privileges are very like thoſe of the order of Malta. The great duke is always grand maſter, and the chief reſidence of the knights is at Piſa, in treating of which city, we ſhall give a more particular account of that order.

The ordinary revenue of the grand duke is computed at about three millions of piaſtres per annum. In 1753 the military force of this duchy was ſettled at three regiments of foot, and one of dragoons of 500 men; but in 1755, another regiment of dragoons was raiſed, and the militia was formed into regiments. However, this duchy is ſaid to be able, in caſe of neceſſity, to bring into the field 30,000 men, and to fit out twenty ſhips of war, twelve gallies, and ſome galleaſſes.

The chief officer of this duchy is a governor appointed by the emperor as grand duke. He reſides at Florence, where is alſo a council of regency, the military board, and other ſtate offices.

The countries of which this great duchy is compoſed, are the following; the territories of Florence, Piſa, and Sienna, with the ſtates of Preſidii and Piombino.

SECT. II.

The FLORENTINO, *or Territory of* FLORENCE.

Its Situation, Produce, and the Manner in which its ancient Inhabitants loſt their Liberty; with a particular Deſcription of the City of Florence, and the Manners of the Inhabitants.

THIS is the moſt conſiderable part of the duchy of Tuſcany, both for extent and opulence. It is divided in the middle by the river Arno, and is bounded on the north by the Bologneſe and Romania, on the eaſt by the Eccleſiaſtical State, on the ſouth by the Sienneſe, and on the weſt by Piſa and the republic of Lucca.

The territory of Florence is well cultivated and populous, and juſtly eſteemed an excellent country. The environs of the city of Florence are particularly delightful, from the variety of the well cultivated hills and dales; and in the neighbourhood of that city is a kind of white marble, and a ſort of ſlate, which, when poliſhed, repreſents an infinite variety of brown and yellow figures, and by a little help of the imagination, ſeems to repreſent trees, landſcapes, the ruins of caſtles, and ſeveral other agreeable objects.

Anciently the city of Florence, with its diſtrict, formed a republic, for which the inhabitants obtained a licence from the emperor Rodolphus for ſixty thouſand guilders; but its ariſtocratical government was filled with apprehenſions and jealouſies from the increaſing grandeur of the family of Medicis. In the war between the emperor Charles V. and pope Clement VII. the government had the misfortune to offend the former, and upon the concluſion of the peace in 1530, the emperor marched his army into the city, and having aboliſhed the republican conſtitution, nominated Alexander de Medicis duke, preſcribing him a model of government, and pardoning the city, on condition that, for the future, it ſhould pay obedience to the emperor, and the ſovereigns appointed over it.

The principal city is Florence, in Italian Fiorenza, the capital of the grand duchy, delightfully ſituated between mountains covered with olive trees, vines, farms, ſeats, and villages, in the four hundred and thirty-ninth degree forty-two minutes north latitude, and in the eleventh degree forty-ſeven minutes eaſt longitude. It is divided into two unequal parts by the Arno, which, with its four ſtone bridges, adds to the beautiful appearance of the city. With reſpect to curioſities worthy the notice of a traveller, it is, next to Rome, the principal city in all Italy. The Florentines pride themſelves ſo much in its elegance, that they imagine nothing equals it. The ſtreets are indeed clean, and paved with very broad

broad ſtones, but moſt of them are narrow and crooked, and many of them have ſcarce room for a carriage to paſs. The number of houſes amount to about 9000, and among them are ſome magnificent ſtone buildings; but their palaces are not ſo numerous as to claim a ſuperiority over thoſe of Turin, Genoa, and Rome. The paper windows, which, after the Italian manner, are every where ſeen, are no ſmall diminution to the beauty of the city, which is generally reckoned to contain ſeventeen market places, ſeven fountains, ſix columns, two pyramids, 160 public ſtatues, forty-four pariſh churches, twelve priories, fifty-four convents, twenty-four eccleſiaſtical fraternities, and thirty-ſeven hoſpitals and charitable foundations. The number of inhabitants is computed at 70,000.

The pronunciation of the Italian here, differs much from that in other places, the *c* being changed by them into *h*; for inſtance, they ſay *hoſa*, inſtead of *coſa*; and their accent is ſo guttural, that they are called the Italian Swiſs. However, they write much better, having, for the improvement of the Tuſcan tongue, a celebrated ſociety of learned men, who ſtile themſelves *Academia Della Cruſca*. Since the year 1738, a riding academy was erected, and ſince 1753, an academy of agriculture, conſiſting of a hundred members. The greateſt trade of the city conſiſts in its woollen and ſilk ſtuffs, and even the nobility not only trade as merchants, but keep ſhops. A faint ſhadow of the ancient republic ſtill remains among the nobility, ſome of whom are are ſtiled ſenators, though they in reality conſtitute nothing more than a magiſtracy.

From this general view of the city, we now come to its curioſities, of which we ſhall treat in their proper order.

The great dukes formerly reſided at the Palazzo Vecchio, or the Old Palace, which faces a large market called la Piazza del Gran-Duca. At the entrance is a marble ſtatue of Hercules killing Cacus, both bigger than the life, by Baccio Bandinelli; oppoſite to which, by way of contraſt, is David triumphing over Goliah, by Michael Angelo. In the middle of the court is a porphyry fountain, with a boy graſping a fiſh, in bronze, and another ſtatue of Hercules killing Cacus. There is a hall in the palace one hundred and ſeventy-two feet long, and ſeventy-four broad; but it is too dark: however, on account of its ſpaciouſneſs, it is uſed for homage ceremonies, and for the dances on St. John's day, which are annually performed by a company of peaſants of both ſexes, when the ducal family are generally preſent, and the duke diſtributes the appointed prizes to the beſt dancers. On the cieling and walls of this room are painted in freſco, the moſt remarkable atchievements of the republic of Florence. A traveller ought not to omit obſerving the marble ſtatues of ſeveral dukes, and two popes, who were of the houſe of Medicis. Here is likewiſe a moſt admirable ſtatue of Victory, with a priſoner at her feet, by Michael Angelo. Here are alſo ſix excellent marble groups, by Vincenzio Roſſi, repreſenting ſix of the exploits of Hercules; his daſhing Anteus againſt a rock, his killing the Centaur, his throwing Diomedes to wild horſes, his carrying a terrible wild boar alive upon his ſhoulders, his helping Atlas to bear up the ſky, and his victory over the queen of the Amazons.

In the Old Palace is the duke's wardrobe, in which are ten or twelve large cloſets full of plate, great part of which is finely chaſed and ſet with jewels. Here are alſo abundance of Turkiſh arms and bridles profuſely enriched with jewels, and in a particular cloſet is ſhewn the crown with which pope Pius V. in 1569, crowned Coſmo I. as firſt great duke of Florence. It is made of gold, and adorned with a great number of jewels. But what is eſteemed moſt valuable, is the palliotto, or altar cloth, covered with pearls, rubies, and other ſtones; among the reſt, two gems called aqua marina, in ſize equal to a large walnut, are ſaid to be of ineſtimable value. On both ſides the arms of Auſtria and Florence are joined together, and in the middle of the palliotto Coſmo II. is repreſented in an emboſſed work of gems and enamel, and his robe is richly ſet with diamonds. On the altar or table before which he kneels, is a crown entirely covered with diamonds.

Near the Old Palace under the Loggia, commonly called de Lanzi, are three fine ſtatues, the firſt of Judith with Holofernes at her feet, of bronze; another, of the ſame metal, repreſenting Perſeus with Meduſa's head: the third piece, where admiration can never be ſatisfied, is a group repreſenting a young warlike Roman carrying off a Sabine virgin; he is tranſported with joy on account of his booty, while her father lies proſtrate on the ground, with looks full of the moſt paſſionate grief and rage. The rape of the Sabines is expreſſed in baſſo relievo on the pedeſtal, and the performance of this piece does great honour to Giovanni Bologna.

In the ſquare before the Palazzo Vecchio, is a very grand fountain, adorned with ſhells, cornucopias, tritons, and four other ſea-gods of braſs, of a very large ſize; and in the center is Neptune drawn in a large ſhell, reſembling a triumphal car, by four horſes, two of which are of braſs, and the other two of white marble.

In this ſquare is likewiſe the Fabrica degli Uffici, on the ground-floor of which the principal magiſtrates of the city live together, for the better maintenance of the public tranquility, and the more ſpeedy diſpatch of buſineſs. The firſt ſtory is filled with artiſts employed for the duke's wardrobe and gallery, particularly in Florentine works, where nature and painting are ſurpriſingly imitated by the proper arrangement of ſparks of gems, and bits of the fineſt marble inlaid. This place is diſtinguiſhed by the name of il Scrittorio, and though the artiſts chiefly work for the duke, yet the moſt induſtrious find time to make toys to diſpoſe of to foreigners, which are ſold at a great price.

The uppermoſt ſtory of this ſtructure contains the famous gallery, in which perhaps are the nobleſt collection of curioſities that are to be met with in any part of the world. In its form it reſembles the Greek Π; the cieling is covered with paintings repreſenting the arts and ſciences, the moſt eminent perſonages of the city of Florence, and hiſtorical pieces. The walls on each ſide are hung with portraits of the moſt illuſtrious perſons of the houſe of Medicis, and over theſe, on the entablature, are ſmall portraits of generals, miniſters of ſtate, and princes; and oppoſite to them the buſts of learned men, among which is that of the great Sir Iſaac Newton. The vaſt number of ſtatues is really amazing: among theſe is Narciſſus ſtooping to view himſelf in a well of Parian marble, an excellent performance; Bacchus, with a goblet in his left hand, leaning upon a Faunus, who is kneeling before him; and near this antique ſtands a Bacchus of Michael Angelo, being a copy of the former. Bacchus riding upon a tyger, both of bronze, is juſtly reckoned one of the moſt remarkable pieces here; but the feet are wanting. The pedeſtal on which it ſtands is the work of Guiberti, and on one ſide of it is repreſented, in baſſo relievo, the ſtory of Ariadne, and on another a ſacrifice to Bacchus. Morpheus is here repreſented in the ſhape of a ſleeping boy, in touchſtone; probably the blackneſs of this ſtone, which was always uſed for the ſtatues of ſleep, as Mr. Addiſon obſerves, alludes to the darkneſs of the night, the proper ſeaſon for reſt. Farther in the gallery are to be ſeen Mars and Venus, Cupid and Pyſche, ſeveral Ganymedes, Marſyas, a philoſopher, a Venus ſitting and drawing a thorn out of her foot; Venus Uriana; Venus perſuading Mars to ſtay with her, and Apollo with Faunus; Flora; a veſtal, with the holy fire burning before her, &c. Among the buſts or heads, the moſt curious are thoſe of Alexander the Great, three times bigger than the life, and Agrippa, Caligula, and Otho; the buſts of Antinous, Nerva, Ælius Verus, Caracalla, Pertinax, and ſeveral others, in fine alabaſter. Among theſe pieces is alſo a bronze head of Michael Angelo, done by himſelf.

Out of the gallery you enter ſeveral cabinets full of curioſities, which are well worth ſeeing. In the firſt are above an hundred and twenty portraits of celebrated painters, moſt of them done by the perſons they are deſigned for, and all in gilt frames, with the names over each of them; among theſe is Sir Godfrey Kneller. In the

the middle of the chamber ſtands the ſtatue of Cardinal Leopold de Medicis, of white marble. He was a great encourager of arts and ſciences, particularly of painting.

The next cabinet contains a noble collection of large porcelain vaſes, &c. There is alſo ſhewn in this apartment a large table, on which is repreſented birds, flowers, fruit, and feſtoons, in excellent Florentine work: twenty-five perſons were employed thirteen years in performing this curious piece. The artificial curioſities of ebony in another cabinet is the more extraordinary, on account of their variety of ſculpture, it being extremely difficult to carve it with any degree of nicety, on account of its ſplitting. The largeſt of theſe ebony works repreſents a palace with ſeveral gates. The chief Scripture hiſtories are exquiſitely painted on gems by Bruggel. In the next chamber is to be ſeen the anatomy of a human head in wax, and alſo the gradual petrifaction of the body, till at laſt it terminates in a bare ſkeleton. Theſe were performed by a Sicilian eccleſiaſtic, and Mr. Keyſler obſerves, that however diſagreeable ſuch a ſpectacle may be to timorous ſelf-love, the execution is ſo natural and delicate, that a perſon is never tired with viewing it. The ſame admirable artiſt has in the ſame manner exhibited the various ſtages and effects of the plague.

In another chamber is a large collection of mathematical inſtruments. Among the optical rarities are ſeveral heads and trophies of ſtandards, colours, ſpears, &c. painted on a table, which when viewed through a glaſs in a tube, exhibit the picture of the preſent duke's grandfather.

On entering the Tribuna, the eye is immediately ſtruck with ſix marble ſtatues ſtanding in the center, among which is the celebrated ſtatue called the Venus de Medicis, which has been unanimouſly eſteemed to ſurpaſs not only all the ſtatues in Florence, but any piece of ſculpture throughout the whole world. The inſcription on the baſe ſhews it to be the work of Cleomenes, an Athenian, the ſon of Apollodorus. This incomparable ſtatue ſtands between two others of the ſame goddeſs, which in any other place would paſs for admirable pieces; but here they ſerve rather as foils to the Venus of Medicis, only increaſing the admiration of it, while their own excellencies are quite unnoticed. That on her right hand is twice as big, holding the golden apple, and is termed Venus Victrix; the other, a noble ſtatue by Hercules Ferrata, diſtinguiſhed by the name of Venus Urania. On one ſide of this laſt ſtatue is a dancing Faunus, whoſe ſportiveneſs and agility are finely expreſſed. Michael Angelo is ſaid to have added the head and arms; but the piece is originally aſcribed to no leſs a perſon than Praxiteles. Next to this is Arretino, an old man reſting upon one knee, and whetting a broad knife upon a ſtone, with his head erect, and, as it were, liſtening with great attention; but very cautious of being obſerved. The head and hair of this piece are particularly admired. The ſixth piece is a group repreſenting two wreſtlers engaged, and one of them throwing his antagoniſt, who, in the ſtruggle, at the ſame time breaks his own arm. The heads in this group are alſo executed with admirable ſkill. It is ſaid that this piece was dug up at Rome.

The remarkable diamond that uſed to be ſhewn here, has been removed from the Tribuna to the duke's private cabinet; but an exact model, made of yellowiſh glaſs, now ſupplies the place of it. The original, according to Tavernier, weighs 140 carats and a half, and was the largeſt diamond in Europe, till Mr. Pitt brought from the Eaſt Indies a diamond that exceeded it, which was ſold to the Regent of France, and is the moſt coſtly and ſuperb jewel belonging to that crown: the great duke is ſaid to have bought his of a Jeſuit for 75,000 ſcudi, about 18,750*l.* but the father had a moſt exorbitant profit, having given only a ſingle paolo, or about ſevenpence ſterling for it on the Piazza di Navona, where it was offered to ſale as a bit of cryſtal.

In a particular cloſet in the Tribuna are kept ſeveral vaſes of lapis-lazuli, jaſper, cornelian, agate, &c. ſome ſet in gold, and enriched with jewels of a prodigious value. Here is alſo a moſt rich and admirable cabinet, with fourteen beautiful pillars, the ſhafts of which are of lapis-lazuli; but the pedeſtals and capitals of ſolid gold enriched with pearl and turquoiſe. The interſtices between the pillars are filled with baſſo relievos in gold. In the center of the upper part is a pearl that has but few equals, it being nearly of the ſize of a walnut; but the aqua marina in this piece is ſomething larger. It has alſo a topaz of a prodigious ſize. This magnificent cabinet ſerves for keeping intaglios and camei, or gems cut in relievo. The heads of the kings and heroes make forty-two pieces. Here are alſo forty intaglios repreſenting perſons in maſks, twenty-eight philoſophers and poets, and near an hundred pieces of pagan deities, all antiques. The hiſtorical and mythological intaglios amount to a thouſand. Beſides theſe, and many others, there are three hundred and twelve medallions, one thouſand ſix hundred gold medals, eight hundred ſilver, and about two thouſand two hundred of copper. The gold, ſilver, and copper medals, ſtruck in honour of cities and ſtates, amount to one thouſand five hundred pieces. In ſhort, the whole collection is compoſed of fourteen thouſand antique medals, and eight thouſand modern.

The palace where the great duke uſually reſides, is called the Pallazzo de Pitti, where the beſt front is next the gardens; the columns of the firſt ſtory being on that ſide, of the Doric order, thoſe of the middle Ionic, and the third Corinthian. The apartments are well furniſhed, eſpecially with fine pictures, and the cielings beautifully painted by the great maſters. From this palace is a covered gallery for the great duke to go to the Palazzo Vecchio, where, through little private apertures, he may hear and ſee what paſſes in the ſeveral courts of judicature. This gallery is ſix hundred paces in length, ſix paces in breadth, and eight in height, and on the walls on both ſides are fine hiſtorical paintings.

The garden of the laſt mentioned palace is three Italian miles in circumference, and the higheſt part of it affords a noble proſpect. The fine fountain which fronts the palace has a noble appearance; in the middle of the baſon is a Neptune, of marble, of a very large ſize, in a ſhell of Egyptian granate, thirty-ſix feet in circumference. Three other ſtatues of the Ganges, Nile, and Euphrates, are repreſented in a ſitting poſture, pouring water into the ſhell. In the grottos and fountains of this garden are to be ſeen, among ſeveral others, four ſtatues by Michael Angelo. Nothing can be more delightful than the alleys and covered walks of laurel and other ever-greens, and every part abounds with eſpaliers of orange, lemon, jaſmine, and pomegranate trees. On one ſide of the garden is the duke's menagerie, where are kept foreign fowls and wild beaſts.

The principal church is the cathedral, called St. Maria del Fiore, which is four hundred and ninety feet long, and three hundred and eighty Engliſh feet to the top of the croſs. The cupola is octangular, and the breadth of each ſide twenty-five feet; the paintings in the upper part repreſenting the manſions of bliſs, and below them the place of torments. Under the cupola is the choir, the pillars of which are intermixed with the ſtatues of the twelve apoſtles in white marble. On the great altar ſtand three marble ſtatues of a large ſize, one of the Supreme God and Father ſitting, the two others repreſenting the dead body of Chriſt, ſupported by an angel, done by Bandinelli.

Near the church is a ſquare tower built of red, white, and black marble, on which are erected a great number of fine ſtatues. Oppoſite to the cathedral is the church of St. John the Baptiſt, ſuppoſed to have been anciently the temple of Mars. It is of an octangular form, and has three braſs gates, formerly gilt, on which ſeveral hiſtories of the Old and New Teſtament are ſo admirably expreſſed in baſſo relievo, that Michael Angelo, in the extacy of his admiration, could not forbear ſaying they were worthy of being the gates of paradiſe. Over the chief entrance are three marble ſtatues repreſenting Chriſt's baptiſm, with three braſs ſtatues over the door of the decollation of John the Baptiſt. Over the third door are three ſtatues in bronze, of John the Baptiſt diſcourſing with a Phariſee and a Scribe. In the court before the middle gate, is a fine pillar of granate, which was a preſent from the Piſans to the city of Florence.

Near them ſtands another column, erected in memory of a pretended miracle wrought by the body of St. Zenobius, on its being removed from St. Laurence's to the cathedral church, when his bier accidentally touching the trunk of a dry elm, that lay upon the ground, they pretend that it immediately became ſound and cloathed with the livelieſt verdure. In the church are ſixteen large pillars of oriental granate. The whole cieling is of Moſaic work, repreſenting eminent perſons, and done by Apollonius, a Greek, Andrea Taffi, Gaddi, &c. The font is large, and adorned with ſeveral beautiful marble ſculptures, particularly a ſtatue of John the Baptiſt ſtanding before it. Here all the children born of chriſtian parents within the city of Florence, are baptized. The pavement of the church is inlaid, and on one ſide of it are repreſented the ſun, and the twelve ſigns of the zodiac, with the following inſcription, which is the more remarkable, as it may be read backwards as well as forwards:

En giro torte ſol ciclos, et rotor igne.

"Behold the ſun purſues his oblique way,
"And with his fiery vertex brings the day."

On midſummer day, at noon, the ſun is ſaid to be directly concentric to a ſolar diſk cut in a window oppoſite to this repreſentation of that luminary.

One of the principal relics of this church is the finger with which it is pretended John the Baptiſt pointed to Jeſus, when he ſaid, "Behold the lamb of God," and which the people worſhip with the moſt zealous adoration.

In the church of the Annunciation, the walls and cielings are hung with votive offerings, it being famed for a miraculous picture of the Virgin Mary, which indeed brings a great deal of money to the clergy. The ſtory is, That the Servites, to whom the church and adjacent convent belong, employed a painter to draw the Annunciation of the Virgin in freſco; but when only her face was wanting to finiſh the work, the artiſt was extremely perplexed how to give it a ſuitable perfection, and falling aſleep under this diſquietude of mind, when he awoke he had the pleaſure of ſeeing the cauſe of his anxiety removed, and the face completely finiſhed. It is not queſtioned that he received this aſſiſtance from the angels, and the Florentines, from the many miracles performed by it, wonder how any one can have the leaſt doubt of it. Among other things, it is ſaid, that they who look on this picture will never be troubled with ſore or weak eyes. Mr. Keyſler obſerves, that another artiſt probably played the ſleeping painter a trick, which he and the monks had the addreſs of turning to their advantage; or the whole might be a contrivance of the painter himſelf, in order to get a name by being on ſuch good terms with the angels. He adds, that this piece is far from being an angelic work; for though the perſon and attitude of the angel are proper and graceful, and the painting of Mary, at the ſight of the heavenly meſſenger, happily deſigned, yet the wonder-working face is not to be compared with ſome hundreds of pictures by hands merely human. This piece is covered with three curtains, and placed in a chapel with a multitude of ſilver votive pieces hanging about it. The chapel is curiouſly adorned with marble, the pavement is of Egyptian granate and porphyry, and it is illuminated with above forty ſilver lamps and branches. Before the altar are two ſilver candleſticks of the height of a man, and upon them are two large ſilver ſtatues, repreſenting two angels. Every part of the altar is covered with baſſo relievos, and the tabernacle is extremely rich.

In St. Laurence's church are two pulpits, ſupported by marble columns, and adorned with baſſo relievos by Donatello, and in the new veſtry are ſhewn the tombs of ſome princes of the houſe of Medicis, done by Michael Angelo. Behind the high altar is the entrance into the chapel deſigned for the burial-place of the great dukes of Florence; it has been begun ever ſince the year 1604, and is not near finiſhed, though the ducal family is extinct. It is of an octangular form, and the altar is richly adorned with lapis-lazuli, chalcedony, porphyry, and other valuable ſtones. Indeed the whole chapel is, in a manner, lined with theſe and other materials equally expenſive. The lower part of the walls are every where encruſted with fine Sicilian jaſper, with green and yellow veins, and above this is a red Florentine marble, variegated with white ſpots. The inſcriptions on the tombs are of chalcedony, inlaid with red porphyry, and the fineſt ivory is not whiter than theſe letters, every one of which coſt three Spaniſh piſtoles. The ſarcophagi on ſome of the monuments are of Egyptian granate, which is of a deep red, and others are of oriental granate. Upon the ſarcophagi are cuſhions of red jaſper, profuſely enriched with jewels; the expence of each cuſhion is ſaid to be ſixty thouſand ſcudi, about twelve thouſand five hundred pounds ſterling. At each end of theſe cuſhions lies a regal crown, glittering with pearls, diamonds, and other jewels of immenſe value. Laſtly, the bronze ſtatues of the great dukes, for whom the monuments are erected, ſtand in niches of touch-ſtone, and every ſtatue is ten feet high. The Mauſolea are ſeparated from each other with double rows of jaſper columns, with capitals and cornices of braſs gilt, and between theſe columns are placed large urns of Corſica jaſper, with green and white veins inlaid with Florentine work. The walls are ornamented with the arms of the principal cities in the duke's dominions, of the ſame work.

We have not room to deſcribe the multitude of ſtatues and pictures with which the other churches of this city are adorned. Notwithſtanding all this ſplendor, the appearance of the city ſuffers conſiderably from the great number of paper windows to be ſeen here. However, among its ornaments is a vaſt Doric column of one piece of granate, which ſtands before the church of St. Trinita, and ſerves for a pedeſtal to a porphyry ſtatue of Juſtice with her balance, and a royal mantle of bronze. This granate column is ſaid to have been found at Rome, in the emperor Antoninus's bath.

In the middle of one of the ſtreets is a fine ſtatue of Hercules killing Neſſus the centaur, cut out of a ſingle block of white marble, by Giovanni Bologna.

In the Old Market, where proviſions are ſold, the goddeſs of Plenty, done by Donatello, ſtands upon a granate pillar.

The New Market is properly the exchange of Florence, where, about noon, the principal merchants meet to do buſineſs, many of whom are of great families. Some of the nobility deal in a retail way; and a noble Florentine often condeſcends to meaſure out a yard of ſilk.

A particular part of the city, noted for houſes of ill fame, was aſſigned by Coſmo I. to the Jews; and an inſcription at the entrance of this ſtreet obſerves, That it was thought more adviſeable to permit the Jews to remain in the neighbourhood of Chriſtians, that, by their good example, they might be brought to ſubmit to the eaſy yoke of Chriſt, than totally to expel them.

The Florentines attribute the vivacity and penetration by which they boaſt that their countrymen have made ſuperior improvements in the polite arts, to the purity and ſalubrity of the air; and they never mention their countrymen Michael Angelo, Dante, Petrarch, and other great men, without tranſports of admiration. They are inimitable in making repartees, and telling ſtories with a good grace; but are ſo infatuated with theſe endowments, that the government of the tongue is but little known amongſt them: but happy would it be for them, if this vanity was all that could be laid to their charge; for they are, even to a proverb, addicted to that moſt unnatural vice which brought down the Divine vengeance on the cities of Sodom and Gomorrah.

At the diſtance of an Italian mile from the city is Poggio, or Villa Imperiale, a palace belonging to the duke, with a very delightful range of trees leading to it, and both ſides bordered with vineyards, convents, and villas. The apartments of the palace are very fine, and the garden belonging to it extremely delightful.

Six Italian miles from Florence towards Bologna ſtands Pratolino, another palace belonging to the great duke. The apartments and halls are very rich, and the paintings exquiſite. The garden abounds with beautiful allies, covered walks, mazes, grottos, and water-works.

The road from Florence to Vienna is paved, and ſtill exhibits

exhibits many remains of the ancient Via Caſſia. It extends over a chain of hills, and though the country is not ſo fine as that between Florence and Piſa, it affords very delightful proſpects, it being every where planted with vineyards and olive-yards.

SECT. III.

The PISANO, *or Territory of* PISA.

Its Situation, Produce, and Extent; its Hiſtory, with a particular Deſcription of the Cities of Piſa and Leghorn.

THE Piſano, a territory of Tuſcany, is bounded on the north by the territory of Florence and the republic of Lucca; on the eaſt by the Sienneſe; and on the weſt by the ſea; extending about forty-ſeven miles in length, and twenty-five in breadth, and abounds in corn, wine, all kinds of vegetables, fine cattle, and every thing requiſite for the comfortable ſubſiſtence of human life.

The road from the city of Piſa to that of Lucca, which are only twelve miles diſtant, is moſt delightful, eſpecially in dry weather, when, inſtead of croſſing over Mount St. Julian, one may keep along the plain. The country is divided into ſquare incloſures, and planted with rows of trees, with vines twining round them, which luxuriantly intermingle their branches at the top, and form beautiful feſtoons. In ſummer and autumn nothing can exceed this delightful tract of land, the mountain which runs all the way on the right being covered with olives and cypreſs-trees of an extraordinary height.

Piſa, formerly a republic of conſiderable figure, reduced the iſlands of Sardinia and Corſica, conquered Carthage, drove the Saracens out of the city of Palermo in Sicily, maintained with honour a long war with Genoa, and ſubdued the iſland of Majorca, though Almeric king of Jeruſalem ſent forty ſhips to its ſuccour. But in 1390 it was deprived of its liberty by John Galeazzo Viſconti, duke of Milan, and in 1405 by the Florentines; but, by the aſſiſtance of Charles VIII. king of France, it recovered its liberty in the year 1494; however, being again reduced by the Florentines, in 1509, it has ever ſince remained in a ſtate of ſubjection. The principal cities in this territory are Piſa and Leghorn; we ſhall begin with the former.

Piſa is a ſpacious city ſeated on the Arno, which divides it into two parts, in the forty-fifth degree thirty-ſeven minutes north latitude, and in the eleventh degree eighteen minutes eaſt longitude, twelve miles to the north of Leghorn. The ſtreets are ſtraight, broad, and well paved, and the greateſt part of the houſes make a tolerable appearance; but the life and ſpirit that formerly animated this city, namely, the multitude of its inhabitants, are ſo far exhauſted, that the graſs grows in ſeveral of the ſtreets. The moſt wealthy inhabitants, ſince the loſs of its freedom, have withdrawn themſelves, ſome of them to Genoa, and there is little appearance that this loſs will ever be repaired; for though Piſa enjoys a healthful air, good water, a convenient and delightful ſituation for trade, and is encompaſſed by a fertile country, the inhabitants now ſcarce amount to ſixteen or ſeventeen thouſand, though in the eleventh century it is ſaid they amounted to one hundred and fifty thouſand; but, in the year 1615, they were reduced to fifteen thouſand and ſixty, including even the Florentine court. The univerſity, which was founded in 1339, may be ſuppoſed to partake of the misfortunes of the city; though it wants neither colleges nor endowments, nor able profeſſors, who are of the great duke's nomination.

The exchange is a ſuperb ſtructure, built in 1605, but is now almoſt deſolate.

Some buſineſs, however, is ſtill carried on in the city, on account of its being the place where the duke's gallies are built; and the few gallies of which his naval force conſiſts, generally lie here.

Another circumſtance of ſome little benefit to the city, is its being the chief ſeat of the order of St. Stephen. Theſe knights are divided into Cavalieri della Giuſtitia, della Grazia, and de Commanderie. The laſt are thoſe who, for the honour of wearing the croſs of the order, found a commanderie, which upon their death reverts to the order. In the ſecond claſs are celebrated painters, and other eminent maſters in the polite arts, on whom the duke conſers this honour. Theſe two claſſes are not obliged to make any vows; but the firſt, who are the proper knights of St. Stephen, ſwear allegiance to the grand maſter, who is always the great duke, and to ſerve againſt infidels. The proofs of noble deſcent muſt be the ſame as thoſe required by the order of Malta. Their vow of chaſtity does not exclude marriage; but the unmarried knights have this advantage, that they live in the palace of the order, where they are elegantly lodged and provided with a ſplendid table gratis. The knights have the free diſpoſal of their fortunes and incomes, of which a fourth part only devolves to the order, on their deceaſe. On the feſtivals of the order, and other ſolemn occaſions, they wear on their breaſt an octangular croſs of crimſon ſattin, embroidered with gold; but on common days, when they appear in public, they have only a plain white croſs upon their cloak. The name of St. Stephen was choſen by Coſmo I. the founder of the order, from a ſignal victory he obtained, which entirely eſtabliſhed the government of the Medicis, on the feſtival of that ſaint; whence St. Stephen's day is kept as the chief feſtival of the order. Their church is then hung with ſeveral hundred flags, and other trophies, taken from the infidels. The high altar is made of fine porphyry, and over it is a marble ſtatue of pope Stephen.

The ſquare before the church conſiſts of ſtately houſes, with the palace of the order, round which are the buſts of the great dukes in white marble, and in the front a fine marble ſtatue of Coſmo the Great.

The ducal palace has nothing magnificent, or ſuitable to that title. The market is ornamented with a white marble ſtatue of the goddeſs of Plenty, ſtanding upon a pillar, which ſerves both for a whipping-poſt and a pillory.

The archbiſhop's palace is a mean old building, with nothing remarkable but a fountain in the inner court, in which is a white marble ſtatue of Moſes, placed there, as an inſcription ſays, on account of his riſing from the water, and his rod having miraculouſly forced copious ſtreams from a barren rock.

In the cathedral is a pair of large folding-gates of braſs, on which is repreſented in relievo the life of Chriſt; but both the workmanſhip and deſign are very indifferent. On the ſide of the church are three entrances, with braſs doors, on which are ſeveral hiſtorical pieces of the Old and New Teſtament in baſſo relievo, much ſuperior to that mentioned above. The door frames are adorned with very curious feſtoons, and figures of animals, with the arms of the houſe of Medicis interſperſed in ſeveral places. The middle portal is adorned with two columns of white marble, embelliſhed with admirable foliages, and ſaid to have belonged to Nero's baths. The frontiſpiece of the cathedral is a Gothic work, with innumerable pillars carved up to the very top. The number of pillars within the dome amounts to ſeventy-ſix, each of which is cut out of a ſingle block of white oriental granate. The pavement before the high altar is of Moſaic work, made of ſmall gems, repreſenting a variety of figures. On each ſide of this altar ſtands an angel of bronze, admirably executed by Bonanno Piſano. The ſtatues of Adam and Eve, on the altar of the Holy Sacrament, are greatly admired. The Baptiſtery is a large circular building with a high cupola; but it has no lanthern, or any opening at the top, and is built all of white marble. The Laſt Judgment, repreſented in baſſo relievo on the pulpit by Nicholas Piſano, cannot fail of pleaſing a curious eye. There are here eight pillars of oriental marble, each cut out of a ſingle block. The large marble font is divided by four partitions, which ſhews that formerly baptiſm was here performed by immerſion, and in the middle ſtands a bronze ſtatue of John the Baptiſt. The concavity of the cupola is diſpoſed in ſuch a manner, that any noiſe made below is followed by a very loud and long double echo, which even exceeds that of Simonetti near Milan; but the repetition is not ſo clear and diſtinct. Two perſons alſo, whiſpering, with their faces near the wall, oppoſite to each other, may converſe together, without being overheard by the company that ſtand between them.

In

In the cathedral church-yard, near the choir, ſtands the famous leaning tower, detached from any other building; it is round, and aſcended by three hundred and fifty-five ſteps to the top, which is encloſed with a breaſt-work, and in it hang ſeven bells. It is computed to be one hundred and eighty-eight feet high, and is divided into eight partitions, or ſtories, each ſurrounded with a colonade of thirty-eight pillars, which in all the rows are of the ſame thickneſs; but decreaſe in length in proportion as they riſe towards the top. The ground-floor is the only one without an opening between the pillars; but all the other ſtories form ſo many galleries round the tower. It is remarkable, that a plummet let down perpendicularly from the top, touches the ground at the diſtance of fifteen feet from the bottom of the tower. Its thus leaning has raiſed the admiration of travellers, ſome pretending that, by a peculiar art of the architect, it appears to lean on all ſides, though in reality it inclines only on one, which is occaſioned by nothing more than the ſinking of the foundation: this is evident from the pedeſtals of the loweſt row of pillars being ſunk much deeper in the earth on the ſide of the inclination than on the other.

The Campo Santo, or the city burial-place, is an oblong piece of ground, and as the earth was brought from the neighbourhood of Jeruſalem by fifty Piſan gallies, it is walled round with a building in the form of a cloyſter, with marble columns and porticos, covered with lead at the top, and is divided by low ſtone-walls into three equal parts. In the uppermoſt lie the nobility, the citizens in the middle, and the peaſants in the loweſt part. On the walls of the cloyſters are Scripture hiſtories, painted by ſeveral hands, among which that of Job, in eight pieces, by Giotto, deſerves particular notice. There is here likewiſe the life of the patriarch Joſeph, in four compartments, and a very large repreſentation of the Laſt Judgment, in the middle of which is ſeen king Solomon hanging down his head, with all the ſigns of a guilty conſcience. On our Saviour's left hand hell is repreſented, and on his right the manſions of bliſs, crowded with monks and nuns: however, an angel is ſeen to take the freedom of dragging away a monk by the hair, as not qualified to be in ſuch good company.

St. Matthew's church, which belongs to the Benedictine nuns, is a ſmall, but very elegant, ſtructure, remarkable for the perſpective paintings in freſco on the roof; but the beholder muſt ſtand on a particular ſtone near the middle of the pavement, for that is the point of view from whence all the figures, pillars, &c. of the picture are diſtinctly ſeen in their proper arrangement.

There belongs to this city a very large phyſic-garden, well ſtocked with all ſorts of curious plants and water-works, and near it is a muſeum of natural curioſities. The city is encompaſſed by a moat and walls; it is alſo defended by an old caſtle and large fort, but its citadel is a modern fortification. Between this city and Leghorn is a canal, ſixteen Italian miles in length, and of great ſervice for the convenience of trade and draining the moraſſes.

We now come to the city of Leghorn, by the Italians and other nations called Livorno, the antient Liburnus Portus, a handſome, but not very large, city, built in the modern taſte, and with ſuch regularity, that both gates are ſeen from the market-place. It is ſeated in latitude forty-three degrees thirty-three minutes north, and in ten degrees twenty-five minutes eaſt longitude. In the north part are the fineſt houſes, and from its being interſected with canals it is called New Venice. Leghorn was formerly a place belonging to the Genoeſe, and by them given to duke Coſmo I. in exchange for the town of Sarzana. It was then an inconſiderable place; but ſince that time it has put on a quite different aſpect. The canals cut in ſeveral parts without the town, have rendered the marſhes fit for culture, and in ſome meaſure diſſipated the noxious effluvia, though the air is not yet eſteemed perfectly healthful; and freſh water is ſo ſcarce, that they are obliged to bring it from Piſa.

The city is very well fortified, having two forts towards the ſea, beſides the citadel. The ramparts afford a very agreeable proſpect of the ſea, and of many villas on the land ſide; the number of guns in the ſeveral fortifications at preſent amount to about three hundred, moſt of them of braſs; and the garriſon conſiſts of ſix hundred men. The harbour is divided into the outward and inward, the laſt of which is called the Darſa, or Darſena, and is only appropriated to the great duke's gallies, which are about five or ſix in number, and are ſometimes ſent out upon a cruiſe againſt the Corſairs. The outward mole has a ſtrong barrier of ſtones, of a vaſt ſize, upon which is a ſtrong pavement, with a parapet wall running along the middle of it, where, on one ſide or the other, a perſon may be always ſheltered from the wind. The length of the mole is ſix hundred common paces; but the breadth is ſaid to be fifteen hundred. On this mole the wealthy inhabitants take the air in their coaches. One great defect in the harbour is, that in the middle it is too ſhallow for large ſhips, which on this account are moored to pillars and large iron rings on the ſide of the mole, by which means they are ſafer than in the harbour itſelf. The road, for an Italian mile or two towards the ſea, is very good, though there is no ſecurity againſt the winds or Corſairs. The light-houſe, where every night thirty burning lamps are contained in one lanthern, ſtands on a ſingle rock in the ſea; and not far from it, on the main land, is the Lazaretto, where quarantine is performed by perſons coming from places ſuſpected of infection.

On a building near the harbour, where the great dukes formerly reſided, is an inſcription to the following purport.

"Fly hither, ye merchants, with alacrity: this ſacred "place by its beauty, commodiouſneſs, freedom, and "plenty of all the neceſſaries of life, allures you: Coſ-"mo III. the ſixth great duke of Tuſcany, who reſides "in this houſe, courteouſly invites you; having en-"larged and fortified the city, he rebuilt this edifice, "firſt raiſed by his grand-father Frederic I. and made it "more ſuperb and magnificent in the year 1695."

In the ſquare before the Darſena is a ſtatue of duke Ferdinand, with four Turkiſh ſlaves, in bronze, of a gigantic ſize, in chains.

The number of inhabitants is computed at forty thouſand, among whom are twenty thouſand Jews, who live in a particular quarter of the city, have a handſome ſynagogue, and, though ſubject to very heavy impoſts, are in a thriving condition, the greateſt part of the commerce of this city going through their hands. The generality of the Greeks and Armenians ſettled here, acknowledge the pope's ſupremacy, and each have their peculiar church. The free Turks and the Turkiſh ſlaves have a moſque, but the proteſtants are not permitted the public exerciſe of their religion, the Engliſh excepted, who being of all foreign nations the beſt cuſtomers to Leghorn, are allowed to have a chaplain, while the other proteſtants make uſe of the chaplains of ſhips. None of the churches in Leghorn afford any thing worth the curioſity of a judicious traveller.

As particular quarters of the city are aſſigned to the Jews and Turks, ſo the public proſtitutes have theirs alſo, conſiſting of two or three ſtreets, which bounds theſe unhappy creatures are not to paſs, without previous leave from their commiſſary, and paying a trifling ſum.

The port is entirely free for commerce to all nations, and the duties on imported goods are ſo eaſy as not to cauſe the leaſt obſtruction to commerce; every bale, let the ſize be what it will, pays only two piaſters, or nine ſhillings ſterling; nor are the contents examined. Travellers are not troubled at Leghorn about ſearching their baggage; they are only obliged to deliver up their piſtols, and other fire arms, till they obtain an order from the governor to have them reſtored, which is alſo attended with very little difficulty.

Leghorn, after all, is far from being a cheap place to live at; for though ſtrangers pay little or no taxes, yet the proviſions and other neceſſaries, brought thither by land, are ſubject to very high duties; and the duke reſerves to himſelf the monopoly of ſeveral commodities, particularly brandy, tobacco, and ſalt; and Mr. Addiſon informs us, that in his time, the perſon who had the monopoly of ſelling ice at Leghorn, paid annually above one thouſand pounds ſterling for that privilege, and the tobacco-merchant ten thouſand pounds. All the com-

commodities that are ſent up into the country are clogged with impoſitions as ſoon as they leave Leghorn; and all the wines, oils, and ſilks brought from the fruitful valleys of Piſa, Florence, and other parts of Tuſcany, are obliged to pay ſeveral duties and taxes before they can reach the port.

The Turkiſh ſlaves and other galley-rowers are every night ſecured in a large place ſurrounded with a high wall, called the Bagni, in imitation of the Moors, who give this name to a priſon in which they keep the Chriſtian captives. In the day-time they are ſet at liberty, and may exerciſe their induſtry either in labour or trade; but they muſt take care to return in due time to the Bagni. They lie here ſingly in long barracs, the beds being in five or ſix rows over each other, with rope ladders to aſcend to them, and nothing is puniſhed with greater ſeverity than when two are found in one bed: for the better preventing all diſorders, lamps are kept burning, and a watch is continually walking about the barracs. The three claſſes of rowers are the volunteers, the criminals, and the Turkiſh ſlaves, who have each their reſpective wards; in other reſpects no diſtinction is made, and one ſick ward and diſpenſatory ſerves indiſcriminately for them all. The number of theſe galley-rowers is generally about two thouſand, and of theſe the Turks make eight or nine hundred.

SECT. IV.

The SIENNESE.

Its Situation, Extent, Produce, Government, and Hiſtory; with a Deſcription of Sienna, and the Cuſtoms and Manners of the Inhabitants. A conciſe Account of the States of Preſidii and Piombino.

THE Sienneſe is bounded on the north by the Florentino; on the ſouth by the Mediterranean ſea and the duchy of Caſtro; on the eaſt by the Perugino and Orvietano; and on the weſt by the Florentino and the Tuſcan ſea, it being about fifty-five miles in length, and as much in breadth.

The country is pretty fertile, eſpecially in mulberry trees, which feed a great number of ſilk-worms, and there are ſeveral medicinal ſprings.

The Sienneſe flatter themſelves with retaining a kind of liberty in the election of their ſenate, which conſiſts of nine perſons called *Eccelſi*, whoſe preſident is ſtiled captain of the people; but this is only an external ſhew, the ſenate being ſo far under the check of the great duke of Florence, that no meaſure of any conſequence muſt be taken without his knowledge and permiſſion.

Sienna was at the time of the long interregnum a free ſtate; but has ſince been thrown into frequent convulſions, by the ambition and inteſtine broils of the principal families, eſpecially the Malateſta and Petruzzi. In the year 1554, the emperor Charles V. reduced them entirely under his dominion, and at his reſignation in 1556, the ſovereignty devolved to his ſon Philip II. king of Spain. This prince afterwards, in conſideration of a large ſum of ready money, and a promiſe that they ſhould not take part with the French, ceded the country to Coſmo I. duke of Florence; but reſerved to himſelf ſome maritime towns, as Piombino, Orbitello, Telamone, Porto Hercole, Porto St. Stefano, Porto Longone, with the iſle of Elva, which conſtitute what is called Stato de Gli Preſidii, from the Spaniards keeping garriſons in thoſe towns.

The principal city in this territory is Sienna, which ſtands thirty-ſix miles to the ſouth of Florence, and fifty-nine to the ſouth-eaſt of Leghorn. It is pretty large, and pleaſantly ſituated on three hills, which render the ſtreets very uneven; but this is compenſated by the agreeableneſs of the proſpect, and the exceeding healthfulneſs of the air. The houſes are elegant, but thin of inhabitants, who ſcarce amount to ſeventeen thouſand. They are civil and of a chearful diſpoſition; the women have their ſhare of beauty, and have more freedom than in many other parts of Italy. Several of the nobility, who are divided into claſſes called *Monti*, chooſe it for their reſidence, and on this account Sienna is famous for the pureſt dialect of the Italian language. It is the ſee of an archbiſhop, and the cathedral is incruſted both on the outſide and within with marble. The pavement is admirably inlaid with marble and other coſtly ſtones, eſpecially under the grand cupola, and before the great altar, where many ſcripture hiſtories are repreſented in this manner with all the delicacy of painting; but this part is covered with boards in order to preſerve it, and a foreigner is only ſhewn ſome feet ſquare. In this church are the buſts of one hundred and ſeventy popes, in plaſter of Paris, ſix of whom were natives of Sienna, and the twelve apoſtles have marble ſtatues. The roof of the whole church is painted with azure, and, as it were, ſtrewed with golden ſtars.

Through an aperture in the pavement of the choir one may look down into St. John's church, which lies directly under the cathedral, and there is an entrance to it at the foot of the aſcent. This ſingularity is occaſioned by the uneven and hilly ſituation of this city. Near the cathedral is the archbiſhop's palace, and oppoſite to it a large and well endowed hoſpital, founded by a ſhoemaker, who lies buried in a church belonging to it, and, in return for his liberality, was canonized, and has a ſtatue erected to his memory.

The Jeſuits church is, as uſual, very fine, and adorned with a great many marble ſtatues. That of the Auguſtines is worth ſeeing for the admirable ſculpture on the high altar. On each ſide of the tabernacle ſtands an angel of white marble, holding a lighted taper in his hand.

The head of St. Catherine of Sienna, which one of her countrymen, upon her dying at Rome, out of a pious zeal, is ſaid to have ſevered from her body, and brought to Sienna, is kept in the church of the Dominicans with the greateſt veneration, and is exhibited to view only twice a year. On the high altar of this church are two admirable ſtatues of Mary Magdalen and Catherine of Sienna, the latter of whom has a fine chapel here, painted by Sodorno. The Dominicans here pretend to ſhew the ring given her by Chriſt at the ſolemnization of his eſpouſals with her, which are profanely ſaid to have been performed with celeſtial ſplendor, while king David graced the ſolemnity with the muſic of his harp. The houſe in which they ſay ſhe lived with her parents is now an oratory, and her private chamber is converted into a chapel, profuſely adorned with ſtucco-work, gilding, ſculpture, and painting.

Not far from the Dominican church is a remarkable bridge, extending from one hill to another acroſs a ſtreet; but the inconſiderable height of this bridge does not admit of any buildings under the arches like that of Genoa. This city has an univerſity, founded by Charles V. but it is in a declining condition. The German ſtudents enjoy particular privileges, which they derive from the ſame emperor; but in the Jeſuits College is a conſiderable number of ſcholars. In the fifteenth century the Academy of the Intronati was founded here.

The Senate-houſe is ſcarce worth ſeeing; before it indeed is a large ſquare called the Branda, reſembling a diſh, or rather ſhell, which it is pretended in caſe of fire, or for a mock ſea-fight, may be laid under water, by means of the city fountain. On one ſide of this ſquare ſtands a tower called the Mangiana, remarkable for its chimes, which, however, never play but on extraordinary occaſions; it derives its name from a ſtatuary, who made ſeveral ſtatues erected upon it. Before the Senate-houſe is a fine marble fountain by Giacomo della Quercia, a ſculptor of this city.

The arms of Sienna are Romulus and Remus ſucking a ſhe-wolf, and as ſuch they are to be ſeen in ſeveral parts of the city; particularly on a pillar of ophir fronting the Senate-houſe. Sienna, indeed, boaſts of being a colony founded by thoſe celebrated brothers, but cannot ſupport its claim by any ſatisfactory proof.

The Sienneſe alſo contains a number of ſmall towns; and in the Tuſcan ſea are the iſlands of Melora, Gorgona, Pianoſa, Le Formiche, Monte Chriſto, Giglio, and Gianuti; all of which belong to the duchy of Tuſcany.

We now come to the ſmall and inconſiderable ſtates of Preſidii and Piombino, with which we ſhall conclude this ſection.

The former of these states, which lies as it were scattered near the sea, formerly belonged to Sienna; but Philip II. king of Spain, as we have already intimated, on transferring the district of Sienna to Cosmo I. excepted this tract, which thus continued annexed to the crown of Spain, till in 1707, the greatest part of it, with the kingdom of Naples, was conquered by the Imperialists; but in the peace of 1736, this tract was yielded to Don Carlos, king of both Sicilies.

The state della Presidii, or of the garrisons, from its being garrisoned by the troops of the king of the Two Sicilies, contains the following places, Orbitello, Telamone, Argentaro, Porto Hercole, Monte Filippo, and Porto St. Stefano.

Orbitello, the capital, stands near the Tuscan shore, at the foot of Mount Argentaro, on a lake formed by an arm of the sea, which serves for a good harbour, having a narrow entrance between two capes. It is strong both by art and nature; being almost surrounded by the lake, which is eleven or twelve miles in compass, and having no communication with the continent, but by a narrow causeway that may be easily broken; and it is defended by some good forts.

The other towns, just mentioned, are only small fortified places.

The principality of Piombino is a small territory lying along the sea-coasts, between the Sienneſe on the east, and the Pisano on the west. It was formerly part of the republic of Pisa, from which it passed into the family of Appiani, who took the title of princes of Piombino; but the last male heir dying without male issue, the emperor conferred it as a fief on others.

The town of Piombino stands on a rock in the sea, and is defended by a citadel and castle; it was built out of the ruins of the ancient city of Populonia, but makes no great figure at present.

There are several other small towns in this district, some of which are fortified; and opposite to Piombino is the island of Elba, which is separated from the continent by a channel; it is small, and with all the turnings and windings of the shore, which is very uneven, is not above forty miles in compass. It is very mountainous, and affords iron, lead, and sulphur, with quarries of marble. It has two fortresses, namely, Porto Longone, garrisoned by the Spaniards, and Porto Ferrario, which belongs to the duke of Tuscany.

SECT. V.

Of the Ecclesiastical State.

Its Situation and Extent. The Reason of the Poverty and Want of Inhabitants in the Pope's Dominions; the Prerogatives claimed by the Pope; his Power not derived from St. Peter; the Rise of the Cardinals, and their Manner of chusing the Pope; the Offices of the Government and Courts of Justice, with the Revenues, Military and Naval Forces of the Pope.

The Ecclesiastical State, or the territories of the pope, is bounded on the north by the dominions of Venice; on the east by the Adriatic: on the south-east and south by the kingdom of Naples and the Mediterranean; and on the west by the grand duchy of Tuscany and the territories of Modena; extending from south to north two hundred and forty miles, and from the south-west to the north-east, in some parts, one hundred and twenty, but in others scarce twenty.

Mr. Addison, Dr. Busching, and other authors observe, that on considering that the pope's dominions generally consist of a very fertile and excellent soil; that his harbours, both on the Adriatic and the Mediterranean seas, are very advantageously situated for trade; that he receives considerable sums out of Spain, Germany, and other countries, that belong to foreign princes, which one would fancy might be no small ease to his subjects; that his country is visited by numbers of foreigners, who spend a great deal of money in it; and that on account of the supposed sacredness of his person and character, his government should seem most eligible and best calculated for the welfare of subjects: on considering all these particulars, and the long peace that has reigned in Italy, one would be apt to imagine that this country could not fail of being extremely flourishing; but upon the slightest inspection the very reverse is manifest.

The country is but ill cultivated, poor, and thin of inhabitants, the city of Bologna alone excepted. Trade and manufactures are entirely stagnated, and were it not for the bounty of Providence, which furnishes the inhabitants with dates, figs, almonds, olives, and other fruit, which grow spontaneously, and without culture, their sloth would absolutely starve them. Their little inclination and spirit for work is the less wonderful, as they are conscious that if they have much, much will be taken from them. The many holidays, which are an impediment to trade and business, and the great number of young sturdy beggars, strolling about, under the title of pilgrims, instead of increasing the common stock by their labour and industry, lie as a dead weight on their fellow-subjects, and consume the charity that ought to support the aged, the sick, and the decrepid.

The multitude of convents, which are like so many nests of drones, that hinder the increase of inhabitants; the many hospitals that confirm the people in idleness; the inconceivable wealth in the churches and convents, which lie dormant, without the least advantage to the public; and the inquisition, which will not permit the want of inhabitants to be supplied by those of another religion, are some of the great causes of the wretched condition of the papal dominions; though there are others attended with still more fatal consequences. No christian government equals the papal in rigour, the temporal sword being not only used, but, on several occasions, the spiritual. Nothing is so monstrous as the passion by which most popes, cardinals, and other great prelates, have been carried away for enriching and promoting their nephews and relations, and nothing is so vain as the ambition of gaining a great name by founding churches and convents. The regulars vie with each other in the number, splendor, and riches of their religious houses and churches; but it is from the bowels of the poor inhabitants that the money is generally extracted for the support of their frivolous rivalship. The legates, governors, and other inferior officers in the provinces, knowing that the time in which they can enjoy their posts is but short and uncertain, scruple no kind of rapaciousness. On considering these various causes, we shall no longer be surprized that in no part of Europe there is a more wretched people than the pope's temporal subjects.

According to the canon-law, the pope is the supreme, universal, and independent head of the church, and invested with sovereignty over all christian communities, and every individual member. He has a right to prescribe laws to the whole world. What he does is as if God himself had done it, he being god upon earth. All sovereigns must pay homage to him. He may depose both disobedient and ill-governing princes, and give their dominions to others. He has a right to examine any person promoted to a kingdom, and may require an oath of allegiance from him. On the vacancy of a throne the government devolves to him. He has the right in all states to use both the temporal and spiritual sword. If a prince be remiss in his government, he may appoint him a colleague, or substitute another in his stead. He can legitimate children born out of wedlock, and thereby make them capable of succeeding to a throne, &c. This is a short sketch of the extravagancies of the political system of the court of Rome, which, notwithstanding its impiety and absurdity, has been ambitiously obtruded on the world, and even was for some ages tyrannically put in practice. It is chiefly owing to the Reformation that these corrupt maxims are at present, by the rational part of Christendom, treated with contempt, and that the pope has lost a great part of the formidable power he has vainly and arrogantly assumed, which has reduced his power even among those princes who own his authority, and several of them seem to consider him less as a spiritual father than as a temporal prince. Hence many of the abuses with which the reformers justly charged the court of Rome, have been ei-

ther quite ſet aſide, or managed with more art and policy. Princes, inſtead of being treated with threats and anathemas, are addreſſed with great civility and ſubmiſſion: the clergy and monks are become more learned and moderate, and though they have have loſt none of their zeal for reducing proteſtants to their church, yet in general they do not uſe ſo much violence and cruelty as they formerly did, except in a few countries more bigotted than the reſt; nor do they treat thoſe who diſſent from them with ſuch uncharitable language and virulence. Proteſtants, of all ſorts, are uſed with more humanity in thoſe countries, and the learned of all religions hold an epiſtolary commerce with each other, with the utmoſt ſeeming friendſhip and candour.

Dr. Buſching obſerves, that the papal territories are far from being derived from the poor and diſintereſted apoſtle St. Peter, who, according to the groundleſs opinion of the church of Rome, is ſaid to have been the firſt biſhop of that city; but have been procured and annexed to that ſee much later. It is equally falſe, he adds, that the emperor Conſtantine the Great, in the year 324, made a grant to Sylveſter biſhop of Rome, of that city and St. Peter's patrimony, as it is called. This fable was firſt mentioned by Iſidorus Mercator, and is probably nothing better than his own invention. However, the pretended inſtrument of donation is alone ſufficient to place in a clear light the ignorance and audacioufneſs both of its forgers and partizans. Certain it is, that the biſhops of Rome gradually procured for themſelves ſeveral eſtates and lands, which, particularly in the year 755, received a very conſiderable increaſe; Pepin king of France giving the whole exarchate to the ſee of Rome, and his ſon Charles not only confirming that gift, but making three ſeveral additions to it. No mention was made, till ſome time after this, of the ſuppoſed gift of Conſtantine to Sylveſter. Rome was ſtill reputed ſubject to the emperor, the king of the Franks retaining the temporal ſovereignty of the places which had been granted to the popes. But under Charles's ſucceſſors the popes, finding opportunities of increaſing their power, at laſt arrogated to themſelves the diſpoſal of the empire. In the following ages they took all meaſures for raiſing their ſee to an aſtoniſhing and formidable greatneſs, which proved highly detrimental both to the welfare of Europe, and the cauſe of religion. How the ſeveral parts of the papal territories became annexed to the ſee of Rome, we ſhall hereafter ſhew in the deſcription of thoſe parts.

The pope is choſen from among the cardinals, and before we deſcribe the manner of his election, it will be proper to take ſome notice of them. The word cardinal was a name anciently common to the preſbyters and deacons of great churches in cities; but in the eleventh century the preſbyters and deacons of the church of Rome reſtrained the appellation to themſelves, and their power encreaſed with that of the pope. The firſt dawn of their grandeur appeared under pope Nicholas II. Innocent IV. at the council of Lyons in 1243, gave them the red hat, Boniface VIII. the red veſtments, and Urban VIII. the title of *Eminentiſſimi*, but before they were only ſtiled *Illuſtriſſimi*. Sixtus V. at the council of Baſil, fixed their number at ſeventy, which is ſeldom complete. They are divided into three claſſes: theſe are ſix cardinal biſhops; namely, the biſhop of Oſtia, dean of the ſacred college; the biſhop of Oporto, ſub-dean; and the biſhops of Sabina, Paliſtrati, Freſcati, and Albano. Theſe biſhoprics may be held with other biſhoprics or archbiſhoprics. The ſecond claſs conſiſts of fifty cardinal prieſts, and fourteen cardinal deacons; each of the cardinal prieſts and deacons bears the title of a church in the city of Rome. The cardinals inſiſt on precedency before the electors of the empire, and of being treated on the ſame footing as crowned heads. Indeed the title of cardinal has no revenue annexed to it; but embaſſies, the protection of Roman catholic nations, governments, archbiſhoprics, biſhoprics, prelacies, and other eccleſiaſtical benefices, enable them to live in ſtate, though not ſuitably to the rank they aſſume, eſpecially when, being of mean extraction, they have no fortune of their own.

The conclave is the theatre on which the cardinals principally endeavour to give proofs of their genius and addreſs. The deceaſe of the pope is made known to the people of Rome, by tolling the great bell of the capitol, firing the cannon of the caſtle of St Angelo, and opening the priſons; and ſoon after circular letters are ſent to foreign cardinals by the cardinal cammerlingo to invite them to the approaching conclave. Mean while the cammerlingo acts as regent, is attended by the pope's life-guard, and orders every thing neceſſary for opening the conclave, which is held in the galleries and ſome of the anti-chambers of the Vatican, and conſiſts of a number of ſmall rooms ſeparated by wooden partitions, and diſtributed by lot, both among the cardinals then in Rome, and thoſe that are abſent. Each has uſually two, one for himſelf, and one for two attendants called conclaviſts.

On the eleventh day after the pope's demiſe all the cardinals in the city meet in the morning at St. Peter's church, where the maſs *Sancti Spiritus* is celebrated; and after a ſermon on the duties to be obſerved in the election of a pope, they proceed two by two into the conclave, which is then ſhut up by the governor and marſhal of the conclave, none being let out, unleſs in caſe of illneſs, till a new pope is elected, and the perſon ſo let out is not allowed to return. The governor of the conclave is always previouſly choſen by the cardinals, and, together with the marſhal, reſides at the entrance of the Vatican, and without their expreſs licence no perſon is ſuffered to go in or out.

While the cardinals ſit in conclave, refreſhments are brought them in baſkets, or boxes, which are ſearched, though not with much ſtrictneſs. Each cardinal orders his conclaviſts to write down on a ſlip of paper, the name of the perſon to whom he gives his ſuffrage. This is thrown into a chalice on the altar of the chapel of the conclave, and two cardinals appointed for that purpoſe ſucceſſively read aloud the notes, marking the number of votes for every cardinal. He who has two-thirds is declared pope; otherwiſe the ſcrutiny is repeated till this number is complete. If this manner of election does not take place, recourſe is had to another, called *Acceſſus*, whereby the notes of the former ſcrutiny being ſet aſide, every cardinal muſt give in writing his vote to another, and if by this way two-thirds do not appear, there is ſtill another reſource called *Inſpiratio*, in virtue of which, thoſe of the cardinals who are unanimous, come out of their cells and call aloud to each other, "Such a one "ſhall be pope, ſuch a one ſhall be pope:" upon which, others, to avoid incurring the diſpleaſure of the new elected pope, frequently join in the cry, and thus the election is ſometimes carried; but if this alſo fails, the ſcrutiny begins again, and a conclave in this manner, ſometimes proves a long-winded buſineſs.

The emperor, with the kings of France and Spain, are allowed to exclude a perſon propoſed for the popedom; but this proteſt muſt be made before the complete declaration of the votes for ſuch a perſon. It is required that the pope be an Italian, and at leaſt fifty-five years of age, though the age moſtly inſiſted upon is between ſixty and ſeventy. When the election is over, and the pope elect has declared what name he will bear for the future, the chief of the cardinal deacons proclaims him to the people. His coronation with a triple crown is generally performed eight days after.

The governor and magiſtrates of the city of Rome are, during the conclave, inveſted with the interregnum.

Each pope may chooſe his arms. The papal court is numerous and ſplendid. The poſts of cammerlingo, prime miniſter, upper confeſſor, ſecretary of ſtate, datary, and vice-chancellor of the holy church, are filled by cardinals. Some officers are removed at the pope's deceaſe, as the ſecretary of ſtate, the upper confeſſor, &c. while others, as the cardinal cammerlingo, vice-chancellor, &c. continue in office.

The pope's high council is formed of the conſiſtory of cardinals, and its ordinary meeting is once a week in the papal palace; but the extraordinary meetings depend on his holineſs's pleaſure. Here are diſcuſſed all the temporal and ſpiritual affairs of the papal ſee, as the filling up of vacant archbiſhoprics, biſhoprics, prelacies, abbacies, &c. Every nation of the Romiſh religion has

a cardinal

a cardinal for its protector. The inferior colleges are called congregations; as the congregation of the ſacred office or inquiſition; the congregation *de propagandâ fide*, and thoſe of religious ceremonies and the candidates for eccleſiaſtical benefices. The cardinals preſide in theſe congregations. The *rota Romana* is a kind of ſupreme court of appeal, where alſo every popiſh nation has one or two aſſeſſors. The *dataria* is the chancery, and is ſo called from the uſual ſignature, *Datum Romæ apud Sanctum Petrum*, &c. when the pope lives in the Vatican: and *Apud Sanctam Mariam Majorem*, when he reſides at the Quirinal.

The revenues of the pope are very large, as thoſe of the countries of which he is ſovereign as a temporal prince are conſiderable. No perſon in Rome muſt ſell any wine or fruit till the pope and his nephews, with their dependants, have diſpoſed of what is conſigned to them from their domains and eſtates. The annates of the great conſiſtorial benefices, the pallia, and inveſtitures of archbiſhops and biſhops, the jubilee year, indulgences, diſpenſations, canonizations, promotions of cardinals, ſubſidies of the clergy, convent collections, &c. continually bring vaſt ſums into the papal treaſury, from all Roman catholic countries. The annual income of the pope is generally computed at eight millions ſeven hundred thouſand ſcudi. This revenue is under the management of the apoſtolic chamber, where the offices are ſo lucrative, that ſome of the principal are ſold for eighty or a hundred thouſand dollars; yet in the year 1741 the apoſtolic treaſury was indebted no leſs than fifty-ſix millions of ſcudi.

The pope's ſoldiers are by no means deſpicable; but they have ſeldom good officers. They are both well clothed and paid, and are augmented or reduced as circumſtances require. His body-guard conſiſts of forty Swiſs, ſeventy-five cuiraſſiers, and as many light-horſe; but his gallies, which lie at Civita Vecchia, are of ſmall conſequence.

In the papal territories are five legations or principal governments; theſe are Bologna, Urbino, Ravenna, Ferrara, and Avignon. At the laſt place the legate never reſides in perſon; but is repreſented by a vice-legate. The poſt of legate is only triennial. The other countries belonging to the pope are under eccleſiaſtical governors, and the adminiſtration is every where deſpotic, Bologna alone excepted.

We ſhall now proceed to deſcribe the ſeveral countries ſubject to the pope, with the principal places in each. Theſe countries are the dutchies of Bologna, Ferrara, Romagna, and Urbino, the marquiſate of Ancona, the territories of Perugia and Orvieto, the duchies of Spoleto and Caſtro, St. Peter's patrimony, and the Campagna di Roma, or territory of Rome.

SECT. VI.

The BOLOGNESE, *or Duchy of* BOLOGNA.

Its Situation and Produce, with a minute Account of the Bononian Stone: Its Hiſtory, and a particular Deſcription of the City of Bologna, and of the Trade, Manners, and Cuſtoms of the Inhabitants.

THE Bologneſe is bounded by the Ferrareſe on the north; by Romagna on the eaſt; by Tuſcany on the ſouth; and by Modena on the weſt; and is watered by a great number of ſmall rivers, which render the ſoil extremely rich and fertile; but it is far from being either populous or well cultivated. The country abounds in all kinds of fruit, eſpecially quinces, olives, and grapes. The quinces, in particular, are remarkably large, and of an exquiſite flavour. The whole territory is ſaid to contain three hundred and eight towns and villages, and three hundred and eight thouſand ſouls.

Among the natural curioſities of this country is the famous Bononian ſtone, found about the Appennine mountains, and in mount Paderno, four Italian miles from Bologna; alſo in ſeveral other parts of Italy. It is commonly of the ſize of a walnut, of a light-grey colour, the ſurface uneven, impregnated with ſulphureous particles, and not very compact, though heavier than one would imagine from its ſize, and in many parts of it ſparkling like talc. After a heavy rain has waſhed the earth down from the mountains, it is eaſily found. Before it is properly prepared it appears in the dark like another ſtone, but, by a particular calcination, it acquires the following property: that after lying in open day-light, it abſorbs ſo much luminous ſplendor as to ſhine in the dark, like a glowing coal, for eight, or even fifteen minutes, and when the ſtone is very good, its luſtre reſembles that of a flambeau. The moon-ſhine makes not the leaſt impreſſion on it, and the ſun-beams are too ſtrong for it by calcining it too much, ſo as to crumble it to powder. It retains alſo its luminous quality when laid in water; and in general it laſts three or four years, at the expiration of which, or at any other time, it may be calcined anew to recover its quality; but it never becomes ſo luminous afterwards.

This country formerly maintained its independency as a republic, under the protection of the emperor; but in the year 1278, ſubjected itſelf in ſome meaſure to pope Nicholas II. In ſucceeding times it underwent ſeveral revolutions, till pope Julius II. on occaſion of the Venetian war, annexed the city of Bologna, and all its dependencies, to the papal dominions in 1513. The city having freely ſubmitted to the Romiſh chair, its various privileges have been preſerved, and it ſtill enjoys thoſe of ſending an envoy to the court of Rome, of having an aſſeſſor in the Rota, that no citadel muſt be built at Bologna, and that the effects of the citizens ſhall not be taken from them, upon any pretence whatſoever. In memory of their former ſtate the word LIBERTAS is ſtamped on their coin.

The temporal government is under a cardinal, who has the title of legate a latere, and has a prelate, or vice-legate, under him. The legate himſelf is either changed or confirmed every three years.

The principal city in this territory is Bologna, in Latin Bolonia, antiently Felſina, which is, next to Rome, the beſt and richeſt city in all the Eccleſiaſtical State. It is ſituated in forty-four degrees thirty minutes north latitude, and in the eleventh degree forty minutes eaſt longitude, two hundred miles to the north-weſt of Rome, and is of conſiderable extent, it being five or ſix Italian miles in circumference, and ſo populous, that its inhabitants amount to upwards of eighty thouſand. It is ſeated at the foot of the Appennine mountains, in a fertile plain, and enjoys a wholeſome air. The river Savona runs by the walls, and the Reno through the city. Among the houſes are many fine buildings. In moſt of the principal ſtreets they have a kind of portico, which ſupports the ſecond ſtory. Theſe muſt be allowed to be very convenient in windy or rainy weather, and in ſhading the rooms from the ſun; but they deprive them of the ornaments they would receive from a fine front, and an elegant entrance. As the pillars of thoſe porticoes are very irregular before different houſes, ſome being high, others low, ſome ſquare or octangular, others round, ſome of ſtone and others of wood, they are of no great ornament. Theſe porticoes, or galleries, ſerve only for walking, and that part of the ſtreet where the carriages paſs, is conſiderably lower, and, in ſhort, they reſemble thoſe of Cheſter. The roofs of the houſes, though flat, are covered with tiles, with a kind of parapet towards the ſtreet.

The palace in which the vice-legate, the gonfaloniere, and other officers of ſtate have their apartments, and the ſeveral boards and courts of juſtice are held, ſtands in the great market-place, and the front is two hundred and eighteen common paces in length. Over the entrance is a braſs ſtatue of pope Gregory XIII. who was a native of Bologna; it weighs eleven thouſand three hundred pounds, and the workmanſhip does great honour to Minganti, the artiſt by whom it was made. On the left hand on entering the door is the ſtatue of pope Boniface VIII. Among the apartments ſhewn to ſtrangers is one called il Salone d'Ercole, where may be ſeen a noble ſtatue of Hercules, of an uncommon ſize: it is of terra cotta, by the ſkilful hand of Lombardi. In another ſaloon is repreſented, in freſco, the moſt conſiderable atchievements of the Bologneſe, inſcribed with Latin verſes. Above this apartment is the Sala Farneſe, ſo called from a marble

ſtatue of pope Paul III. who was of the family of Farneſe. The cieling and walls of this apartment were painted by the beſt maſters in Bologna, at the expence of cardinal Farneſe, among which is the public entry of Paul III. into Bologna.

The Aldrovandi muſeum is kept in this place with ſuch care, that it is never opened but in the preſence of a ſenator, and conſiſts, among other curioſities, of one hundred and eighty-ſeven folios, and above two hundred bags full of ſingle leaves, all written by the indefatigable hand of Aldrovandi. This collection has been enriched with the cabinet of the marquis Coſpi, which contains a great number of valuable medals. In this place are alſo kept the military ſtores and artillery, with arms for ſix thouſand men. The phyſic-garden in the court is very ſmall, and has nothing remarkable.

The area before the palace is three hundred and ſeventy feet long and three hundred broad, in which is a fountain that is much admired: the ſtatue of Neptune on the top is eleven feet high. Within the baſon are a great number of dolphins ejecting water, and four women with three ſtreams iſſuing out at each breaſt. The only exception to this ſuperb work is, that the jetteaus are in no proportion to the ſize of the figures.

A connoiſſeur in painting will meet with a great deal of entertainment in the palaces of the city: that which moſt gratifies a traveller's curioſity is the palace of Caprara, where he cannot but admire the double ſtair-caſe, the tapeſtry hangings, and the richneſs of the other furniture. Here are particularly many ſmall coffers of admirable Florentine work, one that has ſix large and as many ſmall pillars of rock cryſtal, ſeveral curious works of ivory and wood. In the gallery are ſome fine paintings, among which is the death of Bragadino, who was flayed by the Turks, painted on wood.

On the cieling of a ſaloon of the palazzo de Favi are the adventures, of Jaſon in eighteen pieces, by the two brothers Auguſtino and Annibal Caracci. In another apartment are painted on the frize twelve paſſages of the Æneid in freſco, by Luigi Caracci. The reſt of the adventures of Æneas are painted in ten pieces by Albani, under the direction of Luigi Caracci, and his other diſciples have finiſhed the remainder; but the latter are in a different apartment, and under every picture is a Latin verſe out of the Æneid, explaining the ſubject. Several other fine pieces of painting are likewiſe to be ſeen in this palace, and particularly ſome very delicate drawings with a pen.

The palazzo de Monti ſhews the genius of the Italian nobility for adorning their palaces with collections of paintings and other curioſities; who often abridge themſelves of many of the conveniencies of life, in order to be poſſeſſed of ſomething that attracts the admiration of other people, and eſpecially of foreigners. The firſt floor of this grand edifice, conſiſting of above thirty apartments, which are by far the beſt, is never, or at leaſt very ſeldom, inhabited, and then only for the reception of ſome perſon of diſtinction; their general uſe being only to diſplay an amazing collection of paintings and other curioſities. Beſides the many pieces by Albani and the Caracci's, here is a gallery painted by young Cignani, with a large piece of painting repreſenting the raiſing of the ſiege of Turin, by Antonio Caſa. In another apartment is to be ſeen a woman aſleep, with a wanton boy laughing, while he lets down a mouſe, hanging by a thread, upon her breaſt. In this piece the expreſſion is very ſtrong, and the mouſe is admirably done.

The palace of Ranucci is built in a grand taſte, with a noble ſtaircaſe, and ſpacious lofty rooms. Here is ſome beautiful tapeſtry, made at the Gobelins, and ſeveral cloſets full of Florentine work, ſilver vaſes, and other furniture, particularly a clock of raiſed inlaid work of gems, on a ground of lapis-lazuli. The height of the chapel takes up three ſtories of the houſe. Among the paintings in this palace are St. Jerome, and Joſeph flying from Potiphar's wife, by Guido; the fall of Haman, by Antonio Gionima, where the beautiful figure of Eſther is particularly admired; and the portraits of the great dukes of the family of Medicis.

We ſhall now take notice of ſome of the eccleſiaſtical buildings at Bologna, and ſhall begin with the cathedral, which is dedicated to St. Peter, and has a great number of monuments. On each ſide of the main entrance is a large lion couchant of red marble, on each of which is placed a baſon of holy water. On the center arch, near the Tribuna, is a marble ſtatue of pope Gregory XV. who was a native of Bologna. On the cieling of the chapter-room is a fine piece of painting by Luigi Caracci, repreſenting St. Peter on his knees before the Virgin Mary: here is alſo the Annunciation, by the ſame hand, which was the laſt piece he painted.

St. Agnes's church is finely gilt and painted, and among the pictures is the martyrdom of St. Agnes, over the high altar, which is one of Dominichino's pieces.

In St. Anthony's church, over the great altar, is an admirable piece by Luigi Caracci, repreſenting the preaching of the primitive hermits. On another altar is a picture of the Virgin Mary and her Divine Infant, with a group of angels hovering over her. In the oratory or ſmall chapel near this church is a moſt beautiful piece repreſenting the Annunciation, by Tiarini.

Before St. Bartholomew's church ſtands a marble ſtatue of St. Petronius, by Brunelli. This church is divided into three iſles, and that in the middle is of a remarkable height. All the three make a fine appearance, and are excellently painted, particularly that on the ſouth ſide. Angelo Michael Colonna, as is mentioned in an inſcription, from a motive of devotion, performed this grand piece, and ſome others, without any reward. The high altar is of beautiful marble, with ſome figures inlaid. The Annunciation by Albani is accounted an incomparable piece, and nothing can ſurpaſs the expreſſion of the Virgin's admiration. Two other pieces repreſenting the nativity, and the flight to Egypt, are alſo by the ſame maſter.

In the church of St. Petronius, the biggeſt in the whole city, is to be ſeen the celebrated meridian line of Caſſini, which conſiſts of pieces of red and white marble inlaid, of a hand's breadth; but thoſe pieces in which the ſigns of the Zodiac are cut, are a foot ſquare. This line is above half the length of the church, and at the beginning is a Latin inſcription, which ſays, that the whole length of this line, which is ſaid to be one hundred feet, is the ſix hundred thouſandth part of the circumference of the terraqueous globe. In the arched roof of the nave is a hole directly over the noon point of this line, through which a ray of the ſun entering, marks the ſolſtices and equinoxes upon the line. However, the ſame operation may without much difficulty be performed in any other convenient place; the whole myſtery conſiſting only in meaſuring the degrees on the line proportionably to the height of the hole through which the rays enter.

Madonna di St. Luca, on the Monte della Guardia, is a Dominican nunnery about four Italian miles from Bologna, and is much reſorted to on account of a picture of the Virgin Mary, pretended to have been painted by the hand of St. Luke: on which account it is every year brought into the city in a ſolemn proceſſion, with more than ordinary magnificence, attended by the firing of cannon, the ſeveral companies of artizans, the fraternities, monks, heads of the pariſhes, the magiſtrates, the gonfalonier, and the legate himſelf. The picture is always carried under a rich canopy, the people upon their knees ſaluting it as it paſſes by, with the moſt zealous ejaculations that can be conceived. For the greater convenience of the pilgrims, an arched colonnade has been built from the city to the top of the mountain, which on account of its great length may be juſtly eſteemed the moſt remarkable building of that kind in Italy. In the contribution of the neceſſary ſum for this colonnade, all the handicraft men, &c. ſeemed to vie with each other in the erection of a perpetual monument of their zeal for the Bleſſed Virgin; even the very lacquies of the city were at the expence of building fifteen of the arches. On each of the arches are the names and arms of the benefactors. One ſide of the arcade is walled, but in that towards the road, every arch reſts upon its reſpective pillars. Every arch is five common paces, or twelve feet wide, which is alſo the breadth of the walk. The height is about ſixteen feet. This arcade does not run in a ſtraight line; but its direction is now and then interrupted with ſmall

windings, yet in many parts there are very long viſtas, particularly at the grand portico near the city, from which one has a view of ninety-three arches in a direct line, which taken together are ſeven hundred and fifty common paces in length. There are thirty-three flights of ſteps to aſcend the acclivity of the mountain; theſe flights conſiſt of a few ſteps, and the ſpace between is level and paved with flat ſtones.

A continual emulation reigns between the Franciſcans and Dominicans, eſpecially at Bologna; each of theſe orders ſtriving to ſurpaſs the other in buildings and other external magnificence, in order to increaſe their revenue and authority. The Dominicans have the advantage in the ſplendor of their churches; but in wine cellars they have been hitherto exceeded by the Franciſcans. The church of the latter is adorned with many highly finiſhed pieces of painting, and on each ſide of the convent are fine arched cloiſters, one of which is one hundred and thirty-three, and the other two hundred common paces in length. In the ſtreet before the convent is a pillar, on the top of which is a braſs ſtatue of the Virgin Mary, ſtanding on a creſcent.

In the Dominican convent are about one hundred and forty monks. An anti-chamber, divided into three iſles, leads to the library, and on each ſide are ſtatues and paintings in honour of the Dominican order, and pope Pius V. The books are very numerous, and judiciouſly diſpoſed. In the lower cloiſter of the convent is a ſmall chapel, ſaid to have been the apartment in which St. Dominic, in the year 1221, departed this life. In one piece of painting in this chapel is an angel repreſented going up a ladder to heaven with St. Dominic on his back; but that the angel and St. Dominic may not have the ill manners of turning their poſteriors towards the people, they aſcend the ladder backwards. Another circumſtance no leſs abſurd, is our Saviour and the Virgin Mary ſtanding above, holding the ladder.

Here is an univerſity, in which are profeſſors for oratory, philoſophy, geometry, aſtronomy, anatomy, divinity, phyſic, the oriental languages, the civil and canon law, civil and eccleſiaſtical hiſtory, and all of them have handſome ſalaries. The foreign ſtudents amount to about four hundred. The public college is two hundred and thirteen paces in length. Near its entrance on the right hand is a grand ſtair-caſe, adorned with ſome good paintings in freſco, repreſenting the noble actions of St. Carlo Boromeo, and other pieces. The anatomical theatre is adorned with wooden ſtatues of the moſt celebrated anatomiſts, and the floor is boarded with cypreſs.

In the year 1712, Luigi Ferdinando de Marſigli inſtiſtituted at Bologna an academy of ſciences, for the improvement of natural hiſtory, mathematics, natural philoſophy, chemiſtry, anatomy, and phyſic. With this the Clementine academy, founded by pope Clement XI. for architecture and painting, was incorporated; and for the farther advancement of this inſtitution, the city purchaſed and gave the palazza Celeſi to the academy, that the library, the muſeum, the obſervatory, the ſchools, and the apartments of the profeſſors, might be under the ſame roof. In aſcending the tower you firſt come to the aſtronomical ſchool, where is to be ſeen a model of the Copernican ſyſtem. Here is alſo a perpendicular meridian line, cut through a wall a foot thick. On each ſide hang teleſcopes, quadrants, &c. ſo that, as the ſtars croſs the meridian, proper obſervations may be conveniently made, for which purpoſe all the ſhutters in the aperture may be removed at pleaſure.

Higher up the tower is the obſervatory, which on every ſide has ſhutters to be opened or ſhut as required, and a gallery on the outſide. This tower is aſcended by two hundred and ſeventy ſteps, and the top of it alſo ſerves for aſtronomical obſervations; and through an aperture juſt over the middle of the ſpiral ſtair-caſe, the ſtars may be ſeen in the day-time, from the vault under the tower. The library belonging to the college is in the ſecond ſtory, and chiefly conſiſts of the books of count Marſigli, who founded the academy, and contains ſeveral Turkiſh, Arabic, and other oriental manuſcripts. In another apartment is taught experimental philoſophy. The paintings with which this room is decorated repreſent volcanos, and other mountains of a ſingular quality; large iſlands of ice, frequent in the north ſeas; the cataracts of the Nile, and other great rivers. In a cloſet adjoining to this apartment are ſeveral loadſtones, among which is one ſcarce ſo large as a man's fiſt, that weighs only nine ounces without the cap, yet lifts up two hundred and thirty ounces. Another apartment exhibits a variety of ſhells and other marine productions. Adjoining to this is a cloſet containing a collection of ſemi-pellucid ſtones, as agate, jaſper, turquoiſe, chalcedony, onyx, and lapis-lazuli. The tranſparent ſtones are kept in another cloſet, with the name affixed to each piece. Here are alſo many hundred ſpecies of marble, and other ſtones, in ſeparate repoſitories, which being well poliſhed, and all ranged according to their different colours, make a beautiful appearance. In another room are kept ſeveral kinds of ſea-weeds, corals, ſponge, &c. In another, all kinds of exotic fruits, woods, leaves of plants, roots and barks of trees, gums, reſins, with the ſeeds of all kinds of vegetables. One large room contains a variety of all kinds of animals, and another all ſorts of warlike inſtruments.

The painting academy is on the ground-floor, and the cieling beautifully painted. In winter thoſe who are inſtructed in painting meet in a particular room, built in the form of an amphitheatre, and well illuminated with lamps, where above a hundred and fifty of them may conveniently ſit and draw from the life. In the academy of ſculpture are wooden models of the antient obeliſks at Rome, and in a place adjoining to it are ſtatues and copies of the moſt famous originals in plaſter. To this edifice is added a noble printing-houſe, furniſhed not only with Latin, Greek, and Hebrew, but alſo with Arabic and other oriental types.

The Bologneſe ladies dreſs entirely in the French faſhion. The women of the middle claſs generally appear in a black gown, with a black ſilk veil over their heads; and the female ſex in general enjoy a greater freedom here than in moſt cities of Italy. One meets with many perſons walking the ſtreets with ſpectacles on, who are ſo far from labouring under any weakneſs of ſight, that they caſt their eyes about on all ſides without once looking through the glaſſes. This faſhion is of Spaniſh original, and is ſuppoſed to give an air of gravity, which has recommended it to the generality of the monks and clergy.

The Bologneſe are famous for their vivacity and wit, and particularly for their ſatirical jeſts. However, a ſtranger no where meets with more civility than at Bologna; but their aſſiduous application to their ſeveral trades and manufactures, is a much more valuable quality.

The little river Reno, a branch of which runs through the city, turns many ſilk-mills. The Bologna damaſks, ſattins, taffeties, and velvets, are in great repute. This city alſo carries on a conſiderable trade in flax and hemp, and alſo ſupplies the neighbouring provinces with oil and wine.

The wine made about Bologna is ſo ſtrong, that on its firſt coming from the preſs it is generally diluted with a fourth part of water; except that appointed for the ſacrament, which is without mixture: the neat wine is to be purchaſed at the convents. Many ingenious works are here made of walnut-tree; for with theſe trees the country abounds, and the quinces are here large, and of an exquiſite flavour. Bologna is likewiſe celebrated for eſſences, aqua-vitæ, ſope, and ſnuff; but more particularly for its theriaca, which is prepared in the public elaboratory; and at Bologna rock cryſtal is wrought into ſnuff-boxes, luſtres, &c.

The nuns of the city are very ingenious in making moſt beautiful artificial flowers of ſilver, ſilk, muſlin, enamel, and iſinglaſs. Fruits of all kinds are alſo imitated in wax, ſo as ſcarcely to be diſtinguiſhed at firſt ſight from the products of nature. This country indeed abounds in honey and wax, great quantities of which are exported. All kinds of proviſions are here exceeding good, and in great plenty. Fowls of all kinds are in theſe parts very large, and of a fine flavour, eſpecially the

the pigeons. The Bologna cervellat, and other ſauſages, tongues, &c. are famous, not only throughout Europe, but in the Eaſt and Weſt Indies.

The other towns in the Bologneſe are very ſmall and inconſiderable.

SECT. VII.

The FERRARESE, *or Dutchy of* FERRARA.

Its Situation, the Manner in which it became ſubject to the Pope, its preſent wretched State, and a particular Deſcription of Ferrara, the Capital of the Country.

THE Ferrareſe is bounded on the north by the Poleſino di Rovigo, on the weſt by the dutchy of Mantua, on the ſouth by the Bologneſe and Romagna Proper, and on the eaſt by the gulph of Venice. It had formerly its own dukes, who held this country as a fief of the papal ſee, till 1597, when pope Clement VIII. annexed the country to the Eccleſiaſtical State; ſince that time it lies almoſt uncultivated, though it was one of the fineſt countries in Italy. The air is unwholeſome, on account of the marſhes, the inhabitants being too thinly ſcattered to drain them.

Ferrara is an antient, large, and beautiful city, notwithſtanding its being poor and ill peopled. It is ſeated on the Po, in the forty-fourth degree thirty-ſix minutes north latitude, and in the twelfth degree fourteen minutes eaſt longitude, thirty miles to the north-eaſt of Bologna. Its fortifications are of little value, except the citadel of five whole, and as many half baſtions, built by Clement VIII. Within the city is a large caſtle, or palace, ſurrounded with high walls, towers, and moats, at preſent the reſidence of the legate a latere over this dutchy. At the entrance are two braſs ſtatues of two former dukes, one of whom is on horſeback. The ſtreets are long, broad, clean, and regular, with many handſome houſes and palaces.

The architecture of the cathedral is in the Gothic taſte, and its outſide adorned with a multitude of marble pillars and baſs reliefs. Its large ſquare ſteeple is alſo entirely of marble. The grand gate is ſupported with three ranges of pillars, between which are ſeveral porticos, one above another, and juſt above the entrance is a large gilt ſtatue of the Virgin Mary. The chapels of this ſtructure are finely ornamented with ſculpture and painting.

Oppoſite the cathedral are two fine braſs ſtatues; the one is equeſtrian, repreſenting Nicholas d'Eſte, marquis of Ferrara, with an inſcription, intimating, that he thrice reſtored peace to Italy; the other is ſitting between two ſmall figures of braſs, upon a pillar about twenty feet high, and repreſents Borſo d'Eſte, the firſt duke of Ferrara, one of the moſt virtuous men in his age. This is ſaid to have been formerly an aſylum for criminals, which extended twenty paces round the ſtatue; tho' it has now loſt its protecting power. But near it is ſtill a ſanctuary; a very handſome pillar adorned with oak branches and leaves, which ſupports a gilt ſtature of pope Alexander VII. who is ſitting in a chair giving his bleſſing.

At a ſmall diſtance is another ſquare in which is the town-houſe, which is adorned on every ſide with marble galleries and baluſtrades, together with ſeveral other fine ſtructures. Theſe two ſquares, with the adjacent ſtreets, are the beſt peopled parts of the whole city.

The church of the Carmelites is a very ſpacious ſtructure, filled with fine paintings; the moſt valuable of which are, a converſion of St. Paul, to whom the church is dedicated; the martyrdom of that apoſtle; and the adoration of the eaſtern magi, all in the choir.

The Benedictine convent is very fine; and its cloiſters are compoſed of magnificent porticos. At the foot of the ſtair-caſe that leads to the dormitory, is the ſtatue of Otho III. its founder. Its church is large, and the tabernacle of the high altar much admired for the beauty of the workmanſhip. It is adorned with very fine fluted columns, and the figures of ſeveral ſaints of the Benedictine order. In this church is the tomb of the celebrated Arioſto, the author of Orlando Furioſo, and ſeveral other pieces highly eſteemed. This tomb is of red, white, and black marble, adorned with columns and ſtatues. His buſt is of white marble, and crowned with bays.

The church of the Theatines is large, and their convent very magnificent. Its library is eſteemed one of the beſt in Ferrara, both for printed books and manuſcripts.

The Chartreuſe is alſo worthy of notice, and is adorned with very fine porticos. Its church is a large ſuperb building, that contains many magnificent chapels, all adorned with excellent pictures. Thoſe over the high altar, which repreſent the aſcenſion and the laſt judgment, are by Baſtianino Philippi, a native of Ferrara; but the marriage of Cana in the refectory of the convent, by Bononi, who was born in the ſame city, is by far the beſt.

The univerſity of this city is gone to decay, and has only one college, which belongs to the Jeſuits.

It muſt not be omitted, that in 1735 pope Clement III. raiſed the biſhopric of Ferrara to an archbiſhopric, which at once put an end to the long diſputes about juriſdiction between this biſhopric and the archbiſhopric of Ravenna.

Ferrara was very rich, and poſſeſſed a great trade, while governed by its own princes, eſpecially its three laſt dukes, who fortified, embelliſhed, and enlarged it ſo much, that it contained upwards of a hundred thouſand inhabitants; but it is at preſent very deſolate, vaſt numbers of the houſes being uninhabited, and falling to ruin.

In this dutchy are alſo Comacchio, a biſhop's ſee, but a ſmall place, and two or three market-towns.

SECT. VIII.

Of ROMAGNA.

Its Situation, Produce, and Hiſtory; with a Deſcription of Ravenna, Imola, Faenza, Servia, and Rimini.

ROMAGNA, in Latin Romandiola, is bounded on the north by the Ferrareſe; on the ſouth by Tuſcany and the dutchy of Urbino; on the eaſt by the gulph of Venice; and on the weſt by the Bologneſe and a part of Tuſcany. The country produces corn, wine, oil, and fine fruits; and eſpecially ſalt, from which ariſes its principal revenue. It has alſo excellent paſtures, with ſome mines and mineral waters; but the country lies miſerably uncultivated, except near the principal towns.

This country was a part of the antient province of Flaminia, which in the fifth century became ſubject to the Oſtrogoths, whoſe king, named Theodoric, having taken the city of Ravenna in 493, made it his uſual place of reſidence. In the following century the Goths being driven out by Beliſarius and Narſes, generals of the emperors of the Eaſt, Ravenna became the reſidence of the emperor's exarch, till the Longobardi made themſelves maſters of it; but in 755 Pepin, king of the Franks, having compelled Iſtulphus, king of the Longobardi, to give up the whole exarchate, conferred it on the ſee of Rome. The moſt remarkable places in this country are the following:

Ravenna, the capital, was formerly a city of great ſplendor, but is now mean and inconſiderable. The houſes are old and ruinous, the ſtreets filthy, and all parts have a melancholy appearance; for the number of its inhabitants ſcarce amount to fifteen hundred. In the time of the Romans and Goths it ſtood on a bay formed by the Adriatic, and had a celebrated harbour; but at preſent it is three Italian miles from the ſea, which is owing to the great quantities of mud thrown up by the tide, and ſince formed into a tract of land which is cultivated. Without the city is ſtill to be ſeen a high brick tower, which formerly ſtood at the harbour, and one mile and a half farther a ruinous old light-houſe. The air is unwholeſome, but has been ſomewhat improved by conveying along the ſides of the city the rivers Montone and Ronco, which carry off the ſtinking water from the adjoining marſhes.

The large market-place of this city is adorned with two lofty pillars of granate, upon which ſtand at preſent the ſtatues of St. Victor and St. Apollinaris. In this

area is alſo erected a braſs ſtatue of pope Alexander VII. ſitting, which is the uſual attitude in public monuments erected to the vicars of Chriſt. Under an arcade in the market-place are eight ſmall iron gates, which are ſaid to be thoſe taken from the city of Pavia, and ſet up as trophies of the valour of the inhabitants of Ravenna; but the common people are perſuaded that theſe gates were brought from the Holy Land, and that they were thoſe which Sampſon carried away from Gaza.

On the area before the cathedral ſtands the ſtatue of the Virgin Mary, on the top of a pillar erected to her in 1659, becauſe, according to the inſcription, ſhe preſerved the city more than once from the plague. The great door of the church is made of rough boards, without any ornament; but what is moſt remarkable is, that theſe boards are ſawed out of vines, and ſome of them are twelve feet long and two ſpans in breadth. In the cathedral are fifty-two large marble pillars in four rows, and in the chapel of the Holy Sacrament is a repreſentation of the children of Iſrael gathering manna in the Wilderneſs, with ſome other paintings by Guido Rheni.

The church of St. Apollinaris is worthy the notice of a traveller. On each ſide of it are twelve marble pillars, and the cieling is an old, but beautiful Moſaic work, repreſenting the three Eaſtern kings worſhipping the infant Jeſus, and ſeveral ſaints with their names inſcribed over them. In the center is the head of the emperor Juſtinian. The ſculpture and marble of the high altar are exceeding beautiful. In St. Anthony's chapel are ſeveral fine marble ſtatues: the altar is ornamented with black marble pillars, and near the entrance are two pillars of quince-coloured alabaſter. The altar of the chapel della Reliquie is decorated with four beautiful pillars of red porphyry. All the other altars in this church are of marble, adorned with many excellent pieces of painting. Great devotion is paid to the body of St. Apollinaris, and on his coffin are three ſilver tablets, on which are engraven a long account of his life and martyrdom.

The pavement of St. Vitalis's church is very beautiful, and the Moſaic work in the choir is extremely curious. The cieling of the church is painted in freſco, and on the walls are painted the martyrdom of St. Vitalis. On the altar della Madonna ſtand three beautiful white marble ſtatues of the Virgin Mary, and two angels. Over another altar, which is likewiſe of white marble, is an excellent Pieta, between two angels.

The church called the Rotonda lies without the city, and at preſent reſembles a ruined cupola. Its diameter is about ſixteen common paces, and its pavement, except in the dry ſummer months, is always under water. It is ſuppoſed to have been built in the year 526 by Amalaſunta, daughter to Theodoric, king of the Oſtrogoths. The moſt remarkable part of it is the roof, which is in the form of an inverted diſh, and conſiſts of one ſingle ſtone, which many years after this church was built was ſplit by lightning: it is as hard as a flint, and, according to an account written on vellum, and kept on the altar of the chapel, was brought out of Egypt. The thickneſs of this ſtone is four geometrical feet, the circumference a hundred and fourteen, and the diameter thirty-one feet two inches. It is difficult to conceive, ſays Mr. Keyſler, in what manner, at a time when the modern machines were in a great meaſure unknown, this huge maſs, the weight of which cannot be leſs than a hundred tons, was raiſed to the top of this edifice. Round this ſtone formerly ſtood the ſtatues of the twelve apoſtles, as appears from their names ſtill to be ſeen on the pedeſtals, which project a little way from this ſtone roof, and in the center ſtood a coffin of porphyry, in which was the body of Theodoric, king of the Oſtrogoths.

On a fountain in the area before the pope's palace is an antient ſtatue of Hercules, bearing on his ſhoulder an hemiſphere that ſerves for a ſun-dial. The club on which he leans diſtinguiſhes him from Atlas, for whom he might otherwiſe eaſily be taken.

Good ſpring water is extremely ſcarce at Ravenna; and ſeems to have been more ſo in the time of the Romans; for Juvenal thus complains:

"By a Ravenna vintner once betray'd,
"So much for wine and water mix'd I pay'd;
"But when I thought the purchas'd liquor mine,
"The raſcal fobb'd me off with only wine."

After thus deſcribing the capital, we ſhall mention ſome other places worthy of notice.

Imola, the antient Forum Cornelii, is a pretty town on an iſland formed by the river Santerno, nine miles to the north-weſt of Faenza. It has a wall, moats, and towers, with a ſtrong old caſtle; it is the reſidence of a biſhop, ſuffragan to the archbiſhop of Ravenna, and contains fifty churches, convents, and hoſpitals.

Faenza, in Latin Faventia, a town thirty-four miles to the eaſt of Bologna, is ſeated on the river Amone, from which a canal runs through the city, and afterwards falls into the river below it. Over the Amone is a ſtone bridge, with towers leading to a ſuburb that has ſome fortifications, though, like thoſe of the city, they are of no conſequence. It is a biſhop's ſee under the archbiſhop of Ravenna, has a fine market-place, and is famous all over Italy for the goodneſs of its earthenware.

Servia, a ſmall new-built town near the ſea, with handſome broad ſtreets. It formerly ſtood about half an Italian mile farther from the ſhore; but was removed hither in the year 1703, on account of the unwholeſomeneſs of the air. Its biſhop is ſuffragan to the archbiſhop of Ravenna. Up the country is a low tract of ground about two Italian miles and an half in length, and in ſome parts nearly as broad, into which, during the ſummer, the ſea-water is conveyed through a large handſome canal. The heat of the ſun prepares the water in this ſpacious reſervoir for making ſalt, of which the apoſtolic chamber have the ſuperintendency, and ſupply the provinces of Urbino, Ferrara, Cona, Bologna, and Romagna.

Rimini, a city on the river Marecchia, which was formerly called Ariminum, twenty miles to the ſouth-eaſt of Ravenna. It was once ſituated by the ſea, as appears from the remaining mole of the old harbour near the city walls; but now it is thirteen hundred paces diſtant, the ſea having thrown up a large tract of land that has been improved for tillage and gardening, and the harbour is ſo choaked up with ſand, as ſcarce to admit of ſmall barks. Ravenna was antiently in a very flouriſhing condition; but, among other calamities, ſuffered extremely by an earthquake in the year 1671; but it is ſtill a biſhopric ſuffragan to Ravenna, and is venerable for many monuments of its antient ſplendor. A little without the town towards Peſaro is a triumphal arch, on each front of which are two beautiful columns, and two buſtos. This was erected to the emperor Auguſtus. Here are alſo the remains of an amphitheatre, and ſeveral antient inſcriptions. Among its churches, that of the Franciſcans is the fineſt. In the ſquare before the council-houſe is a beautiful fountain, on which ſtands a ſmall bronze ſtatue of St. Paul. In this city is alſo a large library, in a very elegant ſtructure, for the uſe of the public.

SECT. IX.

The Dutchy of URBINO.

Its Situation, Extent, Produce, and Hiſtory; with a Deſcription of the Cities of Urbino, Peſaro, and Fano.

THE dutchy of Urbino is bounded on the north by the gulph of Venice; on the ſouth by Perugino and Umbria; on the eaſt by the marquiſate of Ancona; and on the weſt by Tuſcany and Romagna; extending about fifty-five miles in length and forty-five in breadth. It contains fruit, great plenty of game, as well as fiſh; but the air is not very wholeſome, nor is the ſoil remarkable for its fertility.

This dutchy had formerly its own dukes, of whom the laſt, Francis Maria, of Rovere, dying in 1631, the papal treaſury took poſſeſſion of his territory, the ſame duke having before, by will, confirmed the pope's claims, and

and in effect made over the country to him. The principal places in this duchy are the following:

Urbino, the capital of the country, is ſeated on a mountain between the rivers Metro and Foglia, twenty miles to the ſouth of Rimini, and is a handſome place, where the dukes formerly reſided; and, though not large, is the reſidence of a legate and archbiſhop. The houſes are very well built, and great quantities of fine earthenware are made here. The palace of its former dukes is a fine building.

Peſaro, a ſea-port at the mouth of the Foglia, in a pleaſant country, is a handſome clean city, which has ſome fortifications, and is the ſee of a biſhop ſuffragan to Urbino. There is here a fountain of mineral water, which, though its jet d'eau is not extraordinary, is very convenient for the inhabitants, and is ornamented in a good taſte. In its upper baſon, which is in the form of a drinking-glaſs, are ſeveral ſea-goddeſſes and ſea-horſes, which ſpout water from about thirty different apertures. In the great market-place is a highly finiſhed marble ſtatue of pope Urban VIII. in a ſitting attitude. The city contains many fine churches, convents, and palaces; and the figs of this country are reckoned the beſt in Italy. Round Peſaro is a fine country, divided into ſquare incloſures by rows of trees, interwoven with vines.

Poggio Imperiale is an antient pleaſure-houſe of the dukes of Urbino, ſeated on a hill about a mile from Peſaro, and is adorned with ſome good paintings by Genga, and a fine orangery.

Fano, a ſea-port, pretty well fortified, with a harbour for ſmall veſſels, is ſeated about twenty miles to the eaſt of Urbino, and derives its name from a *fanum*, or temple of Fortune, which antiently ſtood here. In commemoration of this, the image of Fortune is not only erected on the fountain in the market-place, but has alſo a place in the arms of the city. This is a biſhop's ſee, which depends immediately on the pope, and has forty-four churches and convents. The greateſt curioſity here is a marble triumphal arch in honour of the emperor Auguſtus, which after having withſtood the injuries of time till the year 1458, was then much damaged by the cannon, during the ſiege of Fano. This arch had formerly three gates; but the ſmalleſt on the left hand, in coming from the town, has been pulled down to make room for St. Michael's church, and the other is ſtopped by a mean houſe; ſo that the middle gate is now the only one open. In the cathedral of Fano are ſome admirable paintings, repreſenting the annunciation, the Lord's ſupper, and the gathering of manna, by Quercini; and the aſſumption of the Virgin Mary, by Caraccioli. In the chapel of the Virgin Mary are the fifteen myſteries of the roſary, painted by Domenichino. St. Peter's church alſo deſerves notice for its cupola, ſculpture, and paintings. On the high altar are two angels of white Carrara marble, by an eminent hand; the picture of Chriſt delivering the keys to Peter, by Guido Rheni; with ſeveral other pieces. A nobleman, by the name of Torelli, has erected in the market-place at Fano a very elegant theatre for exhibiting comedies and operas, which is made uſe of in carnival time.

Here are alſo Sinigaglia, Poſſombrone, Borgo St. Sepulchro, St. Leo, Cagli, and Gubio, each of which is the ſee of a biſhop, with ſome other ſmall places.

SECT. X.

The Marquiſate of ANCONA.

Its Situation, Produce, and Rivers; with a remarkable Account of the Ballani, a Shell-fiſh incloſed in Stones, with other Kinds of Sea-fiſh in the Adriatic: a conciſe Hiſtory of the Country, with a particular Deſcription of the Cities of Ancona and Loretto, including an accurate Account of the Caſa Santa.

THE marquiſate of Ancona is bounded on the north and eaſt by the Adriatic ſea; on the weſt by the duchy of Urbino; on the ſouth by Umbria, or the duchy of Spoletto; and on the eaſt by the Farther Abruzzo, from which it is ſeparated by the river Tronto; extending from eaſt to weſt about eighty miles, and ſixty from north to ſouth.

The air is extremely temperate, and the ſoil ſo fruitful, that it has been formerly called the garden of Italy. It produces a great variety of excellent fruit, with flax and bees wax.

This country is watered by no leſs than twelve rivers; theſe are the Fiumeſino, the Aſpido, Maſone, Potentia, Laſino, Chiento, Tingo, or Tenna, Leta-Vino, Aſone, Toſino, Ragnola, and Tronto.

This would be ſtill an excellent ſpot, and its inhabitants very rich, had they not the misfortune to groan under the tyranny of prieſts. On this account it is a deſart, if compared to what it was formerly; for Pliny aſſures us, that after a long bloody war it ſubmitted at laſt to the Romans, with upwards of four hundred thouſand inhabitants.

The eaſtern part of Italy is much more pleaſant and fertile than moſt parts on the weſt ſide.

All along the coaſt of Ancona, on the Adriatic ſea, ſtands a range of towers, at the diſtance of half a mile from each other, defended by one or two pieces of cannon, in order to hinder the landing of pirates, or the corſairs of Barbary.

In the loamy ſhallows along this ſhore, and eſpecially near Monte Comero, or Conaro, ten miles from the city of Ancona, are found the ballani, a ſort of ſhell-fiſh, which, when alive, harbour in a kind of large ſpongy ſtone, and, being not unlike a date kernel, are called ſea-dates. Frequently twenty or thirty of theſe are found in one ſtone. Many of theſe ſtones have little orifices on their ſurface; but others have none at all, notwithſtanding which the fiſh live and grow up in them. At Ancona they are larger than at Conaro; but the largeſt do not much exceed a finger in length. When they fiſh for ballani, they pick up ſuch ſtones as have their ſurface full of little holes, theſe being a certain ſign that the fiſh have inſinuated themſelves into them: but ſometimes the aperture through which the ſpawn, or ſmall fry of the fiſh, have penetrated into the ſtone, happens to be afterwards ſtopped up ſo as not to be diſcernible, and yet they thrive very well. They have no more room than is juſt neceſſary to open their ſhell a little way, this having been gradually abraded by their motion, in order to make room for their growth. The only way of getting them out, is by breaking the ſtone; for the paſſage through which they entered is much too ſmall even for the young fry to come out at. If two or more of theſe ſhell-fiſh happen by their growth to come into contact with each other in the ſame ſtone, only one fiſh is found to be alive. The inſide of the ſhell is white, but the outſide of an aſh-colour. When taken out of the ſtone a gut reſembling a worm about the length of a man's finger, hangs to them. This is entirely white, and full of clear water, which it ſquirts out when pleaſed. Such as find a particular delicacy in the taſte of theſe fiſh, ſay, that they do not feed on the groſſer parts of the ſea-water, but as it were on the ſubtile dew which penetrates through the ſtone, and thus undergoes a kind of filtration. It is very remarkable, that both the fiſh and the juices got from them are ſo luminous in the dark, that one might read by them; and even the water into which this fiſh has been ſqueezed, when put in a glaſs, emits an effulgence that laſts between ten and twelve hours. Great quantities of theſe fiſh are ſent to Rome, where they are reckoned dainties.

At Ancona is alſo a kind of ſea craw-fiſh, called nocchia, that have ſome reſemblance to our lobſters, but have a more delicate flavour. Their claws are leſs than thoſe of a craw-fiſh, and the head and tail are of a very uncommon ſhape. The largeſt of theſe ſpecies is about four inches in length.

Among other remarkable ſea animals in the harbour of Ancona is a fiſh called the ſepi, which is probably a ſpecies of the cuttle-fiſh, and has a long whitiſh ſhell on its head.

In the neighbourhood of Ancona are dug out of the ground amber, ſulphur, and ſeveral mineral reſins. The ſea near Ancona is obſerved to ebb and flow about a foot, or a foot and a half; but this tide gradually abates as the Adriatic ſea approaches to its junction with the Mediterranean,

ranean, and increaſes in its northern part towards the city of Venice.

The inhabitants of Ancona, eſpecially the female ſex, ſo far excel thoſe of the other parts of Italy in ſhape and complexion, that they ſeem to be a different race of people. The ſame may be obſerved of the inhabitants as far as Rimini.

With reſpect to the hiſtory of this country, it will be ſufficient to obſerve, that over the city of Ancona and its diſtrict, antiently called Picenum, was formerly placed a governor, who had the title of margrave, whence is derived the appellation of the marche or marquiſate of Ancona; but afterwards recovering its freedom, it continued independent till the year 1532, at which time Lewis Gonzaga, general of pope Clement VII. rendered it ſubject to the pope. Under the plauſible pretence of defending it againſt the incurſions of the Turks and banditti, the biſhop of Carla and the above Lewis de Gonzaga prevailed on the inhabitants to permit them to build a citadel. As ſoon as this was done, Gonzaga having drawn out all the young men of the city, under the pretence of exerciſing them in arms, the perfidious biſhop ſallied out of the citadel with his garriſon, cauſed the gates to be ſhut, ſeized the magiſtrates, and obliged them, with the reſt of the inhabitants, to take an oath of obedience and ſubjection to the pope.

Ancona, the capital of the country, is ſituated in the forty-third degree twenty minutes north latitude, and in the fifteenth degree eaſt longitude; and ſtands on the ſea between two hills, on one of which is the citadel, and on the other the cathedral. It cannot be termed ſmall, and ſome parts are not unhandſome; but it is far from being ſo populous and wealthy as it might be, from the conveniency of its ſituation and the goodneſs of its harbour. This harbour was conſiderably improved by the emperor Trajan, and in commemoration thereof a triumphal arch of fine veined marble was erected to him on the mole, which ſtill makes a beautiful appearance, it having eight fluted columns, which are ſtill entire and very elegant. The extremity of this mole is fortified and planted with ten or twelve pieces of cannon, which contribute to ſecure the harbour. Over one of the gates of the city is a Latin inſcription to this purpoſe: "Fair Probity, which built this city, delights to "aſſociate with Peace on this happy ſpot."

The cathedral is incruſted with marble, and from its ſituation affords a delightful proſpect of the town and along the ſea-coaſt. In the portico before it are two remarkable pillars reſting on two marble lions. The churches, convents, and hoſpitals, are forty-five in number, and the biſhop depends immediately on the pope. The exchange within the city is a large elegant building, and perſons of all religions enjoy liberty of conſcience, though the Proteſtants are not allowed any place of public worſhip: the trade, however, is but inconſiderable, and for the greater part kept up by the Jews, who amount to about five thouſand, and live together in a particular quarter, where they have a ſynagogue, but are diſtinguiſhed from the Chriſtians by a bit of red cloth in their hats. The large lazaretto for performing quarantine ſtands partly on the ſhore and partly on the ſea.

Loretto is a ſmall town very pleaſantly ſituated on a hill, about fifteen miles to the ſouth of Ancona. It is two thouſand paces from the ſea, and with the moſt delightful proſpect on all ſides; is ſurrounded with deep moats and ſmall towers, which, however, would prove but a ſlender defence in caſe of an attack. The Santa Caſa, or Holy-houſe, which has rendered this place ſo famous throughout all the catholic part of Chriſtendom, is ſaid to be the very ſame in which the Virgin Mary lived with Joſeph at Nazareth. According to the hiſtory of the adventures of this building, it is pretended that in May 1291 it was tranſported by angels through the air from Galilee to Terſato, in Dalmatia, and three years and an half after into Italy; where, on the tenth of December, 1294, about midnight, it was firſt placed in a wood belonging to Recanati, a thouſand paces diſtant from the ſea. Eight months after it was again removed a thouſand paces nearer to Recanati; and at laſt, as it were with more mature deliberation, depoſited in its preſent place. Nothing can be more amazing than the credit given to ſuch an abſurd and ridiculous fable, by which all popiſh countries have been voluntarily drawn to make burthenſome contributions, it being notorious, that with reſpect to the received chronology of this miraculous tranſmigration, the ſacred houſe had been placed in Italy, and its fame much celebrated, even long before ſome popiſh writers, as St. Vincent and others, ſought for it in Nazareth, and maintained that they ſaw it there.

The ſacred houſe itſelf is built of bricks of unequal ſize. The length within is thirty-one feet nine inches, the breadth thirteen feet and near three inches, and the height eighteen feet nine inches at the ſides; but the center of the roof is five palms higher than the ſides.

On the top of the Caſa Santa is a little tower, which the Roman Catholics cannot deny to have been the work of Chriſtians; ſince it is contrary to all probability to imagine, that the Virgin Mary had ſuch a tower erected upon her mean habitation. In violent tempeſts of thunder and lightning they ring two little bells which are hung in this tower, not doubting but that their ſound will diſperſe any tempeſt, and prevent any ill effects from it.

One part of the Caſa Santa may be conſidered as the Holy of Holies, it being ſeparated from the other part by a ſilver baluſtrade, and a gate of the ſame metal. In the larger part are thirty-ſeven ſilver lamps, ſome weighing fifty, others eighty, others a hundred and four, and four of them weigh a hundred and twenty-eight pounds each. This part is alſo ſeparated from the other by an altar, which being without a back, affords a view of the celebrated image. In this larger part is the greateſt curioſity, that is, the window by which the angel Gabriel entered at the Annunciation; over which is a picture of the Crucifixion, pretended to be brought by the apoſtles into this houſe, and to have been done by St. Luke. The ſmaller part has the wall plated over with ſilver, and contains the hearth where the bleſſed Virgin uſed to dreſs her victuals, and over it ſtands her image, which is five feet high, and is ſaid to be made of cedar by the hand of St. Luke; the infant on her right arm is alſo of cedar; it is not quite two palms in height; and in her left hand ſhe has a globe. The faces of both images have been over-laid with a kind of ſilver lacker, which is now become quite black with the continual ſmoke of the lamps; ſo that the Virgin Mary wants only thick lips to make her a perfect Negro. The infant Jeſus is dreſſed in a flame-coloured habit, and the Virgin Mary in an azure robe; with which ſhe is ſo modeſtly covered, that no part of the ſtatue is to be ſeen, but its face and toes. The mantle hanging down her ſhoulders is of the ſame colour, powdered with golden ſtars: her hair hangs on her ſhoulders and part of her back. On her head is a triple crown of gold, enriched with pearls and diamonds, and another is on that of the child Jeſus; both the gift of Lewis XIII. king of France, and valued at ſeventy-five thouſand crowns. The gold chains, rings, and jewels, with which the image of the Virgin is loaded, are frequently changed, and her apparel is not always the ſame; for on the ſeven days of Paſſion-week ſhe is dreſſed in deep mourning, and has daily a freſh ſuit. The niche in which the image ſtands, is adorned with ſeventy-one large Bohemian topazes. On the right ſide of the image is an angel of caſt gold, profuſely enriched with diamonds and other gems, with one knee inclined, offering a golden heart embelliſhed with large diamonds, and terminating in a flame of rubies and pearls. This piece is ſaid to have coſt fifty thouſand ducats, and was offered by Maria Beatrix Eleanora, queen to James II. of England, that by the interceſſion of the Virgin, ſhe might conceive a ſon; and it is ſaid, that ſoon after ſhe had the ſon who has made ſuch noiſe under the name of the Pretender to the Britiſh crown. On the left ſide of the Virgin is a ſilver angel, in the ſame poſture of reverence, offering her a golden heart crowned, and glittering with pearls, emeralds, and diamonds, likewiſe terminating in a flame: this was preſented by the mother of the ſame princeſs. On the right hand of the Virgin

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is a silver angel, weighing three hundred and fifty-one pounds, offering on a cushion of the same metal an infant of massy gold, weighing twenty-four pounds. This was presented by Lewis XIII. king of France, for the birth of the dauphin, afterwards Lewis XIV. Seven golden lamps are continually burning before the image; one of which, presented by the republic of Venice, weighs thirty-seven pounds and a half. Under this hangs another richly set with jewels. The lamp that stands next the Virgin's face, which is held by three angels, weighs nine pounds; and another, which Francis II. duke of Modena, offered to the Virgin, weighs eighteen pounds and a half. On both sides of the niche are cupboards filled with the antient ornaments of this statue; and in a little window in the wall are some earthen-dishes said to be used by the Holy Family. Some of these vessels have since been edged with gold.

The robe which this famous image had on when it was brought from Dalmatia into Italy, is of red camblet, and kept in a glass shrine. The dish out of which it is pretended the Virgin and her divine Infant used to eat, is shaped like a shallow bowl, and of earthen-ware; but its outside is now plated over with silver. This utensil is not only kissed, but rosaries, medals, *Agnus Dei's*, crucifixes, and paper caps painted with the image of the Madonna of Loretto are rubbed against it, from a firm persuasion that they thus become an infallible remedy against the head-ach, and other disorders. An ague is said to have been perfectly cured only by drinking a little cold water out of this dish: even the oil and wax of the lamps and candles burning before the image are not without their medicinal virtues.

Notwithstanding the mean appearance of the walls within, the outside of the Casa Santa is most elegantly adorned with the finest marble; but is so contrived, that the marble structure serves only as a case for it, leaving a small interval between it and the brick walls of the Casa Santa. This is partly to be attributed to the veneration entertained for those sacred materials, and partly from an apprehension that they would not have suffered the new and unhallowed marble to be in contact with them; but would have repelled it with such violence as to endanger the lives of the workmen. This, it is pretended, formerly happened to some builders, who, from an indiscreet zeal, were going to strengthen these sacred walls by some new additions.

The marble case was begun in the year 1514, and consecrated in 1538 by Paul III. The expence of it at that time, when labour was cheap, amounted to twenty-two thousand ducats, exclusive of twenty marble statues, and four brass doors of curious workmanship, that must have cost an immense sum. One of these is, however, a false door, there being but three entrances cut through the wall. The most celebrated sculptors of that age seemed to have emulated each other in this noble structure. It is about fifty feet in length, thirty broad, and about the same height; and the two longer sides are adorned with twelve Corinthian columns, while the two other sides have eight. The intervals between the columns are filled with basso relievos finely executed, representing the most remarkable incidents in the life of the blessed Virgin. There are also ten statues of the Prophets, and above them the ten Sibyls. Among the Prophets on the south side, David, with the head of Goliah at his feet, is greatly admired by all connoisseurs: and on the north-side, in a groupe representing the espousals of the Virgin Mary, a boy playing with a dog, whilst his mother, with a child in her arms, looks at him with a countenance full of maternal tenderness and complacency, cannot be viewed without pleasure.

The treasury infinitely surpasses the Holy-house in riches. It is a spacious hall wainscotted, and the arched roof is divided by gilt compartments, beautified with excellent pictures. They were formerly glad to keep a number of works in silver in large presses of folding doors, but that metal is now laid up in heaps in private places, and perhaps for private uses; and they are now filled with nothing but pure gold, an amazing quantity of the largest and richest jewels, and such vessels and ornaments as are supposed to exceed the value of gold and gems.

The large church in which the case of the Holy house stands, as it were under a tent, is built of Istrian stone; but the front is entirely of marble finely embellished with sculpture, and over the portal is a statue of the Holy Virgin by Lombardi. The three gates on this side of the church are of brass, with beautiful basso relievos representing different histories of the Old Testament by Lombardi. Here are about twenty altars and chapels, in which all the celebrated artists gave specimens of their skill. The great cupola is supported by eight large pilasters, and on the inside is the assumption and glorification of the Virgin Mary, by Christopher Roncalli.

The font, which stands in a separate chapel, is of bronze, embellished with beautiful basso relievos, and the bason is supported by four angels, over which is painted our Saviour's baptism.

Formerly the walls of the church of Loretto were covered with multitudes of pictures and votive pieces, some of wood, others of wax or brass: but besides the coarseness of the performance and meanness of many of them, they very much darkened the church, and therefore, in 1673, the greatest part of them were removed and the silver and gold tablets employed to better uses.

Near the Casa Santa in this church is the picture of a priest offering his entrails to the Virgin Mary, and under it is a most ridiculous inscription to the following purpose: that this priest, who was a Dalmatian, and lived in the beginning of the sixteenth century, being taken prisoner by the Turks, and strongly sollicited to abjure the Christian religion, so incensed them by his continually calling upon Christ and the Virgin, and promising a pilgrimage to Loretto, that they at last ripped open his breast, and putting his heart and entrails into his hands, sarcastically bid him go and perform his promise; on which he set out for Loretto, where having shewed his empty breast, and offered his heart and entrails to the image of the Virgin, he related the whole affair, and having received the sacrament died in an extacy of joy.

The number of pilgrims who annually visited this place formerly, amounted to two hundred thousand, but the Reformation has given a severe blow to indulgences, and the zeal for tiresome pilgrimages is greatly cooled; so that at present the number of pilgrims who annually repair thither, seldom exceeds forty or fifty thousand. Some come on foot, and others ride on horses or asses. The female pilgrims, who can afford the expence, generally travel to Loretto in a carriage; and as large companies often travel together, many droll incidents happen on the road. As soon as they enter the suburbs they set up a singing, which continues till they reach the church. If the company be too large, the ceremony of going round the Casa Santa on their knees is omitted, and they are obliged to express their devotion in some other manner. The poorer sort of pilgrims are received into an hospital, where they are provided with beds, and have bread and wine every morning and evening for three days.

Loretto is generally without a garrison, so that it seems somewhat strange the Turks have not made greater efforts for getting into their hands the precious booty kept there, than they have hitherto done. The Roman catholics indeed affirm, that in all the attempts which the Turks have hitherto made against Loretto, they have either been repelled by some extraordinary miracle, or miscarried by a supernatural panic. But all these pretended miracles have not produced such confidence in the inhabitants as to put the affair upon such an issue; the treasure being upon the least appearance of danger sent away to Ancona, or some other place of security. But the reason why the Turks make no formal attempt upon this place may probably be owing to the shallowness of the Adriatic, which in these parts has not a sufficient depth of water for large ships to approach the shore; besides, a Turkish garrison is no sooner known to be at sea, than a strong garrison is immediately sent hither.

In going out of the church on the right hand, is a statue of Sixtus V. seated on a pedestal decorated on every side with basso relievos all of bronze. In the great

area before the church is a beautiful marble fountain, made at the expence of Paul V. to whom the city owes the fine water it receives by means of an aqueduct from a neighbouring hill. In the palace which ſtands in this area, the clergy, the officers of the Holy-houſe, and the governor of the town, have apartments, beſides thoſe appointed for perſons of diſtinction who come hither upon pilgrimages. Here are alſo the wine vaults belonging to the Holy-houſe, which are one hundred and fifty-eight common paces in length; and in theſe vaults are generally kept one hundred and forty large caſks of wine. Over the wine cellar are the kitchen, offices, and diſpenſary. In the latter are three hundred and ſixty-eight gallipots, moſt of them very large and with covers, which are extremely valued on account of the paintings on them, ſaid to be the work of the great Raphael. The ſubject of theſe paintings is a medley of ſtories taken from the Scriptures, the Roman hiſtory, and Ovid's Metamorphoſes.

The arſenal is in one of the upper ſtories; it is pretty well furniſhed, and one cloſet is full of prohibited weapons which have been offered to the Virgin.

The trade carried on by the inhabitants of Loretto, beſides what they get by entertaining ſtrangers, conſiſts in making and ſelling medals, crucifixes, images of the Virgin Mary, roſaries, painted paper caps, ribbons, &c. which are bought by the credulous Papiſts as amulets.

The vaſt concourſe of foreigners occaſions a great conſumption of proviſions in this city, and the inn-keepers are for impoſing as much as they can upon ſtrangers; but the entertainment is generally very good, and the inhabitants behave with great civility. It is obſerved, that the lower claſs of people are much more reaſonable in their demands from thoſe travellers who return from Rome, than from ſuch as travel to that city; for they conclude that the latter are ſtrangers to the cuſtoms of the road, and think it allowable to take all advantages of the unexperienced.

The country about Loretto, as well as the town itſelf, ſwarms with beggars; with whom it is cuſtomary in ſpring to ſtrew flowers in the road, when ſtrangers approach, who cannot ſee ſuch an honour paid them, without giving a ſmall gratuity in return for it.

There are ſeveral other towns in the marquiſate of Ancona; but as they contain nothing very extraordinary, we ſhall omit giving an account of them.

SECT. XI.

Of the PERUGINO, ORVIETANO, *and* SPOLETTO.

Their Situation, Extent, and principal Cities.

THE Perugino, or territory of Peruſia, is bounded on the weſt by Tuſcany; on the north by the duchy of Urbino; on the eaſt by Spoletto; and on the ſouth by Orvietano; extending about twenty-eight miles from north to ſouth, and about thirty from eaſt to weſt.

The Tiber, which runs acroſs the country from the north-weſt towards the ſouth, is the principal river; beſides which there are ſeveral ſmaller. This territory contains a pretty large lake, anciently called Thraſimene, but at preſent the lake of Perugia, in which are three iſlands. Between this lake and a high mountain near Cortona, in the dominions of Florence, is a long valley with only one narrow entrance, where Hannibal defeated Flaminius the Roman general.

The air of this territory is very pure, and the ſoil fertile in corn and wine; beſides, the lake ſupplies the country with plenty of fiſh.

The principal city in this province is Perugia, which is very ancient; and like its citadel is going to decay. It is advantageouſly ſeated upon a hill ſeventy-five miles to the north of Rome. It is the ſee of a biſhop, and has an univerſity that has three conſiderable colleges; beſides which it has two academies, one of which was founded ſo lately as the year 1752. This city is famous for the reſidence of ſeveral perſons of quality, and for a very agreeable ſort of white wine, as clear as rock water, with ſomewhat of the flavour of muſcadine.

There are three or four ſmall towns in this territory, with ſome villages.

The territory of Orvieto is bounded on the north and eaſt by Spoletto, on the weſt by the Sienneſe, and on the ſouth by the remaining part of St. Peter's patrimony and Caſtro. In this canton is the lake Boſſena, formerly Volcini.

Orvieto, the capital of this territory, is built on a high and craggy rock near the confluence of the rivers Paglia and Chiuna, which fall into the river Tyber a little below it, twenty-ſix miles to the ſouth-eaſt of Perugia. It is an epiſcopal ſee, and has ſix churches and convents. Its walls are ſtrong, though ancient, and both the cathedral and the other churches, as well as the vice-legate's palace, are very noble edifices, enriched with great quantities of marble, porphyry, ſtately towers and ſteeples, and eſpecially paintings. The palace was built by pope Urban VIII. who alſo adorned ſeveral of the churches and public ſtructures. But what is moſt ſingular in this city, is a well cut into the rock by order of pope Clement VII. to ſupply it with freſh water. This well is two hundred and fifty cubits deep: one deſcends into it by a double ſtair-caſe of five hundred and fifty ſteps, enlightened by ſeventy windows cut through the rock. The mules which bring up the water upon their backs, go down one ſtair-caſe and up the other. The town neither has nor needs any other fortifications than thoſe ſolid rocks and precipices with which it is ſurrounded, and from which one can hardly look down without dread. The height of the city renders the air very ſerene and healthy, except in autumn, when they ſteep their hemp in the river Paglia, which cauſes a very offenſive ſtench.

Aqua Pendente, a pretty large city, but indifferently peopled, ſtands on an eminence about twelve miles between Orvieto on the eaſt, and Savona on the weſt, near the river Paglia, and was erected into a biſhopric by pope Innocent X. in the year 1650, or rather the ſee was removed thither from Caſtro, which city he cauſed to be razed for having murdered the biſhop.

There are no other places in this territory worthy of notice.

Spoletto is bounded on the north by the marquiſate of Ancona and the duchy of Urbino; on the eaſt by the Farther Abruzzo; on the ſouth by Sabina and the patrimony of St. Peter; and on the weſt by Orvietano and Perugino; extending about forty-five miles in length, and forty in breadth, and abounding in corn, wine, oil, almonds, and other fruit.

This duchy, which is part of the ancient Umbria, on the extinction of the Longobardian monarchy, became ſubject to the Franks, and was afterwards annexed to the papal territories.

The principal places in this duchy are the following:

Fuligno, or Foligno, a ſmall city ſurrounded by an old wall with port-holes, and almoſt of a circular form. It is ſituated fifteen miles to the north of Spoletto, in a pleaſant plain, encompaſſed at a diſtance with a chain of beautiful hills that extend farther than the eye can reach, and that form a vaſt amphitheatre, interſperſed with towns, villages, and country ſeats, that may be diſcerned through the trees, which are chiefly planted in ſtraight lines, and cover part of the plain, while the ſpaces between them are laid out in corn-fields and vineyards. It is the ſee of a biſhop appointed by the pope. The cathedral is dedicated to St. Felician, formerly biſhop of Fuligno, but has ſcarce any thing remarkable, except ſome good paintings in freſco, and ſome magnificent tombs.

In the church of the nuns of St. Francis is an altar-piece by Raphael Urbino, in which the Virgin Mary is repreſented in all her glory, and below St. John the Baptiſt, St. Francis, and Cardinal Conti, firſt ſecretary to pope Julius II. who ordered it to be painted. In the Franciſcan church are four bodies of ſaints in ſhrines of ſilver gilt, placed upon four different altars; but the moſt honoured of them is that of St. Angela, a lady of quality in the city of Fuligno, who made a vow of chaſtity,

chaſtity, after burying three huſbands and fifteen children.

Fuligno has ſome fine ſtreets, but neither the ſquare, the town-houſe, the governor's palace, nor that of the biſhop are worth notice. The moſt remarkable building in the whole town is the houſe of the marquis Juſti, which has a grand and regular front; the inſide is ſpacious, and the apartments well furniſhed.

Aſſiſa, or Aſſiſio, is ſeated on a hill about twelve miles to the eaſt of Perugia, and though it is but ſmall, is a biſhopric in the pope's nomination. Here St. Francis was born, and his remains are depoſited in a ſmall vault under the high altar of the Franciſcan church. The ſituation of this convent is very fine: it is ſaid to be built on the ruins of a temple dedicated to Jupiter Paganicus; and the popes have granted ſuch indulgences to this church, that thoſe who enter it on the feaſt of St. Francis are abſolved from all their ſins. A great number of ſilver lamps are continually burning round the place where his body is depoſited. The monks, among their other relics, pretend to have a piece of our Saviour's tomb, and of the pillar at which he was ſcourged, a thorn out of his crown, the point of one of the nails that faſtened him to the croſs; together with ſome hair, with a girdle and robe, of the Holy Virgin. The church of St. Clara is ſeated at the extremity of the city; but contains nothing remarkable, except an ancient picture of the croſs, which it is pretended ſpoke three times to St Francis.

The city of Spoletto or Spoleto, the capital of the duchy of the ſame name, is ſituated in the forty-ſecond degree forty-one minutes north latitude, and in the fifteenth degree forty-ſeven minutes eaſt longitude. It appears at a diſtance like an amphitheatre that terminates the beautiful plain of Fuligno, and is ſeated on the declivity of a hill that renders the ſtreets very uneven. It is ſurrounded only by a ſingle wall, with port-holes; and its caſtle is a Gothic ſtructure, that entirely commands the place. This city contains twenty-one pariſh churches and a like number of convents, ſeventeen hermitages, and thirteen religious fraternities. The ſquare of Spoletto is very ſmall, and the cathedral but a mean ſtructure, though the pavement, which is compoſed of ſmall pieces of marble, curiouſly arranged, is very beautiful. The biſhop's palace is alſo a mean building, and though the city is a biſhopric ſuffragan to the pope, and is the capital of a duchy, it makes but an indifferent appearance, and is very poorly peopled.

Among the remaining antiquities of this city the moſt conſiderable are, a triumphal arch very much decayed, an aqueduct, the ruins of a palace built by Theodoric, king of the Oſtrogoths, and thoſe of an amphitheatre. With reſpect to the aqueduct, it is ſtill entire, and conveys water into the city. It is ſaid indeed to be of Gothic work, but it is ſo magnificent that it would be no diſcredit to the ancient Romans, and has not perhaps its equal in Europe. It joins Monte Lugo to the hill on which Spoletto is ſeated, and conſiſts of ten free-ſtone arches between four and five hundred feet in height, from the bottom of the valley, and three hundred and fifty feet in length. What appears very ſingular, is their having cut a path beneath the water courſe on the crown of the arches, by which means they can walk from one mountain to another. At the extremity of the aqueduct is an antique head of a lion, of an extraordinary magnitude, which diſcharges through its mouth, with great violence, a prodigious quantity of water into a baſon, from whence it runs into two others much larger, and is thence conveyed to different parts of the city.

Monte Lugo is remarkably pleaſant, for it enjoys a perpetual verdure, and is plentifully ſtocked with fruit-trees, and ſprings of clear water, on which account there are ſaid to be here above fifty hermitages.

Narni, the ancient Narnia, is a poor town delightfully ſituated on a high rocky mountain, forty-ſix miles to the north of Rome. This was the native place of the emperor Nerva, and is at preſent the ſee of a biſhop, immediately ſubordinate to the pope. Here are ſome good ſprings, and a noble aqueduct, by which the water is conveyed to this place from the diſtance of fifteen Italian miles. Below the city is a valley, through which the river Nera paſſes, where are the remains of a grand ſtone bridge over the river, built by Auguſtus, and contrived in ſuch a manner as to join two oppoſite mountains on each ſide of the river.

The road from Narni to the city of Terni, extends through a delightful valley planted with rows of trees, round the trunks of which twine very thick and large vines. This country alſo abounds with fig-trees and olive yards. The turnips it produces, which thrive beſt in a gravelly ſoil, are ſo large as ſometimes to weigh between thirty and forty pounds. Melons, peaches, figs, and other fruit, are alſo larger here than in other parts.

The famous cataract, commonly called *Caſcata del Marmore*, from the mountain down which the Velcino falls, being almoſt wholly of marble, lies about three miles from Terni, and the road to it, part of which is cut in the rock in the ſide of the mountain, is without rails, very ſlippery, and conſequently very dangerous to men and horſes. The ſpectator is ſtruck with terror on viewing the precipices, which are of a frightful height; but the traveller is ſufficiently rewarded when, on reaching the top of the mountain, he views the ſtupendous cataract formed by the river Velino, ruſhing from the mountain.

The river, after running ſome miles with a gentle courſe, reaches the declivity of its channel, which is ſhaded with many thick trees, covered with perpetual verdure, as are the mountains by which this is ſurrounded. The water no ſooner reaches this declivity than it proceeds with ſo rapid a courſe, that every wave ſeems to preſs forward to overtake the former, till they ruſh at once with a furious noiſe down a ſteep rock, at leaſt three hundred feet high, falling on other rocks, againſt which they daſh and break, riſing in miſts, which, after hovering ſome time in the air, far above the level of the cataract, and the neighbouring fields, fall in a kind of perpetual rain into the adjacent valley. After this fall the waters ruſh into the cavities of the rocks, and then foaming, burſt thro' ſeveral openings; and after rolling for ſome time down other precipices, at laſt reach the bed of the river at the bottom.

Terni, an ancient city, has ſeveral remains of ſtructures built by the Romans, but they are chiefly in ruins. In the ſquare is a very fine fountain cut out of the rock, on which ſtands a pyramid; on the ſides are two ſtatues, repreſenting two Naiades, or river nymphs, with a large lion, which appears as if deſirous of coming out of the hollow of a rock. Terni is encompaſſed only with a ſingle wall, and is at preſent ſmaller than Spoletto, though better peopled. Moſt of the ſtreets are badly paved, and thoſe which run acroſs the town are not paved at all, which occaſions their being very dirty. It is the ſee of a biſhop ſuffragan to the pope. The cathedral is a modern ſtructure, and there are ſome convents, but they contain nothing remarkable.

The inhabitants carry on a pretty good trade in black taffeties and olive oil. Their wine is very good, and their pigeons excellent. Terni boaſts of having given birth to Cornelius Tacitus, the celebrated hiſtorian, and to the two emperors Tacitus and Florianus.

Between ſix and ſeven Italian miles to the north-weſt of Terni, is mount Eolo, remarkable for its cool breezes, which, eſpecially in ſummer, iſſue from the chaſms in the rocks of this mountain.

SECT. XII.

SABINA, CASTRO, *and* ST. PETER'S PATRIMONY.

Their Situation, Extent, Produce, and principal Places.

THE province of Sabina derives its name from the Sabines, whoſe country alſo included a part of the preſent duchy of Spoletto. It is bounded on the north by Umbria; on the eaſt by the Farther Abruzzo; on the ſouth by the Campania of Rome; and on the weſt by St. Peter's Patrimony. It is twenty-two miles in length, and almoſt as much in breadth. It abounds in oil and wine, and is watered by ſeveral ſmall rivers, which render it fertile.

In this province are no walled towns; its principal place is Magliano, which is ſeated on a mountain near the river Tiber, thirty miles to the ſouth-weſt of Spoletto. It is a ſmall place, but is pretty populous conſidering its extent.

The duchy of Caſtro is bounded on the north by Orvietano; on the eaſt by the river Marta; on the ſouth by the Mediterranean; and on the weſt by Tuſcany; and produces corn and fruit; but is ill-peopled, and worſe cultivated.

The duchy of Caſtro and the earldom of Ronciglione was conferred by pope Paul III. on his natural ſon Peter Aloyſius Farneſe, who afterwards became duke of Parma and Placentia. His deſcendants held this country as a fief of the papal chair, till Adoard mortgaged it to the Monte di Pieta at Rome; but paying neither principal nor intereſt, pope Urban VIII. ſequeſtered the land, and took upon himſelf the liquidation of the debt. Adoard, indeed, afterwards found means to make himſelf again maſter of the country; but it was taken from his ſon by pope Innocent XI. and the money lent not being repaid at the appointed time, this duchy was, in 1661, again annexed to the papal chamber. In 1664, Lewis XIV. king of France, prevailed on the pope to allow a farther term of eight years for the redemption of the land; but even when that was expired, nothing was effected. On the other hand, Don Carlos laying claim to it in 1732, offered to pay the loan; but the pope refuſed to agree to it, and it continues united to the papal dominions.

The principal places in this duchy are the following:

Caſtro, formerly a genteel city, and a biſhop's ſee; but the inhabitants having murdered the biſhop ſent them by pope Innocent X. his holineſs, in 1646, removed the biſhopric to Aquapendente, and ordered the town to be demoliſhed.

In this duchy are alſo Farneſe, Montalto, Valentano, and other ſmall places. To this duchy likewiſe belong the iſlands of Biſentina and Mantana, which lie in the lake of Boſtena. Each has a church; and in one of them it was that Amalaſunta, daughter to Theodoric king of the Oſtrogoths, was kept priſoner by her couſin Theodat, with whom ſhe had ſhared the government, and afterwards, by his orders, was murdered while ſhe was bathing.

St. Peter's Patrimony, formerly called Etruria Suburbicaria, was given to the ſee of Rome by the counteſs Matilda. This grant is ſaid to have been made in the year 1077, under Gregory VII. and in 1102, renewed to Paſchal II. But granting the truth of this account, it is evident ſuch alienations to the prejudice of the Roman emperor and empire were not founded in juſtice.

This country is bounded on the north by Orvietano; on the eaſt by Umbria and Sabina; on the ſouth by the Campania of Rome; and on the weſt by the ſea; it being about thirty-five miles in length, and thirty in breadth.

The principal places in this province are the following:

Bolſena, a ſmall town, moſt delightfully ſituated near the lake of the ſame name, which is thirty-five Italian miles in circuit. The mountains which environ it are covered with oaks, and afford the proſpect as it were of an auguſt amphitheatre. Here is ſaid to have been wrought by a hoſt the miracle which gave occaſion to the inſtitution of the feſtival of *Corpus Chriſti*. Near this place are ſeen, on an eminence, the ruined walls of the Etrurian city Volſinium.

Monte Fiaſcone is ſeated upon a mountain; but would be little known, were it not on account of its white muſcadel wine, which, however, ſeldom comes to perfection. Its biſhopric is incorporated with that of Corneto, and immediately ſubject to the pope. Near this city, in the church of St. Flavian, is a monument ſaid to be erected to the memory of a German, who unhappily was ſo delighted with the wine of this city, that he drank himſelf into a fever, which ſoon carried him off; but has the honour of being buried before the altar, he having left ſix hundred ſcudi, or a hundred and twenty-ſeven pounds ten ſhillings ſterling, to the church and the poor, the intereſt of which is annually diſtributed to the poor in bread and cheeſe.

Viterbo, the capital of the country, is ſituated in the forty-ſecond degree twenty minutes north latitude, and in the twelfth degree thirty-nine minutes eaſt longitude, and was given to the pope by the empreſs Matilda, in memory of which donation an inſcription on ſtone is fixed on the town-houſe. This city lies in a beautiful and fertile valley: it is large, the ſtreets for the greater part are broad and well paved, and the houſes are handſome. The inhabitants, however, ſcarce amount to fifteen thouſand, though there are ſixty-nine churches, convents, and hoſpitals. The biſhop is immediately under the pope. Among the ſeveral fountains in the city, that in St. Lucia's ſquare is juſtly admired as the moſt elegant for the workmanſhip, and affords the beſt water. In the cathedral are the monuments of four popes. The Franciſcan nuns pretend to ſhew the body of St. Roſa di Viterbo, which is uncorrupted, and dried up like a mummy. At the diſtance of an Italian mile from the city is a handſome church dedicated to the Virgin, with the ſurname *della Quercia*, reſorted to by a great number of pilgrims; and near it is a Dominican convent.

Here are two academies; one ſtiled *Gli Oſtinati*, or the Obſtinate, whoſe emblem is a pyramid beat on every ſide by the winds, and the motto FRUSTRA: the other, ſtiled *Gli Ardenti*, the Fiery, whoſe emblem is an ingot of gold in a crucible over a furnace, with the motto DONEC PURUM. The government of this place is commonly given to ſome favourite biſhop or cardinal, who is obliged to keep a noble houſe and equipage, and to entertain all the cardinals and men of a public character that come hither. The town is divided into ſixteen pariſhes. Some good hoſpitals are likewiſe here, eſpecially thoſe for orphans and foundlings.

At the diſtance of two or three miles to the north-eaſt of Viterbo, ſtands a moſt delightful villa belonging to the duke of Lanti, which has this peculiar advantage, that of the many dukes who have ſucceeded each other in this ſeat for ſome hundred years paſt, not one has neglected to improve it; and accordingly this palace abounds in fine pictures, antique ſtatues, and rich furniture; and nothing of the kind can exceed the fountains, grottos, canals, walks, arbours, and groves, in the gardens.

The adjacent country is naturally rich and fertile, and where it is well cultivated, produces great plenty of corn, oil, fruit, rice, and pulſe; notwithſtanding which, except where there are ſome villas, it is a perfect ſolitude, without houſes or inhabitants, and the very roads ſo unfrequented, that one may ride many miles without meeting any body.

Civita Vecchia, a fortified ſea-port, and the beſt in the papal dominions, is ſeated in the forty-ſecond degree ten minutes north latitude, and in the twelfth degree ten minutes eaſt longitude, and obtained its name in the following manner: in 854, pope Leo IV. built a new town, which, from its own name, he called Leopolis, and peopled it with the inhabitants of Centumcella, which the Moors had ſacked; after ſome time the inhabitants returning to their former place of abode, repaired it, and hence it was called Civita Vecchia, or the Old Town. The remains of Leopolis are ſtill to be ſeen at ſix miles diſtance. Pope Urban VIII. cauſed this city to be regularly fortified, and beſides, it has a ſtrong old caſtle, that ſtands by itſelf in the ſea. The port is not quite ſheltered from all winds, but has a ſpacious dock for ſhips, and an artificial mole, at the end of which is a ſtrong high tower, which at once defends the entrance into the port, and ſerves as a light-houſe. The place is in good condition, but thinly inhabited, the air being unwholeſome, and good water very ſcarce; but this laſt inconvenience has in ſome meaſure been remedied by means of a canal. Here are ſome good churches and other edifices, and here commonly lie the pope's gallies. This city would greatly leſſen the trade of Leghorn, was it declared a free port.

Civita Caſtellana is a ſmall town, of mean appearance, ſituated on a very high and ſteep rock, near the confluence of the Friglia and Tevere. This was the ancient Falerios, once the capital of the Faliſci. Its biſhopric is united

united to that of Orta. Pope Clement XI. cauſed a bridge of an uncommon height to be built here, by which the rock on which the city ſtands, has a communication with the oppoſite mountain; ſo that a perſon may croſs directly over, without going down into the valley, which is of a conſiderable depth.

There are ſeveral other towns in this diſtrict, none of which deſerve a particular deſcription.

The earldom of Ronciglione, which is entirely included in St. Peter's Patrimony, belongs to the duke of Parma. Ronciglione, the principal town, is but ſmall; and is ſeated at a ſmall diſtance from the Lago di Vico, anciently called the lake of Cyminus.

The palace of Caprorola, which belongs to the duke of Parma, ſtands at the diſtance of ten Italian miles from Viterbo, in the way to Rome, but out of the poſt road. It was built in the ſixteenth century, by cardinal Alexander Farneſe; its outward figure is a pentagon, reſembling a citadel; but the inward court, which has a gallery round it, is quite circular, and yet the apartments are ſquare and well contrived. The whole art of this ſingularity conſiſts in the different thickneſs of the walls. The top of this ſtructure affords a proſpect as far as the city of Rome, which may be perceived, though at twenty-eight or thirty miles diſtance. In this palace is a moſt ſuperb ſtair-caſe, and it is likewiſe famous for a whiſpering-hall, in which four perſons ſtanding cloſe to the wall, oppoſite to each other, may converſe without being heard by a fifth ſtanding in the center. A ſtamp with the foot on the floor of this hall, ſounds to thoſe who are without, like the report of a piſtol. Several apartments have their cielings and friezes painted by the two Zuccaros, who, particularly in the cardinal's bed-chamber, have ſhewed their admirable ſkill and judgment.

The gardens of Caprorola are alſo elegantly deſigned, and finely embelliſhed with proper ornaments.

SECT. XIII.

The CAMPAGNA DI ROMANA, *or* CAMPANIA *of* ROME.

Its Situation, Extent, and fertile, but deſolate ſoil, with a particular Deſcription of the City of Rome, and the Manners and Cuſtoms of the Inhabitants.

THE Campania, or territory of Rome, anciently called Latium, is bounded on the north by Sabina; on the eaſt by Abruzzo; on the ſouth by Terra di Lavoro; on the ſouth-weſt by the Mediterranean; and on the weſt by the Mediterranean and the Tyber; extending ſixty miles in length on the Mediterranean, to the frontiers of Naples.

It is divided into Campania Proper, which lies on the north ſide between the river Anio, and the ridge of the mountains of Segni, and is a very mountainous tract, and into the ſouthern or maritime ſide, called la Marina; which extends from eaſt to weſt, between thoſe mountains and the ſea-coaſt.

The waters of this territory are generally very good, eſpecially thoſe of the Tyber. Here are alſo two other rivers, the Numico and Aſtura, and ſeveral lakes.

This country is bleſſed with a very fertile ſoil, but for want of cultivation the inhabitants are wretchedly poor. It has delicious plains of conſiderable extent with ſcarce ſo much as a village, ſo that the few inhabitants are obliged, in order to get in their harveſt, to employ the peaſants of Viterbo, Perugia, and other hilly parts of St. Peter's Patrimony. It is, however, obſervable, that, in general, the plains are not the places choſen for building; but rather the hills, for the ſake of coolneſs. The air is here very unwholeſome, which is partly occaſioned by the fens and lakes, the indolence and ſloth of the inhabitants, who take no pains either to drain the marſhes or to cultivate the dry lands, which are in a manner deſerted, to which may be added, the many towns and villages that lie in heaps of rubbiſh, and harbour great quantities of ſtagnated water, which contributes to corrupt the air. After the wind has been a long time in the north, and ſuddenly ſhifts to the ſouth, or when a ſtrong ſouth wind blows, attended with cloudy weather, the ſeaſon is very ſickly at Rome; this is, however, an obſervation not peculiar to Rome, but to all Italy. That Rome itſelf is not remarkably unhealthful, may be concluded from the great number of its inhabitants, who live to a great age; and even one third of the cardinals are computed to arrive at their eightieth year.

Rome is a very ancient city, ſituated in the forty-firſt degree forty-ſeven minutes north latitude, and in the third degree five minutes eaſt longitude, ſeventeen miles from the Tuſcan ſea. It was formerly conſidered as the capital of the whole world, and revered as the reſidence of its mighty emperors. Indeed, it may ſtill be ſaid to be the moſt remarkable city upon earth for pomp, noble edifices, antiquities, curioſities, the conſtitution of its court, and the importance of its hiſtory. In ſhort, it is the center of all that is fine in ſculpture, painting, and architecture.

The origin of Rome is dated 753 years before Chriſt, at which time Romulus firſt built on mount Palatine. Its figure and ſituation have been ſeveral times changed, eſpecially ſince the ſeven principal ſieges it ſuſtained, in which it was ſacked by the Gauls, Vandals, Herulians, Oſtrogoths, the Viſigoths, and the German armies, particularly in 1527, under the command of Charles of Bourbon. At preſent the ſeven hills on which it was originally built are ſcarce diſtinguiſhable, it ſtanding rather on twelve, and being enlarged on one ſide, while other parts lie in ruins. Indeed modern Rome ſtands higher than the ancient, the preſent city ſtanding upon the ruins of the former; and the earth being waſhed from the hills, the very cauſe that has raiſed the low grounds, has contributed to ſink thoſe that were higher.

It is environed with a brick wall, which probably is not of a more ancient date than the time of Beliſarius, and is computed to be about ten Italian miles in compaſs; but not one half of this ſpace is built upon, the places which once boaſted the nobleſt ſtructures being now waſtes, gardens, fields, meadows, and vineyards. The greateſt part of the ruins of ancient Rome is ſeen behind the Capitol. In the year 1714 the number of inhabitants, according to a liſt taken by order of Clement XI. was found to be one hundred and forty-three thouſand.

In the beauty and magnificence of the religious buildings and palaces, modern Rome far ſurpaſſes the ancient. The pariſh churches alone amount to eighty. Moſt of the houſes are of brick; but thoſe of the better ſort have the doors, windows, and ſupporters of free-ſtone. Upwards of two-thirds of the houſes are the property of the churches, convents, and alms-houſes, to which new purchaſes are continually annexed. The ſtreets are well paved, and ſome of them with brick; but they are neither kept clean nor illuminated.

No place in the world is ſo well provided with fountains as this city, it having not only very good ſprings, but being ſupplied with water by means of ſome ſuperb and ſtupendous aqueducts, the principal of which at preſent are thoſe of Aqua Felice and Aqua Paulina; the former is conveyed thither from the diſtrict of Paleſtrina, at the diſtance of twenty-two Italian miles, and does honour to pope Sixtus V. its founder. It diſcharges itſelf at the Fontana di Termine, which was alſo built at the expence of Sixtus V. and conſiſts of three arches, ſupported by four Corinthian columns, and the water guſhes out at three apertures. Over the middle arch ſtands a beautiful ſtatue of Moſes ſtriking the rock with his rod; over another arch is a baſſo relievo of Aaron leading the people to a miraculous ſpring in the wilderneſs; and the third ſhews Gideon trying his ſoldiers by their drinking at a river. Round it are four lions, two of which are of marble, by Vacca; the other two of oriental granate, and are ſaid to be brought hither from a temple of Serapis; all the four lions eject water.

The Aqua Paulina, ſo called from its reſtorer pope Paul V. is conveyed the diſtance of thirty miles, and divides itſelf into two main channels, which ſupply different parts of the city.

These pure limpid ſtreams are of ſingular benefit to the city, as the water of the Tyber is generally ſo thick and muddy, that even horſes are not watered at it; but after two or three days ſtanding, it works itſelf clear, and becomes fit for drinking. The bed of this river being raiſed by the many ruins of houſes that have fallen into it, and its mouth much choaked up, it frequently overflows, eſpecially with a ſtrong ſouth wind.

The academies and learned ſocieties for the promotion of arts and ſciences are very numerous, and among them are the academies of geography, hiſtory in general, the Roman hiſtory, church hiſtory, Roman antiquities, liturgical or old eccleſiaſtical rites and councils, which four laſt were inſtituted, or rather revived, by the late pope Benedict XIV. alſo academies of painting, ſculpture, architecture, &c. ſome of which have whimſical titles, as, *li Fantaſtici*, *li Parthenici*, *li Lyncei*, *li Congregati*, *li Infecondi*, the Arcadians, &c.

It would be difficult to enumerate all the convents, chapels, oratories, hoſpitals, ſeminaries, &c. in Rome, we ſhall therefore only mention the principal.

St. Auguſtine's church is ſmall and dark, but adorned with ſome fine paintings, among which is a picture of the prophet Iſaiah, by Raphael, which is exceedingly admired. In the Pamphilii chapel is a ſtatue of St. Thomas of Villa Nova, in white marble, who is repreſented giving alms to a poor woman ſuckling an infant: the drapery is eſteemed inimitable, as is alſo the woman's face. The tabernacle on the high altar is made of amethyſts, agate, jaſper, and a variety of other gems, with fine pillars of alabaſter, beautifully variegated with red and white, reſembling flowers. On the high altar is a Madonna, ſaid to be done by St. Luke; but Mr. Keyſler obſerves, that he has ſeen ſo many of his pieces in different places, that it is difficult to conceive how that evangeliſt could find time for any thing elſe, and adds, that though people of a certain devotional taſte place an ineſtimable value on theſe ſpurious pieces, he never met with a connoiſſeur who did not greatly prefer thoſe of Raphael, Rubens, and Vandyke, to them. Even the famous painter Carlo Maratti, who was a ſound catholic, made no ſcruple of declaring, that had he lived in St. Luke's time, he could have given him ſome neceſſary inſtructions for mending his hand.

St. Agnes's church, within the city, on the Piazza Navona, though not very large, is ſuperbly embelliſhed; and the palaces on both ſides being alike in ſymmetry and architecture, add greatly to its outward appearance. It is of an oval figure, and within it are eight large Corinthian columns, of red and white marble, many baſs reliefs, of which thoſe over moſt of the altars are of one block of marble, though very large. That on the high altar is a repreſentation of the birth of John the Baptiſt, and contains a group of twenty figures, twelve of which are in alto-relievo. From this church you deſcend to the Loci Turpitudinis, as it is called, where St. Agnes was in danger of being raviſhed by two ſoldiers, when they were reſtrained by a ſudden effulgence of light, and the hair of her head grew to ſuch a length as to ſhrowd her whole body and conceal her nakedneſs; which is repreſented in a marble baſſo relievo, at an altar ſaid to be erected on the ſpot. In this piece the beauty of the martyr's face is much heightened by her fear and modeſty. The cupola of this church is finely painted; but is thought to be too much crowded with ſaints and angels.

The church of St. Andrea della Valle is famous for its freſco painting, eſpecially the cupola, by Lanfranco, which repreſents the felicity of the ſaints and the glory of heaven, and paſſes for the nobleſt piece of the kind in the whole world. The fineſt chapel in this church is on the right hand, juſt at the entrance. Beſide the rails of the altar of red and yellow marble, one ſees every where a profuſion of verde and nigro-antico, jaſper, agate, and lapis-lazuli. The baſſo relievos, and ſix marble ſtatues repreſenting ſo many virtues, are well worth ſeeing. Some of the other chapels are not inferior to this.

The front of St. Bibiana's church was deſigned by the chevalier Bernini, who alſo made the incomparable marble ſtatue of this ſaint, which ſtands upon the high altar, and is admired as the maſter-piece of that artiſt. Under this fine ſtatue lies the ſaint's body in a ſarcophagus, or coffin, of oriental alabaſter; and near the church-door is a red pillar of Egyptian marble, with a Latin inſcription, that to this pillar St. Bibiana was bound, when ſhe ſuffered martyrdom, being whipped to death with thongs charged with lead.

St. Conſtanza fuori di Porta Pia is of a round figure, and the roof is ſupported by twenty-four pillars of oriental granite ſtanding in pairs. The cieling is of antient Moſaic work, repreſenting birds, grapes, and the preſſing of them, from whence ſome conjecture that this was antiently a temple of Bacchus; while others maintain, that Conſtantine the Great erected this ſtructure in imitation of the Lateran Baptiſtery, for the ſolemnity of baptizing the two Conſtantias, his daughter and ſiſter. But what is moſt remarkable here, is a large coffin of a ſingle piece of porphyry, four feet in depth, eight feet and an half in length, and above five broad. On the ſides are carved wreaths, garlands, and boys with bunches of grapes, which is the more curious from the difficulty of working porphyry, on account of its hardneſs. The lid is alſo made of one piece, but damaged. Some think this to have been the tomb of Tulliola, Cicero's daughter; and others will have it to be that of Tullia, the wife of Tarquin the Proud.

The Jeſuits church is one of the fineſt in Rome; the front is of a kind of free-ſtone found near Tivoli, adorned with Ionic and Corinthian columns. It has ſeveral magnificent chapels, the moſt noble of which is that of St. Ignatius Loyola. The pavement about the altar is inlaid with feſtoons and flowers of the fineſt gems; the ſteps are of porphyry and other coſtly marble; and the place where the prieſt ſtands before the altar, is of inlaid work of poliſhed gems. Under the table of the altar lies the body of St. Ignatius, in a coffin of braſs gilt, and by means of a lamp burning behind it, the name of JESUS of inlaid cryſtal in the front emits a great luſtre. The front of the altar on feſtivals is covered with ſolid ſilver, but has an aperture through which the coffin and radiant name may be ſeen. A little above the table are two gilded angels, holding St. Ignatius's motto, *ad majorem Dei gloriam*, that is, "To the greater glory of "God," of lapis-lazuli. On the altar-piece are four fluted columns, which, excluſive of the pedeſtals and capitals, which are of braſs gilt, are twenty-eight feet in height, inlaid with lapis lazuli. Over the altar is a picture painted on wood, which may be lowered, and then exhibits a ſilver ſtatue of St. Ignatius Loyola, which ſtands behind it, the drapery of which is gilt and enriched with pearls and diamonds. On each ſide of the altar is a fine group of ſtatues in Carrara marble; one repreſents the Chriſtian-religion deſtroying idolatry, which is repreſented by a ſerpent blaſted with lightning, and near it is the king of Bungo in Japan, ſubmitting to the Chriſtian faith. In another group Religion is ſeen treading on a Fury and Hereſy, who has a ſnake in her hand, and near her lie three books marked with the following titles: Martin Luther, John Calvin, Hulderich Zwingel.

St. Peter's in the Vatican, both for ſize and beauty, may be called the metropolitan church not only of Rome and Italy, but of the whole world. Here may be ſeen to what an amazing pitch the Romiſh church, which is ſo fond of external pomp and ſplendor, has within two centuries carried its favourite ſcheme of captivating the ſenſes, and inſpiring the minds of the ignorant with awe and ſubmiſſion to the clergy. Fontana computes that in his time it had coſt above eighty millions of Roman ſcudi, about two millions ſterling.

Nothing can be imagined more grand and ſuperb than the area before the church. The oval colonnade round it has four rows of columns, forming three ſeparate walks. This colonnade conſiſts of three hundred and twenty columns made of Tivoli free-ſtone, ſo large that three men can ſcarce graſp them. On the roof, which is flat, ſtand eighty-ſix ſtatues of ſo many ſaints, twice as big as the life, all deſigned by Bernini. The area is adorned with two ſtately fountains, and in the center ſtands the vaſt granite obeliſk which formerly belonged to Nero's Circus, and in Caligula's time was

A View of St. Peters at Rome.

Rooker Sculp.

brought from Egypt to Rome, though it is ſaid to weigh nine hundred and ninety-two thouſand ſeven hundred and eighty-ſix pounds, and the height of it is eighty feet, excluſive of the baſe, which is thirty-ſeven. Four lions which ſupport the obeliſk are placed on the pedeſtal, and are of gilt bronze. The croſs on the top, which is ſeven feet high, and is of gilt braſs, is ſaid to have in it a piece of the croſs on which Chriſt ſuffered; and whoever, in paſſing by it, ſays a Pater Noſter, and Ave Maria, for the proſperity of the ſee of Rome, is entitled to an indulgence for ten years, and ten times forty days. The ſteps from the area up to the church have at the bottom on each ſide the ſtatues of St. Peter and St. Paul. At the top of theſe ſteps is a grand portico two hundred and ſixteen feet in length, and forty in breadth. Eight columns ſcarcely to be graſped by five men, together with ſeveral others of fine Tevertino ſtone, ſupport the architrave. On each ſide of the five entrances into the portico ſtand two Ionic columns of purple marble. The portico itſelf is paved with the fineſt marble, and the cieling is embelliſhed with ſtucco-work and gilding. On the right hand near the ſteps is an equeſtrian ſtatue of Conſtantine the Great, whoſe joy and ſurprize at the appearance of the effulgent croſs in the ſky is admirably expreſſed. Oppoſite to this on the other ſide is an equeſtrian ſtatue of Charlemagne cut out of a ſingle block of marble. From the portico four doors open into the church, of which the fartheſt on the right hand is walled up and opened only once in twenty-five years, that is at the jubilee, and then the ceremony is performed by the pope himſelf with a hammer.

This incomparable church is built in the form of a Latin croſs, and the proportion is ſo exactly obſerved in the length, height, and breadth, that the eye cannot perceive any thing extraordinary large in any of the three dimenſions, though the whole taken together be of an uncommon bulk and extent. The breadth of the middle iſle, which runs the whole length of the church, is eighty-ſix Engliſh feet; but the whole breadth of the church, excluſive of the thickneſs of the walls, is two hundred and ninety-one feet. Its length to the croſs iſle is four hundred and thirty-eight feet, and its breadth ſeventy three. The height of the church, from the pavement to the roof, is one hundred and forty-four feet. It is univerſally agreed, that the cupola is a work of aſtoniſhing art and grandeur. The height from the pavement of the church to the top of the croſs, is four hundred and thirty two feet. The outward circumference of the dome is ſix hundred and twenty feet, and the inward diameter a hundred and forty-three. This dome was built under the pontificate of Sixtus V. The honour of the undertaking and the deſign is owing to the great Michael Angelo, who hearing ſome perſons crying up the Rotunda as a work of antiquity never to be paralleled, ſaid he would not only build a dome equally large, but build it in the air. Gioſoppe d'Arpino drew the deſigns for the Moſaic ornaments of the cupola, among which the four Evangeliſts, in four large oval compartments, are particularly admired. This amazing ſtructure reſts on four pillars, each of which is adorned with a white marble ſtatue, over which is a gallery, from whence ſeveral times in the year the relics, which are kept in a particular chapel, are expoſed to public view.

To return to the entrance, at the two firſt pillars, which ſtand oppoſite each other, are two ſhells or baſons of yellow marble for holy water, held out by two angels of white marble. This work is large and beautiful. The high altar, at which the pope alone is to officiate, ſtands in the middle of the croſs iſle, and directly under the center of the cupola, and firſt attracts the eye. Over this altar is a canopy of gilt bronze, embelliſhed with four angels and a crucifix, and reſting on four large twiſted braſs pillars. There are a great number of chapels finely ornamented with ſculpture, painting, and the moſt beautiful Moſaic work.

The farther end of the church is taken up with the altar of St. Peter, where they pretend to have the wooden pulpit of that apoſtle incloſed in another of gilt bronze, and ſupported by the ſtatues of St. Chryſoſtom, St. Athanaſius, St. Auguſtin, and St. Ambroſe, all four very large and of gilt bronze, ſtanding on four ſtately marble pedeſtals. Over the pulpit is a glory of the ſame metal, and in the center the Holy Ghoſt in the form of a dove. Before this altar ſtands a large bronze lamp made by order of Clement XI. who granted to all the religious orders the privilege of having the image of their founders placed here. The ſtatue of St. Dominic is cut out of a ſingle block of marble, which, before it came into the ſculptor's hands, coſt two thouſand crowns. His countenance and attitude expreſs the vehemence and rigour which influence his diſciples in the proceedings of the inquiſition; and at his left ſide is a dog, with a flaming torch, which is the arms of that dreadful tribunal. Oppoſite to it is the ſtatue of St. Francis; but the other orders have not yet taken advantage of the pope's grant.

In ſhort, the altars of this church amount to twenty-nine. The pavement is entirely of marble, and there are in this church about a hundred and eighty large marble pillars; the ſquare pilaſters are incruſted with red marble, adorned with white medallions and buſts of the popes. Every thing is kept with ſuch neatneſs and order, that it looks like a new-built church, and upon the leaſt appearance of any duſt on the walls and cieling, people are drawn up in machines, who wipe it off with linen cloths.

Adjoining to St. Peter's church, on the north ſide, is the ſpacious palace of the Vatican, in which are ſaid to be twelve thouſand five hundred and twenty-four rooms. But this palace having been built and enlarged at different times, there is not the leaſt ſymmetry obſerved in its ſeveral parts, and, to avoid damaging the fine area of St. Peter's church, it has not ſo much as a portico in front. Over one of the doors is a Moſaic work of the Virgin Mary, with St. Peter and St. Paul. From hence, by aſcending a pair of ſtairs, which lead to the grand apartments of the palace, you have a view of three galleries over each other, in which Raphael immortalized his name by his amazing ſkill. The middle gallery leads into an apartment called Raphael's Bible, from the hiſtories of the Old and New Teſtament, painted by that great artiſt. This gallery is divided into ſeveral vaulted compartments, each filled with exquiſite painting in freſco. Among theſe pieces the portrait of Eve, by Raphael, is much admired. The Judgment of Solomon is a capital piece, as is alſo the Lord's Supper.

But the place where Raphael's ſkill ſhines in its greateſt glory, is the Camera della Signatura, and the three adjoining rooms. The firſt of theſe apartments has four large emblematical pieces. The firſt contains the chief articles of the Romiſh faith, the Trinity, Tranſubſtantiation, &c. the ſecond the Sciences, with the progreſs of the human mind in philoſophy, mathematics, and aſtronomy, on which account this piece is uſually termed *The School of Athens*: the third is of poetry; and the fourth of juſtice, prudence, and other moral virtues.

Over the door of the Sala Ducale is an angel holding the keys, and another the papal crown. In this apartment, which was deſigned by Bernini, the pope on Maunday Thurſday waſhes the feet of thirteen poor prieſts of different nations. The ſtucco curtain, which ſeems tied to the cieling, is ſo happily executed, that it has all the appearance of white ſilk, embroidered and fringed with gold. Here the pope alſo holds conſiſtories, and gives audience to the ambaſſadors of crowned heads.

The Sala Regia opens into the chapel of Sixtus IV. and is a ſpacious room, with a beautiful pavement of inlaid marble. The hangings are very fine, and the prophets, ſybils, and other paintings in freſco on the cieling, are by Michael Angelo; but the piece moſt admired is that of the laſt judgment by that admirable artiſt, who has introduced ſuch a multitude of figures, with their limbs and attitudes ſo accurately delineated, that one would imagine his chief intention was to diſplay his exact knowledge in anatomy. But on this ſolemn occaſion he has ridiculouſly introduced the heathen fables of Charon and Minos.

The ſummer apartments of the pope are uſually hung with crimſon ſilk damaſk, and thoſe for winter with velvet. In moſt of the rooms are to be ſeen ſeveral wooden chairs and benches painted green and varniſhed, which under all the revolutions of the ſtate remain unaltered, only on the acceſſion of a new pontiff to the papal chair the name and arms of the deceaſed pope are taken away to make room for thoſe of his ſucceſſor. The cardinals and ambaſſadors at an audience ſit on chairs, and princes

on the like occaſion ſit upon three cuſhions laid upon one another; whilſt perſons of an ordinary claſs kneel. In the audience-chamber on each ſide of the papal throne is a red ſtool for kings; but for theſe two laſt centuries crowned heads have not been ambitious of that honour: even the pretender to the Britiſh crown never had any other than private audiences of the pope, and then ſits in an arm-chair.

It is obſervable, that ſeveral of the ſtair-caſes of the Vatican, if they may be ſo called, are either without or with very low ſteps; ſo that wood, water, and other neceſſaries may be carried up and down by aſſes.

The Vatican library is extremely famous. It is not indeed very remarkable for printed books, the whole number ſcarce amounting to more than twenty thouſand volumes; but in excellent manuſcripts, of which it is ſaid to contain above twenty-five thouſand, it is eſteemed the moſt valuable in all Chriſtendom.

Directly under the library is the armoury, built by Urban VIII. and is ſaid to contain arms for forty thouſand men; but being chiefly ſuch as were uſed in antient times, they are now of little uſe.

In the middle of the palace is a ſpacious ſquare ſurrounded with orange trees and antique ſtatues, the moſt famous of which is that of Laocoon, which is ſaid to have been performed by thoſe excellent artiſts Ageſander, Polydorus, and Athenodorus, natives of Rhodes. In this group Laocoon is repreſented in the greateſt agony with his eyes lifted up to heaven: near him are his two ſons, with ſerpents twined about them, who are at ſome diſtance from their father, and expiring when he comes to their relief.

As the Vatican joins on one ſide to St. Peter's church, on the other a colonnade leads to the caſtle of St. Angelo. This caſtle was formerly the burial-place of the Roman emperors, and a large round tower in the center of the edifice was once adorned with a conſiderable number of marble columns and ſtatues; but moſt of them were broken by the Romans, who made uſe of them againſt the Goths, when they aſſaulted the city. When Rome was viſited with the peſtilence in the reign of Gregory the Great, in a general proceſſion, where the pictures of the Virgin Mary, painted by St. Luke, were carried, the pope, it is pretended, ſaw an angel directly over the caſtle; who, upon the pope's looking up, ſheathed his flaming ſword. This Gregory ſuppoſed to be a ſign of the ceſſation of the divine wrath, and therefore built a chapel in honour of the angel, ordering the place itſelf to be called Caſtellum St. Angeli, or the Caſtle of the Holy Angel. Rome being without a citadel, or any regular fortifications, this caſtle has been rendered a place of ſecurity, and fortified in the modern way, with five regular baſtions, ramparts, moats, &c. The governor is appointed by the pope, and is generally a prelate, who enjoys other conſiderable offices; the garriſon conſiſts of two hundred regulars, and ſome hundreds of citizens. In this caſtle is a handſome hall adorned with gildings, fine paintings, and Adrian's ſtatue. The apartment to which Clement VII. withdrew, amidſt the diſturbances which he had brought upon himſelf, by provoking the emperor Charles V. is at preſent a ſtate priſon for perſons of rank, who, through a ſmall window, may look into the chapel and hear maſs. On the top of this ſtructure ſtands an angel of white marble about twelve feet high.

The church of St. John de Lateran is ſo called from its chapel of St. John the Baptiſt, and the Roman martyr Plantius Lateranus, put to death by Nero, who had a garden in this place. It is of an octangular figure, and bears the title of the head and mother of all churches; and as it is one of the four churches enjoined to be viſited every jubilee year, it has a gate walled up, which at the commencement of that year is opened by the cardinal arch-prieſt. On the feaſt of St. John the Baptiſt here are plenary indulgences for twenty-nine thouſand years. The pavement of this church is of fine inlaid work, interſperſed with circular pieces of porphyry. Both here and at St. Peter's are confeſſionals for different nations; and, by proper inſcriptions over them, every one may know where to apply to a prieſt who underſtands his language. The roof is very richly gilt, and the cupola is adorned with eight pieces of painting, by Andrea Sacchi, and the painting in freſco in the church by Carlo Maratti, Gimignani, Camaſſei, and Magnoni. Along the middle iſle are twelve large ſtatues of the apoſtles, each cut out of a ſingle block of white marble, and done by the beſt maſters. There are two pillars of verde antico between every two of theſe ſtatues. Over them are baſſo relievos; and above theſe are the pictures of as many of the prophets.

Before this church is a beautiful fountain, and the largeſt obeliſk in Rome, it being, excluſive of the pedeſtal and the iron croſs on the top, a hundred and twelve feet in height, and two of the ſides ten feet and a half, and the other two eight feet in breadth near the baſe. At firſt it conſiſted of a ſingle piece of Egyptian granite, and ſtood in the Circus Maximus; but amidſt the ſubſequent wars and commotions it was broken into three pieces, and lay on the ground till the year 1588, when Sixtus V. gave directions to his architect Fontana, to remove it hither, and ſet it up again. The Egyptian hieroglyphics upon it have afforded the learned a large field for exerciſing their ſkill. The veſtry of the Lateran church leads to the cloiſters of the convent, which, on the ſide towards the inward court, have an elegant variety of ſmall white marble pillars. Both here and in the church are a multitude of fictitious relics not worth deſcribing.

On the other ſide of this piazza, or ſquare, is the Lateran hoſpital, a handſome and well contrived building, where ſome hundreds of patients of both ſexes are carefully attended, and commodiouſly lodged. In this ſquare is alſo to be ſeen the *Scala Santa*, or holy ſtairs, ſaid to be thoſe of Pilate's houſe, which Chriſt frequently aſcended, before he was led to be crucified, which nobody are permitted to aſcend but on their keees: however, there are ſtairs on each ſide, by which men are allowed to walk up to the Sanctum Sanctorum, or Holy of Holies, a ſmall chapel at the top, in which are abundance of reliques belonging to the Lateran palace. The moſt remarkable of theſe is a picture of Jeſus Chriſt, begun, as it is pretended, by St. Luke, and finiſhed by an angel. Any perſon ſcrupling to pay the required adoration to this picture, are not admitted to ſee it; nor are women ever admitted beyond the gate where it is kept.

The Pantheon, from its circular figure called the Rotunda, dedicated by Boniface IV. to the Virgin and all the martyrs, and by another pope to all the ſaints as well as the martyrs, is one of the moſt beautiful and entire pieces of antiquity in Italy, and ſeveral of the niches are ſtill remaining that antiently contained the ſtatues of the gods. The outſide of the building is of Tivoli freeſtone, and within it is incruſted with marble. The roof of the Pantheon is a round dome, without pillars, the diameter of which is a hundred and forty-four feet; and though it has no windows, but only a round aperture in the center of the dome, it is very light in every part. The pavement conſiſts of large ſquare ſtones and porphyry, ſloping round towards the center, where the rain-water falling down through the aperture on the top of the dome, is conveyed away by a proper drain, covered with a ſtone full of holes. Eight altars are placed round this church, among which the high altar is of porphyry. The colonnade in the front, which conſiſts of ſixteen columns of granite, thirty-ſeven feet high, excluſive of the pedeſtals and capitals, each cut out of a ſingle block, are of the Corinthian order, and cannot be viewed without aſtoniſhment. The entrance of the church is adorned with columns forty feet high, and the architrave is formed of a ſingle piece of granite. On the left hand, on entering the portico, is a large antique vaſe of Numidian marble; and in the area before the church is a fountain, with an antique baſon of porphyry.

The Campidoglio is a ſuperb ſtructure, built on the ſpot where the antient Capitol ſtood, by the great Michael Angelo. The ſteps that form the aſcent are low and of an extraordinary breadth, and at the bottom on each ſide is a ſphynx of Egyptian marble ejecting water. On the top of the aſcent are two large antique ſtatues of Caſtor and Pollux on horſeback, facing each other; theſe are antient trophies, generally thought to have been raiſed for Caius Marius, fixed on new pedeſtals. Farther

on is an antient mile ſtone, and oppoſite to it, for the ſake of regularity, is another antique pillar, with a globular urn on the top, in which Trajan's aſhes are ſaid to have been depoſited. In the middle of the area Paul III. erected an equeſtrian ſtatue of the Roman emperor Marcus Aurelius Antonius, which formerly ſtood in the church of St. John Lateran. The pedeſtal is very grand, it being the work of Michael Angelo. The owl on the horſe's head is an emblem of the emperor's wiſdom and vigilance, that bird being ſacred to Minerva. Theſe ſtatues, with the ſteps up the aſcent, all placed there by different popes, give this place a grand appearance.

In the place where the antient Capitol ſtood is a very magnificent palace, the roof of which is flat, and adorned with many ſtatues of illuſtrious perſons among the Romans. In the front of the building is a high tower, with the ſtatue of Religion erected on the top. The double flight of ſteps at the entrance of this palace is the work of Michael Angelo; who likewiſe added to the beauty of the front by a ſuperb fountain, adorned with two ſtatues, repreſenting the Nile and the Danube in a reclining poſture. In the center is a porphyry ſtatue of Rome, in the habit of Minerva, repreſented ſitting. This is a piece of great antiquity, and is univerſally admired by connoiſſeurs. In the rooms are great numbers of curious antiquities, with the nobleſt antique ſtatues, and paintings by the greateſt maſters. In the main building reſides the ſenator of Rome, who daily adminiſters juſtice there; and in the wings are the apartments of the conſervators of the city.

As the churches of Rome are remarkable for their architecture, painting, and ſculpture, theſe alſo diſtinguiſh the palaces of the princes and nobility of this city; for an Italian prince ſetting little value on equipages, liveries, entertainments, and the like, places his grandeur in adorning his palace with the moſt noble decorations.

The Barbarini palace is exceeded only by the Vatican, and contains four thouſand rooms, adorned with an amazing number of ſtatues and paintings, and among the former is a remarkable ſtatue of the conſul Brutus holding in his hand the head of his ſon, whom he had ſentenced to die. Severus Septimus in bronze is highly eſteemed, and a Narciſſus in marble is much admired.

At the palace Juſtiniani, the catalogue of the antiquities amount to eighteen hundred and ſixty-ſeven pieces, of which ſix hundred and thirty-eight are curious pictures: the moſt excellent of them are, Nero's head, Minerva, Venus coming out of a bath, and three little Cupids ſleeping, and leaning one upon another.

Cardinal Chigi's palace is ſcarce inferior to any in Rome. The gates are cruſted over with old green marble: the ſtatues of the two Venuſes, of Marſyas flayed, and the dying gladiator, are admirable pieces.

The Farneſian palace was begun by Antonio de St. Gallo, and brought to perfection by Michael Angelo. The front is a hundred and eighty feet in breadth, and ninety feet high; but all the principal ſtones of this beautiful ſtructure were the ſpoils taken from the Great Coliſeum, which admirable monument of antiquity has alſo furniſhed materials, not only to the palace of the chancery, and St. Laurence's church, but alſo to ſome part of the city walls. Thus Innocent VIII. deſtroyed the Gordian arch to build a church, and Alexander VI. that moſt beautiful pyramid of Scipio, to pave the ſtreets with the ſtones. The Hercules and bull in the Farneſian palace are celebrated throughout the world, and the gallery by Carachio, the hall by Sabriati, and the Venus and Adonis painted by Titian, are finely performed. But we have not room to mention the thouſandth part of the beauties of the many palaces of this city, and ſhall therefore proceed to its celebrated antiquities.

Three brick arches of extraordinary ſize are ſtill ſtanding of the temple of Peace, built by the emperor Veſpaſian, which before it was demoliſhed was eſteemed the largeſt and moſt beautiful in Rome. Here the emperor Titus depoſited the utenſils he had taken out of the temple of Jeruſalem after his conqueſt of that city.

The triumphal arch of white marble erected in honour of the ſame emperor, on account of his ſucceſs in the Jewiſh expedition, is indeed much damaged; but the inſcription on one ſide is ſtill entire, and on it are repreſented the golden candleſticks, with ſeven branches, two jubilee trumpets, the table of ſhew-bread, and other utenſils belonging to the temple of Jeruſalem.

The triumphal arch of the emperor Conſtantine the Great of white marble is the beſt preſerved of any from the injuries of time.

The columns of Trajan and Aurelius are magnificent monuments of antiquity, adorned with moſt excellent baſſo relievos, aſcending in a ſpiral line from the baſe to the capitals. Aurelius's column is a hundred and eighty feet high, and exhibits a great number of baſſo relievos, repreſenting the moſt remarkable actions and atchievements of Marcus Aurelius. Within this column a ſtair-caſe, conſiſting of a hundred and ninety-two ſteps, winding in a ſpiral line, leads to a ſquare gallery ſurrounded with an iron baluſtrade, from whence there is a moſt delightful proſpect. The light is admitted into this pillar through fifty-two ſmall windows. About fourteen feet higher than this gallery is a ſtatue of St. Paul of braſs gilt erected by Sixtus V. who cauſed the whole column to be repaired. The imagery in the upper part of the column is bigger than the lower; and this is almoſt the only inſtance of antiquity where the rules of perſpective, with which the antients were but little acquainted, have been attended to. This pillar indeed is falſely called the Antonine; for from the baſſo relievos, among which are intermixed ſome circumſtances of the Marcomanian war, it is evident that this monument was erected in honour of Marcus Aurelius, and not by him to his father Antoninus Pius. This error, however, paſſed current, till the genuine pillar erected to Antoninus Pius was found in 1704, half buried in rubbiſh. This laſt is of a red oriental granite, forty-four feet three inches high, and five feet eight inches in diameter. It is without ornaments; but the pedeſtal, which is of Parian marble, twelve feet long, and eleven broad, is an exquiſite piece of work. On one ſide is the inſcription, and on the other baſſo relievos repreſenting the apotheoſis of Antoninus and his empreſs Fauſtina, and likewiſe ſome horſe-races.

Trajan's pillar is not only of a much larger ſize, but is adorned with bolder reliefs than that of Aurelius, and makes a very ſuperb appearance. The grandeur of this column is ſtill heightened by a noble pedeſtal repreſenting a maſs of huge rocks embelliſhed with trophies of coats of mail, ſhields, &c. The baſſo relievos are carried round, and from the bottom to the top form twenty-three ſpiral circumvolutions. The ſubject is Trajan's expedition againſt Decebalus king of the Dacians, and they contain near two thouſand five hundred figures, but with ſo little regard to perſpective, that thoſe in the rear of a corps appear as large, and as full in view as thoſe in the front. The ſtair-caſe within conſiſts of one hundred and eighty-four ſteps, and is very light by means of forty-three apertures or windows properly diſpoſed. Anciently ſtood either Trajan's ſtatue, or an urn with his aſhes on the top; and "where, ſays Mr. Addiſon, could the aſhes of an emperor have been ſo nobly "lodged as in the midſt of his metropolis, and on the "top of ſo exalted a monument, with the greateſt of "his actions underneath them? or, as ſome will have "it, his ſtatue was on the top, his battles in the midſt, "and his urn at the foundation." However, whether it was his urn or his ſtatue which was on the top, it has been obliged to give place to a braſs gilt ſtatue of St. Peter. This pillar is of marble, and the whole, including the pedeſtal, conſiſts of thirty-four pieces.

The amphitheatre of Titus, notwithſtanding it has greatly ſuffered by the injuries of time, is not to be beheld without aſtoniſhment. The whole edifice is of Travertina ſtone, with four galleries over each other, adorned with columns of the Doric, Ionic, Corinthian, and Compoſite orders. This ſtructure was one thouſand ſix hundred and twelve geometrical feet in circumference, and its external figure circular; but the inſide was oval. A great quantity of ſtone has been taken from this ancient edifice, for building ſeveral palaces; but ſome ſay that only ſuch ſtones were carried away as had been thrown down by the weather or by earthquakes. However, not the leaſt care is now taken to preſerve this noble ſtructure,

ture, and the area within it is overgrown with graſs and weeds. According to the moſt exact computation, this amphitheatre was capable of containing thirty-four thouſand perſons, excluſive of thoſe in the upper gallery; and according to Dion Caſſius, nine thouſand wild beaſts were killed within its area at its dedication.

On one ſide of the Porta Oſtia is a pyramid deſigned for a monument of Caius Ceſtius, one of the ſeven Epulones, or officers whoſe buſineſs it was to furniſh banquets for Jupiter and the reſt of the gods. This ſtructure is built with brick, and encruſted with marble. It is one hundred and ten feet high: each ſide of the baſe is eighty one feet and an half ſquare, and it has ſeveral inſcriptions. At the entrance of this pyramid are two fine marble pillars, and within it an apartment with a Victory painted at each corner.

Of the temple of Concord, eight oriental granite pillars of the Ionic order are ſtill to be ſeen behind the Capitol towards Mount Palatine. It was erected as a memorial of the reconcilement of the people and nobility at Rome.

At a ſmall diſtance are to be ſeen three pillars, by ſome thought to be the remains of the temple of Jupiter Tonans, or the Thunderer, and by others that of Julius Cæſar.

The temple of Minerva ſtood in Nerva's Forum, where the front, embelliſhed with fine baſſo relievos, is ſtill remaining. In one baſs relief the goddeſs is herſelf repreſented.

Among the other noble remains of antiquity, we ought not to omit the temple of Peace, of which three detached parts that are roofed are ſtill remaining. The roof is divided into a great number of octangular apartments, formerly ſaid to have been plated with gold. This temple was rebuilt by Titus on the ſucceſsful concluſion of the Jewiſh war, and ſplendidly adorned with the ſpoils brought from Jeruſalem. Herodian gives an aſtoniſhing account of its riches, and when in Commodus's time this temple was burnt by lightning, the melted ſilver and gold is ſaid to have flowed out in a ſtream two hundred feet broad, and three hundred in length. At preſent a market for cattle being kept every Friday at this place, this famous temple is parted into ſeveral diviſions, and let out by the apoſtolic chamber to graziers, as an encloſure for their bullocks, &c.

The catacombs of Rome are not ſingle vaults, but rather whole ſubterraneous cities, with turnings and windings like ſtreets, extending under all the ſuburbs. They are dug out from among the rocks, each paſſage being commonly fifteen or eighteen feet wide, and between twelve and fifteen feet high. The hollow niches on both ſides of the walls are ſhaped like cheſts of various ſizes, placed in rows one above another without any coffins, and only covered with flat ſtones like tiles, cemented with mortar. Theſe were the burying-places for ſuch of the Romans as could not afford the expence of burning; and the primitive Chriſtians, who never burned their dead, made uſe of them for the ſame purpoſe.

It would make a volume larger than this is intended to be, were we to deſcribe the antiquities and modern buildings of this city. We ſhall therefore leave this ſubject, and only take notice of ſome noble foundations, one of the moſt ſingular of which is the Monte della Pieta, which is intended to prevent exceſſive uſury, money being lent on pledges at two-thirds of the value, and to the amount of thirty ſcudi without any intereſt; but larger ſums at the moderate intereſt of two per cent.

The hoſpital for poor children is ſo large, that the front towards the Tyber is an hundred paces long, and four ſtories high. This is a moſt admirable foundation for bringing up orphans, who are allowed to chooſe their trade; and when they are twenty years old, and able to maintain themſelves, they are diſmiſſed from the houſe, new cloathed from head to foot, with twenty crowns in their pockets. Very good tapeſtry is made here, and ſuch boys as have a remarkable genius, are inſtructed in drawing for two or three years, and ſpend about the ſame time to obtain a thorough knowledge in tapeſtry weaving. In this hoſpital are alſo admitted old diſabled ſervants, and other perſons who by age and infirmities are rendered incapable of earning their bread. Beſides theſe, there are many other charitable foundations.

The court of juſtice is one of the nobleſt buildings in Rome, and in the gallery of the firſt floor facing the court is a marble group of a man flaying one of his own ſpecies: whether this be Marſyas, ſays Mr. Keyſler, who was puniſhed for his preſumption by Apollo; or whether it be an emblematical repreſentation of the miſeries of a client in the hands of a rapacious lawyer and iniquitous judges, I ſhall not pretend to determine.

The two cuſtom houſes are alſo ſtately buildings: theſe moſt travellers are obliged to viſit much againſt their own inclination. The contraband goods for which the greateſt ſearch is made are tobacco, prohibited books, and new linen; but a piece of money and a readineſs to open one's baggage ſeldom fail to make matters eaſy.

The French academy was founded by Lewis XIV. for twelve young gentlemen natives of France, ſix to be inſtructed in painting, four in ſculpture, and two in architecture, who are maintained at the expence of the French king; and when they have completed themſelves in theſe noble arts, return to their native country. On Monday, Tueſday, Wedneſday, and Thurſday in Paſſion-week, a young fellow is faſtened naked to a croſs, who droops his head, as if he was juſt expiring, with ſeveral lamps placed round him, while the ſcholars and other artiſts are employed in copying from the life; ſome deſigning on paper, others working in plaſter, and expreſſing the attitude, muſcles, veins, &c. of the object before them: but when a ſtranger goes away, this fellow quickly leaps down from the croſs, and importunes him for a piece of money. In this academy one has an opportunity of viewing excellent copies of the beſt pieces, both of antient and modern artiſts. The ſtatues and pieces of ſculpture are moſtly of plaſter; and among theſe are the wild boar in the Florentine gallery, the wreſtler, and the Venus of Medicis, in the Tribuna of Florence; the hermaphrodite in the Villa Borgheſe; the Barbirini, Laocoon, Apollo, Antinous in the Belvedere; a faun, a centaur, buſts, &c. without number: with many fine pieces of painting.

Here is alſo an Italian academy of painting.

With reſpect to the manners and cuſtoms obſerved in this city, the people take great care to preſerve themſelves from the heats, which are uſually in ſummer very troubleſome; for which purpoſe perſons of quality have low apartments, ſhaded from the rays of the ſun, paved with marble, and furniſhed with fountains and water-ſpouts; and beſides, the doors and windows are ſo contrived, that they are never without a kind of cool breeze. The beds are encompaſſed at ſome diſtance with a curtain of gauze or tiffany, which is joined cloſe to the boards of the floor and cieling, to prevent their being troubled with gnats. It is alſo the cuſtom to ſleep two hours immediately after dinner; but they never lie down, for they have a ſort of folding chairs, which have backs that riſe and fall with a ſpring. The uſe of umbrellas is common every where: the evening dew in the Campagna di Roma is eſteemed mortal, during three or four months in the ſummer, and great care is taken to avoid it; for this purpoſe travellers double their pace, to arrive at Rome in time, or ſtay at the diſtance of eighteen or twenty miles from it.

The way of living at Rome was never ſo agreeable as at preſent, not a day paſſing without aſſemblies of both ſexes at the houſes of perſons of quality; but unmarried women have not the liberty of appearing in public, they generally being confined in a convent, till they are either married or grown old.

The carnival at Rome affords a more agreeable entertainment to perſons of an elegant taſte than that of Venice; and ſhould a proſtitute dare to appear upon the Corſo, her being diſcovered would expoſe her to very ſevere treatment. The Corſo is a fine ſtreet, which extends two thouſand ſeven hundred and twenty common paces in length. People appear there with or without a maſk, in a carriage or on foot, juſt as they pleaſe. The coaches follow each other two a-breaſt, and the principal nobility make their appearance in triumphal cars, which add great ſplendor to the ſpectacle. The ſbirri are poſt-

ed up and down to prevent diſturbances, and their captain rides about bare-headed, till orders are obtained for horſe-races, a diverſion ſeen no-where but in Italy and the Britiſh dominions. Moſt of the racers in Italy are brought from Barbary, whereas England glories in the ſpirit and vigour of thoſe of her own breed. In Italy, inſtead of being under the management of their riders, they are trained up to run alone: on the ſides and along the back they have leathern ſtraps, ſtuck on with pitch, and under theſe are iron bullets, ſet with ſtrong points like the rowels of a ſpur, which continually prick the horſes while they are in motion; and they have the cruelty to ſtick another of theſe ſpiked balls under the horſe's tail. The ſtarting-place is on the ſquare called Piazza del Popolo, where the horſes, being generally from five to eight in number, ſhew the utmoſt impatience for the ſignal, which is given by dropping a rope that runs a-croſs the courſe before them. Upon this they ſtart, and fly along the Corſo with incredible ſwiftneſs, the coaches being drawn up on each ſide of the ſtreet. The prize is generally a piece of brocade, of the value of ſeventy or eighty Roman crowns. The people are entertained with ſuch a race every day during the carnival.

Notwithſtanding the ſplendor of the buildings of this city, the people have the diſagreeable cuſtom of drying linen out of the windows, and on ropes hung a-croſs the ſtreets.

The ſummers at Rome are very tedious, every body keeping cloſe at home the whole day. Hence it is here a common ſaying, That none but dogs, idiots, and Frenchmen, walk the ſtreets in the day-time. The heat of the climate makes the Romans extremely fond of ſpring-water, iced and cooling liquors; ſo that great quantities are conſumed of ſnow and ice, which are fetched from the mountains, and preſerved in ice-houſes.

In autumn the vintage is a time of general feſtivity, when the common people give themſelves up to all manner of licentiouſneſs. The favourite winter diverſions at Rome are plays and operas, and, during the carnival, the latter are acted at three theatres. One of theſe, called Alberti, from the count of that name, its founder, has a pit which will contain nine hundred perſons, and is ſurrounded with ſeven galleries over each other.

With reſpect to the Roman cuſtoms in other reſpects, every prudent traveller ſhould be on his guard, and rather talk too little than too much; for there are ſeveral private channels of information for conveying to the government's ear every thing that is ſaid or done in the city. However, their conduct towards travellers is very prudent, from the conſideration of their annually ſpending great ſums of money in this city. At the meeting of the Hoſt, and other proceſſions, the Proteſtants need be in no fear of thoſe brutal inſults which they ſometimes meet with in other countries, from the bigotted perſecuting ſpirit of the vulgar. Beſides, in Lent, and on other faſt-days, the Proteſtants never fail of meeting with fleſh-meat at the inns and taverns, without being at the trouble of procuring a licence for eating it.

Though public proſtitutes are licenſed on paying a ſmall tax to the papal treaſury, here are ſeveral regulations calculated to reclaim them: they are excluded from communion, and if they die in that profeſſion they are denied Chriſtian burial. In ſome parts of Italy they are obliged ſeveral times in a year to aſſemble in a particular church, where their vicious lives are painted in the blackeſt colours in a ſermon preached before them; and they who are moved by the preacher's arguments, and in token of their repentance kiſs a crucifix which is handed about, are conducted to a convent founded for their reception.

The Pretender to the Britiſh crown is, by order of the pope, ſtiled King of England; but this is no more than an empty title, which the Italians themſelves make a jeſt of. Mr. Keyſler obſerves, he has an annual income of twelve thouſand ſcudi, or crowns, out of the pope's treaſury, which is only three thouſand pounds ſterling; and though the clandeſtine remittances of his adherents in England may amount to as much more, it falls very ſhort of what is required to keep up the ſtate required in a king. He generally appears abroad with three coaches, and his houſhold conſiſts of forty perſons: but at his coming into an aſſembly, no Engliſh Proteſtant riſes up, and even the Roman Catholics pay him their compliments in a very ſuperficial manner: for his puſillanimity, and the licentiouſneſs of his amours, have leſſened him in every body's eſteem. His lady ſeldom ſtirs abroad, except to viſit a convent; and ſhe allows her ſervants no gold or ſilver lace on their liveries.

SECT. XIV.

Of the other Places worthy of Notice in the Campania of Rome; with a particular Deſcription of the Villa Borgheſe, Freſcati, the Belvedere, and Tivoli.

THE country in the neighbourhood of Rome is pleaſant, but, like the reſt of the Eccleſiaſtical State, thin of inhabitants; for along the delicious plains between Rome and Tivoli, Freſcati, Veletri, &c. neither town or village is to be ſeen; ſo that, in harveſt time, the peaſants of Viterbo, Perugia, and the mountainous parts of St. Peter's Patrimony, reſort thither to help the few wretched inhabitants to get in their corn.

In deſcribing the principal places in the Campania, we ſhall begin with the Villa Borgheſe, which is ſeated in one of the fineſt ſpots in Italy, and may be ſaid to exceed all other country ſeats in the world. It ſtands at the diſtance of a quarter of a league from Rome, and was built by cardinal Scipio Borgheſe, nephew to Paul III. who has here aſſembled every elegant and ſplendid object of curioſity. In the gardens are at leaſt twenty beautiful walks, and all the viſtas are terminated by ſtatues, large heads, or dragons ſpouting water. Here are alſo ſeveral groves of oaks, limes, cypreſs trees, pines, and pomegranate trees. The eſpaliers conſiſt of myrtle, jaſmine, and orange trees, &c. In other parts of the garden are little parks for deer and hares, and a warren for rabbits. Here is alſo a large canal ſtocked with ſwans, and all kinds of water-fowl. In two large and lofty aviaries, with fountains playing in them, are to be ſeen all of the known feathered ſpecies, and the flower-garden exhibits the moſt beautiful flowers and remarkable vegetables. On the grand area before the palace are twenty-four ſtone pedeſtals, finely carved, for flower-pots, with ſix antient ſtatues.

The houſe conſiſts of a quadrangle, the four ſides of which are embelliſhed with ſtatues and baſſo relievos. The double flight of ſteps leading to the firſt floor is adorned with two cornucopias, and vaſes embelliſhed with baſſo relievos; and in the firſt court are a conſiderable number of antient marble ſtatues and buſtos, with ſeveral fine baſſo relievos. The firſt room one enters is adorned with twelve columns of porphyry, granite, and the moſt beautiful kinds of marble. On the walls on each ſide are fourteen marble buſts, which are thoſe of Scipio Africanus, Hannibal, and the twelve Cæſars. A ſtatue of Bacchus lying in the poſture of a river god, is a maſterly piece, as are the marble baſſo relievos over the ſix doors of the apartment, and the room is adorned with many excellent pictures. In the next room, among other fine pieces, is a celebrated antique ſtatue of Seneca expiring in the bath, of black marble. The expreſſion is exceeding natural, and the colour of the marble gives it a more melancholy appearance. The paintings both in this and in the other apartments are by the greateſt maſters, and it is impoſſible to deſcribe the aſtoniſhing number of fine ſtatues that are to be found in each of them.

The avenues about the houſe are adorned with the ſtatues of Auguſtus, Commodus, Lucius Verus, Galba, Claudius, Perſeus, Narciſſus, ſeveral gladiators, a great number of buſts, and ſeveral pyramids and obeliſks of granite, &c.

Freſcati ſtands on a mountain about twelve Italian miles from Rome. In the way thither are to be ſeen the ruins of the Claudian aqueduct belonging to the emperors Gallienus's country ſeat, and the tomb of Alexander Severus. Freſcati is ſituated on or near the ſpot where the ancient Tuſculum ſtood, and derives its name from the arbours or tabernacles built by the inhabitants of Tuſculum, when their city was demoliſhed in 1191. This charming retreat is at preſent the ſummer reſidence of ſe-

veral perſons of the firſt rank, who have here not only ſplendid palaces and gardens, but have taken the advantage of this favourable ſituation among hills for making very grand water-works. Indeed the ſeats of the Roman nobility at Freſcati have been ſpoken of by travellers with a contempt which they little deſerve.

The villa Aldobrandini, or the Belvedere, is remarkable for its fine water-works. They form a kind of theatre, and a braſs globe, ſupported on the ſhoulders of Atlas, ejects water on all ſides. Near this ſtatue are a tyger and a lion fighting, and the water iſſuing from the mouth and noſtrils of the former exactly imitates the ſnarling of that animal when enraged. The column of water in the center of the fountain riſes ſeventy-four palms high, and is attended with a noiſe like the whizzing of ſky-rockets. Among the ſtatues is a Faunus playing on one of the ancient paſtoral pipes, conſiſting of ſeveral unequal reeds, and a Centaur blowing a horn, which is ſaid to be heard four Italian miles. The water which ſupplies theſe curious works is brought hither from a ſpring at ſix miles diſtance. Here is a beautiful ſaloon paved with fine ſmall ſtones curiouſly arranged ſo as to repreſent flowers, foliages, and birds; and in the center of the pavement is a hole, over which a light globe or ball is kept in a perfect equilibrium, at the diſtance of a ſpan from the floor, only by the impetus of the air forced up by water through the hole. The caſcade conſiſts of ſixty-five ſteps, and on both ſides are tortoiſes, dolphins, and other aquatic animals cut in ſtone, and ſpouting water at each other. The cielings of the apartments in the houſe are painted in freſco by d'Arpino.

The gardens and palaces of ſeveral other noblemen at Freſcati are alſo extremely beautiful.

Tivoli is ſeated on a hill, about eighteen Italian miles from Rome; but the road to it is entirely level. This town, however, is a very mean place, except only the villa Eſtenze. In this palace is to be ſeen eight rooms on the ground-floor beautifully painted in freſco. Here is alſo a ſmall marble group of the Nile, and twelve boys ſporting about it. Formerly in the gardens were fountains adorned with the ſtatues of Leda, Æſculapius, Arethuſa, Pandora, Flora, Pomona, and Antinous, with the grotto of Venus, &c. but they are now in a ruinous condition. However, moſt of the water-works are kept up; for as they are eaſily ſupplied from the Anio, they cannot be very expenſive. The large baſon juſt before the palace, with a ſtatue of a horſe in the center, furniſhes a great quantity of water. Near this baſon is a long row of ſome hundreds of pyramids, vaſes, eagles, and other figures, cut in ſtone, and fixed on pedeſtals, with baſſo relievos of ſtories taken from Ovid's Metamorphoſes, and the water is ejected from all of them. This row of figures, being ſome hundred paces in length, is a very elegant ornament, and at the other end of it is a ſhip, with its maſts and rigging, as it were engaged, and vigorouſly defending itſelf by ejecting water from all parts. The Girondola, or Dragon fountain, throws up a vaſt column of water. The water-organ, over which is a beautiful ſtructure, adorned with ſtatues and baſſo relievos, is alſo a curious work, and the ſteep caſcade where the water precipitates itſelf from a conſiderable height without ſteps, is alſo in a good taſte.

In the market place of Tivoli ſtand two large Egyptian idols of Oriental granite, ſuppoſed to be images of Iſis, which the Tiburtines brought as a monument of their victory over the inhabitants of Norcia, though ſome maintain that they were brought hither from Adrian's villa within this town.

Near the fall of the Teverone, are the ruins of a temple of Veſta, or the Tiburtine Sybil, or according to others of Hercules; round which was formerly a colonnade of ſixteen columns; but now only ten are remaining. The baſe of the portico has been well preſerved, ſo that the feſtoons and foliages on the baſſo relievos ſtill make a very beautiful appearance. The columns are of marble; but the work within only of brick. In the niches are ſome paintings in freſco; but as the Virgin Mary is to be ſeen here, it is evident that this building has been converted by the Chriſtians into a church.

This hill affords a delightful proſpect not only of the cataract, but of the ſpots where the ſeats of Horace and Catullus are ſuppoſed to have ſtood. The violence of the fall of the Teverone down the precipice turns the water entirely to foam, and has conſiderably excavated the rocks beneath. Tivoli has in all ages been celebrated for the great ſalubrity of its air, as appears from ancient authors, and it alſo ſeems to have been a favourite retreat of Horace. This city is alſo famous for its containing the ruins of the villas of the ancient Romans, and for its quarries of ſtone, which have been frequently mentioned under the name of Travertina, or Tivoli ſtone.

Four Italian miles from Tivoli lies the lake of Solfatara, in which are ſixteen floating iſlands, the largeſt of which is not above fifty or ſixty feet in circumference; ſo that it is not difficult to puſh them from the ſhore with a pole. The water of this lake, and the little ſtream of Solfatara, is impregnated with chalk and ſulphur; ſo that the graſs and other vegetables growing on its banks are ſpeckled with white incruſtations, exactly reſembling, both in ſhape and colour, the comfits made of coriander, aniſeeds, &c. hence they are called Tivoli comfits. The water of the lake and rivulet has ſtill the reputation of curing the aſthma, and all cutaneous diſeaſes.

Piperno is a ſmall town, ſeated on an eminence, fifty miles to the ſouth-eaſt of Rome, and contains ſome palaces. Its neighbourhood abounds with the cork-tree, which is an ever-green; the leaves are ſtiff and hard, and not unlike thoſe of the plum or pear tree, and the fruit, which makes good maſt for hogs, reſembles ſmall acorns. When the tree is ſtripped, it recovers its coat in about two years.

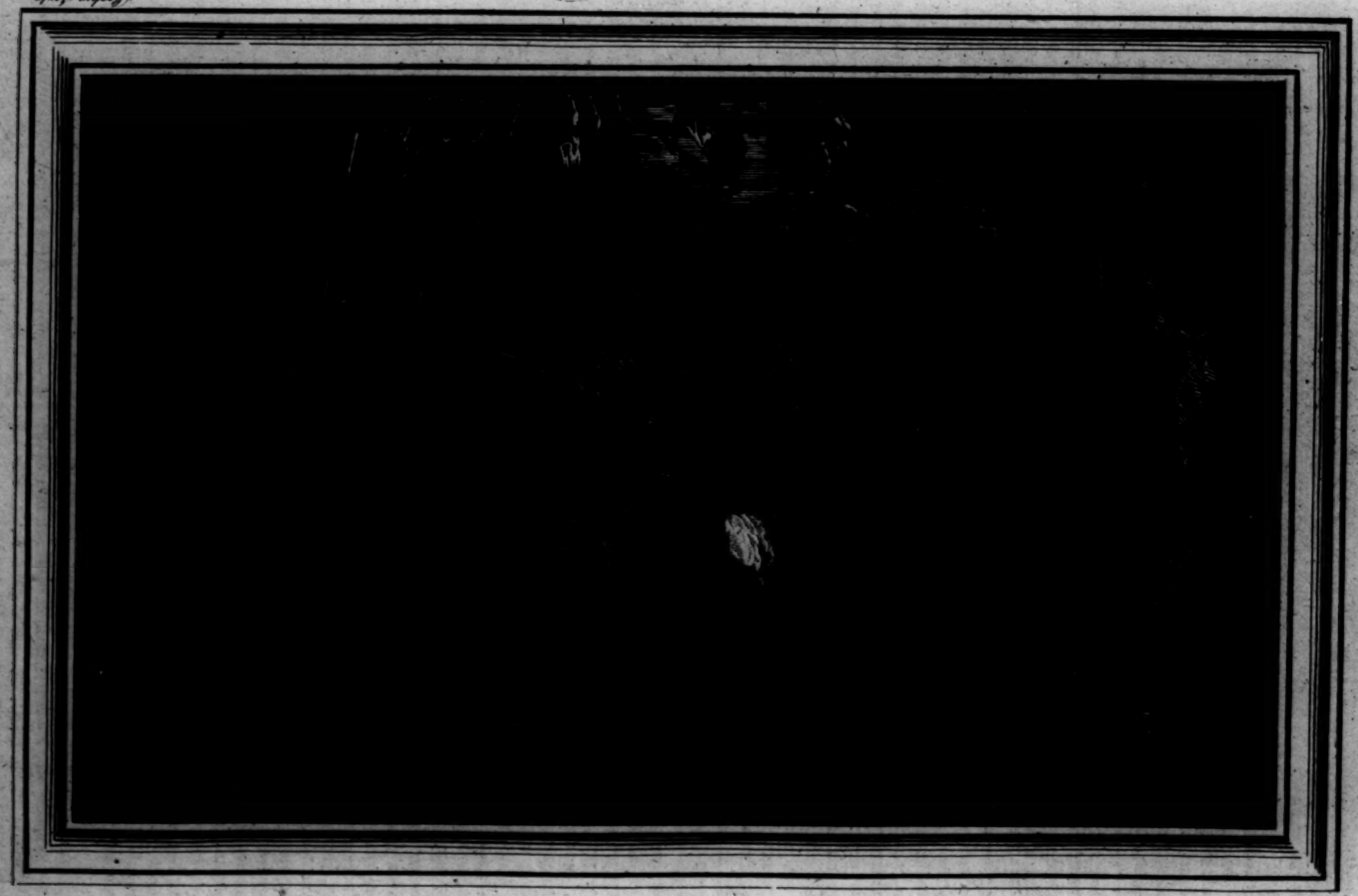
Veletri, the antient Velletræ, is a ſmall city, pleaſantly ſituated on a hill, twenty-two miles to the ſouth-eaſt of Rome, in the great road to Naples. It is the ſee of a biſhop, and has twenty-four churches and convents. The only palace in this city belongs to prince Lancelotti, and is a magnificent ſtructure. The great ſtair-caſe is built with white marble, and is ſo magnificent and well contrived, that it paſſes for the fineſt in all Italy. In the apartments are a great number of fine ſtatues, buſtos, baſſo relievos, and paintings. The moſt remarkable among the firſt are, a Venus with a Cupid. The proſpect from the gardens is extremely beautiful, and they are ornamented with fine pieces of ſculpture.

In the market-place, near the palace, is a ſuperb bronze ſtatue of Urban VIII. who is repreſented in his pontifical habit pronouncing the benediction. It was deſigned by Bernini, and ſtands on a marble pedeſtal.

The laſt place we ſhall mention in the Campania is Albano, the antient Alba Longa, a well-built town, much celebrated for its antiquities, and ſerving as a ſummer receſs for the Roman nobility. It is one of the ſix biſhoprics conferred on the oldeſt cardinals. At the diſtance of a mile from it ſtands Caſtello Gandolfo, the favourite reſidence of pope Clement XI.

CHAP.

Mount Vesuvius



A New & Accurate MAP OF NAPLES, AND SICILY.

Drawn from the Best Authorities

THE MEDITERRANEAN SEA

THE ADRIATIC SEA

TURKY IN EUROPE

DALMATIA

LIBURNIA

ISTRIA

PART OF THE ECCLESIASTICAL STATE

ABRUZZO ULTRA

ABRUZZO CITRA

CAPITANATA

PRO. OF MOLISE

TERRA DI LAVORO

PRIN. ULTRA

PRIN. CITRA

PRO. OF BARI

BASILICATA

PRO. OF OTRANTO

CALABRIA CITRA

CALABRIA ULTRA

GULF OF MANFREDONIA

GULF OF TARANTO

GULF OF SQUILLACE

GULF OF NAPLES

GULF OF SALERNO

GULF OF EUFEMIA

LIPARI ISLANDS

VAL DI MAZARA

VAL DI NOTO

ROME

NAPLES

SICILY

Ancona, Loretto, Termo, R. Tronto, Acumulo, Campoli, Guilia nova, M.t Pagno, Amatrice, Tiranesa, Civita da Penna, Amiterno, Civita da Cale, Aquila, Pescara R., Pescara F., Carapella, Lampiana, Chieti, Ortona a Mare, Popolo, Lanciano, Turino, Vasto d'Amone, Solmone, Alessa, Averna, C. Luparella, C. Burella, Tremitti I., Cisemo I., Otricoli, Tivoli, Albi, Cotano, Tiber R., Tiverone, Tolfa, Tolfa Lake, Civita Vecchia, Algone, Termoli, Tifernio R., Grisolmo, Trivento, Guardia, Vico, Pescheise, Viesti, Alatri, Sora, Larina, Lesina, P.o Cesaro, Arpino, Molise, S.t Severo, Troia, Fiorentino, Candelaro R., Manfredonia, Mont Cassino, Vinafre, Rocano, Miratella, Lucera, Volturara, Bartholomeo, Troja, Cerignola, Velletri, Nettuno, C.d'Anzo, Astura, Aquino, Sessa, Teano, Cerito, Ariano, Bovino, Accadia, Rivo, Bitetto, Mont Cercello, Gaeta, Cajeta, Capua, Telese, Benevento, Trevico, Palmeria, Ide Ponce, Seneria, Caserta, Acerra, S.t Agata, Frigento, Bisaccia, Avella, Nola, Naples, M.t Vesuvius, M.t Marano, Rapolla, Venosa, Lavello, Minervino, Bitonto, Conversano, Polignano, Monopoli, Patignano, Locorotondo, Ide Ischia, Procida, Vesuvius I., Ma. Arditino, Nocera, Acerno, Muro, Matera, Mottola, Oshuni, Brindisi, Taranto, Oria, S.t Pancrazio, Salerno, Campagna, Cassiano, Polenza, Marsicovetere, Agri R., Tursi, T. di Mare, Capri I., Sele R., Agropoli, Marsicon, Ceppatia, Sanza, C. Licosa, C. Sarsino, M.t Sardo, Rocca, Policastro, Morano, C. Mare de Brucoli, Glorioza, Trebisaccia, C. Palinuro, Scalea, Rossano, Belvedere, Pisaulo, Cocenza, Umbriatico, Belmonte, Feglina, Noto, Carenza, Amantea, S. Severina, Strongoli, Martorano, Tiverina, Cotrone, C. Della Colonne, Nicastro, Tropiani, Isola, Eufemia, Squillace, Stalletti, G. of Squillace, C. Rizzuto, Stromboli, Vulcan I., Salines, Alicudi I., Policudi, Lipari, Tropea, Nicotera, M.t Leone, Miletto, Stilo, Seminara, Gioia, Rocella, Cirace, Vulcano, Milazzo, Messina, Faro, Reggio, Marettimo I., Favignana I., Levanzo I., C. di Gallo, Mondello, Palermo, Trapano, Solanto, Mont Real, Batnemo, Mestreta, Caprani, Ciramo, Mazara, Sciacca, Calatabelota, Girgenti, Licodia, Barrafranca, Terra nova, Ragusa, Biscari, Augusta, Bucherio, Sortino, Syracusa, Falconera, Noto, Avola, Marzarello, Vicali, C. Passaro, St. Nicholas, Melazzo, Paleo, Oliveri, St. Marco, Randazzo, M.t Etna, Catania, C. delli Mollina, G. of Catania, Leontini, la Bruca, Tavi, Assoro, Paterno, Turetta R., Aidone, Enna, Caltanisetta, Terranova, Piazza, Castro Giovanni, Leonforte, Nicosia, Troina, Randazzo, Capo dell'Armi, Spartivento, Cape Bonifacio, Corsica, Sardinia, Elba I., Capraja I., Gorgona I., Monte Christo, Giglio I., Ponza I., Curzola I., Lissa I., Agusta I., I. Melada, I. Dravanico, I. de Brat, Lesina, Torcola I., Ragusa, I. Cramina, I. Andrea, Pelagosa, Tremitti I., Gisemo I.

A Scale of Italian Miles &c. to a Degree

10 20 30 40 50 60 70

CHAP. XXV.

The Lower Part of ITALY, containing the Dominions of the King of the TWO SICILIES.

SECT. I.

Of the Kingdom of NAPLES.

Its Situation, Extent, Climate, and Produce; with a particular Deſcription of Mount Veſuvius, and of the moſt remarkable Animals of that Kingdom; among which is given a circumſtantial Account of the Tarantula.

THE kingdom of Naples is bounded on the north-eaſt by the Eccleſiaſtical State; but on all other parts by the Mediterranean and Adriatic. Its extent from the ſouth-eaſt to the north-weſt is two hundred and eighty miles, and from the north-eaſt to the ſouth-weſt from ninety-ſix to a hundred and twenty miles.

This country is extremely hot, which ſubjects foreigners, unleſs they take great care of themſelves, to a ſickly habit of body; and particularly they muſt forbear travelling in July, Auguſt, and September. In the lower part of the kingdom little of winter is felt, and in the plains it is very extraordinary to ſee ice or even ſnow. The ſnow that ſometimes falls in the mouhtains is gathered, and kept for cooling liquors in ſummer inſtead of ice. Even ſo early as April, the heat of the ſun is very great; but the nights are cold.

The fertility of the ſoil is very extraordinary, it producing an exuberance of all kinds of grain, the fineſt fruits and culinary vegetables, which may be raiſed any time of the year. Their oil, wines, rice, and flax, are equal to the fineſt of other countries.

Calabria affords great quantities of manna, and both there and in other parts of the kingdom ſaffron grows, and is eſteemed as good as that brought from the Eaſt. Here are alſo allum, vitriol, ſulphur, rock-cryſtal, quarries of marble, and a variety of minerals. The Neapolitan horſes are much eſteemed. The wool of the ſheep is fine and good, and great quantities of ſilk are exported.

Of the filaments, or a kind of hair or wool, of an olive green, growing on ſome ſhell-fiſh, are made waiſt-coats, caps, ſtockings, and gloves, much warmer than wool; and though not ſo fine and ſoft as ſilk, yet always retain a peculiar gloſs. Theſe ſhell-fiſh are alſo to be met with at Malta, Sardinia, Corſica, and in the gulph of Venice. Among the natural curioſities of this country the Phrygian ſtone may be claſſed. It has neither the hardneſs of ſtone, nor the properties of earth, but conſiſts of an indurated mixture of earth, rotten beech wood, and fibres of ſeveral plants. From this ſtone, laid in a ſhady and damp place, grow in a few days, according to its bigneſs, muſhrooms, each often weighing twenty pounds. The ſeed lies in the ſubſtance of the ſtone, and is diſtinguiſhable only by a good microſcope. The growth of the muſhrooms is greatly forwarded by pouring warm water on the ſtone. Some other natural ſingularities will be taken notice of in the deſcription of the ſeveral parts of this kingdom.

The Appennine mountains extend the whole length of the country, and terminate at the Streights of Sicily. Mount Veſuvius, ſo famous for its fiery eruptions, lies five Italian miles from the city of Naples, but ſeparate from the Appennine mountains.

The declivity towards the ſea is every where planted with vines and fruit-trees, and is equally fertile towards the bottom. The circumjacent plain affords a delightful proſpect, and the air is clear and wholeſome. The wine produced on this ſide and the lower part is of three ſorts, all very delicious. Two of them, which ſeem moſt in requeſt, are the Vino Greco, a yellow muſcadine, and a red wine impiouſly called *lachrymæ Chriſti*, or the tears of Chriſt. Of the latter, the little that is produced is reſerved for the cellars of the king, who makes preſents of it, though indeed a great deal of wine is diſpoſed of as the genuine lachrymæ.

The ſouth and weſt ſides of the mountain form a very different view, being, like the top, covered with black cinders and ſtones. Mount Veſuvius, or Veſuvio, as it is called by the Neapolitans, like Parnaſſus, conſiſts properly of two ſummits, though at preſent only that on the right hand as you come from Naples emits fire and ſmoke. The valley between theſe hills is about a mile long, and extremely fertile. The height of the burning ſummit is computed to be eleven hundred fathoms above the ſurface of the ſea. From Reſina, a village within three miles of the city of Naples, the acclivity of the mountain increaſes, yet one may ſtill ride on horſeback. Here are ſeveral large ſtones half calcined, ſcattered in different places, and left as memorials of former devaſtations; the greateſt part being uſed by the peaſants living on the mountains for incloſing their vineyards. It is aſtoniſhing to think of the impetuoſity by which huge maſſes of four or five hundred weight have been thrown to the diſtance of ſeveral Italian miles.

At laſt the ſteepneſs of the aſcent, eſpecially as it is all over covered with aſhes and cinders, will not admit of riding, when the horſes are left to be taken care of by the ſervants, and it is adviſeable for the traveller here to change his boots for ſhoes. Hereabouts, ſays Mr. Keyſler, (one of the lateſt authors who has given an account of this mountain, which he aſcended in 1730) a hermit has built a mean dwelling; and ſuch is his fortitude, that Veſuvius muſt rage with uncommon vehemence before he removes his quarters. As travellers are apt to be fatigued with climbing up this uncommon aſcent, he ſtands ready with ſome wine to refreſh them at their return; and as the rules of his order do not prohibit his touching money, he thankfully receives any little acknowledgment made for his ſeaſonable civility.

At this hermitage the attendance of the peaſants, who follow travellers from the neighbouring villages, become neceſſary; but as they are apt to quarrel with one another, and are even trained to rob and murder, a traveller ſhould always carry fire-arms with him. All they do is to go before with leathern belts round their waiſts, by which travellers hold, that they may climb with the greater eaſe; and if the two peaſants that go before every traveller are not ſufficient, others help by ſhoving him behind. Theſe men, who are at beſt very troubleſome by their exactions and their numbers, ſtile themſelves Ciceroni, the proper title of learned antiquarian, who ſhew and explain to foreigners the antiquities and curioſities of the country.

The aſhes giving way cauſes a man to ſlide ſeveral ſteps downwards; and in places free from the aſhes, the ruggedneſs of the melted matter puts you to no leſs trouble: for from this volcano too often iſſues a lava or mixed floods of melted ſulphur and metallic ore, to the inexpreſſible damage of the neighbouring country. The ſcoria of this ejected matter ſtill lies ſtratum upon ſtratum, with large ſtones projecting from them, which, in their courſe along the ſulphureous ſtream, were ſtopped by their inequalities, and fixed as the melted matter gradually hardened. By chemical experiments it appears, that the ſtones ejected by Veſuvius contain ſulphur, vitriol, allum, antimony, marcaſite, arſenic, and iron; ſmall quantities of gold, ſilver, copper, tin, lead, and other minerals, have alſo been extracted from them; whence the difference to be found in the colour and ſubſtance of the ſcoriæ are not at all ſurpriſing.

" Near the ſummit of the mountain, ſays Mr. Keyſler, " we met with ſtones at leaſt of a hundred weight

" glowing

" glowing hot, and, when broken, exactly reſembling " red hot iron; and, if our guides may be relied on, " they had been but juſt ejected from the abyſs. As " we ſtill advanced, our ears were frequently aſſaulted " with a horrid noiſe, like that of the exploſion of a whole " battery of cannon; and under our feet we had a con- " tinual noiſe, not unlike the boiling of a large cauldron. " Upon making a hole with a ſtick in the aſhes but a " few inches deep, a heat was immediately felt, which " in ſome places was hotter than our hands could bear, and " we perceived the ſmoke to iſſue out, as it were, in " ſeveral places through ſmall fiſſures.

" At length, after many weary ſteps, we came to the " place where formerly the largeſt mouth of the moun- " tain was; but this has undergone ſuch changes, by " the frequent eruptions, that at preſent it is not only " choaked up, but covered by a round hill of aſhes and " cinders. In Addiſon's and Miſſon's time there was a " plain of near three hundred paces to croſs before they " came to the ſkirts of this round hill, or new mountain; " but ſuch great eruptions have ſo enlarged the circum- " ference of the hill, that here is in moſt places no " more than a kind of trench ſeven or eight feet deep, " and about thirty paces wide. The lower, or old " mountain, is of ſuch a height, that at the foot of it " the trench is not perceived from the bottom. Here " we felt a very ſenſible increaſe of heat; and eſpecially " at every exploſion of the mountain, which made the " aſhes fly againſt our faces, ſo that ſome of the company " were obliged to cover their eyes. The ground alſo " was almoſt inſupportably hot under our feet; for the " embers, or ſlag, burnt the very ſoles of our ſhoes. " Here indeed we were not terrified with the horrid " noiſes we had heard below; but every diſcharge was at- " tended with a whizzing like that of a great number " of rockets flying up at once; the multitude of ſtones " and other matter ejected, together with the clouds of " ſmoak with which the ſky is totally obſcured, reſembling " the ſpringing of a mine. Moſt of the ſtones, eſpe- " cially the largeſt, returned perpendicularly into the abyſs " from whence they were thrown up. Great quanti- " ties, however, fall on the ſides of the hill, and the noiſe " they make in rolling down is indeed ſomewhat terri- " ble. As the wind generally drives the aſhes, ſmoke, " &c. one way, it gives the ſpectator an opportunity of " chooſing the moſt favourable ſtation; yet if the erup- " tions happen to be violent, there is danger of approach- " ing on any ſide. It being a bright day, we could " perceive no flame at the mouth of the hill; and the " great increaſe of the heat felt at every diſcharge, might " proceed from the melted matter and ignited ſtones " thrown into the air, which in the night appear like " red-hot bullets: but the phœnomena exhibited by " volcanos are not conſtantly alike.

" We had ſtill about eight hundred paces to aſcend " among hot ſtones and aſhes; but the eruptions fol- " lowed ſo thick upon one another, that before we could " have reached the ſummit, we muſt have ſtood at leaſt " eight ſhocks more; and as the danger every minute " became manifeſtly greater, and our faint-hearted guides " grew exceſſively out of humour, we all agreed to re- " turn."

Mr. Addiſon aſcended to the top when there were no eruptions, and thus deſcribes the inward cavity, as it then appeared. Having, with much difficulty, conquered the laſt hill, he and his companions ſaw in the midſt of it the mouth of Veſuvius, which went ſhelving down on all ſides, till it reached above a hundred yards deep; the mouth itſelf ſeeming perfectly round, and about three or four hundred yards in diameter. This vaſt hollow was generally filled with ſmoke, but having the advantage of the wind, they had a very diſtinct ſight of it. The ſides ſeemed all over ſtained with mixtures of red, green, yellow, and white, with ſeveral rocks projecting out of them, like pure brimſtone. The bottom was entirely covered, and, though they looked very narrowly, they could ſee nothing like a hole in it, the ſmoak in many places breaking through ſeveral imperceptible cracks. In the late eruptions, this gentleman informs us, this vaſt hollow was like a prodigious cauldron filled with melted and glowing matter, which, on its boiling over in any part, ran down the ſides of the mountain, forming five rivers of liquid fire; and adds, as the heat ſlackened, this matter muſt have ſubſided within the bowels of the mountain, and ſinking very leiſurely, had time to cake together, and form the bottom which covers the mouth of that dreadful vault that lies underneath it. The whole mountain, ſhaped like a ſugar-loaf, has been formed at ſeveral times with a prodigious quantity of earth and cinders, that have been thrown up out of the mouth that lies in the middle of it, and increaſes in bulk at every eruption, the aſhes falling down its ſides like the ſand in an hour-glaſs; ſo that in length of time it will cover the whole plain, and make one mountain with that on the top of which it is placed.

Though mount Veſuvius, ſays Mr. Keyſler, often fills the neighbouring country with terror, yet as few things in nature are ſo abſolutely noxious as not to produce ſome good; even this raging volcano, by its ſulphureous and nitrous manure, and the heat of its ſubterraneous fires, contributes not a little to the uncommon fertility of the country about it, and the profuſion of fruit, herbage, &c. with which it is every where covered. Thoſe are obſerved to be the moſt fertile ſpots which abound in ſulphur, ſalt-petre, &c. and if ſuch igneous and inflammable ſubſtances were pent up, their fermentation and ebullition would be productive of the moſt calamitous effects; whereas they find a vent through theſe volcanos. Experience ſhews, that earthquakes, after any continued eruptions of Veſuvius, are neither ſo frequent, nor produce ſuch fatal effects, as at other times. Hence the inhabitants are far from being alarmed at this mountain's vernal eruptions, when they are not violent; and the air is ſo far from being rendered unhealthful by them, that Barra, a village at the foot of Veſuvius, near the ſea, is remarkable for its healthfulneſs.

In the ſea near the foot of the mountain, is ſometimes found petroleum, a very fragrant oil, which is ſold at a very high price, and makes a rich perfume. During the time that it riſes, the ſurface of the ſea is for a little ſpace covered with its bubbles, which they ſkim off into their boats, and afterwards ſet a ſeparating in pots and jars; but its ſources are ſaid never to run but when the weather is warm and calm. Perhaps they may be hindered from diſcovering them by the agitations of the water.

Notwithſtanding the advantages ariſing from theſe vents given to the inflammable matter contained in the bowels of the earth, earthquakes have been of no ſmall detriment to this kingdom, and are chiefly felt in the lower parts, where are ſeen the ruins of many celebrated cities, of which now ſcarce the name is preſerved.

Another inconvenience, but common to all Italy, is the ſwarms of lizards, eſpecially of the green kind. In ſpring hundreds of theſe little animals are ſeen baſking on the flat roofs, and as they crawl up and down the walls, if a window or door be left open, they make their way into the houſes. The green lizards, which are very nimble, have very beautiful eyes, a fine gloſſy ſkin, and are quite harmleſs. About Fondi, Capua, and Gaeta, there is a noxious ſpecies of lizards, improperly called Tarantula, whoſe bite is attended with danger: theſe are brown, larger than the green ſort, and, when the tail is cut off, reſemble a toad.

The ſcorpion, which is a much greater nuiſance, not only harbours in old buildings, and under large ſtones, but infeſts the houſes in this country; ſo that it is not unuſual in ſome places to make the bedſteads of poliſhed iron, and to place them at ſome diſtance from the walls, to prevent their getting into the beds. It is true, they ſeldom hurt, unleſs they are firſt aſſaulted, or accidentally injured, which may be eaſily done by a man's turning himſelf, or moving a leg or an arm in a bed where theſe noxious animals harbour. The ſureſt remedy againſt the ſting of a ſcorpion is to bruiſe that animal, and bind it faſt on the wound. In the northern parts of Italy this creature has little or nothing of that rage and venom which appear in thoſe of hotter climates. Scorpions yield a ſalt and oil, which are a part of the materia medica. They are caught in great numbers among ruins, or in ſtoney places, and being taken hold of with a pair of pincers, are dropped in narrow-necked glaſs veſſels, which are too ſlippery for them to climb out.

Another plague almoſt peculiar to the kingdom of Naples, eſpecially the ſouthern parts, is the tarantula, a kind of ſpider, ſo called from the city of Tarento, in the neighbourhood of which they abound, and are the largeſt and moſt venomous. The perſons bit by this inſect are called by the Italians Tarantolati. Few of ſuch unhappy perſons can bear the ſight of black or blue; but ſeem delighted with red and green objects. They are alſo ſeized with an averſion to eating fruit or vegetables. A melancholy ſilence and a fixed eye are the firſt ſymptoms by which the bite of the tarantula diſcovers itſelf, and then muſic is immediately called in to rouſe the patient to a violent motion, and by that means to promote perſpiration, and a copious ſweat. But neither the ſame tunes nor the ſame inſtruments anſwer this end with regard to different patients; ſeveral trials are therefore made, and chiefly with the guitar, hautboy, trumpet, violin, and Sicilian kettle-drum.

In ſome parts of the kingdom of Naples, particularly in Apulia, the venom of the ſcorpions is ſo ſubtile, that their ſting produces the like effects as the bite of the tarantula; and though the ſame tunes have a proper effect on theſe patients alſo, yet they require ſofter inſtruments, as the flute, &c. accompanied by a briſk beat of the drum. The country people, who are more or leſs ſkilled in all theſe inſtruments, enforce the operation of their muſic with grimaces and odd geſticulations. The Tarantolati, on their ſide, vigorouſly exert themſelves, regulating their motions according to the muſic, till the venom is quite expelled; this exerciſe and cure ſometimes takes up five or ſix days; not that they are kept continually dancing all that time, but when nature ſeems to be exhauſted, the muſic is ſuſpended, and the patient put to bed well covered, and a ſudorific cordial given him to promote perſpiration. It is remarkable that the patient on his recovery remembers nothing of what paſſed during his diſorder, and that if the cure be not perfectly effected, and the poiſon entirely expelled, the ſame ſymptoms return the ſucceeding year, eſpecially during the ſummer heats; and ſome have laboured under this terrible diſorder, at intervals, for ten, twenty, or thirty years.

The bite of a tarantula at firſt occaſions only a ſmall red tumour, like that occaſioned by the ſting of a waſp, and there are above eight ſpecies of them differing in ſize, colour, and form, but producing the ſame miſchievous effects by their venom. The tarantula is moſt dangerous in the dog days, and during the violent heats, eſpecially on the plains, as if they were incited to greater rage by the ſun: for thoſe of Tuſcany never occaſion ſuch deplorable diſorders as the malignant kind found in Apulia; and even in theſe, when carried to the northern parts of the kingdom of Naples, or to Rome, the venom is rendered leſs noxious, ſo that their bite is attended only with a ſlight tranſitory pain.

The tarantula's chief haunts are holes in the earth, old walls, and hollow trees, and the cobweb it makes is ſtronger and coarſer than that of a common ſpider. The poiſon is contained in two ſmall veſicules within the gums, near two fangs, with which they are armed, beſides leſſer teeth.

SECT. II.

The Manners and Cuſtoms of the Neapolitans; their public Entertainments; the State of Religion; with an Account of the Proceſſion of the penitent Proſtitutes. The Form of Government and Hiſtory of the Country. Its Army; an Account of the Order of St. Januarius, and its Forces.

IT has been ſaid by ſome authors, that the worſt creatures in this delightful country are the inhabitants themſelves, who, beſides their unnatural luſts, are of a vindictive, treacherous, and bloody diſpoſition. National reflections, indeed, generally imply ignorance, narrowneſs of ſoul, and want of charity; but it muſt be confeſſed that the hiſtory of Naples abounds in inſtances which diſgrace human nature. Mr. Keyſler obſerves, that when he was there, Tophana, the noted female poiſoner, who firſt invented the *aqua Tophania*, was ſtill living in priſon, and that few foreigners left Naples without ſeeing that infernal monſter. She is a little old woman, ſays he, who had entered into a kind of religious ſiſterhood, and on this account, if not a worſe, her life has hitherto been ſpared. She is ſaid to have poiſoned ſome hundreds of people, and was remarkably liberal of her drops, which ſhe gave by way of alms to wives, who, from ſeveral intimations, ſhe knew would not be inconſolable for the death of their huſbands. Five or ſix drops of this liquid, it ſeems, anſwer the horrid purpoſe, and may be lowered or tempered ſo as to take effect in any determinate time. This water even ſtill continues to be privately made at Naples.

The inhabitants of this kingdom have always been remarkable for their voluptuouſneſs, and in no city in Europe are proſtitutes ſo numerous or ſo abandoned: theſe are ſaid to amount to eighteen thouſand in the city of Naples, and in one particular part of it, is a receptacle for two thouſand of them; and yet it is no uncommon thing for even eccleſiaſtics to lodge in thoſe infamous parts of the town. This has an unhappy effect, and the clergy being exempt from the civil juriſdiction, and connived at by their ſuperiors, ſet the worſt examples; and any complaints againſt them from laymen are conſidered as the height of inſolence.

Great numbers of the peaſants are ſo ſlothful, as to prefer begging and robbing to labour and induſtry; but in the city of Naples there are ſeveral flouriſhing manufactures, and ſomething of a ſpirit of induſtry.

Among their public entertainments one of the moſt extraordinary is the proceſſion with four triumphal cars, on the four Sundays immediately preceding Lent; the firſt with bread, the ſecond with fleſh, the third with vegetables, and the fourth with fiſh. Theſe proviſions are piled up very high, with muſicians placed at the top, and guarded by armed men, till they are given up to be pillaged by the populace. But that which draws the greateſt concourſe to Naples is the caſtle built according to the rules of fortification, and faced all over with pieces of beef, bacon, hams, geeſe, turkeys, and other proviſions. This welcome ſpectacle is exhibited once a year, and on each ſide of the caſtle is a fountain running with wine during the whole day. A party of ſoldiers is poſted to reſtrain the ardour of the populace till the viceroy appears in his balcony, which is the ſignal for the aſſault.

It is uſual for the Neapolitan nobility to ſpend ſome years in a parſimonious retirement on their eſtates in the country, that they may cut a figure for a while in the city, by living in profuſe magnificence; thus they are generally running into extremes: their fortunes, however, are not very conſiderable, which is a natural conſequence of there being a great diſproportion in their number to the ſmall extent of the country; for there are in this kingdom a hundred and nineteen princes, a hundred and fifty-ſix dukes, a hundred and ſeventy-three marquiſes, forty-two counts, and four hundred and forty-five barons, all vaſſals of the crown; and as many ſpots of land that are not worth above fifty dollars a year, give the owners the title of marquis, they are conſequently very poor.

Religion, as we have already hinted, is on a very bad footing; and the beſt that can be ſaid of the eccleſiaſtical conſtitution is, that the Neapolitans have always reſolutely oppoſed the introducing of the inquiſition. The number of monaſteries and convents is aſtoniſhing, and the clergy are as remarkable for their wealth as the laity for their poverty. Such is the power and opulence to which the clergy have arrived, that they have more than once been ready to ſeize the civil power, and to arrogate to themſelves a deciſive authority in matters quite foreign to their paſtoral care, nor can they bear the leaſt controul or cenſure on this account. Some who are well acquainted with the ſtate of the kingdom affirm, that the clergy are poſſeſſed of near two-thirds of its whole produce, without the people's having any hopes of recovering the leaſt part, all alienations being prohibited by expreſs laws. The laity have often, in the ſtrongeſt manner, petitioned their ſovereigns, that the clergy might be no longer allowed to purchaſe lands and houſes; but all endeavours were fruitleſs, till at length, in 1751, meaſures were concerted, with the pope's conſent, for leſſening the number of convents.

The devotion of the Roman catholics is not here, however, ſo outrageous as in ſeveral parts of Germany. At the elevation of the hoſt in the churches, or when it is carried along the ſtreets, no traveller is compelled to kneel; and ſo little difficulty is made about ſtrangers eating fiſh and fowls in Lent, that the inn-keepers readily provide for them whatever they pleaſe. Since the government came into the hands of the Auſtrian line of the houſe of Hapſburg, the ſtatue of St. Nepomuk has been erected on ſeveral bridges; but croſſes are not very numerous in the ſtreets; nor public proceſſions, even in the capital itſelf, ſo frequent as in moſt other popiſh cities.

The moſt common proceſſion, which is exhibited almoſt every day, is leſs intended to excite devotion than to raiſe a fund for penitent proſtitutes, who have quitted their abandoned way of life for a convent. In order the more effectually to move the ſpectators to charity, the youngeſt and moſt beautiful of theſe penitents are ſelected, who walk bare-footed through the city two abreaſt: at particular places they kneel down, acknowledge their paſt wickedneſs, and ſing penitential hymns, while an eccleſiaſtic and a lay-aſſiſtant receive the contributions of the people in a purſe faſtened to the end of a ſtick. Their habit on theſe occaſions is a violet coloured gown, tied round the waiſt with a cord of the ſame colour. Their heads are ſhaved, and they wear a blue veil; but it is ſo thin as to afford a ſight of the charms of youth and beauty, which are found to be powerful incentives to a liberal contribution.

The Neapolitans are far from being deficient in their intellects; but, notwithſtanding all their ſchools, univerſities, and academies, their religion is a perpetual bar to the improvement and increaſe of ſolid literature.

The ſilk, woollen, and other manufactures, together with the improvement of the arts, owe their firſt eſtabliſhment to Ferdinand of Arragon, who patronized them in a very liberal manner. Theſe manufactures, joined to the produce of the country, are the ſource of their trade.

In this kingdom are only two ſtates, conſiſting of nobles and commons, the clergy not making a diſtinct claſs, but being intermingled with the other two: but in the city of Naples there are ſeveral noble and illuſtrious families which make no part of either of the two ſtates, but are in ſome ſenſe conſidered as foreigners. The general aſſembly of the ſtates is ſummoned every two years to meet at the capital, where the ſeſſions are held in the Minorite convent near St. Laurence's church, where their chief buſineſs is to deliberate on the cuſtomary free gift to the king, which has often amounted to upwards of one million five hundred thouſand crowns.

The provinces of which the kingdom of Naples conſiſts were formerly a part of the dominions of the Roman republic, and afterwards of the emperors. In the fifth century they were over-run by the Viſigoths, Oſtrogoths, and Herulians. Beliſarius, the general of Juſtinian, emperor of the Eaſt, took Sicily and the provinces of the preſent kingdom of Naples; but theſe provinces were ſoon again diſmembered, one part ſtill remaining under the Grecian emperors, and the Longobardi ſeizing on the other. At laſt the Saracens took Sicily, and frequently committed great ravages in Italy. After ſeveral revolutions it was conquered by the Normans, Conſtantia, the wife of the emperor Henry VI. the laſt of the legitimate deſcendants of Roger, the firſt king of the Norman race, dying in 1198, the ſucceſſion devolved on her ſon Frederic II. emperor of Germany; and thus the kingdom fell to the houſe of Swabia. On the death of his ſon Conrad IV. his natural ſon, Manfred, having made himſelf maſter of the kingdom, pope Urban IV. and afterwards Clement IV. being ſtrenuouſly bent on the expulſion of the houſe of Swabia, offered the kingdoms of Naples and Sicily to Charles of Anjou; and, to give the greater ſanction to the enterprize, crowned him king. Manfred loſt his life in an unſucceſsful battle, and Charles's ſeverity ſo alienated his ſubjects, that Conradine of Swabia, the ſon of Conrad IV. the only lawful heir to the kingdom, was invited to aſſert his claim to the hereditary dominions of his father; but this young prince being ſo unfortunate as to be taken priſoner, was beheaded; and thus Charles was ſecured on the throne. In 1277 this prince became king of Jeruſalem, but loſt Sicily; for the inhabitants, exaſperated by the inſolence and tyranny of the French, having a nobleman called John de Procida at their head, on Eaſter-day, 1312, when the bells chimed for veſpers, roſe and maſſacred all the Frenchmen in the iſland. Upon which Peter of Arragon was choſen king, and his deſcendants reigned over Sicily till the beginning of the fifteenth century, when it was again united to Naples. At length Ferdinand the Catholic, king of Spain, and Lewis XII. king of France, ſeized the kingdom; but Ferdinand maintaining that the entire kingdom belonged to himſelf, and making good his claim by force of arms, Naples continued to be governed by Spaniſh viceroys till the beginning of the preſent century. During the long and bloody war for the ſucceſſion, count Daun, in 1707, conquered this kingdom for Charles III. afterwards emperor, by the title of Charles VI. who in 1720 alſo acquired Sicily. In 1734 the Spaniards made themſelves maſters of both kingdoms for the infant Don Carlos; and in 1736 the emperor, by a formal inſtrument, ceded the kingdoms of Naples and Sicily to him and his heirs, and in default of iſſue to his younger brothers and ſiſters; but Don Carlos, on the death of his father, being placed on the throne of Spain, was ſucceeded by Ferdinand IV. his third ſon.

The arms of the kingdom of Naples are a field azure, interſperſed with lilies or, with a tournament collar of five lapets gules.

There is here an order of knighthood, which is that of St. Januarius, inſtituted by Don Carlos, in the year 1738. Its badge is the image of this ſaint, appendant to a watered carnation ribbon, paſſing from the right ſhoulder to the left ſide, and on the left breaſt of the coat a ſilver croſs. The principal offices under the government are the council of ſtate, to which belong the ſecretaries of ſtate, the king's privy-council, the treaſury, the Sicily council, the treaſury of Palermo, the council of war, &c.

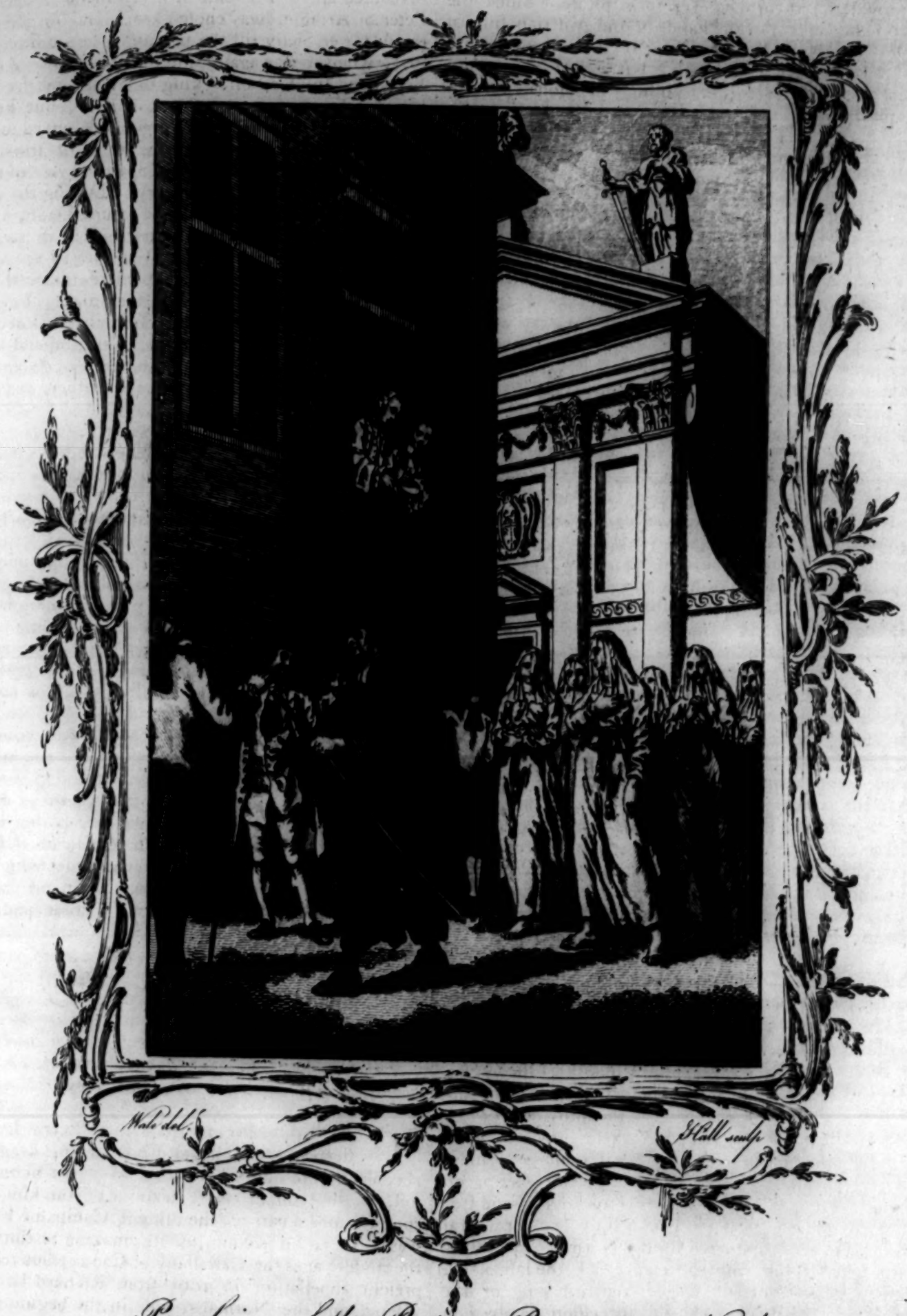
The ſtanding forces throughout the kingdom do not exceed thirty thouſand men, of which the Swiſs regiments are the beſt.

The kingdom of Naples is divided into twelve provinces: theſe are Terra di Lavora, the Hither Principality, the Farther Principality, the Baſilicate, Hither Calabria, Farther Calabria, and Apulia, under which laſt are included the territories of Otranto, Barri, the Capitinata, the Moliſe, and the provinces of Hither and Farther Abruzzo.

SECT. III.

Of the Province of Naples called Terra di Lavora, or the Territory of Lavora; its Situation, Extent, and Rivers; with a particular Deſcription of the City of Naples.

TERRA di Lavora, in Latin Terra Laboris, is eſteemed the principal diſtrict in this kingdom, on account of the number of its towns, the richneſs of its ſoil, and its containing the capital of the kingdom. It comprehends a part of the antient Campania Felix, and was ſo called on account of its amazing fertility, and in the middle ages the Caſtellany of Capua; but received its preſent appellation in 1091 from Richard II. prince of Capua, and the Normans, who in the beginning of the ſame year were driven by the Longobardian inhabitants out of the city of Capua, and inſtead of the principality of Capua uſed to term it Terra di Lavora, from the fitneſs of the ſoil for all manner of culture. Its coaſt extends along the Mediterranean about a hundred and twenty miles, including the windings and creeks, and it is about thirty-three in breadth, where broadeſt; but its greateſt length, from the Eccleſiaſtical State to the Hither Principality in a direct line, does not exceed ſeventy-four miles. It is bounded on the north by the Hither and Farther Abruzzo, on the eaſt by the county of Moliſe and the Farther Principality, on the ſouth by the Hither Principality and the gulph of Naples, and on the weſt by the Campania of Rome.



Procession of the Penitent Prostitutes at Naples.

The chief rivers which water this fine territory are the Cariglano, the antient Liris, the Saone, or Novigliano; the Voltorno, which receives the Sabato Calvi, and ſome others; the Clanio, or Patria, and the Sarno, or Scafati. The principal lakes are the Mare Morto, or Dead Sea, which is rather a gulph, the Averno, and the Collucia, the antient Acheruſius.

The city of Naples, in Italian Napoli, the antient Parthenope, afterwards Neapolis, the capital of the kingdom, is ſeated in the forty-firſt degree twenty one minutes north latitude, and in the fourteenth degree forty-five minutes eaſt longitude, ſtanding partly on a mountain, and partly towards the ſea. Its walls, which are moſtly faced with a hard black ſtone called piperno, are nine miles in circuit; but including the ſuburbs, the entire circumference cannot be leſs than eighteen or twenty Italian miles. Moſt of the ſtreets are admirably well paved wich free ſtone; but the fault is, they have no ſlope or gutters to carry off water. That of the greateſt length and breadth is called the Strada di Toledo, which is about twenty-three common paces broad; and, after running in a direct line fifteen hundred paces, it is continued ſome hundreds more in an eaſy curve. This ſtreet indeed has not one eminent palace; but though Naples has not ſuch magnificent ſtructures as are to be ſeen at Rome and Genoa, it has very few of thoſe mean buildings which in other cities diſgrace their fineſt ſtreets. The houſes in general are lofty and of ſtone, with paved flat roofs, ſurrounded with elegant baluſtrades: but the great number of ſtalls on which eatables are expoſed to ſale, and of balconies with lattice windows, are a great impediment to the ſtreets appearing to advantage; beſides, they are leſt deſtitute of the convenience and ornament of being illuminated at night, and few cities are more dangerous after it is dark.

The harbour is very ſpacious, and has a grand light-houſe, with a mole near five hundred paces in length, which ſeparates the main harbour from the baſon. The latter lies behind the Caſtello Nuovo, and has generally in it four gallies, the crews of which, both rowers and ſoldiers, are obliged every Lent to come to a formal confeſſion, and to receive the ſacrament. The devotions of the firſt galley are followed by a day of reſt, the ſecond by a like interval, and ſo on. In the evening, at the cloſe of the proceſſion uſual on ſuch ſolemnities, the hoſt is expoſed, and all the gallies give it a ſalute.

The great number of fountains are very elegant ornaments of the city, though in many of them the water is but indifferent. The fineſt of theſe fountains is that of Medina facing Caſtello Nuovo, or the New Caſtle: the upper baſon is ſupported by the three Graces, and on the top ſtands a ſuperb Neptune, attended by ſeveral other figures, all ejecting water, which make a very grand appearance. Several of the other fountains are of elegant architecture, adorned with good pieces of ſculpture. A very fine aqueduct ſupplies the city with a vaſt quantity of water from the foot of Mount Veſuvius, by means of which Alphonſus II. in 1442 made himſelf maſter of the city. The place where formerly was the greateſt reſervoir of theſe waters is at preſent known by the name of Seggio di Nido, or Nilo, where there is an antique ſtatue of the river Nile, repreſented under the figure of an old man ſitting on a crocodile, with boys playing about him.

The number of the inhabitants is at leaſt three hundred thouſand, and as the commerce of the city occaſions a great buſtle, Rome, in compariſon of this city, has by ſome travellers been looked upon as a kind of deſart. Here are ſwarms of princes, dukes, marquiſes, and other nobility, to whom are appointed five large ſquares, callled Capuana, Nido, Montagna, Porto, and Porta Nuovo. The commonalty have alſo their peculiar diſtrict. Each of theſe ſix diſtricts chooſes its deputies, who ſuperintend the police of the city, and hold a court for the examination of ſuch public concerns as fall under their cognizance. The nobility of the five piazzas, as they are called, alſo name their ſyndics, who, in the parliaments and other ſolemn aſſemblies, repreſent the city, and the whole kingdom.

Of all the palaces that of the king is the moſt auguſt, and of the neweſt architecture. It was the work of the famous Fontana. The great *perron*, which is divided into two flights of ſteps, is of white marble, eleven common paces in breadth, and has a magnificent appearance. At the foot of the ſteps on each ſide is the ſtatue of a river, that on the right repreſenting the Ebro, and that on the left the Tagus: but the eye of a connoiſſeur, on entering the palace on this ſide, muſt be offended at the diſproportionate narrowneſs of the court. In the audience-room are finely painted the moſt remarkable actions of the Spaniſh nation, among which is placed the expulſion of the Jews out of Spain. The Sala Regia, where the carnival entertainments are held, is hung with the pictures of all the viceroys at full length, and a particular gallery is taken up with the exploits of the duke of Alva. In another ſaloon is repreſented the war carried on by Charles V. with John Frederic, elector of Saxony. Indeed all the apartments abound in fine paintings and beautiful tapeſtry. In the palace chapel are ſurpriſing quantities of plate, and behind the altar ſtands a moſt admirable white marble ſtatue of the Virgin Mary.

The monaſteries and convents of both ſexes in this city are computed at a hundred and forty-nine; beſides which are thirty-four houſes for poor boys, girls, and women; eleven hoſpitals, five ſeminaries for eccleſiaſtics, four capital churches, thirty-two pariſh-churches, ſeventy other churches and chapels, and upwards of a hundred and thirty oratories or chapels of religious fraternities. Moſt of the churches are deficient in good paintings and a fine front, and their marble monuments are not of thoſe magnificent large dimenſions that ſtrike the eye with ſuch ſurprize, as the far greater part do in Rome; but every thing elſe, in beauty and richneſs, ſurpaſſes all of the kind in other Catholic countries, the value of the jewels and utenſils of the altars being alone eſtimated at ſeveral millions of dollars.

For the defence of the city, and at the ſame time to keep it in ſubjection, are five caſtles, which, according to the old method, conſiſt chiefly of very ſtrong walls. The Caſtello Nuovo has a communication by a covert-way with the king's palace, and one ſide is contiguous to the ſea. Its ſubterraneous works and mines are admirable. At its entrance ſtands a triumphal arch of very curious ſculpture. Near it is a braſs gate, decorated with fine baſſo relievos, repreſenting ſome of the atchievements of the kings of Arragon. The caſtle church is handſomely decorated with gilding and ſtucco-work, and a Pieta, in a room adjoining to it, is greatly admired. Facing the armoury, which it is ſaid can compleatly furniſh fifty thouſand men, ſtands a marble antique ſtatue of a young ſoldier, or, according to ſome, of the emperor Nero.

The Caſtello del Uovo, or Egg Caſtle, ſo called from its oval form, ſtands on a rock in the ſea, which is joined to the continent by a bridge two hundred and twenty paces in length: it is ſupplied with freſh water by means of a ſtone conduit, embelliſhed with a variety of marble figures of animals, and conveys the water from the city under the bridge to the caſtle, where are two reſervoirs.

The third check upon the city of Naples is the caſtle of St. Elmo, or St. Eramo, thus called from a church dedicated to that ſaint, which formerly ſtood on this ſpot. It is ſituated on an eminence towards the weſt, and is in the form of a ſtar with ſix rays. The ſubterraneous works are very ſpacious, and hewn out of the rock to ſuch a depth as to be bomb-proof, on which account a great quantity of military ſtores are kept here. This caſtle may be ſupplied with proviſions from Caſtello Nuovo, by means of a ſubterraneous communication. In the upper part of St. Elmo's caſtle are ſeven ciſterns for water, and under the vaults and mines is a reſervoir large enough for two galleys to ſail on. The water, which is always extremely cold, is drawn up by buckets. The two other caſtles are of little note.

The moſt remarkable houſes at Naples are thoſe of the prince di St. Agata, the dukes of Gravina and Mataloni, and a few others.

The moſt remarkable churches and convents in this city are the following:

The cathedral is dedicated to the Aſſumption of the Virgin Mary, and, though a Gothic ſtructure, is very fine. On the high altar is the Aſſumption of the Virgin Mary,

Mary, by Pietro Perugino, a painter, who was Raphael's maſter. Fronting the altar are two pillars of red jaſper, twelve feet high, without the pedeſtals, which are of verde antico. In the chapel under the high altar are ſome curious works in marble, as feſtoons, foliages, birds, children, and angels, which are by ſome attributed to Michael Angelo, who alſo cut the tranſparent alabaſter ſtatue of cardinal Oliverio Caraffa, the founder of this chapel, placed behind the altar. The pavement is inlaid with verde-antico, jaſper, gialło-antico, and porphyry. The remains of St. Januarius have been removed from the church dedicated to that ſaint, without the walls, to this ſubterraneous chapel. The late emperor offered at his ſhrine twelve ſilver eagles, in the heads of which are twelve lamps kept continually burning, and one hundred ſcudi a year are appointed for ſupplying them with oil.

The moſt remarkable chapel in this cathedral is that called il Teſoro, on the right hand on entering the church, the architecture of which is extremely beautiful. In it are the ſtatues of St. Peter and St. Paul finely executed by Finelli, and two pillars of black marble moſt beautifully ſpotted; the door is of braſs curiouſly wrought with feſtoons and foliages. The chapel is of a round figure, and contains ſeven altars of the fineſt marble, and forty-two pillars of broccatello. Twenty-one large bronze images of ſaints, each valued at four thouſand ſcudi, ſtand round the upper part of the wall, and under them are ſixty ſilver buſts of ſo many ſaints. The cupola was painted by Lanfranco, Domenichino, and Permegiano; but their work has ſuffered much by earthquakes that have damaged the cupola. Behind the high altar, which is detached from the wall, and entirely of red porphyry, is the ſhrine with ſilver doors, where they pretend to keep St. Januarius's head, with ſome of his blood, contained in two cryſtal phials, and ſaid to have been gathered by a woman at the time of his martyrdom. Beſides the three ſtated times in the year for expoſing theſe relics to the public view, the like is done with the deepeſt humiliations on account of famine, peſtilence, earthquakes, or any other public calamity, which is ſuppoſed to require the interpoſition of this ſaint. The pretended liquefaction of the coagulated blood in the phials, when placed near the head, is known to all the world. This farce is acted the firſt Sunday in May, and on the ſucceſs or failure of this miracle the proſperity or calamity of the ſucceeding year is ſuppoſed to depend. As the former occaſions great public rejoicings, ſo if the blood remains coagulated, recourſe is had to proceſſions, public flagellations, &c. to avert the impending danger.

That accurate naturaliſt and philoſopher Mr. Keyſler obſerves, that the ſubſtance in the phial is of a browniſh red, and looks like balſam of Peru, which may be very eaſily liquefied. On the day when this miracle is to be exhibited, the phial containing the ſuppoſed blood ſtands ſurrounded by a great number of lights: it is about three inches long, and is applied to the mouths and foreheads of an innumerable multitude of people who throng to partake of ſuch a bleſſing, the prieſt all the while turning it every way; ſo that by the continual agitation, the warmth of his hand, the heat from the lights, the effluvia from ſuch crowds, the ſultrineſs of the weather, &c. it is not unreaſonable to ſuppoſe a condenſed fluid may be gradually reſtored to its liquidity. At length the prieſt cries out, *Il miraculo è fatto*, "The miracle is per-"formed," which is immediately anſwered by a *Te Deum*, amidſt the acclamations of the people, and the diſcharge of cannon. This pretended miracle is not however peculiar to the blood of St. Januarius, for that of St. John the Baptiſt, St. Stephen, St. Pantaleon, St. Vitus, and St. Patricia, exhibit the like ſpectacle in other churches at Naples, where ſuch relics are kept, and generally on the days dedicated to thoſe ſaints.

In the area before the cathedral ſtands a fine marble obeliſk, on which is erected a braſs ſtatue of St. Januarius, with a Latin inſcription to the following purpoſe: "Erected by the city of Naples, out of gratitude to St. "Januarius, the ever propitious and powerful protector "of his native city and the whole kingdom." This obeliſk is annually illuminated on the nineteenth of September, with a ſplendor hardly to be conceived, while a numerous band of muſic play by it, and all the guns in the ſeveral forts are fired on the occaſion.

The church of the Holy Apoſtles is almoſt covered with gilding and painting; but it wants a beautiful front. Over the entrance is a piece of painting by Lanfranco, repreſenting the angel deſcending to ſtir the waters of Betheſda, and he alſo painted the roof. The cupola is likewiſe finely painted, and the tabernacle on the great altar is a moſt admirable piece, conſiſting of eight pillars, and other decorations of amethyſts, emeralds, lapis-lazuli, agates of ſeveral colours, a topaz of the ſize of a walnut, and other gems. On the altar piece is a fine painting of Chriſt's head, with a crown of thorns. The altar is of flowered marble, and the baluſtrade before it of red and white marble. The other chapels of this church are alſo exceeding beautiful.

In the convent belonging to this church are three galleries, one over another; but that on the ground-floor is by much the fineſt. The ſtair-caſe runs in a ſpiral line, and the ſteps are very low, for the convenience of aſſes carrying up corn to the granaries. The library is elegant, well furniſhed with books, and affords a delightful proſpect.

Near this convent is held a weekly meeting of the heads of a ſociety conſiſting of two hundred gentlemen of the law, to examine the private grievances of the poor; and in caſe any pauper is found to be oppreſſed, and can make good his complaint, a member of this ſociety is nominated to undertake his cauſe: but neither this member nor the ſociety are at any expence, the law charges being defrayed by the Theatine convent, which has large endowments for that particular purpoſe.

The Jeſuits college, as uſual, is one of the fineſt ſtructures in the city: the refectory, the library, the great ſtair-caſe, the diſpenſatory, and the church belonging to this college, will afford entertainment to a traveller of taſte. The cupola, which is admirably painted by Lanfranco, was damaged by an earthquake in 1688; ſo that the only remains of that eminent pencil are the Evangeliſts, the reſt being painted by Paolo de Mattheis, a Neapolitan. The altars are extremely rich, and in the treaſury, beſides ſeveral ſtatues and buſts, is St. Cyr, as big as the life, of ſilver, enriched with emeralds. The Jeſuits have alſo ſeveral other churches in this city.

St. Dominico Maggiore belongs to the Dominican monks, and contiguous to it is a convent, where there are generally a hundred and forty monks. This church was built by king Charles II. whoſe heart is kept here embalmed in a ſmall ivory urn. In the chapel of the Holy Crucifix is the crucifix, which, it is pretended, expreſſed its approbation of the writings of Thomas of Aquinas on the real preſence of the body and blood of Chriſt in the Sacrament, and on certain days this crucifix is annually expoſed to public view with great pomp; but at all other times it is not to be ſeen. In the Capella di Stigliano is an exquiſite image of the Virgin Mary, and in the chapel of St. Joſeph are two fine pictures by Guido. The veſtry is very lofty, and finely painted by Solimene. In the gallery are ſeven coffins, richly covered, in which are the remains of the kings and queens of Naples, and other great perſonages.

The church of St. Franciſco di Paola, which faces the viceroy's palace, is remarkable for a beautiful pavement, a roof finely carved and gilt, and ſeveral marble ornaments, eſpecially at the high altar. The tabernacle is embelliſhed with eight incomparable pillars, two of lapis-lazuli, and the other ſix of green jaſper. In the middle of this altar is an excellent piece of perſpective in enamel, and it is profuſely enriched with gems. The painting about the altar, and of the whole choir, is by Luca Giordeno. Among its relics are two ſmall phials, which they pretend are full of the Virgin Mary's milk, that reſembles white terræ ſigillatæ, but liquefies on the feſtivals of the Virgin. Among the ſilver ornaments in the chapel, contiguous to the diſpenſatory, is a ſtatue of St. Michael near three feet high, glittering with jewels, and valued at twelve thouſand ducats.

St. Maria Annunziata is one of the fineſt churches in Naples, for the eye every where meets with noble paintings, ſtatues, monuments, and baſſo relievos.

The

The hoſpital called la Caſa Santa, belonging to this church, was once the beſt endowed of any in the whole world, its annual income amounting, according to ſome, to a million of ſcudi, or about two hundred and fifty thouſand pounds ſterling. The children maintained here are generally about two thouſand five hundred in number. The boys are brought up to handicraft trades, and ſome even to the church. The girls, as they grow up, according to their capacities, or inclinations, do the work of the hoſpital, are employed in the inſtruction of the children, entered into a convent, or married, and had formerly a portion of one or two hundred ducats The young women married from this houſe, in caſe they are left widows in neceſſitous circumſtances, or forſaken by their huſbands; or if the marriage, without any fault of theirs, proves unfortunate, are entitled to be re-admitted, and have a particular apartment allowed them. The annual amount of the dowries to other women, with which this houſe is charged by ſeveral antient legacies and foundations, was at leaſt eighteen thouſand ducats; there being many noble families whoſe daughters at their marriage received two or three thouſand dollars from this hoſpital. The phyſicians, ſurgeons, apothecaries, ſervants, &c. ſtood the houſe annually in fourteen thouſand ducats.

To the Caſa Santa belong four other hoſpitals, one of which is at Puzzuolo, and another at Tritoli, where great numbers of patients are ſent every ſummer to the warm baths and ſudatories, and there provided with food, lodging, and neceſſary attendance.

This was the ſtate of the hoſpital at the beginning of the preſent century, when it proved bankrupt for above five million of ducats, on which account, till the debts are diſcharged, the revenue is aſſigned over to the creditors, allowing only forty-two thouſand ducats a year for the ſupport of the hoſpital, the church, and the convent. This has reduced the girls portions from two hundred ducats to fifty, and the other expences have ſuffered a proportional diminution.

In the church of St. Maria della Sanito, which belongs to the Dominicans, are thirteen ſmall cupolas over ſo many altars, all finely ornamented with paintings. The tabernacle on the high altar has eight pillars of rock cryſtal, each a foot high, cut out of a ſingle piece. It is alſo enriched with a great number of ſapphires, and other precious ſtones. The pulpit is an exquiſite inlaid work of marble and mother of pearl. In the veſtry are ſhewn a crucifix and ſeveral pyramids of cryſtal; fourteen ſilver candleſticks, each above ſix feet high; a very ſmall caſket in the form of an altar, on one ſide of which is the paſſion of Chriſt, of ſuch fine workmanſhip, that in the boſom of the Virgin Mary, which opens with two folding doors, the crucifixion of our Saviour is to be ſeen within the compaſs of a ſilver two-pence. In the caſket is alſo kept another repreſentation of the crucifixion, compoſed of emeralds and other gems. On the Oſtenſorium, where the conſecrated wafer lies, the ſun is finely repreſented, the radiancy of his beams being heightened by the blaze of diamonds, pearls, and rubies. The church and convent are built on an aſcent; ſo that a great part of the former, and even ſome pillars, are hewn out of the rock. The proſpect from thence towards the ſea and Mount Veſuvius is extremely beautiful, and before the refectory is an orangery in the open air, the trees of which are of an uncommon ſize.

The ſpacious convent of St. Martino is every where full of curious and magnificent pieces, and the church, though none of the largeſt, is a very fine one. The monks boaſt that under one priorate above five hundred thouſand ducats were beſtowed among them in ſilver plate, ſculptures, and pictures. The Nativity of Chriſt is a moſt exquiſite piece done by Guido: the four pictures of the Laſt Supper are by the hands of Eſpagnolet, Hannibal Caracci, Paul Veroneſe, and Maſſimo; beſides which, there are many other pieces of great value, and in particular the famous crucifix of Michael Angelo, done, as it is ſaid, to the life, after a peaſant, who for that purpoſe was murdered by the painter: it is of wood, and not above half a foot high. It is obſervable, that the head is upright, which does not look very like the poſture of an expiring perſon. The pavement of the cloyſter, which is a hundred paces ſquare, is of marble inlaid in boughs and ſuch like ornaments, and the four galleries are ſupported by ſixty pillars, each of one entire piece of the beſt white marble of Carrara. Every fryar has his own chamber, cloſet, library, and little garden; and the prior's lodgings are fit for the reception of a prince.

From this aſcent there is the moſt delightful proſpect that can be well conceived; for at one view may be ſeen the ſea and many iſlands, and particularly that of Caprea, and the famous ſeraglio of Tiberius; as likewiſe the whole city of Naples; with a great number of villages ſituated along the ſea-ſhore.

The univerſity of Naples was founded in 1224 by the emperor Frederic II. and the univerſity, or palace Degli Studii Publici, founded in the ſeventeenth century, by count Lemos, would, if it was finiſhed, be the fineſt ſcholaſtic ſtructure in Italy.

The ſuburb of Chiaia, or Spiaggia, lies along the ſea-ſhore, and is one of the pleaſanteſt parts in the city, and on that account ſome hundreds of coaches reſort thither in an evening.

We cannot take leave of Naples without mentioning the catacombs, which the vulgar imagine were the work of the primitive Chriſtians, and ſerved as retreats in time of perſecution; but this opinion is confuted by their being hewn out of the ſolid rock, and its being impoſſible to accompliſh them clandeſtinely and without immenſe charges, and conſequently they could never be the work of the Chriſtians while the Pagans had the ſuperiority. The galleries, or paſſages, are here loftier and wider than thoſe of Rome; they are generally arched, and ſo broad that ſix perſons may walk a-breaſt; and here is one particular vault of ſuch a height, that the roof cannot be diſcerned by the light of flambeaus carried into it. The catacombs muſt have been extremely loathſome if, as ſome have imagined, the dead bodies that lay in them were left to rot in open niches; but this was not the caſe. They were depoſited in cavities on both ſides of the vaults, four or five, one over another, and theſe cavities were cloſed up with a marble ſlab or tile cemented with mortar. St. Proculus's ſepulchre appears to have had a kind of Moſaic work on its covering, for at one end of it are ſeveral ſmall pieces of marble ranged together after that manner; and it is probable they were all adorned, according to the quality of the dead. It is indeed ſurprizing to find ſuch a multitude of niches unſtopped; but they were probably opened by thoſe who were in queſt of ſome ſuppoſed treaſure.

It is proper to mention among the curioſities of Naples, the manner of furniſhing that city with ſnow, which they there uſe inſtead of ice, becauſe they ſuppoſe it ſooner cools any liquor. There is a great quantity of it annually conſumed; for they drink very few liquors, and not even water without it: thus it is uſed by every body from the higheſt to the loweſt, ſo that a ſcarcity of ſnow would occaſion a mutiny, as much as a dearth of corn in any other country. To prevent this the king of Spain ſold the monopoly of it to certain perſons, who are obliged to furniſh the city with it all the year round at ſo much the pound. For this purpoſe they make uſe of an high mountain at about eighteen miles diſtance, in which they have ſeveral pits. There they employ many poor people at the proper ſeaſon of the year to roll in vaſt balls of ſnow, which they ram together and cover from the ſun-ſhine. Out of theſe reſervoirs of ſnow they cut ſeveral lumps, as they have occaſion for them, and ſend them on aſſes to the ſea-ſide, where they are carried off in boats, and diſtributed to ſeveral ſhops at a ſettled price, from which the whole city of Naples is ſupplied.

While the banditti continued their diſorders in this kingdom, they frequently put the ſnow-merchants under contribution, and threatened them, if they proved tardy in their payments, to deſtroy the magazines; which, it is ſaid, they might eaſily have done, by the infuſion of ſome barrels of oil.

SECT. III.

Of the natural and artificial Curioſities, and principal Places in the Terra di Lavora; particularly the Grotto of Pauſilipo, the Sudatories of St. Germano, the Grotto del Cani, the remarkable Valley of Solfatara, the Cities of Puzzuolo and Capua; with ſeveral remarkable Lakes, &c.

ON the road from the beautiful ſuburb of Chiaia is the grotto of Pauſilipo, which the common people of Naples believe to have been formed by magic, and that Virgil was the magician. To form a juſt idea of this place, ſays Addiſon, the reader muſt imagine a vaſt rock undermined, with a paſſage and highway through it, near as long and as broad as the mall in St. James's park. This ſubterraneous paſſage is much improved ſince Seneca gave ſo bad a character of it. The entrance at both ends is higher than the middle, and ſinks by degrees to throw in more light upon the reſt, each entrance being about eighty or a hundred feet high. Towards the middle are two large funnels, bored through the roof of the cavern, to let in light and freſh air. The bottom of it is paved with broad ſtones like the ſtreets of Naples, and is cleaned ſeveral times in a year, and then it is pretty free from duſt; but as it is a road extremely frequented, this convenience is of no long duration. As the breadth is between eighteen and twenty feet, there is ſufficient room for two carriages to avoid each other. Near the middle of it is an oratory hewn out of the rock, with a lamp continually burning in it. This is certainly a very antient work of art, yet there are no vaſt heaps of ſtones to be ſeen about the mountain, though the great quantities of them could not certainly be concealed, had they not been conſumed in the moles and buildings of Naples. This confirmed me, ſays Mr. Addiſon, in a conjecture which I made at the firſt ſight of this ſubterraneous paſſage, that it was originally not ſo much deſigned for a highway, as for a quarry of ſtone; but that the inhabitants finding a double advantage by it, hew'd it into the preſent form. The ſame deſign was perhaps the original of the Sybil's grotto, conſidering the prodigious multitude of palaces that ſtood in its neighbourhood. When I was at Chateaudun, in France, the ſame gentleman adds, I met with a very curious perſon, a member of one of the univerſities of Germany, who had ſtaid a day or two in the town longer than ordinary, to take the meaſures of ſeveral empty ſpaces cut in the ſides of a neighbouring mountain; ſome of them were ſupported with pillars formed out of the rock; ſome reſembled galleries; and ſome were not unlike amphitheatres. The gentleman had formed ſeveral ingenious hypotheſes relating to the uſe of theſe ſubterraneous apartments, and from thence made ſeveral obſervations on the magnificence and luxury of the antient Chateaudunois; but communicating his thoughts on this ſubject to one of the moſt learned perſons of the place, he was not a little ſurprized to hear, that theſe ſtupendous works were only ſo many quarries of free-ſtone wrought into different forms according as the veins of it directed the workmen.

On this mountain they ſhew a tomb of Virgil, though it is well known that this celebrated poet was buried on the other ſide of the city, towards Mount Pauſilipo, it being pleaſantly variegated with churches, convents, and vineyards that produce excellent wine.

On leaving the grotto of Pauſilipo, you turn off on the right hand into a very pleaſant road, which running between fine vineyards, leads to the lake of Agnano, which is almoſt a perfect circle about an Italian mile in circumference. At high water in ſome parts of it is ſeen a ſtrong ebullition. On approaching near it one is ſenſible of the motion of the water, which poſſibly proceeds from the aſcent of the effluvia. The tenches and eels in this lake have in winter a very good flavour; but in ſummer are not eatable, which is in ſome meaſure imputed to the great quantities of flax and hemp brought thither from all the neighbouring parts, and put in the water to be mellowed.

Near this lake ſtand the ſudatories of St. Germano, which conſiſt of ſeveral apartments built with ſtone, where the heat and ſulphureous vapours iſſuing from the earth ſoon cauſe a profuſe ſweat; in ſome places the wall is too hot for the hand to bear it, and yet the heat is ſupportable in the hotteſt room, eſpecially if you ſtoop towards the ground. The ſame obſervation is made on the baths of Tritoli. The patients are put into rooms of different degrees of heat, according to the nature of their complaint; and in the ſudatories of St. Germano, which are ſaid to be very efficacious in the gout, debilities, inward heats, &c. they never ſtay above a quarter of an hour at a time.

Within an hundred paces of theſe ſalubrious ſudatories, is a ſmall natural cavern known by the name of the Grotto del Cani, or the Dog's grotto, that animal being generally choſen to prove the ſurprizing effect of the vapour in this cavity. It is about twelve feet in length, five broad, and ſix high, and is famous for the poiſonous ſteams which riſe above its ſurface. The ſides of the grotto are marked with green as far as the vapour reaches. The common experiments are holding the dog with his noſe in the vapour, by which means he ſoon loſes all ſigns of life; but on his being carried into the open air, or thrown into a neighbouring lake, if he is not quite dead, he immediately recovers. A torch dipt into the vapour goes out in a moment, ſnuff and all; and within it a piſtol cannot take fire. Mr. Addiſon ſplit a reed and laid a train of gunpowder in the channel of it; then placing one end of the reed above the vapour, and the other at the bottom, found that the vapour could not intercept the train, nor hinder it from running to the very end; and, by repeating the experiment, ſo far diſſipated the vapour, that he could eaſily let off a piſtol in it. A viper being put in it bore the vapour nine minutes, and the ſecond time ten; but on its being brought out after the firſt trial, it took ſuch a vaſt quantity of air into its lungs, that it ſwelled nearly twice as big as before, and upon this extraordinary ſtock of air it perhaps lived a minute longer than before. Dr. Connor attributes the extinction of lights and the death of animals in this grotto to the great rarefaction of the air, cauſed by the heat and eruption of the ſteams. "The heat is, however, very "inconſiderable; but to ſatisfy myſelf, ſays Addiſon, I "placed a thin vial, well ſtopped with wax, within the "ſmoke of the vapour, which certainly would have "burſt in an air ſo rarefied as to kill a dog or quench "a torch; but nothing followed upon it. However, "to remove all farther doubt, I borrowed a weather-"glaſs, and fixed it in the grotto in ſuch a manner that "the ſtagnum was entirely covered with the vapour; "but after half an hour's ſtanding in it, I could not "perceive that the quick-ſilver ſunk. It is generally "ſuppoſed that this vapour is ſulphureous, but I could "ſee no reaſon for ſuch a ſuppoſition: upon my dipping "my hand into it, it left no ſmell upon it; and though "I put a whole bundle of lighted brimſtone matches "into the ſmoke, they all inſtantly went out, as if "immerſed in water. Whatever be the compoſition of "the vapour, let it have but one quality of being very "viſcous or gluey, and I believe it will mechanically "ſolve all theſe phænomena. Its unctuouſneſs will "render it heavy, and unfit for mounting, unleſs the "heat of the earth was much greater than it is, to ra-"rify and ſcatter it. It will be too thick and groſs to "keep the lungs in play for any time, ſo that animals "will die ſooner or later, in proportion as their blood "circulates ſlower or faſter. Fire is as ſoon extinguiſh-"ed in it as in water, from its wrapping itſelf in the "ſame manner about the flame, and hindering, by its "continuity, any quantity of air and nitre from ap-"proaching it; but as its ſparks are no leſs compact "than thoſe of liquors, they are not ſo tenacious as to "intercept the fire that has once caught a train of gun-"powder, on which account they may be quite broken "and diſperſed by repeating this experiment."

Solfatara is a little valley, which, together with the neighbouring mountains, is of a yellowiſh colour, with ſmoke iſſuing from ſeveral parts. Upon widening the holes from whence it proceeds, and digging to ſome depth, the

the heat ſoon becomes ſo exceſſive, that there is no approaching them. The ſtones that lie round ſuch openings are in a continual agitation, and upon throwing to the ground a handful of ſmall pieces of money, ſome are toſſed eight or ten feet high in the air. Even in ſome places the mere exhalations without ſmoke continually throw up the ſand, and keep it ſuſpended. Thus this valley may be deemed the miniature of Veſuvius; and though that mountain is upwards of eight miles diſtant, there appears to be a ſubterraneous communication between it and this valley, it being obſerved, the thicker the ſmoke is here, the more quiet Veſuvius is; and the more violent the eruptions of the latter, the leſs ſmoke is obſerved to proceed from Solfatara. The ground is almoſt every where hollow; for if a ſtone be thrown upon it, a long ſubterraneous echo enſues; but if a large ſtone be caſt into one of the holes that have been dug, the noiſe is almoſt as great as that of thunder. Here are prepared ſulphur, vitriol of a ſapphire colour, eſteemed better than that of Rome, and likewiſe alum to the greateſt perfection. The large leaden kettles uſed in this operation, are not heated by any fire of wood or coals, but only by the natural heat of holes in the ground over which they are placed. The people in general believe that theſe apertures are ſpiracles, if not of hell, at leaſt of purgatory; and it is pretended that ghoſts often appear in theſe parts, making dreadful lamentations; and theſe idle notions are very carefully promoted by the monks of a capuchin convent in the neighbourhood, to render the people more tractable.

The church of the above convent is built on the ſpot where St. Januarius is ſaid to have been beheaded; and there is always a great heat felt in the church, which is principally emitted from ſome holes near the high altar. A great quantity of ſalt-petre is to be ſeen on the walls of the veſtry. That the monks may be provided with cool and wholeſome water, their reſervoir ſtands upon a pillar incloſed with a wall, out of the reach of the warm and ſulphureous exhalations.

In the neighbourhood of this valley are a great number of ſubterranean paſſages that have a communication with each other, and ſeem to have been ſo many reſervoirs of water for the old city of Puteoli, which extended to this valley, as appears from an amphitheatre in this neighbourhood, that anciently ſtood in the midſt of that city.

Portici, a village near Veſuvius, and between ſeven and eight miles from Naples, where a royal palace was built by the preſent king of Spain, when king of the Two Sicilies, with a valuable muſeum of antiquities.

At a ſmall diſtance from Portici, anciently ſtood the city of Heraclia or Herculaneum, which in the reign of Nero was for the better part deſtroyed by an earthquake, and afterwards, in the firſt year of the reign of Titus, overwhelmed by a ſtream of the lava of Veſuvius. In the years 1689 and 1711, upon digging into theſe parts, ſomewhat of this unfortunate city was diſcovered; but ſince the year 1738, farther ſearches having been made at a conſiderable expence, ſtately buildings made their appearance, and from among the rubbiſh were taken a multiplicity of invaluable antiquities, as paintings, ſtatues, buſtoes, books, furniture, and various utenſils, and the ſearch is ſtill continued.

At the diſtance of eight miles from Naples is Puzzuolo, the ancient Puteoli, which in the time of the Romans was a conſiderable city, but at preſent is only a ſmall town on a bay, where the great quantity of beautiful ſtones and gems caſt up by the ſea, afford a ſufficient proof of its former ſplendor and magnificence. The greateſt part of theſe ſtones are of a blue or red caſt, and there are frequently found among them pieces of verde antico and porphyry, which ſeem to have been uſed in Moſaic work; likewiſe agate, cornelian, amethyſts, jaſper, onyx, beryl, and lapis-lazuli. The old city has been entirely deſtroyed by the ravages of war, inundations, and earthquakes.

The cathedral is built with large blocks of marble, and was converted from a pagan temple into a Chriſtian church, dedicated to St. Proculus and St. Januarius, whoſe ſtatues of marble ſtand in the middle of the church. At the entrance on the left hand is a beautiful altar of inlaid work, with a very coſtly tabernacle. On the high altar the beheading of St. Januarius is extremely well painted.

This city values itſelf on its having been honoured with the firſt Chriſtian community in Italy, St. Paul in his journey to Rome having found brethren there.

In the ſquare of Toledo is a fountain adorned with a fine ſtatue of St. Januarius, and an ancient Roman ſtatue of fine marble dug up without the city. The harbour of Puzzuolo is very commodious, and is formed by fourteen piers, or pilaſters, riſing above the ſurface of the water, which were anciently joined together by arches, and on the ſides of theſe pilaſters are vaſt ſtones with holes in them for faſtening ſhips, &c. Formerly there were twenty-five of theſe pilaſters; but ſome of them have been totally demoliſhed, and others do not riſe ſo high as the ſurface.

The ſea about this city abounds in fiſh, eſpecially of the teſtaceous kind. Here is a ſmall fiſh not quite an inch in length, called *cavallo marino*, or ſea-horſe, and is generally dried for keeping: the head very much reſembles that of a horſe. It is often bruiſed with vinegar and honey, and applied by way of plaſter to the part bitten by a mad dog, and the women eat them to procure a good breaſt of milk.

The Lucrine lake, famous among the Romans for its fine oyſters, and great abundance of other fiſh, lies near the ſhore, and at preſent is very ſmall, it having been for the moſt part dried up by a new mountain which roſe inſtantaneouſly in the night, between the nineteenth and twentieth of September 1538, during an earthquake which cauſed a terrible devaſtation in the neighbourhood. The ſubterraneous fire, after making a wide chaſm, ejected ſuch a quantity of ſtones, aſhes, ſulphur, and ſand, as within twenty-four hours formed this mountain; the perpendicular height of which is not leſs than four hundred rods, and the circumference three Italian miles.

The lake of Averno lies in a narrow valley, and is nearly of the ſame ſize as the lake of Agnano; but its water has not the quality aſcribed to it by Virgil, and other authors, who repreſent its poiſonous exhalations as almoſt inſtantaneouſly killing the birds that attempted to fly over it. At preſent fowls are obſerved not only to harbour about, but even to ſwim upon it; it is ſtocked with fiſh, and the land all round produces fine fruit and excellent wine: for Auguſtus having cauſed the woods about it to be cut down, the country became more healthy, and the lake was no longer formidable. This lake is in ſome places an hundred and eighty feet deep; and ſome old walls ſtanding near it, are ſuppoſed to be the remains of a temple of Apollo.

In the ſame valley is the entrance into the grotto of the ſibyl Cumana, which is hewn in the rock, and after one enters, ſtooping very low, is found to be about ten feet in breadth, twelve in height, and ſeveral hundred paces in length. The ſtory of a ſibyl's reſiding here is unqueſtionably fabulous.

The ſhore of the bay where anciently ſtood the city of Baia, was once covered with magnificent edifices, as appears from the ruins of the emperor Nero's palace at this place, and particularly by the remains of the warm baths at Tritoli, the reſervoirs of which are cut in a rock after a very ſurpriſing manner. The ſteam of the water is of ſuch intenſe heat, that no perſon can proceed beyond twenty paces into the paſſage leading to it. Theſe baths are at preſent uſed for the ſame diſorders as the ſudatory of St. Germano. At the foot of the hill are ſeveral other baths, and particularly one called St. George, in which the water is only luke-warm. On the ſhore are the remains of a palace of Julius Cæſar, and of the temples of Diana and Venus.

Caſerta is a ſmall town, the ſee of a biſhop, and the capital of a ſmall principality. Here is a royal palace which has been lately built, and is ſaid to have coſt an immenſe ſum.

Capua is now a ſmall town on the river Volturno, fifteen miles to the north eaſt of Naples; it has ſome inconſiderable fortifications, and ſeveral fine houſes and churches. The preſent town was built in the year 856, and in 869 was made the firſt archbiſhopric in the kingdom of Naples. The ancient celebrated city of Capua,

which

which vied in magnificence with Rome and Carthage, ſtood two Italian miles from the modern, and out of its ruins was built the market town of St. Maria, in the environs of which are ſtill ſeen the remains of palaces, temples, and other buildings, particularly a beautiful amphitheatre of free-ſtone. The neighbouring country produces great plenty of the fineſt fruits and wine.

There are ſeveral other ſmall cities and towns in the Terra di Lavora; but as they contain very little that is worthy the notice of the curious, we ſhall proceed to deſcribe ſome iſlands on the coaſt of that territory.

SECT. IV.

Of the Iſlands on the Coaſt of the Terra di Lavora, particularly Capræa, Niſida, Procita, and Iſchia.

IN deſcribing the iſlands on the coaſt of the country laſt deſcribed, we ſhall begin with Capri, the ancient Caprea, to which Auguſtus Cæſar often came for his health and recreation, and Tiberius made it a ſcene of the moſt infamous pleaſures. This iſland lies three Italian miles from that part of the main land that projects fartheſt into the ſea. It extends four miles in length from eaſt to weſt, and about one in breadth. The weſtern part is, for about two miles, a continued rock, vaſtly high and inacceſſible next the ſea; yet Ano Capri, the largeſt town of the iſland, is ſituated here; and in this part are ſeveral places covered with a very fruitful ſoil. The eaſtern end of the iſland alſo riſes up in precipices that are nearly as high, though not quite ſo long, as the weſtern. Between the rocky mountains at each end, is a ſlip of lower ground that runs acroſs the iſland, and is one of the pleaſanteſt ſpots imaginable; it is covered with myrtles, olives, almonds, oranges, figs, vineyards, and corn-fields, which look extremely freſh and beautiful, and afford a moſt delightful little landſcape, when viewed from the tops of the neighbouring mountains. Here is ſituated the town of Caprea, two or three convents, and the biſhop's palace. In the midſt of this fertile tract riſes a hill, which in the reign of Tiberius was probably covered with buildings, the remains of which are ſtill to be ſeen. But the moſt conſiderable ruins are thoſe at the very extremity of the eaſtern promontory, where there are ſtill ſome apartments that are very high and arched at the top: theſe appear to have been either bathing places, or reſervoirs of water. From this place there is a very noble proſpect; on one ſide of it the ſea extends farther than the eye can reach; juſt oppoſite is the green promontory of Sarentum, and on the other ſide the bay of Naples. What recommended this iſland to Tiberius was its wholeſome air, which is cool in ſummer and warm in winter, and its inacceſſible coaſts, which might be defended by a handful of men againſt a powerful army. The whole iſland was probably cut into ſeveral eaſy aſcents adorned with a variety of palaces, and planted with as great a number of groves and gardens as the ſituation of the place would allow; yet the works under ground were more extraordinary than thoſe on its ſurface; for the rocks are undermined with grottos, galleries, bagnios, and other ſubterraneous retirements, that ſuited the voluptuous life of the emperor.

It would appear ſurprizing that ſo few remains of thoſe many works of art are now to be ſeen, were we not informed, that after Tiberius's death, the Romans ſent thither an army of pioneers in order to deface the beauties of the iſland.

In ſailing round Caprea, ſays Mr. Addiſon, I was entertained with many rude proſpects of rocks and precipices, that in ſeveral places riſe half a mile in perpendicular height, and at the bottom are caves and grottos formed by the continual breaking of the waves upon them. In entering one, called by the inhabitants Grotto Oſcuro, after the light was a little worn off my eyes, I could diſtinctly ſee all the parts of it, by a glimmering reflection that played upon them from the ſurface of the water. The mouth is low and narrow, but after having entered pretty far in, the cavern opens on both ſides in an oval figure of a hundred yards from one extreme to the other. The roof is vaulted, and diſtils freſh water from every part, which fell as faſt as the firſt droppings of a ſhower. Thoſe of the inhabitants and Neapolitans who have heard of Tiberius's grottos, maintain that this was one of them; but many reaſons ſhew it to be natural, for beſides the little uſe of ſuch a dark cavern of ſalt waters, it has no marks of the chiſſel. The ſides are of a ſoft mouldering ſtone, and there are ſeen many of the like hollow ſpaces worn in the bottoms of the rocks, as they are more or leſs able to reſiſt the force of the water that beats againſt them.

The iſland of Niſida is ſeated at a ſmall diſtance from the main land, and is a kind of large garden laid out in beautiful ſlopes and terraces, adorned with a variety of plantations, riſing above each other. It is ſaid to bring its proprietor a yearly income of eight thouſand ducats. Towards the ſouth it has a ſmall harbour, called Porto Pavone, and on a neighbouring rock ſtands a lazaretto, where ſhips bound for Naples are obliged to perform quarantine.

The iſle of Procita, which belongs to the marquis of Vaſto, though not above ſix miles in circuit, has about four thouſand inhabitants, and produces abundance of good fruit and wine. A little town of the ſame name ſtands on its ſouth peak, and on the ſhore oppoſite the main land is a market town.

The iſland of Iſchia, which ſtands farther out into the ſea, at two miles diſtance from Procita, was by the ancient poets called Inarime. Theſe repreſent Typhœus as lying under it, on account of its fiery eruptions; but there have been none of theſe for near three hundred years: the laſt was very terrible, and deſtroyed a whole city; but at preſent there are ſcarce any marks of a ſubterraneous fire: there are indeed ſeveral cracks through which a ſmoke conſtantly iſſues; but it probably ariſes only from the warm ſprings that feed the many baths and dry ſudatories with which this iſland is plentifully ſtored; for about one of theſe breathing paſſages a number of myrtles flouriſh within the ſteam of the vapours, and have a continual moiſture hanging upon them. This iſland, including the projection of its ſmall promontories, is ten miles in circumference, and is very mountainous, but produces great ſtore of fruit, good wine, and game. The little town and caſtle of Iſchia, on the north end of the iſland, ſtands upon a very high rock, divided by the ſea from the iſland, but joined to it by a bridge. This iſland is the ſee of a biſhop.

SECT. V.

Of the other Provinces of Naples, called the Principato Citra and Ultra, or the Hither and Farther Principality, and the Baſilicata or Baſilicate; their Situation, Extent, and principal Cities.

THE province called the Principato Citra, or the Hither Principality, had its name from the following circumſtance: in the time of Arechis, duke of Benevento, this country, together with the Principato Ultra, formed only one principality; but Radalchis and Siconolf, having divided it between them, that part lying on this ſide the Appennine mountains received the name of the Hither Principality, and that on the other ſide the Farther Principality.

The Hither Principality is bounded on the north by the Farther Principality, and part of Campania Felix: on the ſouth and weſt by the Tuſcan ſea; and on the ſouth-eaſt by the Baſilicate; extending in its greateſt length from the north-weſt to the ſouth-eaſt about ſixty miles, and in its greateſt breadth from north to ſouth about thirty. The ſoil produces corn, wine, oil, and ſaffron, and they have a great deal of ſilk.

The principal towns in this province are the following.

Salerno, in Latin Salernum, the capital of the province, is ſituated near the ſea, in the fortieth degree forty-ſix minutes north latitude, and in the fifteenth degree twenty-ſix minutes longitude, and ſtands in a plain ſurrounded with fertile and delightful hills; it has a pretty good harbour, though it is little frequented, yet is fortified and defended by a caſtle. It became an archepiſcopal

copal ſee ſo early as the year 974. Its ſchool was formerly in great requeſt, on account of the Arabians or Saracens reſorting to it in great numbers, under the princes of the Longobardi, and from them the inhabitants learned philoſophy, and eſpecially the practice of phyſic, for which the Arabians were then highly celebrated. This ſchool was at laſt raiſed to an univerſity. Salerno has no buildings worth notice, except the cathedral, ſome convents, and the town-hall. The ſtreets, as in moſt ancient cities, are narrow and uneven; there are indeed but two principal ſtreets; theſe run parallel, and are croſſed on both ſides by all the others.

Scava, a ſmall but well inhabited city, is the ſee of a biſhop immediately ſubject to the pope, and is ſituated on the north-eaſt coaſt of the gulph of Salerno, about four miles from that city.

Amalfi is a ſmall city on the bay of Salerno, about twelve miles to the weſt of that city: it is an archiepiſcopal ſee, and is honoured with the title of a principality. It was built in the year 600, and was formerly a conſiderable and powerful place, it being the ſeat of a republic which maintained its freedom till the year 1075. It is pretended that the uſe of the mariner's compaſs was firſt diſcovered in this city by Flavius Blondus, about the year 1300.

There are a conſiderable number of ſmall towns in this diſtrict, moſt of which are the ſee of a biſhop, but are too inconſiderable to deſerve notice.

The Principato Ultra, or the Farther Principality, is ſeated in the middle of the Appennines, and is bounded on the north by the Moliſe and the Capitanata; on the eaſt by the Capitanata and the province of Barri; on the ſouth by the Hither Principality, and part of the Baſilicata; and on the weſt by the Terra di Lavora. Its extent from north to ſouth is about thirty miles, and from eaſt to weſt about forty-eight.

Benevento, the capital of the province, is a large and handſome city, and the ſee of an archbiſhop, ſituated in the forty-firſt degree fifteen minutes latitude, and in the fifteenth degree thirty minutes eaſt longitude; thirty-four miles to the north-eaſt of Naples, and fifteen from Capua. It has ſuffered greatly by earthquakes, particularly in 1688, when the archbiſhop, afterwards pope Benedict XIII. was dug out alive from among the ruins; but when he was advanced to the papal chair he rebuilt the city, which is at preſent ſubject to the pope, and is ſeated in a delightful and fertile valley near the confluence of the rivers Saboro and Calore.

There are in this principality a conſiderable number of ſmall cities, which have the honour of being the ſee of a biſhop, and many ſmall market towns.

The Baſilicata, or Baſilicate, is partly ſurrounded by the ridge of the Appennine mountains, which near Venoſa, in this province, is divided into two branches; both of which extend to the ſea. It formerly comprehended the largeſt and beſt part of the ancient Lucania, and though very mountainous, produces corn, wine, oil, ſaffron, cotton, honey, wax, and fruit. It is bounded on the north by the Capitanata; on the eaſt by the gulf of Tarento, and part of the territory of Barri; on the ſouth by Hither Calabria; and on the weſt by the two principalities juſt deſcribed.

The principal places in this province are,

Acerenza, the ancient Acherontia, a ſmall town with the title of a dukedom belonging to the houſe of Caraccioli, and was formerly an archiepiſcopal ſee, which was tranſlated to Matera, in the territory of Otranto. It is ſeated on the river Brandano, at the foot of the Appennines; but is a ſmall town poorly peopled, and daily running to decay, as are moſt of the cities in the Baſilicate.

SECT. VI.

Of the Provinces of Calabria, Citra and Ultra, or Hither and Farther Calabria: Their Situation, Produce, and principal Cities.

CALABRIA Citra, or Hither Calabria, was formerly called the Valley of Crate, and was eſteemed a part of Græcia Magna. Calabria in general received its name from the laſt Greek emperors, and is bounded on the north by the Baſilicate; on the eaſt by the gulph of Tarento, and the Ionian ſea; and on the ſouth and weſt by the Mediterranean.

This country produces abundance of fruit, corn, wine, oil, flax, hemp, ſugar, rice, ſaffron, honey, cotton, and ſilk.

As manna is chiefly produced in Calabria, it will be proper here to take notice of that excellent drug, which exſudes from a kind of aſh-tree very common in this country: for in the heat of ſummer it flows from it, in a white ſweetiſh juice or gum. There are three kinds of this Calabrian manna; one called *manna di corpo*, which is the fineſt, and is ſpontaneouſly diſcharged from the trunk and large branches of the tree, in the form of a cryſtalline liquor, which hardens into grains of different ſizes, and is carefully gathered the ſucceeding day. The ſecond ſpecies, called by the Italians *manna forzata*, or *forzatella*, is obtained by making inciſions in the bark in the month of Auguſt, after the natural diſcharges ceaſe. From theſe inciſions the manna flows copiouſly from noon till towards midnight, and is the next day expoſed to the ſun in order to be dried; but this ſort is leſs eſteemed, on account of its impurity and yellow colour. The third ſpecies, called *manna di Frondi*, iſſues ſpontaneouſly, like a kind of ſweat, from the leaves, on which the drops are indurated by the ſun into grains about the bigneſs of wheat; but this laſt ſort is not conſtantly gathered on account of the difficulty of ſeparating it from the leaves. That manna is reckoned beſt which is white and new, the dark coloured and brown being old and decayed.

This country is ſaid to have alſo mines of gold, ſilver, and iron; together with ſulphur, alabaſter, and rock cryſtal.

The principal cities of Hither Calabria are:

Conſenza, the antient Conſentia, the capital of the province, and the ſeat of the tribunals of juſtice. It is ſituated in the thirty-ninth degree twenty-five minutes latitude, and in the ſixteenth degree thirty-nine minutes longitude, on the river Grati, near the place where the Vaſento falls into it, and at the foot of a hill opening into a moſt delightful and ſpacious plain. It is the ſee of an archbiſhop, who has a conſiderable revenue, tho' he has only one ſuffragan, the biſhop of Martorano.

Roſſano, a ſmall city, with the title of a dukedom, a hundred and forty miles to the ſouth-eaſt of Naples, is ſituated on a hill almoſt entirely ſurrounded with high rocks, and upon a ſmall river that falls a little below it into the Salano: it is alſo the reſidence of an archbiſhop; but he has no biſhop under him.

Paola, or Paula, a well built little city at a ſmall diſtance from the ſea, ſtands thirty miles weſt by ſouth of Roſſano, and belongs to the houſe of Spinelli. The inhabitants boaſt of its being the birth-place of St. Francis, the founder of the order of Minims. Here are convents of Jeſuits, Auguſtines, Franciſcans, Capuchins, and Dominicans; but the convent of Minims of the order of St. Francis of Paola, is ſituated a mile from the city, and has a fine church. At a little diſtance from the town is the palace of prince Francavilla, ſituated between two hills. This province has alſo ſeveral other little cities and ſmall towns.

Calabria Ultra, or the Farther Calabria, antiently called Terra Jordana, is the fartheſt province of Italy, and is ſurrounded by the ſea, except where it joins to Hither Calabria. It has but few towns of any note; but the moſt conſiderable of them are the following:

Reggio, diſtinguiſhed by the appellation di Calabria, is a ſmall town ſituated oppoſite the iſland of Sicily. Tho' it is ſeated near the ſea, its port is only fit for very ſmall veſſels, which lie expoſed to all winds; and though it is an archiepiſcopal ſee, it is neither large, rich, nor well peopled. It has two convents, or colleges, one of Jeſuits and the other of Dominicans, and in both are taught humanity, philoſophy, and theology. The ſtreets are narrow, and the buildings mean and in the old taſte; but though the cathedral is ſmall, it is neat, and has a noble chapel, in which is a ſtately cupola, and is adorned with porphyry, different kinds of marble, ſculpture, and painting.

In this city is a ſingular kind of manufacture of what they call fiſh-wool. It is taken from a ſhell-fiſh that reſembles a large muſcle, but is hairy; and this hair, which is longer or ſhorter according to the largeneſs or age of the fiſh, being well ſoaked in freſh water and waſhed, is carded, ſpun, and knit into waiſtcoats, ſtockings, gloves, petticoats, caps, &c. and though lighter than cotton or ſilk, is ſo warm that the winds in the ſevereſt winters cannot penetrate through it. Such quantities of this work are fabricated here and in the neighbourhood, that it is bought very cheap; but when the traders carry it to the great cities of Italy, they raiſe the price to an extravagant degree.

Tropea, a city ſituated in a ſmall plain on the top of a high rock, that affords a fine proſpect of the fertile fields of Calabria, and on the other ſide of the ſea. It ſtands about thirty-nine miles to the north of Reggio, and the aſcent to the city is by a ſpacious ſtreet adorned with gardens before the houſes on each ſide, and being continued in the ſame line within the gates, divides the city into two parts. The reſt of the ſtreets are narrow, and the cathedral is a plain antient ſtructure; for the city has been an epiſcopal ſee under the archbiſhopric of Reggio, ever ſince the eighth century. At ſome diſtance without the city are ſeveral ſmall rocks, on which are built little forts.

SECT. VII.

Of that Diſtrict of Naples termed Apulia, including the three Provinces of the Capitanata, Barri, and Otranto: their Situation, Produce, and principal Cities; with a conciſe Account of the Iſlands ſituated on the Coaſt, and of the Provinces of Hither and Farther Abruzzo.

APUGLIA, or Apulia, includes the three territories of the Capitanata, Barri, and Otranto; but it is only in a more extended ſenſe that the firſt can be ſaid to belong to it. It is ſituated between the Appennine mountains, which bound it to the ſouth, and the Adriatic ſea, its northern boundary.

Apulia, eſpecially the two firſt territories included in it, being a level country, with few or no hills, is in ſuch want of ſprings and rivers, that the inhabitants have no other water for drinking than the rain ſaved in ciſterns, either in their houſes, or built at the public expence in the open market-places. The cattle drink alſo rain-water out of reſervoirs formed by nature among the rocks. The dew in this hot country, from the proximity of the ſea, is very copious, and ſerves to refreſh the corn-lands and vineyards inſtead of rain: but, during the exceſſive heats, the garden-grounds are watered day and night from the wells, which yield only a brackiſh fetid water. However, in the parts from Manfredonia, as far as Mount Gargano, are ſprings of fine ſweet water. The coaſt between the town of Manfredonia and Barletta is one continued heap of ſand, which has probably been for ſome centuries thrown up by the ſea, where it forms a kind of bay. In ſome places the ſand lies ſeveral fathoms high, and has nothing growing upon it but myrtle, ſhrubs, and herbs, with deep roots that ſhoot down towards the water: yet this place, though naturally ſo wild and deſart, produces ſeveral advantages. In the adjacent ſea, which is ſhallow, the fiſhermen, during the months of April and May, make conſiderable profit by catching a kind of cuttle-fiſh. For this purpoſe the fiſhermen throw into the ſea ſome bundles of myrtle, and the fiſh coming to them to ſpawn, are caught in nets.

The only fuel the fiſhermen have to boil their fiſh with is the dried dung of buffaloes, which they gather along the coaſt, no inhabited place being near at hand where they can provide themſelves with neceſſaries. To this coaſt herds of buffaloes reſort, and during the heat of the day lie in the water, the waves at flood beating over them. In this ſandy ſpot, particularly towards Barletta, are planted gardens and vineyards; the beds of the gardens are here covered with branches of myrtles, that the winds may not diſorder them by tearing up the ſand, and the plants receive their chief nouriſhment from the ſea-water imbibed by their roots; for the ſtocks of their vines are ſet ſo deep in the ſands, that the ſea penetrates to them; and the like is obſerved with reſpect to eſculent plants, as melons, pompions, and cucumbers. Hence the wine produced here has a ſaltiſh taſte, but the water-melons are incomparable, and are ſent even to Naples, being reputed a moſt delightful refreſhment in the hot ſummer months. On the bay of Tarentum are likewiſe broad, waſte, and uninhabited tracts, conſiſting entirely of ſand-hills, which only produce junipers with red berries, and a few other ſhrubs and plants.

The other part of the country is much more fertile, Apulia producing great quantities of corn; but the air being exceſſively hot, it is in ſome years all burnt up. The Jeſuits are the proprietors of half this province, and are ſaid to treat their tenants with the ſame rigour as the Neapolitan lords frequently exerciſe towards their farmers; ſo that Burnet ſays, they ſometimes die of hunger even in the moſt plentiful years, from the cruel cuſtom of exporting their corn.

We ſhall now give an account of the three provinces included under the name of Apulia.

The country of Otranto, which was a part of the antient Calabria, is bounded on the north by the territory of Barri, and by the gulph of Venice; on the eaſt by the ſame gulph; and on the ſouth and weſt by a great bay, which is between that province and the Baſilicata. Within land it is very mountainous, dry, ſandy, and in ſome parts barren; but in moſt places abounds in wine, olives, figs, and other fruit. But the country is frequently infeſted with locuſts, which at certain ſeaſons come in ſuch ſwarms, as threaten the deſtruction of all the produce of the earth; but Providence has remedied this evil by ſending at the ſame time birds which devour them. This province is alſo infeſted with tarantulas, eſpecially in the diſtrict of Tarento. It is likwiſe frequently viſited by Algerine pirates, who not only ravage the country, but carry all the people that fall into their hands into ſlavery. To prevent this they have built a great number of forts all along the coaſt, in which are garriſons.

Notwithſtanding theſe diſadvantages, the province of Otranto has a conſiderable number of cities and towns, four of which are archiepiſcopal; theſe are Otranto, Tarento, Brindiſi, and Matera; and ten epiſcopal.

Otranto, the capital of the province, is ſituated in the fortieth degree five minutes north latitude, and in the nineteenth degree twelve minutes eaſt longitude, on the mouth of the Adriatic, on the eaſtern coaſt of Italy. It is ſeated on a rocky iſland, joined by a bridge to another iſland, which alſo by a bridge has a communication with the continent. It has a good harbour and a conſiderable trade, and is defended by walls, baſtions, and a citadel.

Tarento, the antient Tarentum, is a ſmall city ſeated on a peninſula that projects into a bay of the ſame name, and had once a fine harbour; but it is now ſo ſhallow as to admit only fiſhing-boats. It has a pretty ſtrong fort, and the bay is famous for freſh water ſprings at the bottom. It has ſtill ſeveral monuments of its antient grandeur, as the ruins of a ſtately theatre and other public buildings; but though it was once the head of a republic, which even made war on that of Rome, it is now ſmall and chiefly inhabited by fiſhermen. This city gave name to the ſpiders called tarantulas, already deſcribed.

Brindiſi, the antient Brunduſium, is ſituated on the Adriatic coaſt, thirty-two miles to the eaſt of Tarento, and had once a convenient harbour, which has been ſpoiled by the Phoenicians; and ſince it has had this loſs it has much declined, and is now nothing near ſo large as it was formerly.

Gallipoli is ſeated on a high and craggy rock in the gulph of Tarento, and though ſmall is very ſtrong and well inhabited. It is ſurrounded by the ſea, having a communication with the continent by a bridge defended by a good fort, and has a pretty good trade.

Matera is an inland city on the weſtern ſide of the province, and is ſeated in a valley by the river Canapro, ninety-five miles to the north-weſt of Otranto. It is pretty large, and is computed to contain about three thouſand families.

The

The country of Barri, or Bari, is bounded on the north and eaſt by the Adriatic ſea; on the weſt by the Capitanata, from which it is divided by the river Offanta; and on the ſouth by the Baſilicate. It is eſteemed one of the moſt fertile and beſt cultivated provinces in the kingdom of Naples, eſpecially towards the Adriatic ſea, along which it has its greateſt extent. Its principal cities are the following:

Barri, or Bari, the capital of the country, ſtands on the Adriatic ſea, in the fortieth degree forty minutes north latitude, and in the ſeventeenth degree forty minutes eaſt longitude, and is the ſee of an archbiſhop. It is pretty large and well inhabited, and had formerly a good haven, till it was ſpoiled by the Venetians.

Trani, in Latin Tranium, is ſeated in a fruitful plain on the coaſt of the Adriatic, about twenty miles to the weſt of Barri. The inhabitants ſay it was built by Trajan, and from him was antiently called Trajanum. It has been erected into an archbiſhopric ever ſince the ninth or tenth century. The city is handſome, well built, and is defended by a caſtle; but is ſmall, though the courts of judicature for this province are held there.

The Capitanata, or Capitanate, the antient Apulia Daunia, is bounded on the north and eaſt by the Adriatic; on the north-weſt by the Moliſe; on the ſouth by the Farther Principate, the Baſilicate, and Barri. Its ſoil is naturally dry and ſandy, the graſs ſhort, but ſweet, and feeds a great number of cattle, which are driven thither from the Abruzzo.

There are hardly any woods in this country; but there are ſeveral lakes and ſome conſiderable rivers. The principal of the latter are the Offanta, Carapella, Cervaro, Candelare, Fortore, and the Tiferno. The only mountain of note in this province is called Gargano, or Monte Sant Angelo, and extends itſelf through a great part of the province. On the top of it is a convent, where particular devotion is paid to Michael the archangel. On the ſame mountain is ſituated a town called Monte Sant Angelo, which is the ſee of a biſhop.

Manfredonia, the capital of the province, was built out of the ruins of the antient Sipontum, and is ſituated at the foot of Monte St. Angelo, upon which it has a caſtle, and before it a port on the Adriatic. It had its name from Manfred, natural ſon to the emperor Frederic II. who rebuilt it in the year 1256; but has been in a very low condition ever ſince the year 1620, when it was ſurprized and taken by the Turks, who carried off all its cannon, bells, &c. and ſet it on fire. The city is ſmall and thinly inhabited, and the haven being choaked up, is only fit for ſmall veſſels. It is, however, an archiepiſcopal ſee.

Moſt of the other towns of this province are very inconſiderable, we ſhall therefore leave them to take notice of ſome iſlands, ſituated off the coaſt of this province in the Adriatic ſea. Theſe are the Tremiti, which conſiſts of St. Nicolo, or Tremiti, St. Domino, and la Capraria; the principal of which is St. Nicolo, which is inhabited by a ſet of monks, who have ſurrounded it with high walls flanked with towers, to which are added four ſtrong baſtions. Near the ſhore is likewiſe built a ſmall arſenal for the rigging of ſhips. The monaſtery, which is a ſpacious and magnificent edifice, has a large ciſtern in the center of the cloiſter, for the uſe of the monks, beſides ten or a dozen more for that of the other inhabitants. The church, which has a high roof, and three ſtately iſles, is a hundred and ſeventy feet long, and ſeventy broad. The choir and pavement are very beautiful, as is alſo a chapel enriched with offerings of immenſe value, in which they pretend to have a miraculous image of the Virgin, and a miraculous crucifix. The iſland is of an oblong irregular figure, and in the middle almoſt divided by a narrow iſthmus.

St. Domino is the next in bigneſs; it is about ten miles diſtant, and is very rocky and craggy, as are the other two iſlands, which may be rather termed huge rocks, and are not worth deſcribing.

Abrûzzo Ultra, or Abruzzo beyond the river Peſcara, is bounded on the north-eaſt by the Adriatic ſea; on the ſouth-eaſt by the Hither Abruzzo; on the ſouth-weſt by Sabina, and the Campania of Rome; and on the north-weſt by the marquiſate of Ancona. This country is cold and mountainous, it being croſſed by the Appennines; but is fertile, and produces corn, fruit, and ſaffron. It is healthy, pleaſant, and well inhabited; and the people, who are tolerably induſtrious, have ſome manufactures.

Aquila, the capital of the province, is ſituated on a little hill, at the foot of which runs the river Alterno, and has an antient caſtle. It was once a handſome city; but, on the ſecond of February, 1703, was almoſt deſtroyed by a dreadful earthquake. The firſt ſhock was ſo terrible, that the inhabitants abandoned the city; but returning to hear veſpers, it being Candlemas-day, the ſhock returned, and two thouſand four hundred people periſhed, eight hundred were deſtroyed in one ſingle church, and the greateſt part of the city, with its walls, were thrown down.

The other towns in this province are very inconſiderable.

Abruzzo Citra, ſo called from its being on this ſide the river Peſcara, is bounded on the north-eaſt by the Adriatic; on the ſouth and ſouth-eaſt by the territory of Moliſe; and on the ſouth-weſt by that of Lavora. It has not only the Appennines running through it, but ſome other conſiderable mountains, particularly the Majella and Cavallo, the former of which is covered with perpetual ſnow.

The country produces plenty of corn, rice, fruit, and ſaffron; here are alſo many large woods, which ſhelter a great number of wolves, bears, and other wild creatures, which render it neceſſary to go always in troops and well armed.

Chieti, the antient Theate, and the capital of the province, is ſituated in the forty-ſecond degree thirty two minutes north latitude, and in the fourteenth degree forty-eight minutes eaſt longitude, and ſtands on a hill near the river Peſcara, on the confines of the Farther Abruzzo. It is a pretty large, well built, and populous city, the ſee of an archbiſhop, who has only one ſuffragan, namely, the biſhop of Ortona; and here the courts of judicature for the province are held. This city gave name to the order of Theatines, which was inſtituted in 1524 by John Peter Caraffa, who, before his exaltation to the pontificate by the name of Paul IV. had been archbiſhop of this city.

Lanciano, the antient Anxanum, is ſituated ſeventeen miles to the eaſt of Chieti, and is the ſee of an archbiſhop, but without ſuffragans. A little river, to which it gives name, diſcharges itſelf into the Adriatic, and forms a kind of harbour. The city is well inhabited, and famous for its fairs, to which the merchants repair from both ſides of the Adriatic.

Sulmona, the antient Sulmo, is ſituated twenty-two miles to the ſouth-weſt of Chieti, and ſtands in a plain ſurrounded by mountains, between two rivulets that deſcend from the Appennines, beſides the Sora, which runs by it. It is pretty well built, and full of inhabitants. This city has the title of a principality belonging to the houſe of Borgheſe, and is the ſee of a biſhop. It is famous in hiſtory for being the birth-place of Ovid.

SECT. VIII.

Of the Iſland of SICILY.

Its Names, a conciſe Deſcription of the Streight of Meſſina, and of Scylla and Charybdis. The Situation and Extent of the Iſland; its Climate, Rivers, and Produce. A Deſcription of Mount Ætna, its Eruptions, and the dreadful Earthquakes that have laid waſte the Iſland. The Number of the Nobility, and the Government and Arms of the Iſland.

SICILY is by far the moſt conſiderable iſland in the Mediterranean, both with reſpect to its ſize and fertility. It was anciently called Trinacria and Triquetra, from its triangular form, and Sicania, from the Sicanii, its inhabitants; but the Siculi afterwards making themſelves maſters of the greateſt part of the iſland, gave it the name of Sicilia. In ſucceeding ages, ſome Grecian colonies ſettling here, ſpread over a great part of the country, and their language became the vernacular dialect, till the iſland at laſt fell under the dominion of the Romans. As to its modern hiſtory, it has been touched

touched upon in our account of the kingdom of Naples.

Both the ancients and moderns have maintained that Sicily was originally joined to the continent of Italy, but gradually ſeparated from it by the encroachments of the ſea and the ſhock of earthquakes, ſo as to become a perfect iſland.

The ſtreight between Sicily and Calabria, which is at moſt but three Italian miles broad, is called the Faro, or Pharo, of Meſſina, from its faro, or light-houſe, on the narroweſt part, and Meſſina, its capital, which is ſituated near it. Oppoſite the cape of Faro, on which the light-houſe ſtands, is the rocky promontory of Sciglio, the ancient Scylla, where the ebb and flood in this ſtreight are very irregular and ſtrong, and, where it is narroweſt, extremely impetuous; ſo that there is no ſtemming the tides, even in a ſtrong ſoutherly wind, on which account it is uſual to have the veſſel hauled up by oxen along the coaſt of Calabria.

The famous whirlpool Charybdis, in this ſtreight, lies on the outſide of the harbour of Meſſina, and was no leſs terrible than Scylla to the ancients. It is probable that this dangerous vortex is occaſioned by the currents of the ſea, which here run counter. The misfortunes for which this place was formerly rendered dreadful, are now ſeldom heard of; and in a calm, eſpecially when the ſouth wind does not blow, the place is ſo ſmooth that a ſmall boat may ſafely paſs over it.

Sicily extends from the thirty-ſixth degree thirty minutes to the thirty-eighth degree twenty minutes north latitude, and from the twelfth degree twenty minutes to the ſixteenth degree twenty-five minutes eaſt longitude. We have already obſerved that it is of a triangular form, and its utmoſt length from eaſt to weſt, that is from Cape Faro to that of Boco, is computed at ſomewhat more than two hundred and ten miles; its breadth from north to ſouth, from Cape Faro to that of Paſſaro, is a hundred and fifty miles, and its whole circuit about ſix hundred.

The climate of this iſland is ſo hot, that even in the beginning of January the ſhade is refreſhing, and chilling winds are only felt a few days in March, and then a ſmall fire is ſufficient to baniſh the cold. The only appearance of winter is found towards the ſummit of mount Ætna, where ſnow falls, and is preſerved by the inhabitants in the following manner. They dig pits in the open air, and in them lay the ſnow, with ſtraw or ſtubble, and ſalt, *ſtratum ſuper ſtratum*, and then cover the place with earth. In ſummer, when ſnow is wanted to cool their liquors, one of theſe pits is opened, and the quantity of ſnow required being taken out, the hole is immediately cloſed.

In this iſland are found gems and valuable ſtones, as agate, jaſper, porphyry, lapis-lazuli, marble, and alabaſter; and it is equally rich in metals and minerals, as gold, ſilver, and copper, tin, lead, iron, and alum: it has alſo a variety of hot baths of very ſalubrious qualities, beſides other medicinal waters.

The principal rivers of this country are Cantera, formerly the Taurominius; the Jerretta, the ancient Symethus; the Salſo, the Belicis, and the Termini.

Though the iſland appears as one entire rock, the ſoil is exceeding fertile; it was anciently ſtiled the granary of Rome, and at preſent has not only ſufficient plenty of corn for home conſumption, but exports great quantities to the kingdom of Naples, which would otherwiſe be diſtreſſed. It is however far from being ſo well cultivated as formerly, ſeveral tracts lying waſte, eſpecially in the weſtern part. Its wine is excellent, as are alſo moſt kinds of fruit, in which it abounds, together with oil, ſugar, honey, ſaffron, and ſalt; the ſugar is chiefly produced in the neighbourhood of mount Ætna.

The cattle are very fine, and all ſorts of game are in conſiderable plenty. All the coaſt affords good fiſheries, particularly for tunnies; and at Trapani is a conſiderable coral fiſhery. Great profits are made of ſilk, the cultivation of which was firſt introduced in the year 1130, by earl Roger, who returning from an expedition into the Holy Land, brought back with him ſome perſons well verſed in the management of ſilk; hence it ſoon ſpread into Naples, the Milaneſe, Spain, and the French provinces bordering on Italy. In ſhort, whatever ſeems requiſite in point of neceſſity, delight, or ornament, this country affords in ſuch profuſion, that the inhabitants, notwithſtanding the exactions with which they have always been burthened by their ſovereigns and his delegates, live at their eaſe, and grow rich.

As Ætna is the higheſt mountain in Sicily, it is the firſt diſcovered at a diſtance by ſailors, to whom it preſents the view of a prodigious chimney, or a very large rugged pillar. The inhabitants call it Monte Gibello, or Mongibello, that is, Mount of mounts. The aſcent to it from Catanea is thirty thouſand paces high; but on the ſide near Rondazzo, only twenty thouſand. It ſtands ſeparate from all other mountains; its figure is circular, and it terminates in a cone: its circumference at bottom is no leſs than a hundred thouſand paces. The lower parts of it are very fruitful in corn and ſugar-canes; the middle abounds with woods, olive-trees, and vines; and the upper part is, almoſt the whole year, covered with ſnow; yet within it is a continual fire, which, by its frequent and violent eruptions, has always rendered it very famous. Many of theſe dreadful eruptions are recorded in hiſtory; but we ſhall go no farther back than the year 1669, of which we find an account in the Philoſophical Tranſactions. It then broke out on the eleventh of March, two hours before night, on the ſouth-eaſt ſide of the mountain, about twenty miles from the old mouth, and ten from the city of Catanea. The noiſe of the eruption was heard an hundred miles, to which diſtance the aſhes were alſo carried. The matter thrown out was, like that of Veſuvius, a ſtream of metals and minerals, rendered liquid by the fierceneſs of the fire, which boiled up at its mouth, till it flowed over, and having run a little way, the extremity began to cruſt, and turning into large porous ſtones, reſembling large cakes of burning ſea-coal, came rolling and tumbling one over another, bearing down any common building by their weight, and burning whatever was combuſtible. The progreſs of the inundation was at firſt, for ſeveral days, at the rate of three miles in twenty-four hours; but afterwards it ſcarce advanced a furlong in a day, and thus continued for fifteen or twenty days together, running into the ſea cloſe by the walls of Catanea. At length it made its way over the walls into the city; but there did no conſiderable damage, except to a convent of Benedictines. In its courſe it overwhelmed fourteen towns and villages, containing three or four thouſand inhabitants; and it is remarkable, that during the whole time of this eruption, which laſted fifty-four days, neither ſun nor ſtars appeared.

But though Catanea then eſcaped the threatened deſtruction, it was almoſt totally ruined in 1693, by one of the moſt terrible earthquakes mentioned in hiſtory. It was not only felt all over Sicily, but at Naples and Malta; and the ſhock was ſo violent, that people could not ſtand upon their legs, and thoſe who lay upon the ground were toſſed from ſide to ſide, as if upon the rolling billows. The earth opened in ſeveral places, throwing up large quantities of water; and great numbers periſhed in their houſes by the fall of rocks that were looſened and rent from the mountains. The ſea was violently agitated, and roared dreadfully; mount Ætna threw up vaſt ſpires of flame, and the ſhocks were attended with a noiſe that exceeded the loudeſt claps of thunder.

Fifteen or ſixteen towns, and eighteen manors, with the inhabitants and cattle, were entirely ſwallowed up, ſeveral other towns and villages were laid in ruins, and ninety-three thouſand people loſt their lives, of whom eighteen thouſand were inhabitants of Catanea, very few eſcaping the general and ſudden deſtruction of that city. The number of churches and convents involved in this dreadful calamity was no leſs than nine hundred and ſeventy-two. Since that time there have been two remarkable eruptions of Mount Ætna, one in 1753, and the other in 1755, and at the laſt time it raged with exceſſive fury.

Though the country has not for a long time been ſufficiently inhabited, yet its nobility are very numerous, they being computed to amount to ſixty dukes, fifty-ſix marquiſſes, above an hundred earls, and a great number

of barons. The number of churches, convents, and religious foundations is alſo exceeding great; the buildings are handſome, and the revenues conſiderable.

Here is a ſovereign eccleſiaſtical tribunal, which judges in all diſputes and affairs in which the clergy are concerned. It was originally inſtituted by the papal court, and the preſident, who is called the judge of the kingdom of Sicily, claims the reſpect uſually paid to a legate à latere. The court of Rome has endeavoured to circumſcribe the power of this tribunal; but this the king has always ſtrenuouſly oppoſed, and forbid the clergy to appeal to Rome. Pope Urban II. having granted earl Roger and his ſucceſſors the title of his native legates in Sicily, the king conſiders himſelf as an independent ſovereign, not only in temporal, but in ſpiritual affairs. The kingdom is governed by a viceroy. Its arms are a ſaltire with ſix pales gules, and for ſupporters a crowned eagle ſable. The king's revenues ariſing from this fruitful iſland are very conſiderable.

SECT. IX.

Of the three Diviſions of Sicily, and the principal Places in each; with a more particular Deſcription of the Cities of Meſſina and Palermo.

THE kingdom of Sicily is divided into three provinces, which are called valleys. The firſt is Val di Demino, or Demona; the ſecond Val di Noto; and the third Val di Mazara.

Val di Demino, which is the neareſt to Italy, extends from Cape Faro to the river Termini. The principal places in this province are the following:

Meſſina, antiently Zancle, and afterwards Meſſana, is a pretty large and well built city, ſituated in the thirty-eighth degree eleven minutes north latitude, and in the ſixteenth degree fourteen minutes eaſt longitude, ſtanding partly in a plain near the ſea, and partly on ſome riſing grounds. Beſides an irregular fortification, it has a citadel, of five large and regular baſtions, and the neighbouring eminences, namely Caſtel Gonjaga, Caſtel Reale, Porta Reale, Conſagra, Mattagrifone, and Caſtel Lacio, are all defended by forts. The private houſes are handſome and well built, and the public edifices magnificent, eſpecially the palaces of the viceroy and archbiſhop. Its churches and convents are numerous, and generally elegant ſtructures, with conſiderable revenues, and the arſenal is well ſtored with all kinds of arms and ammunition.

The cathedral is a large ſpacious ſtructure, but very antient. It is richly ornamented on the inſide, particularly the high altar, by the ſide of which is the viceroy's throne, which is likewiſe very rich, and elevated on an aſcent of ten or twelve broad ſteps. It has alſo ſeveral magnificent chapels, particularly one dedicated to the Virgin Mary, enriched with every thing that can be termed magnificent and coſtly, and is much reſorted to by the inhabitants, who pretend that the Virgin ſent them a letter, which is here preſerved as a choice relic, and once a year carried about in proceſſion with great pomp. The Jeſuits have a college and three other houſes. The archbiſhop's palace is large and well built. The general hoſpital, called the Loggia, is one of the moſt beautiful public buildings in the city; beſides which there is a large and rich hoſpital for old people, foundlings, lunatics, the lame, blind, &c. which are here well kept in vaſt numbers; and near it is a ſpacious well built lombard-houſe, under good regulations.

The city extends itſelf on a riſing ground along the ſhore with ſome declivity. The chief ſtreets are large, one running parallel with the port, and Meſſina is well furniſhed with water by ſubterraneous aqueducts, and with all kinds of proviſions.

The port is of an oval form, and ſo deep that ſhips of eighty guns may come near enough to the quay, for people to go in and out by the help of a plank. Towards the Faro, or light-houſe, it is incloſed by a crooked neck of land, on the broadeſt part of which to the eaſt ſtands the citadel, and towards its weſt end a fort called St. Salvadore, which defends the narrow entrance to the harbour. Near this neck of land is the lazaretto, built on a rock projecting out of the ſea.

The trade of this city, though greatly declined, is ſtill conſiderable, eſpecially ſince the year 1728, when the harbour was declared a free port. An annual fair is held here in Auguſt, at which great quantities of foreign goods are expoſed to ſale. This city claims the prerogative of being ſtiled the capital of the kingdom; but Palermo diſputes this point of precedency.

Catanea, the antient Catana, ſtands by the ſea, near the foot of mount Ætna, and has been frequently almoſt deſtroyed by the eruptions of that mountain and by earthquakes. It is pleaſantly ſituated upon the river Indicello, eighty-four miles to the weſt of Meſſina, and was antiently one of the richeſt and moſt powerful cities in Sicily; and particularly famous for a magnificent temple dedicated to Ceres. The cathedral was a noble building, ſupported by columns of fine black marble; but in the dreadful earthquake before mentioned in 1693, eleven hundred people who had ſheltered themſelves in this ſtructure, where the relics of St. Agatha their great patroneſs were kept, were buried under its ruins, and the city in a manner deſtroyed: yet the fertility of the adjacent country has induced the people to return by degrees, who have ſince rebuilt a part of it. It is a biſhop's ſee, under the archbiſhop of Mont Real.

There are a conſiderable number of ſmall towns in this diſtrict.

Val di Noto extends from the river Jarreta to the ſouth coaſt of the iſland, and alſo reaches to the river Salſo. It contains ſeveral cities, and above forty towns. The principal places in this diſtrict are the following:

At the diſtance of ſeventy-two miles to the ſouth-by-weſt of Meſſina, is Syracuſe, antiently the capital of all Sicily, and a very flouriſhing republic, and was twenty-two miles in compaſs; but at preſent is extremely reduced by a ſeries of calamities, eſpecially by the earthquake in 1693; yet its inhabitants are now ſaid to amount to fourteen thouſand, and it ſtill continues one of the moſt conſiderable cities in the iſland, on account of its advantageous ſituation, the commodiouſneſs of its port, and the height and ſtrength of its walls, which are waſhed on every ſide by the ſea; for it now contains only one of the five parts into which it was antiently divided, and extends no farther than the diviſion formerly called the Inſula.

At the entrance of the port is a ſtrong but regular caſtle, which has a communication with the city by a wooden bridge. In this caſtle is the famous ſpring called by the antients the fountain of Arethuſa, which ſupplies it with plenty of water. The port is of a roundiſh figure, and though not every where of equal depth, has room ſufficient to receive the largeſt veſſels, or even a conſiderable fleet; its only fault is its not having ſafe anchoring ground, eſpecially when the wind blows hard from the eaſt and north-eaſt.

Caſtro Giovanni, the antient Enna, a city much celebrated by the poets, who repreſent Proſerpine as being carried off from the fields in its neighbourhood. It is ſituated near the heart of Sicily, forty-five miles to the ſouth-weſt of Catanea, upon a hill to the north-weſt of the lake of Pergus, and has a ſpacious plain adorned with flowers and rivulets, near which is a cavern, whence Pluto is ſaid to have come with his car, and to have carried off that goddeſs. This city is now ſmall, but well built, and defended by an old caſtle.

The province termed Val di Mazara lies on the weſtern ſide of the iſland, having Val di Demino on the eaſt, from which it is divided by the Fiume Gronde, or Great river, and the Val di Noto on the eaſt-ſouth-eaſt, from which it is parted by the river Saſo, and is on the other ſides encompaſſed by the ſea. It is very mountainous, but fertile and well watered, it having near a dozen conſiderable rivers, and many leſſer ones. The principal towns in this province are,

Palermo, the antient Panermus, the moſt conſiderable city in the province, and even the capital of the iſland. It is ſituated at the bottom of a gulph on the north coaſt, in a delightful and extenſive plain terminated by high and fertile hills, which almoſt ſurround it on the land ſide, in the thirty-eighth degree ten minutes latitude, and the

thirteenth degree forty-two minutes longitude. It has been already mentioned in treating of Meſſina, that Palermo diſputes with that city the honour of being the capital of the iſland; and indeed it has the houſes of a great number of the nobility and gentry, ſeveral fine public buildings, and the ſtreets are ſtraight, large, and regular, particularly a beautiful and ſpacious one called Caſſaro, that extends through the whole city, and has a viceroy's palace at one end, and the ſea-ſhore on the other, to which it deſcends by a gentle declivity.

The viceroy's palace is not only a magnificent ſtructure, adorned with fine ſculptures, paintings, and gardens, but alſo ſerves inſtead of a caſtle, it commanding the city by its ſituation, and being flanked by high towers and other works. The piazza before it is noble, and adorned with the ſtatue of Philip IV. of Spain, ſtanding on a pedeſtal enriched with trophies in baſſo relievo, and with the ſtatues of the four cardinal virtues on the four ſides.

On one ſide of the palace is the great hoſpital of the Holy Ghoſt, and on the other the cathedral, an antient ſtructure, with four large towers, and richly adorned within. This city is ſaid to contain upwards of a hundred and twenty thouſand inhabitants; it is an archiepiſcopal ſee, has an univerſity, fifty-two monaſteries, and twenty-two nunneries. It has ſeveral fine churches, particularly that of St. Matthew, commonly called de l'Anima, which is much admired for its architecture, beautiful marble, paintings, and ſtately portico. Among the other public buildings is the court of judicature, which is equally eſteemed for its largeneſs, the magnificence of its architecture, its paintings, and other ornaments. Before it is a ſuperb fountain, which is eſteemed the moſt beautiful in all Italy, both from the number and elegance of the baſons, which ſtand one over another, and from the great variety of figures which throw water into them. The city contains many other fine fountains and magnificent buildings, particularly the city gate, which is ſo wide and lofty that it reſembles a magnificent triumphal arch, adorned with a great number of marble figures and other ornaments: it ſtands at one end of the long and noble ſtreet of Caſſaro, as the viceroy's palace does at the other; ſo that from the palace through the whole length of the ſtreet you have a proſpect of the ſea, which through this ſtately gate reſembles a beautiful canal of a ſtupendous extent.

The quay, which runs the whole length of the city, from which it is divided by a ſtrong wall, is wide, beautiful, commodious, and one of the fineſt walks and places of reſort about the city. The greateſt part of the quay is planted with trees; ſo that one may walk under them ſheltered from the ſun and rain, with the port, the mole, the forts, and the open ſea full in view. The port is very convenient for ſhipping; the long mole extends about two hundred fathoms towards the ſouth, and about four hundred towards the weſt, in the form of a rectangle: at the end of it are two batteries of cannon, and a high tower or light-houſe. In the middle of the mole is a ſmall fort, and at the other end, next the land ſide, is a fortreſs, with four baſtions; with the arſenal for the gallies, the magazines, and other ſtore-houſes. The port is ſafe and commodious every where, except on the ſouth-weſt ſide, which is full of rocks, that riſe no higher than the ſurface of the water, on which account ſhips enter it, near the head of the mole juſt oppoſite the city, where they have from eighteen to twenty-two fathoms water.

Trapani, the antient Drepanum, ſtands on a peninſula on the weſt coaſt of the iſland of Sicily, about forty miles to the ſouth-weſt of Palermo, and is ſtill famous for its trade; for the number of nobles and gentry who live in the city and its neighbourhood; for the many trading veſſels that ſail to and from it; for its ſalt ſprings and works, and its having a good coral fiſhery. It is ſituated on a peninſula, forty-five miles to the ſouth-weſt of Palermo, and is defended by a ſquare caſtle. Its haven is large; but too much expoſed to the ſouth winds. At its entrance is the above caſtle ſeated on a rock, and which is ſurrounded with other works and batteries, and alſo by the ſea. The town is encompaſſed by a plain wall. The hill at the foot of which it ſtands was antiently called Eryx, and on the top was a temple of Venus and the tomb of Anchiſes.

Gergenti was antiently the greateſt and richeſt city in the whole iſland: it ſtands about four miles from the ſea, on the ſouth-weſt coaſt, ſixty-ſix miles to the ſouth of Palermo. It roſe out of the ruins of the antient Agrigentum, though it does not ſtand directly on the ſame ſpot. It is ſituated at the mouth of the river St. Blaſio, upon a hill, and is defended by a caſtle ſo ſtrong by nature, that there is no acceſs to it but at one place. It is the ſee of a biſhop, and is ſaid to have been antiently ten miles in compaſs, and is famous for its tyrant Phalaris, who uſed to torture thoſe who had diſpleaſed him in his brazen bull; but Perillus, the artiſt who had the cruelty to invent it, was, for his reward, condemned to have the firſt experiment tried upon himſelf. The adjacent territory is rich, and produces great quantities of corn, of which it carries on a conſiderable trade by means of the river and its port, which lies about five miles to the weſtward.

SECT. X.

Of the Iſlands round Sicily; with a particular Deſcription of Malta, and the Knights of that Iſland.

THE principal iſlands round Sicily are, firſt, the Liparean iſlands, called by the antients Æoliæ and Vulcaniæ; theſe lie towards the north of Sicily, and the neareſt is about forty miles diſtant. The volcanoes that were in ſome of them, and ſtill partly remain, have always contributed to the violent winds which continually reign in theſe parts; whence the antients ſaid, that Æolus, the god of the winds, reſided here, and accordingly called them by his name; and Vulcan being the tutelary god of ſuch volcanos, they were alſo called Vulcan's iſlands. The moſt remarkable are the following:

Lipari, or Lipara, the largeſt and moſt populous of them, is computed to be about eighteen miles in circuit, including its capes and the windings of the coaſt, for it is of a very irregular figure. The climate is healthful, the air ſerene, and the ſoil rich and fertile. Beſides corn, wine, and fruit, which grow in great plenty, the inhabitants ſend great quantities of figs and raiſins into moſt parts of Europe. It likewiſe produces abundance of ſulphur, allum, and naphthe; and has ſeveral warm baths, formerly much reſorted to. The coaſts yield great plenty and variety of fine fiſh. In this iſland were formerly pits emitting ſmoke and fire; but at preſent they have entirely ceaſed. In Lipari ſtands a town of the ſame name, built on a ſteep rock, with a caſtle, and is the ſee of a biſhop.

Volcano, in Latin Vulcania, antiently alſo Thermiſſa, Therafia, and Hiera, or the Holy, is parted from Lipari by a narrow channel, and though not ſo large, riſes much higher. On the north coaſt is a mountain whoſe top continually emits flames or ſmoke; but more furiouſly at ſome times than others.

Stromboli, antiently Strongyle, is of a round form, and ſituated on the north eaſt coaſt of Lipari, about thirty miles from that iſland. It is computed to be about twelve miles round, but is wholly uninhabited, being properly nothing more than a burning mountain of an extraordinary height, that continually caſts forth fire and ſmoke, which are ſeen at a great diſtance at ſea.

Another cluſter of ſmall iſlands, named the Ægates, or Ægades, lie on the weſt coaſt of Sicily; theſe are Levenzo, the antient Buccina, or Phorbantia; Favagnana, the antient Capraria, or Æguſa, which is extremely fruitful; and Maretamo, the antient Maritima. Theſe are very inconſiderable, we ſhall therefore proceed to one of much greater conſequence.

The iſland of Malta, the antient Melite, is ſituated in the thirty-ſixth degree of north latitude, and between the fourteenth and fifteenth of eaſt longitude, ſixty Engliſh miles to the ſouth of the iſland of Sicily, and is commonly treated of under Italy, on account of its greater proximity to it, than to the coaſt of Africa. It was here that St. Paul was bit by a viper, after being wrecked on the coaſt. This iſland is computed to be

twenty miles in length, twelve in breadth, and near ſixty in circumference. It was antiently little more than a barren rock, but ſuch quantities of ſoil have been brought from Sicily, that it is now become a fertile iſland, though it produces no more corn than is barely ſufficient to maintain the inhabitants ſix months in the year, and the reſt they purchaſe cheap in Sicily. The wine produced in this iſland is alſo not ſufficient for its conſumption, and it is likewiſe deficient in wood. But, on the other hand, it has plenty of figs, melons, and other fine fruit; with honey, a great deal of cotton, good paſtures, conſiderable fiſheries, ſea-ſalt, and a profitable coral-fiſhery; but the heat is exceſſive both day and night, and they have a great number of gnats, which are the plague of the country.

The annual revenues of this iſland are computed at ſeventy-ſix thouſand ſcudi, and the number of its inhabitants amounts to about ſixty thouſand. The common people ſpeak Arabic; but thoſe in genteel circumſtances the Italian.

The moſt antient inhabitants of Malta of whom we have any account, were the Phæacians, who were driven out by the Phœnicians, as they were by the Greeks. It ſeems afterwards to have been under the dominion of the Carthaginians, from whom it was taken by the Romans. Upon the declenſion of the Roman empire, it was firſt ſubdued by the Goths, then by the Saracens, from whom it was wreſted by the Normans in 1090, after which it had the ſame maſters as Sicily, till Charles V. gave it to the knights of St. John of Jeruſalem.

Theſe knights aroſe in the following manner: Several trading people of Amalfi, in the kingdom of Naples, had by their trade ſo ingratiated themſelves with the Saracen princes, that they were permitted to build a church at Jeruſalem, which was finiſhed in 1248, and called St. Maria della Latini. As there was a great reſort to the Holy Sepulchre, the above merchants built an hoſpital and oratory for the accommodation of pilgrims, which they dedicated to St. John the Baptiſt, and appointed certain monks to attend on the pilgrims, who from their office were ſtiled Hoſpitallers, and from the church of St. John, Johannites. At firſt they procured neceſſaries from Amalfi, but after the conqueſt of Paleſtine, the fruit of thoſe deſtructive croiſades which deſolated Europe, Godfrey of Bouillon endowed them with ſeveral lands; and his ſucceſſor Baldwin having put them in poſſeſſion of ſome caſtles and towns, they held a general chapter, and elected Raymund di Podio their maſter, who inſtituted an order out of the brotherhood, and made them take the vows of chaſtity, poverty, and obedience; gave them the octangular croſs, and a black cloak, as the badge and habit of their order, and divided them into three claſſes, knights, Capellans, and Servanti d'Armi. This happened towards the cloſe of the ſeventh century. The order was confirmed by the pope, and, notwithſtanding their vow of poverty, they obtained conſiderable wealth. They maintained their ground in Syria and the Holy Land, againſt the continual aſſaults of the Turks, for two hundred years, till loſing Acra, the laſt place they poſſeſſed, in 1191 they removed to the iſland of Cyprus, and in 1308 took the iſle of Rhodes and the neighbouring iſlands, which they held for the ſpace of two hundred and thirteen years, during which they were ſtiled knights of Rhodes; but Solyman II. having diſpoſſeſſed them in 1528, after they had made a long and brave reſiſtance, they firſt went to Candia, and afterwards ſeparating, ſome went to Venice, and others to Viterbo and other places in Italy, eſpecially to Nice in Savoy. But Charles V. apprehending that Solyman would on their account make a deſcent into Italy, ſent them to Syracuſe in Sicily; and, in 1529, conferred on them the iſlands of Malta and Gozo, and alſo committed to them the defence of Tripoli, which was then in his poſſeſſion. From this period they obtained the name of knights of Malta.

The order conſiſts of eight tongues, or nations, the principal of which are the French, Italian, Spaniſh, Engliſh, and German. In France are three tongues, namely, thoſe of Provence, Auvergne, and France peculiarly ſo called. Spain is divided into thoſe of Arragon and Caſtile, and with the German are united the priory of Denmark, Sweden, and Hungary. Each of theſe countries has contributed to the advancement of the order, eſpecially France, there being three hundred commanderies in that kingdom, which, if added to thoſe of other countries, the whole number of knights may be computed to amount to three thouſand: yet their loſſes by war, and more particularly by the Reformation, have been very conſiderable, the order being now deſtitute of the Engliſh, Daniſh, Swediſh, and Hungarian priories; and they have alſo ſuffered greatly in Germany and the Netherlands.

The knights muſt be all noblemen, and produce proofs of an illuſtrious anceſtry: ſuch as have done this are ſtiled *cavalieri di juſtizia*, in contradiſtinction to the *cavalieri di gratia*, who cannot ſufficiently aſcertain their deſcent, yet are made knights on account of their perſonal merits. According to the ſtatutes, no natural children, except thoſe of princes, nor perſons under eighteen years of age, are admitted into the order. They engage to be at continual war with the Mahometans and all corſairs of that religion; and, as they have adopted St. Auguſtine's rule, are as a religious order ſubject to the pope. The grand maſter is ſtiled by foreign princes Moſt Eminent Highneſs, and is under the juriſdiction of no temporal power; but in what relates to the order he is accountable to his council and chapter: though with reſpect to the iſland and inhabitants, he is entirely abſolute. His ſubjects ſtile him Moſt Serene Eminence; the knights and others only Eminence. When at home, he uſually wears a long black gown, made after a particular faſhion, with a large golden key of the Holy Sepulchre hanging by his ſide; but on a journey he dreſſes like a layman, and wears a ſword.

Priories of the order are eſtabliſhed throughout all the popiſh countries in Europe, of which the great priory of Germany, eſtabliſhed at Heiterſheim in Briſgaw, holds the firſt place. Its adminiſtrator has the dignity of a prince of the empire, with a ſeat and voice in the diet among the princely abbots; and he muſt annually remit to the grand maſter, whoſe vicar he is reputed to be, the neceſſary contributions for acting againſt the Mahometans, and the uſual aſſeſſment payable by every commandery.

But to return to the iſland: the principal city is that of Valetta, ſo called from John de Valetta, the grand maſter, who laid the firſt ſtone, in the year 1566, on a hill which extends into the ſea; and it has been ſince ſo ſtrongly fortified, that few places exceed it in ſtrength. Its walls are of large ſquare ſtones, ſome dug out of the rock, and planted with ſeveral batteries. On the point towards the ſea ſtands the caſtle of St. Elmo, which is fortified in the modern taſte, and defends both harbours; one of which, called Marſa Muſcietto, lies at the entrance from the ſea to the right of the town, and incloſes a ſmall iſland, on which ſtand both a fort and a lazaretto. The other harbour on the left ſide is ſimply called Marſa, or the Great Harbour, being the largeſt, ſafeſt, and moſt commodious in the iſland. Its entrance, beſides the caſtle of St. Elmo, is guarded by fort Ricaſoli. From the port there is an aſcent to the town, which is but ſmall, tho' very beautiful. It has but two gates, one of which leads to the port, and the other to the country.

There are here ſeveral churches, among which that of St. John the Baptiſt is the principal. On one ſide of it is a fine ſquare, with a fountain at each corner. It is a large building paved with beautiful marble, and within it are hung up a great number of flags taken from the Turks. They alſo pretend to have here many relics, and in particular St. John the Baptiſt's right-hand.

Among the ſeveral noble buildings in the city, is the palace of the grand maſter, in which is a magazine of arms for thirty-five or forty thouſand men, which are kept very clean and in great order. Before this palace is a large ſquare, in the midſt of which is a noble fountain, that throws up great quantities of water to a conſiderable height, and even ſupplies the whole town. The palaces of the conſervatory and treaſury are alſo fine buildings, as are alſo the inns. The hoſpital is likewiſe well built, and the hall for the ſick knights is hung with tapeſtry, where they are attended by knights, and ſerved in plate. They are all under a vow of celibacy; and yet they make

no

no ſcruple of taking Grecian women for miſtreſſes. Poor travellers find entertainment here, till they can get a paſſage to the place to which they are bound, and then they are furniſhed with proviſions, and their charges paid through their voyage.

The Jeſuits have a well built college; and there are alſo ſeveral convents and nunneries. Even the meaneſt houſes make a good ſhew, they being all flat-roofed, and built of large ſquare white ſtone, which retains its colour long, and ſeems always new. The ſtreets, however, are incommodious, from their being always up and down hill, but they are wide and ſtraight. The handſomeſt of theſe reaches from the caſtle of St. Elmo to the Royal Gate, which is almoſt a mile in length.

The adjacent country is full of gardens, and very agreeable places of pleaſure. About twelve miles from the city the grand maſter has a palace built in the form of a caſtle, the halls of which are adorned with excellent paintings. It has very neat gardens filled with orange, citron, and olive trees, with ſeveral beautiful fountains; and at a ſmall diſtance is a grove ſtocked with game for his diverſion.

Citta Vittorioſa, or il Borg, a fortified town, ſtands on a narrow neck of land to the left of Valetta: on each ſide a broad natural canal runs up into the land, and, ſurrounding the town, forms a fine harbour. On a high rock is the ſtrong caſtle of St. Angelo, which has a communication with the town by a bridge. The inhabitants amount to about three thouſand, and formerly the grand maſter reſided here. The palace of the inquiſition and the arſenal are reckoned among the principal buildings.

Malta, Medina, or Citta Vecchia, that is the Old Town, are different names for a fortified town that ſtands on a hill in the middle of the iſland, and was formerly above twice as large as it is at preſent. It is the reſidence of the biſhop of this iſland, and has ſeveral churches and convents.

Five miles from Malta is the iſland of Gozo, which is twelve miles in length, and ſix in breadth. It enjoys a very wholeſome air, and, though mountainous, is almoſt all cultivated; for the inhabitants delight more in tilling the land for corn, than in any other ſort of huſbandry; though it has many places well watered, and fit for gardening and paſture. It has ſome good harbours, defended by three forts, and the inhabitants amount to about three thouſand.

CHAP. XXVI.

Of the Kingdom of SPAIN.

SECT. I.

Its Names, Situation, Extent, Climate, and a particular Account of the Pyrenean and other Mountains; with the Minerals they contain. The Rivers, Vegetables, and Animals of the Country.

THIS country was formerly known by the name of Iberia and Heſperia, which, like that of Spain, is thought to be derived from three of its antient kings; but it has never yet been proved that theſe kings ever exiſted. It is not improbable, that the firſt people who came into this country ſeeing nothing beyond the ocean, which environed Spain on three ſides, imagined themſelves at the end of the world, and therefore aſſumed the name of Iberians, from a Phœnician word of that import; calling the country itſelf Iberia, and giving the name of Iberus to the largeſt river they met with. The Greeks called this country Heſperia, from its weſtern ſituation; and to diſtinguiſh it from Italy, which had the ſame name, called it the Farther Heſperia. It was uſually called by the Romans Hiſpania; but this is now altered by the inhabitants to Eſpana, which ſome derive from the Phoenician word Sepan, or Sepana, a rabbet, this country being formerly over-run with theſe animals. The French call this country Eſpagne, and we by contraction Spain.

This country, including Portugal, is the moſt weſtern part of all the continent of Europe, and is a large peninſula encompaſſed on every ſide by the ſea, except on that part which joins to France, from which it is ſeparated by a continued range of mountains called the Pyrenees; on the eaſt and ſouth it is bounded by the Mediterranean, the ſtreights of Gibraltar, and the Atlantic ocean; on the weſt by that ocean, and by Portugal, which extends along the coaſt a conſiderable diſtance; on the north by that part of the Atlantic ocean called the Bay of Biſcay, and alſo by the Pyrenean mountains; extending between the thirty-ſixth and forty-fourth degrees of north latitude, and between the tenth degree weſt and the third degree eaſt longitude, that is, thirteen degrees from eaſt to weſt, and eighteen from north to ſouth. The whole circuit of Spain, in a continued direction from town to town, and from port to port, excluſive of the windings of the creeks and bays, amounts to about ſix hundred leagues, or eighteen hundred miles, including Portugal, which was antiently a part of Spain.

In moſt of the provinces the air is pure and dry, but in June, July, and Auguſt, the days are extremely hot, eſpecially in the middle of the country, yet in the night a traveller ſhivers with cold. Towards the north, and in the mountainous parts, the air is, as uſual, cooler than in the ſouth, and near the ſea contracts a moiſture. It ſeldom rains, and the winter froſts are never ſo ſevere as to bind up the ground. The want of temperature in the heat, and the coolneſs of the night, is the reaſon that ſeed lies a long time in the ground before it ſhoots up; ſometimes indeed a cool breeze, by the Spaniards called a gallego, iſſues from the mountains of Galicia; and this, without great precaution, occaſions violent, and ſometimes fatal colds.

Among the many mountains in Spain, the Pyrenees are the moſt remarkable. Theſe ſeparate Spain from France, and extend from the Mediterranean to the Atlantic ocean, which is about two hundred and twelve miles, and in ſome places are above an hundred miles in breadth. They begin at Vendres, a ſea-port in the province of Rouſillon in France, and extend to Fuentarabia, but under different names. Near Rouſillon they diwide themſelves into two branches; that which ſeparates the country from Languedoc is called Antipyrenee; the other, between it and Catalonia, is termed Col de Pertuis: between Gaſcony and Amazon lie the mountains of Jaca and St. Chriſtine, and the famous Pic de Midi, which reſembles a ſugar-loaf ſtanding on a table, and is of a prodigious height. In Navarre, between Pampelona and St. Jean de Pie de Port, are the mountains of Adula and Roncevaux. Over theſe mountains there are only five paſſages out of Spain into France, and even theſe are narrow; one of them leads from St. Sebaſtian's in Guipuſcoa, to St. Jean de Luz; the ſecond from Maya in Navarre to Annoa; the third from Taraffa in Navarre to Pie de Port; the fourth through the county of Comminges in Arragon; and the fifth leads from Catalonia to Languedoc.

The very valleys between the mountains are covered with thick and lofty woods. The other mountains of Spain

A New & Accurate
MAP
of the Kingdom of
SPAIN
and
PORTUGAL
from the Sieur Robert's
ATLAS.
with Improvements.

BAY of BISCAY
FRANCE
PART of FRANCE
WESTERN OCEAN
MEDITERRANEAN SEA
PART of AFRICA
SPAIN
PORTUGAL
GALLICIA
ASTURIAS
BISCAY
NAVARR
OLD CASTILE
NEW CASTILE
LEON
ESTRAMADURA
ANDALUSIA
GRANADA
MURCIA
VALENCIA
ARAGON
CATALONIA
MAJORCA I.
MINORCA I.
IVICA I.
Algrave
Entre Douro e Minho
Tralos Montes
Beira
Estramadura
Alentejo
Andalusia
Gibraltar
Str.ts of Gibraltar
Meridian of London
British Statute Miles
0 20 30 50 100 150 200
10 8 Longitude West 6 from London 4 2 0 Longitude East 2 from London 4 6
42 40 38 36
J. Gibson Sculp.t

Spain are Sierra d'Occa, or mount Idubeda, which is a chain extending from the Pyrenees to Tortoſa. At the beginning it forms an arm traverſing all Spain from eaſt to weſt, as far as Cape Finiſterre. To the ſouth, below mount Cayo, another branch, called Oroſpeda, riſes gradually, and near the ſource of the Tagus takes the name of Sierra Molina, which, farther ſouth, it changes for that of Sierra d'Alcaraz.

Here the chain turns off to the ſouth-weſt, ſeparating the kingdom of Granada, and extending to the Streights of Gibraltar.

According to ancient writers, the mountains of Spain are very rich in gold and ſilver; but the Spaniards chooſe rather to import theſe metals from America than to have the trouble of ſearching for them in their own country; but the iron mines are worked here with great ſkill. Spain has alſo other minerals, as lead, tin, cinnabar, quickſilver, alum, vitriol, copperas, lapis calaminaris, and likewiſe cryſtal, amethyſts, and other gems.

The great and ſmall rivers in Spain are ſaid to amount to an hundred and fifty; the principal of theſe are the Minho, which riſes in Gallicia; the Douro, which has its ſource in Old Caſtile, in a part of the mountains of Idubeda; the Tagus riſes in a mountain in New Caſtile; the Guadiana alſo iſſues from New Caſtile, deriving its ſource from ſome lakes, at a ſmall diſtance from which it takes its courſe between high mountains, and thus conceals itſelf for near three miles, till it ſhews itſelf again in ſome fens, but ſoon hides itſelf again amidſt reeds and rocks, which probably gave occaſion to the miſtake of loſing itſelf under-ground. The Guadalquiver, or Great River, receives its courſe in Andaluſia, where ſeveral ſmall ſtreams iſſuing from mount Segura unite in a lake, from whence this river flows. From Corduba to Seville, it is paſſable only by ſmall craft; but from the laſt city to its mouth it is navigable by ſhips of burthen, though dangerous on account of its many ſand-banks. The Ebro riſes in the mountains of Santillane, in Old Caſtile, from two ſprings, and receives upwards of thirty brooks in its courſe, becoming navigable near Tudela: its navigation, however, is dangerous, on account of its many rocks: at length it diſcharges itſelf with great rapidity into the Mediterranean, and its mouth forms the little iſland of Alfacqs:

The country in general labours under a great ſcarcity of corn, which is principally owing to the neglect of agriculture; for though the ſoil be in many places extremely dry, and the growth of vegetables obſtructed in the day-time by the exceſſive heats, and by the intenſe cold of the nights, yet it appears from hiſtory, that Spain formerly enjoyed great plenty of corn. It however abounds in the moſt delicious fruits, as figs, grapes, oranges, lemons, pomegranates, pears, peaches, almonds, cheſnuts, common nuts, &c. and alſo produces very good ſaffron. The Spaniſh wines, particularly ſack, are eagerly bought up by foreign nations; and the value of the wines and raiſins annually exported out of the country about Malaga alone, amounts to a million and an half of piaſtres, an imaginary coin of about three ſhillings and ſeven pence value.

Several parts of the country alſo produce ſugar canes. Spain likewiſe enjoys great plenty of exquiſite honey, and ſilk in abundance; but little flax and hemp. Salt is exported in conſiderable quantities, a great deal of ſea-ſalt being made in the maritime parts of Andaluſia, Catalonia, and Valencia, where the ſun ſerves inſtead of fire. A prodigious quantity of pot-aſh is alſo exported from Spain.

In this country are alſo innumerable flocks of fine ſheep, part of which, during winter, feed in the plains, and in ſummer are driven up into the mountains; and from theſe are produced the beſt wool: others are always kept in one place. The number of ſhepherds in Spain has been computed at forty thouſand. The beſt wool is that of Old Caſtile, though the Spaniſh wool is, in general, extremely fine and valuable. Andaluſia and Aſturia are particularly famous for their fine horſes. There are here alſo a great number of large and handſome mules, ſome of which are ſeventeen hands high, and carry very heavy burdens; but Spain has few horned cattle. In Andaluſia are caught the wild bulls for the bull-fights.

The maritime parts of the country, particularly thoſe of Gallicia and Andaluſia, abound in fiſh, and, among others, in ſturgeon, tunny, ſalmon, haddock, lampreys, &c. but for want of a proper improvement of the fiſhery, Spain, according to Uſtariz, annually purchaſes ſalt-fiſh from foreigners to the amount of above three millions of piaſtres.

SECT. II.

The Manners and Cuſtoms of the Spaniards, the Reaſon why Spain is thinly inhabited, and of their Poverty, notwithſtanding the immenſe Quantity of Gold and Silver ſent from America. Their Language, Religion, and the Inconveniences ſuffered by Travellers.

THE Spaniards are grave and ſolemn in their behaviour, and are not always dreſſed in a ſhort cloak and coat, nor do they always appear abroad with a long ſword, curled whiſkers, and a pair of ſpectacles on the noſe. They are remarkable for frugality, love of pomp, fidelity, valour, intrepidity, and abhorrence of drunkenneſs; they are very jealous of their honour, when once engaged; and the baron de Monteſquieu obſerves, in his Spirit of Laws, that "The Spaniards have been in all ages famous for their honeſty. Juſtinian mentions their fidelity in keeping whatever was entruſted to their care; they have frequently ſuffered death rather than reveal a ſecret. They have ſtill the ſame fidelity for which they were formerly diſtinguiſhed. All the nations who trade to Cadiz truſt their fortunes to the Spaniards, and have never yet repented it."

On the other hand, they are univerſally too much given to women, and their jealouſy, where either their wife, daughter, ſiſter, or even miſtreſs, is concerned, ſeldom fails to end in bloodſhed; for they think no means too cruel, baſe, or unjuſt, to wipe off any ſtain that is caſt upon their honour, or to gratify their revenge. Pride of birth is no where carried to a greater height; and the inſinuation that a man is deſcended from the Moors, is ſufficient to make him ſtab the ſlanderer, or procure his being privately aſſaſſinated. In ſhort, they have a mixture of the moſt amiable virtues and the moſt ſhocking vices; and while they affect a haughty air to thoſe with whom they are unacquainted, no people in the world are more courteous to thoſe with whom they are intimate.

As to their food, they are very moderate in their eating, and can make a meal of olives, a ſallad, a little garlic, or a few roots; but perſons of fortune have ſeveral expenſive diſhes. The men dine by themſelves, and their wives and children eat together.

The women are generally very lean, and very amorous; they have black eyes, flat boſoms, ſmall feet, and long garments. They ſit croſs-legged on carpets, a cuſtom which they derived from the Moors. They are much addicted to painting, though they are kept very much at home by the jealouſy of their huſbands.

The kingdom of Spain is ſaid to contain about ſeven millions and a half of inhabitants; but it would ſupport more than twice that number, was it properly cultivated. It is ſaid, in the times of the Goths and the Moors, it contained between twenty and thirty millions of people, and might yet be very powerful, if it had no poſſeſſions in America; but now it is thinly inhabited. The uſual reaſon aſſigned for this is, firſt, the expulſion of the Moors; for when Ferdinand the Pious took Seville from them, in 1248, the ſeveral diſtricts of this kingdom contained a hundred thouſand populous towns and villages; and when Ferdinand the Catholic reduced the kingdom of Granada, it conſiſted of fifty fortified towns, beſides an infinite number of ſmaller places, the greateſt part of which were afterwards demoliſhed. Another grand cauſe of the want of inhabitants is the decay of arts and manufactures which formerly flouriſhed here, and the heavy taxes by which the people are oppreſſed. But perhaps the greateſt enemy to the populouſneſs of the country are the convents, by which no leſs than two hundred thouſand perſons are reſtrained from propagating their

ſpecies: for if a family have more than one or two ſons, the eldeſt muſt at any rate be gentlemen, and the reſt monks. The way of living among the Spaniards, particularly in their eating and drinking, alſo contributes to render them unfruitful; for in the uſe of ſpices, particularly of pepper, they know no bounds. Their wines are alſo ſtrong and inflammatory; and yet, after a meal, they add to theſe a very fiery ſort of brandy. On the other hand, they are no leſs immoderate in the uſe of cooling foods and drinks, and the conflict of ſuch diſcordant qualities muſt neceſſarily produce great diſorders in the body. Leanneſs is here ſo general, that a fleſhy corpulent man is hardly to be met with; and there are few or no countries where loſs of ſight is ſo common.

Small as the number of inhabitants are, yet their poverty is remarkable, tho' they not only live in a country capable of ſupporting many millions more than they, in the greateſt plenty, and have prodigious ſums poured in from America. Savala computes that, from the year 1492, when America was diſcovered, to 1731, above ſix thouſand millions of pieces of eight in regiſtered gold and ſilver have been imported into Spain, excluſive of far greater ſums unregiſtered, beſides thoſe received by foreign merchants from the Spaniſh dominions in America. It even appears that, one year with another, Spain receives from her American colonies above twenty-ſix millions of pezos, or pieces of eight: yet Uſtariz computes, that all the coined and wrought gold and ſilver in Spain, including that belonging to churches and private perſons, ſcarcely amounts to one hundred millions of piaſtres.

The two principal cauſes of this poverty are the want of induſtry in the Spaniards in agriculture, handicrafts, and manufactures, which occaſion the country to be annually drained of many millions for corn and foreign goods. The ſecond is, the inſatiable avarice of the clergy, who practiſe a thouſand arts to obtain the poſſeſſion of the wealth of the country. To them not only belong moſt of the towns and eſtates, and theſe like their perſons are exempt from all public taxes, but they alſo turn both the living and the dead to their profit; while the laity of all ranks implicitly comply with all their ſordid views. The Mendicant friars, who have divided all families among themſelves, tax every one according to their condition; and when they knock at a door there is no refuſing them, though they ſcarce condeſcend to return thanks for what they receive. All wills are drawn up by them, and that commonly when the teſtator is near the laſt gaſp, by which means they often impoveriſh widows and children, by aſſigning in the will the rightful inheritance to what they unjuſtly call pious uſes. Few marriages are made without their negotiation; and as by this means they become father confeſſors, they are the deſpotic lords of the whole family; the caſh, the manner of living, the equipage, children, and ſervants, are all ſubject to their controul. Their commerce, which is free from all duties and payments, and carried on partly by privilege and partly clandeſtinely, is likewiſe a rich fund to them, eſpecially if conſidered with reſpect to their aſtoniſhing failures, without paying a ſhilling, and their ſelling the ſanction of their names to cover the merchandize of others; an abuſe which the government has in vain endeavoured to ſuppreſs.

The language uſed in moſt of the provinces is that which they call Caſtellano, and Eſpannol, or Spaniſh, which has the neareſt affinity to the Latin, both in the words and compoſition, of any language in Europe: but in Catalonia and Valentia the common people uſe a dialect of the old French, or rather Gaſcon; but ſo mixed and corrupt, that it is not underſtood by any other provinces.

The popiſh religion is practiſed in Spain with the greateſt ſcrupuloſity and pomp. In no country is there more praying and ceremony, and leſs real chriſtianity. The Virgin Mary is more reſpected and adored among the Spaniards than God himſelf, as appears even from their compliments: the expreſſion of God be with you, the uſual compliment at parting, does not convey the ſame mark of affection as that of the Virgin be with you, which they imagine expreſſes a much warmer cordiality. Thus ſwearing by the Supreme Being is eſteemed a triſle, but by the Virgin is conſidered as the height of impiety. The Spaniards are indeed mere ſlaves to the clergy, who ſo artfully hoodwink them that they do not perceive the chains of their ſlavery, or if they perceive them bear them willingly; and, when they gall them, dare not ſo much as vent a ſigh after freedom. Under any diſappointment, either of views of avarice or ambition, the clergy have their dreadful inquiſition at hand, which ſeizes both on honour and life; ſo that perſons of the moſt unſpotted innocence eſteem it a particular favour to come off only with the loſs of their fortunes. In order to be taken up for a Jew or Mahometan, and conſequently to be ſtripped not only of all one has, but to be burnt alive, it is ſufficient for a perſon not to love pork, and not to have worked on Friday or Saturday, though the informer be only ſome menial ſervant, moſt of whom are ſpies to the inquiſition, and betrayers of the families in which they live.

The court of inquiſition was firſt introduced in 1478, by king Ferdinand the Catholic, and queen Iſabella, at the ſuggeſtions of John de Torquemada, a Dominican, who was the firſt inquiſitor. At Madrid it conſiſts of an inquiſitor-general and ſix counſellors, one of whom is always a Dominican, two judges, one fiſcal, and ſeveral other officers and aſſiſtants. The number of the families who are diſperſed all over Spain, as ſpies and informers, are computed at about twenty thouſand. Under this ſupreme court are others in the principal cities in the kingdom, and even in the Canary iſlands, Mexico, Carthagena, and Lima. But the Rev. Mr. Clarke obſerves, that the power of this tribunal is now declining very viſibly, and ſeems haſtening to its fall; for the preſent king of Spain has taken a bolder ſtep to humble the inquiſition than any of the Philips or Charleſes who went before him. The inquiſitor-general having thought proper to publiſh a liturgy which the king had licenſed without conſulting his majeſty, the king, with a very proper ſpirit, put the inquiſitor under an arreſt, and immediately ſent him guarded with a file of grenadiers into exile in a convent at a great diſtance from Madrid. So determined and reſolute a meaſure as this alarmed the whole body of the clergy; they moved heaven and earth to obtain the inquiſitor's recall; but for ſome time the king remained inflexible. The common people were now taught by the prieſts to ſay that his catholic majeſty was no good catholic in his heart. At length, however, the king reſtored the inquiſitor to his liberty; but in ſuch a manner, as that prelate had no reaſon to triumph; for at the time of releaſing him his majeſty publiſhed a very ſpirited edict, which was dated on the twenty-ſeventh of November, 1761, by which he greatly limited their power.

Amidſt the great decreaſe of the inhabitants in Spain, the body of the clergy have ſuffered no diminution; but has rather been gradually increaſing, inſomuch that Uſtariz computes the number of eccleſiaſtics and their ſervants at two hundred and fifty thouſand. The king nominates all biſhops and archbiſhops, who are afterwards confirmed by the pope. In 1753 an agreement was entered into between the king and the pope, wherein the latter ceded to the former the nomination to all ſmall benefices; which has not only conſiderably ſtrengthened the king's power over the clergy, but alſo keeps thoſe vaſt ſums of money in the country, which uſed to be expended in journies to Rome, for the ſoliciting of benefices. The king can alſo tax the eccleſiaſtical poſſeſſions according to his pleaſure. However, the power of the pope and his nuncio is ſtill very extenſive here, though no bull can be publiſhed without a written permiſſion from the king.

One of the greateſt inconveniences a ſtranger finds in this country is, the miſerable accommodations to be met with on the public roads. The Rev. Mr. Clarke ſays, you muſt abſolutely carry your proviſions and bedding along with you, and even then, unleſs you can bear fatigue well, lie down in your cloaths, eat eggs, onions, and cheeſe; unleſs you can ſleep whilſt your mules reſt, riſe the moment you are called, and ſet out early in the morning before the heat comes on, you will fare ill as a traveller. It is a good method to carry dried tongues with you, hard eggs, ſome portable ſoup, tea, ſugar, and ſpirituous liquors, not forgetting even pepper and ſalt; and whenever

whenever you meet with good bread, meat, fowls, and wine, always to buy them whether you want them or not, becauſe you know not what to-morrow may produce. A knife, fork, and ſpoon, are abſolutely neceſſary, for you will find none; nor ſhould you omit a pair of ſnuffers, a candleſtic, and ſome wax candles; but great care muſt be taken to carry neither tobacco nor rum, for they are contraband, and may occaſion the detention, if not the ſeizure of your baggage. You ſhould alſo have as few books as poſſible, for the inquiſition will ſeize them.

SECT. III.

Of the Diverſions of the Spaniards; particularly of their Bull-Feaſts, Plays, and other Amuſements.

WE ſhall begin our account with the diverſions and paſtimes of the Spaniards, with a deſcription of the bull-feaſt exhibited in the Plaça Mayor at Madrid, upon occaſion of his catholic majeſty's public entry into his capital, on the fifteenth of July, 1760, which we ſhall give from the account publiſhed by the Rev. Mr. Clarke. The ſquare, which is large, was thronged with people, and all the balconies ornamented with different coloured ſilks, and crowded from the top to the bottom of the houſes; the avenues to the ſquare were built up into balconies, and a ſloping ſcaffold placed round for the common people, and raiſed about eight or nine feet from the ground.

Firſt came the coaches of the cavaliers, four in number, of a ſingular make, with glaſſes at the ends, and quite open at the ſides: the cavaliers were placed at the doors of their coaches, from whence they bowed to the people in the balconies as they paſſed round the ſquare, and were accompanied by their ſponſors, the dukes of Oſſuna, Banos, Arcos, and Medina Cæli. Before the royal family came a company of halberdiers, followed by ſeven or eight of the king's coaches, preceding his coach of ſtate, which was extremely rich, with red and gold ornaments, and beautiful painted pannels. Then came a coach with ſome of the great officers; and next came the king and queen in a very ſumptuous coach of blue, with all the ornaments of maſſive ſilver, and a crown at the top: the trappings of the horſes were likewiſe ſilver, with large white plumes. Theſe were followed by the coaches of the prince of Aſturias, the two infantas, and Don Lewis, with their attendants.

Their majeſties ſeated themſelves oppoſite to the balcony of the Engliſh ambaſſador, in which was our author, in a gilt balcony, with a canopy and curtains of ſcarlet and gold. On the right hand of the king's balcony were placed the reſt of the royal family, and on the left the gentlemen of the bed-chamber in a row; all dreſſed in a very fine uniform of blue and red, richly embroidered with gold. The halberdiers marched from the king's balcony, which was in the center of one ſide, and forming themſelves into two lines fronting different ways, cleared the ſquare of the crowd, who retired into the ſcaffolds erected for them; after which the halberdiers formed themſelves into a line before the ſcaffold under the king's balcony. Then two companies of boys, dreſſed in an uniform, with caps and red taffety jackets, came with buckets of water in their hands and watered the ſtage as they croſſed over it to the oppoſite ſide: the ſix chief alguazils of the city now came mounted on fine horſes, covered with trappings, and dreſſed in the old Spaniſh habit, black, with ſlaſhed ſleeves, great white flowing wigs, and hats with plumes of different coloured feathers, advanced towards the king's balcony, under which they were obliged to ſtay the whole time to receive his orders, except when they were frightened away by the bulls.

At length the troops belonging to the cavaliers aſcended the ſtage in four large companies dreſſed in ſilk Mooriſh liveries, richly and elegantly ornamented with lace and embroidery: theſe firſt bowed to the king's balcony, and then went in proceſſion round the ſquare; and from the elegant ſingularity and variety of their uniforms appeared extremely beautiful. After them came the four knights in the old Spaniſh dreſs, with plumes in their hats, mounted on fine horſes: each held in his hand a ſlender lance, and was attended by two men on foot dreſſed in light ſilk of the colour of his livery, with cloaks of the ſame; theſe never forſake his ſide, and are his principal defence. The cavaliers then diſpoſe themſelves for the encounter, the firſt placing himſelf oppoſite to the door of the place where the bulls are kept, and the other at ſome diſtance behind him.

At a ſignal given by the king the doors opened, and the bull appeared, to the ſound of martial muſic, and the loud acclamations of the people, when ſeeing one of the attendants of the firſt cavalier ſpreading his cloak before him, he aimed directly at him; but the man eaſily avoided him, and gave his maſter an opportunity of breaking his ſpear in the bull's neck. In the ſame manner the bull was tempted to engage the other cavaliers, and always with the ſame ſucceſs, till having received the wounds with their lances, he was encountered by the other men on foot, who, after playing with him with incredible agility as long as they thought proper, eaſily put an end to him by thruſting a ſword either into his neck or ſide, which brings him to the ground, and then they finiſh him at once, by ſtriking a dagger, or ſword, behind his horns into the ſpine, which is always immediate death. After this the bull is hurried off by mules finely adorned with trappings.

After the knights were ſufficiently tired with theſe exploits, the king gave them leave to retire; bulls were then let out, one at a time, from another door; theſe were of a more furious nature, and were encountered entirely by men on foot, who were ſo far from fearing their rage, that they ſtrove to increaſe it, by darting at their necks, and other parts, little barbed darts ornamented with bunches of paper, ſome of which were filled with gun-powder, and were no ſooner faſtened to the bull than they went off like a ſerpent. Nothing can be imagined more tormenting than theſe darts, but the amazing dexterity with which they are thrown, takes off the attention from its cruelty. They alſo dreſs up goats ſkins, blown up with wind, and increaſe the fury of the bull by placing them before him, which makes a very ridiculous part of the entertainment. Many of the bulls, however, would not attack them; and one of the moſt furious that did, ſhewed more fear than in encountering his moſt ſturdy antagoniſt. They alſo baited one bull with dogs, which ſhewed as much courage as any of the bull-dogs in England.

My apprehenſions, ſays our author, were at firſt principally excited for the men on foot; but the knights are in much more danger, their horſes being too full of fire to be exactly governed; they cannot therefore ſo well avoid the aim, and are liable to be every moment overthrown with their horſes, if their attendants by their ſide do not aſſiſt them. Two beautiful horſes were nevertheleſs gored; one of which was overthrown with his rider, but fortunately the man eſcaped any miſchief from his fall. The courage of theſe horſes is ſo great, that they have been often known to advance towards the bull, when their bowels were trailing on the ground.

This ſpectacle, he adds, is one of the fineſt in the world, whether it be conſidered merely with reſpect to the ſplendor of the ſight, or as an exertion of the amazing agility and dexterity of the performers. The Spaniards are ſo devoted to it, that even the women would pawn their laſt rag to ſee it. Nothing can be imagined more crowded than the houſes even to the tops of the tiles, and dearly enough do they pay for their pleaſure, pent together in the hotteſt ſun, and with the moſt ſuffocating heat that can be endured. This is certainly a remnant of Mooriſh, and perhaps Roman barbarity, and will not bear the ſpeculations of the cloſet, or the compaſſionate feelings of the tender heart; but, on the other hand, it has all the good effects of chivalry, in exciting in the minds of the ſpectators a diſpoſition to hardy actions, without the horror that prevailed in former times, of diſtinguiſhing bravery to the prejudice of our own ſpecies. It teaches to deſpiſe danger, and that the ſureſt way to overcome it is to look it calmly and ſtedfaſtly in the face, and to afford a faithful and generous aſſiſtance to thoſe engaged with us in enterprizes of difficulty.

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The bull-feaſt in the Plaça Mayor is never exhibited but upon ſome extraordinary occaſion, as the acceſſion or marriage of their kings, and is attended with very great expence, both to his majeſty and the city. But there is a theatre built without the walls, where there are bull-feaſts every fortnight, which to connoiſſeurs are greatly preferable to the others, the bulls being more furious, and the danger greater to thoſe who fight them; but there is little difference in their manner of engaging them.

We ſhall now give ſome idea of the Spaniſh theatre, which our author viſited at the ſeaſon for acting the autos, or plays, in ſupport of the catholic faith. The theatre made a good appearance with reſpect to its ſize and ſhape; but was rather dirty and ill lighted, and, what was worſe, had an equal mixture of day-light and candles. The prompter's head appeared through a little trap-door, above the level of the ſtage; and he read the play loud enough to be heard by the people in the boxes. The pit made a motley appearance, many ſtanding in their night-caps and cloaks; while officers and ſoldiers were interſperſed among the dirtieſt mob. The ſide and front boxes were filled by perſons well dreſſed, and that which anſwered to our two ſhilling gallery was filled with women, all in the ſame uniform, a dark petticoat, and a white woollen veil. The actors were dreſſed in richer cloaths than thoſe in England, and theſe they are perpetually changing, in order to ſhew the expenſive variety of their wardrobe.

After ſome tedious and inſipid ſcenes, came on an interlude of humour. One of the comedians addreſſed a lady who ſung very prettily, and offered her a purſe of money: in the mean while a man brought in three barber's blocks which he placed upon the ſtage, which he firſt dreſſed in mens cloaths; but then undreſſing them, dreſſed them in womens apparel, after which came in three men who had a fancy to tempt theſe three ladies; but they were inflexibly coy, and it was not long before their gallants diſcovered their miſtake. At length, after ſome long tireſome unintereſting ſcenes full of fuſtian and bombaſt, an actor, dreſſed in a long purple robe, in the character of Chriſt, preached to the four quarters of the world in their proper dreſſes; Europe and America heard him gladly, but Aſia and Africa remained incorrigible. Our Saviour was ſoon after blind-folded, buffeted, ſpit upon, bound, ſcourged, crowned with thorns, and compelled to bear his croſs; when he kneeled down and cried, *Padre mi! Padre mi!* "Father, father, why haſt "thou forſaken me?" After this the fellow placed himſelf againſt the wall, with his hands extended, as if on the croſs, and there imitated the expiring agonies of the bleſſed Saviour; after which one of the actreſſes unbound him, took off his crown and ſcarlet robes, and he having put on his wig and coat, joined the reſt of the actors in a dance. After this one of the actreſſes, in a very long ſpeech, explained the nature, end, and deſign of the ſacraments; and the play was concluded by Chriſt appearing in a ſhip triumphant.

Soon after our author went to ſee a regular comedy, and there were two other Engliſh gentlemen in the ſame box with him. They underſtood very little of the deſign of the firſt act; they ſaw a king, a queen, an enchantreſs, and many other pretty delightful ſights; but the interlude with which it was concluded was extremely low. The ſcene was intended for the inſide of a Spaniſh inn, during the night: there were three feather-beds, and as many blankets brought upon the ſtage; the queen and her maids of honour perſonated the miſtreſs of the inn and her maids; and accordingly fell to making the beds. After this ſix men came in to lie there, and one of them being a miſer had rolled up his money in twenty or thirty pieces of paper. They then undreſſed before the ladies by pulling off ſix or ſeven pair of breeches, and as many coats and waiſtcoats, and got into bed two by two: when behold, the jeſt conſiſted in ſeeing them kick the cloaths off one another, and then fight, as the ſpectator is to ſuppoſe, in the dark. "The abſurdity of this "ſcene, and the incomprehenſible ridiculouſneſs of it, "made us, ſays our author, laugh immoderately. The "ſight of the feather-beds, the men kicking and ſprawl-"ing, the peals of applauſe that echoed through the "houſe, were truly inconceivable; though, I believe, "our neighbours in the next box thought we laughed "at the wit and humour of the author. It was a ſcene "that beggars all poſſible deſcription, and I defy any "theatre in Europe, but that of Madrid, to produce "ſuch another."

When this interlude was finiſhed, there ſucceeded ſome other ſcenes between the king, queen, enchantreſs, and the reſt of the actors. Five or ſix of them all at once drew their ſwords upon the enchantreſs, who parried them with her wand, and, to their great amazement, retired unhurt into her cell. At other times the enchantreſs killed with a look, and reſtored to life with a ſecond. In ſhort, after ſeveral ridiculous incidents, the enchantreſs renounces the devil and all his works, and in the concluſion embraces the catholic faith, and declares ſhe will adhere to that alone. But it can hardly be ſuppoſed, that theſe abſurd dramatic pieces are the beſt of the kind; and indeed they are ſaid to have ſome that are excellent, as thoſe of Lopez de Vega, which come neareſt to our Shakeſpeare.

The taſte for gallantry and dancing prevails in Spain univerſally, and they are the two ruling paſſions of the country. The latter is ſo much their favourite entertainment, that their greateſt matrons never think themſelves excluded by age from this diverſion; and you may ſee the grand-mother, mother, and daughter, all joining in the ſame dance. The two moſt favourite and univerſal Spaniſh dances are the *ſequedillas* and the *fandango*: the firſt is ſomething like our *hoy*; the ſecond is a very antient dance, and though originally Roman, yet the Spaniards have mixed ſomewhat of the Mooriſh along with it: they are exceſſively fond of it, and it is danced by the firſt nobility, as well as by the common people.

The military turn of the Spaniards appears in many of their diverſions, and even in the very terms and language they uſe at cards: *hombre* in Spaniſh ſignifies a man, and from thence we derive our game at ombre: the four principal cards are called *matadores*, or murderers, becauſe they win all others. *Spadillo* is the little ſword, or, as we call it, the ace of ſpades; for *ſpado*, in Spaniſh, ſignifies a ſword, and they are ſo painted on their cards.

It is uſual with the Spaniards both to breakfaſt and ſup in bed; their breakfaſt is uſually of chocolate, tea being ſeldom drank by them. Their dinner is generally a *pochero*, or beef, veal, mutton, pork, bacon and greens, &c. all boiled together. If it be a richer or more expenſive mixture of meats and delicacies, it is then termed an *olla podrida*, or what we call an *olio*. They are fond of garlic; and it is a proverb emong them, that olives, ſallad, and radiſhes, are food for gentlemen.

The Spaniards generally ſleep after dinner.

Though the men and women all wear the ſame dreſs in the ſtreet and at maſs, yet the ladies in their private viſits wear as great a variety of dreſs, and of a much richer ſort than thoſe in England. The ſpirit of jealouſy is ſo far worn out, that the married ladies of Madrid have each their profeſſed lover, juſt as the Italian ladies have their *ciciſbeo*.

Their evening's airing is to the laſt degree inſipid: you ſee nothing but a ſtring of coaches following one another, filled with people of faſhion; here a duke and his confeſſor; there a couple of ſmart young abbés; here a whole family grouped together, huſband, wife, and children. When they take their airing on gala, or court days, all their footmen are dreſſed in laced liveries, with plumes of feathers in their hats.

The number of ſervants kept by the grandees, and people of the firſt faſhion, is immoderate. Some of them have three or four hundred domeſtics, and the Engliſh ambaſſador, in compliance with the taſte of the country, keeps near a hundred. As their coaches are uſually drove with four mules, they have two poſtillions; with generally four and ſometimes ſix footmen behind their coaches. In the hot weather they take out the ſides and backs of their coaches, for the ſake of the air.

They ſeldom uſe ſedans; and when they do, they have always two footmen who go on each ſide the hindmoſt chairman, in order to hold him up, leſt he ſhould fall; there

there are two on each ſide of the ſedan, and two who follow behind with lanthorns, though it be in the middle of the day. Thus they have generally nine ſervants with a coach, and ten with a ſedan, beſides thoſe who go before.

SECT. IV.

Of the Capacities and Genius of the Spaniards; the Obſtructions to Learning, and their Skill in Divinity, Hiſtory, Phyſic, and Poetry. Their Deficiency in manual Arts. The State of their foreign Trade; with a particular Account of the Spaniſh Coin, Weights, and Meaſures.

THE Spaniards are far from being wanting in capacity for the ſciences, yet little progreſs can be expected from them while they are debarred the uſe of their natural talents. The clergy not being very learned themſelves, it is a point of policy with them to ſuppreſs all ſcientifical knowledge among the laity; and in order to keep them in ignorance and ſubjection, they brand all literary reſearches with the name of hereſy. Hence, tho' Spain has no leſs than twenty-two univerſities, and ſeveral academies, among which is one at Valladolid for geography; yet are they under ſuch reſtrictions, that thoſe who attend them can never make any figure in literature. The bookſellers in Spain ſcarcely dare to keep a valuable book in their ſhops, on any remarkable and intereſting ſubject; the inquiſition being extremely vigilant in ſuppreſſing them, and concealing from the public whatever may tend to open their eyes. They have pretences always ready for ſeizing foreign books, though they have not the leaſt relation to religion. Indeed, moſt of the books publiſhed in the Spaniſh language are printed out of Spain, few printing-houſes being to be ſeen there, and the far greateſt part of their paper is imported from Genoa.

With reſpect to the preſent ſtate of divinity, it conſiſts, much as it formerly did, in the ſtudy of the fathers, councils and decrees of the popes and their canons, and in ſyſtems of Thomaſtic and Auguſtine theology. The knowledge of the learned languages, and explication of the text of the ſacred writings, have little to do with it. In this tract of criticiſm they are almoſt utter ſtrangers, though they are well verſed in caſuiſtry, which makes a conſtant part of the ſtudies preparatory to the paſtoral office.

In hiſtory the Spaniards have had many valuable writers; but it is dangerous to deſcend too near to the preſent time; beſides, his preſent majeſty has abſolutely forbid any of his ſubjects to write the hiſtory of Charles V.

In phyſic and ſurgery, Mr. Clarke ſays, they are at leaſt two centuries behind the Engliſh; but where the people are perſuaded that ſaints, miracles, and charms can be procured to cure the moſt inveterate diſeaſes, there muſt be little inclination to have recourſe to art. However, they ſtill practiſe copious bleeding in moſt diſeaſes, and botany is much ſtudied.

In poetry they have many writers, beſides the celebrated Lopez de Vega, who wrote the *Jeruſalem Conquiſtada*, tragedies, comedies, &c. Their ſongs have a wonderful air of ſimplicity, and in ſome of them are much ſentiment as well as dignity: thoſe upon love are extremely chaſte; and ſome have a pleaſing air of romance; but moral, grave, majeſtic, penſive, like the people themſelves.

The moſt celebrated writers of humour in proſe are Cervantes and Guevara; the moſt famous work of the latter is the *El Diablo Coxuelo*, which la Sage modernized into a romance, known in Engliſh by the title of The Devil on two Sticks.

There is here a want even of the moſt neceſſary trades; and of the few they have, the greateſt part are in the hands of the French, who are very numerous in this country; for the natives, beſides their averſion to work, diſdain to ſtoop to laborious employments. They are not, however, entirely without manufactures, eſpecially of ſilk and wool; but theſe fall far ſhort of that flouriſhing condition to which they might be brought: and as tradeſmen and merchants are looked upon with contempt, they have no ſooner amaſſed a competent fortune, than they leave off trade, procure a title, and ſet up for perſons of quality. The great duties likewiſe on Spaniſh ſtuffs render them dearer than the foreign. Thus the Spaniards part with the products of their own country, and with the treaſures of America, to foreigners, who ſupply them with bread, and every thing that can contribute to convenience and ſplendor. It has indeed been ſaid, that of late the Spaniſh manufactures are in a thriving way, and that they make very fine cloths, beſides gold and ſilver; but this will not probably be laſting; at leaſt it will be a long time before they are able to ſupply the wants of their own country, ſo as to exclude foreign manufactures.

Spain is extremely well ſituated for trade and navigation: they might be their own carriers; but this advantage they neglect, and leave it to other maritime nations, who turn it to a very good account. The Spaniards indeed deny them all acceſs to their poſſeſſions in America, and are ſo jealous of having that trade confined only to themſelves, that no foreign ſhips muſt even approach their coaſt: yet of this commerce, which is carried on in their own ſhips, they have the leaſt profit, they being little more than factors for the French, Engliſh, Dutch, and Italians, who ſend their goods to America by them, and have the greateſt ſhare in their returns of gold, ſilver, and other commodities.

The trade to America was formerly carried on by the flota and galleons. The flota, or Plate fleet, conſiſts of a certain number of ſhips, ſome belonging to the king, and others to merchants: theſe uſed to ſet ſail from Cadiz to Mexico about Auguſt, unlading at Vera-Cruz, and returning to Spain in eighteen or nineteen months.

The galleons were two men of war, called Capitana and Almiranta, which ſerved as convoy for eight or twelve ſhips that put to ſea from Cadiz every March or April. Their firſt port was Carthagena; from thence, by way of the Havannah, they returned to Spain. But ſince the years 1735 and 1737, the flota and galleons have been diſcontinued, and the trade to America carried on in regiſter ſhips, which any merchants may ſend, on obtaining permiſſion from the council of the Indies. Theſe ſail from Cadiz directly to Lima, Buenos Ayres, Maracaibo, Carthagena, Honduras, Campeche, and Vera Cruz.

In 1728 an excluſive charter was granted to a company for trading to the Caraccas, a permiſſion to the inhabitants of the Canary iſlands only excepted, who were allowed to ſend thither annually one regiſter ſhip, whoſe cargo was entirely to conſiſt of the produce of theſe iſlands. In 1756 another company was erected for trading to Hiſpaniola and Porto Rica, and ſending annually ten regiſter ſhips to the bay of Honduras, and the ports of the province of Guatimala.

The Spaniards alſo carry on a very conſiderable trade to the coaſts on the South Sea, between the town of Manila, in the iſland of Luconia, and the harbour of Acapulco on the coaſt of Mexico; but of this trade we have given a particular account in treating of Manila, Vol. I. page 102, 103.

With reſpect to the Spaniſh money, it is not eaſily underſtood; for the Spaniards make up moſt of their accompts, and form their calculations chiefly in theſe two ſpecies, the real de vellon, and the maravedi. The latter is the loweſt of the denominations of their copper money, and in this the king's accompts are kept; conſequently the revenues of Spain, and the wealth brought from Peru and Mexico, are annually computed by an integer of copper that is three times leſs than our farthing.

The real de vellon is the ſmalleſt piece of their ſilver money, and equals our two-pence half-penny, and two thirds of a farthing. But though it be the moſt uſual way in Spain to compute by the maravedi and the real de vellon, yet there are ſeveral other methods of calculation ſtill in force. Thus, penſions from the court, payments of the army, navy, &c. are ſet down in the regiſter of the Spaniſh finances in eſcudos and ducados, or copper crowns and ducats. Some accompts of merchants and private perſons are likewiſe kept in this way; but few things are bought and ſold but by the former computation of maravedis and reals.

In the office of decimal rents, or tythes belonging to the archbiſhop of Toledo, accompts are kept in the obſolete denomination of dineros, ten of which make a maravedi. There are no leſs than fifty clerks in this office; and how voluminous muſt their accompts be for above thirty thouſand pounds a year, that are kept in a denomination, the value of which is above thirty times leſs than an Engliſh farthing!

The ſmall denominations by which the Spaniards love to compute, renders their accompts, like themſelves, ſlow, tedious, and elaborate; but then they have this advantage, that they make their accomptants moſt minutely exact.

But our Engliſh merchants traffic chiefly in pieces of eight, and compute uſually by the piaſtre, or old diſuſed piece of eight, conſiſting of fifteen reals and two maravedis: or if they reckon by piſtoles, they mean the piſtole of ſixty reals, which is the common piſtole, and not the gold one of ſeventy-five and ten maravedis, otherwiſe called the *doblon effective de oro*.

To give a more perfect idea of the Spaniſh coin, the following is reduced to the Engliſh weights and value:

	£.	s.	d.
The old Spaniſh piſtole, 4 pen. wt. 8 gr.	0	17	4
The new Seville piſtole, 4 pen. wt. 8 gr.	0	17	4
The old double doubloon, 17 pen. wt. 8 gr.	3	9	4
The old double piſtole, 8 pen. wt. 16 gr.	1	14	8
The new Seville double piſtole, 18 pen. wt. 16 gr.	1	14	8
The half and quarter of theſe in proportion.			
The piaſtre of Spain, or Seville pieces of eight	0	4	6
The new Seville piece of eight — —	0	3	7
The Mexico piece of eight — ——	0	4	5
The pillar piece of eight — — —	0	4	5
The rial, or bit — — —	0	0	7

The Spaniſh weights are the arrobe, which is exactly twenty-five pounds Engliſh weight, four of which make a quintal or hundred: but yet the arrobe is not the ſame throughout all Spain; for the pound of Cadiz and Seville, and conſequently the arrobe, are much larger than thoſe of Caſtile.

In Spain almoſt every thing, whether dry or liquid, is ſold by the averdupois pound of ſixteen ounces, and conſequently by the arrobe: thus wine, oil, wood, coals, corn, bread, ſalt, &c. are ſold by the pound, and in large quantities by the arrobe.

The gold and ſilver-ſmiths weights are,

The quilate, or carrat, is four grains.
A tomin, equal to three carrats, twelve grains.
A caſtillan, equal to eight tomins.
The ounce, equal to ſix caſtillans and two tomins.
The mark is equal to eight ounces.

The liquid meaſures are,

Dos açumbres, or a gallon.
An açumbre, two quarts.
Half an açumbre, one quart.
A quartillo, one pint.

SECT. V.

A conciſe Hiſtory of Spain; the Titles and Arms of the King; of the Nobility, and the Orders of Knighthood. Of the Inauguration of the King, his ſeveral Councils and Courts of Juſtice, his Revenues and Forces.

WITH reſpect to the hiſtory of Spain, it will be proper to obſerve, that the ſouthern coaſt was antiently frequented by the Phœnicians for the ſake of commerce: after them the Carthaginians came in a hoſtile manner and reduced the country; but were in their turn diſpoſſeſſed by the Romans. Towards the beginning of the fifth century it was over-run by the Swabians, Alans, and Vandals; but theſe were ſoon ſubdued by the Viſigoths, who entered Spain under the command of their king Atolphus, or Adolphus. Witiſa, one of their kings, dying in the year 711, the kingdom was divided into factions, and the public revenues greatly diminiſhed by the wealth which the biſhops and clergy had accumulated. Such was the ſtate of the nation when king Roderic aſcended the throne, and to him is generally attributed, ſays Buſching, the overthrow of the Gothic kingdom in Spain, though his rape on the lady, or daughter of count Julian, who is ſaid, out of reſentment, to have inſtigated the Moors to invade Spain, has never been ſufficiently proved. It is, however, certain, that Spain was delivered up to the Moors by the craft and treachery of count Julian, and Oppa, archbiſhop of Seville; who not only ſpirited up the people clandeſtinely to revolt, but at the bloody battle of Xeres even deſerted to the Moors, which turned the ſcale againſt the Viſigoths. Thus the Moors, who were alſo called Arabians and Saracens, became maſters of the kingdom. This revolution happened in the year 714.

Pelagius, a prince of the Viſigoths, with a great number of the Gothic nobility, his followers, withdrew into Galicia, Biſcay, and the mountains of Aſturia: other bodies of the ſame nation diſperſed themſelves into Navarre, Arragon, and the Pyrenean mountains: thus the Gothic empire became divided into a number of petty ſtates; for Pelagius having, in 716, obtained a victory over the Moors, the remaining Goths broke out into inconceivable animoſities, and ſeparately laid the foundations of the kingdoms of Leon, Navarre, Arragon, and Sobrarbien; and of the earldoms of Caſtile, Barcelona, &c. Theſe ſmall ſtates were not only continually at war with the Moors, but with each other. Hence their frequent quarrels and alliances render their hiſtory very intricate. The kingdom of Caſtile and Arragon at length became ſuperior to the reſt; but though they were thrice united by marriage, they ſoon ſeparated again; till, in 1472, a perpetual union took place, by means of the marriage of Ferdinand, hereditary prince of Arragon, to Iſabella, heireſs of Caſtile, who, in 1473, became king and queen of Caſtile; and, on the death of Ferdinand's father, in 1479, of Arragon alſo. To Caſtile at that time belonged not only both the Caſtiles and Eſtramadura, but Andaluſia, Murcia, Leon, and the Aſturias; Navarre, Biſcay, Guipuſcoa, Alava, Rioja, and Galicia; Arragon included Arragon, Catalonia, Rouſillon, Valencia, and the iſlands of Majorca, Minorca, and Yvica.

Ferdinand, on his firſt obtaining this great kingdom, immediately erected the court of inquiſition; and, in 1491, by the conqueſt of the city of Granada, put an end to the dominion of the Moors in Spain, on which account the pope gave him the title of the Moſt Catholic king.

By the articles of capitulation on which Granada ſurrendered, Boabdil, the Mooriſh king, with his ſubjects, ſubmitted to do homage to Ferdinand and Iſabella, on condition of retaining the poſſeſſion of their kingdom and their laws, with the free exerciſe of their religion. But this capitulation was ſoon violated, and it being reſolved to put all to death who refuſed to be baptized, ſeveral hundred thouſands of them fled to Africa; and their Jewiſh ſubjects, who were very numerous, were baniſhed to Portugal.

Iſabella, the conſort of Ferdinand, now enabled the juſtly celebrated Columbus to undertake the diſcovery of new countries beyond the Atlantic Ocean, and in 1492 he ſailed to the Weſt Indies.

In 1504 king Ferdinand acquired, by ſtratagem, the whole kingdom of Naples. In 1509, he conquered Oran on the coaſt of Africa, and in 1512 made himſelf maſter of the kingdom of Navarre: by which the ſeveral ſtates of Spain were united into one body. In 1496 a marriage was concluded between Philip of Auſtria and Johanna, daughter to Ferdinand, which ſoon after cauſed the Auſtrian dominions to be united to the Spaniſh; for Charles V. grand-ſon to Ferdinand, in 1520, became both king of Spain and emperor of Germany; but in 1556 reſigned the empire in favour of his brother Ferdinand.

His ſon and ſucceſſor to the throne of Spain was Philip II. who alſo poſſeſſed Milan, with the ſeventeen provinces of the Netherlands, and the county of Burgundy; and in 1581 ſubdued Portugal. But attempting to govern as arbitrarily in the Netherlands, as his father had done in Spain, and at the ſame time introducing a kind of inquiſition for the ſuppreſſion of the Proteſtants, who

who began to be very numerous, occaſioned an almoſt general inſurrection, and a civil war commenced, in which the duke of Alva, the king of Spain's general, exerciſed great cruelties. They were then aſſiſted by Elizabeth, queen of England, and by France. Upon which Philip fitted out the moſt formidable fleet that ever ſailed upon the ocean; this was his boaſted invincible armada, with which he attempted to invade England; but it was in a great meaſure deſtroyed by the ſtorms of heaven and the bravery of the Engliſh.

Philip III. weakened his country by expelling a million more of the Moors, and the new converts that remained behind were perpetually perſecuted and tortured by the inquiſition.

Under Philip IV. Portugal ſhook off the Spaniſh yoke, and ſeveral other countries revolted. In 1648 that prince was obliged to acknowledge the United Provinces a free independent ſtate; and in 1659 he loſt all the county of Rouſillon. Charles II. was diſpoſſeſſed of a great part of what he enjoyed in other parts of the Netherlands, as likewiſe of Franche Compté, and by his death in 1700 his family became extinct.

Philip, duke of Anjou, grand-ſon to Lewis XIV. of France, by Charles's will, aſcended the throne of Spain; but this occaſioned thirteen years war between France and the houſe of Auſtria, till, by the peace of Utrecht, Philip's poſſeſſion was confirmed by ceding Gibraltar and Minorca to England, and Sicily to the duke of Savoy; the emperor Charles VI. being only able to obtain the Netherlands and certain dominions in Italy.

In 1717 Philip took Sicily and Sardinia from the emperor; but in 1720 acceded to the quadruple alliance, and renounced all claim to France, the Spaniſh Netherlands, Italy, Sicily, and Sardinia, which was confirmed in 1725 by the peace of Vienna, in which Charles VI. relinquiſhed all pretenſions to the crown of Spain: but in 1733 he procured his ſon Don Carlos to be inveſted with Naples and Sicily.

In 1739 a war broke out between England and Spain, after which king Ferdinand VI. at the treaty of Aix la Chapelle, found means to procure for his half-brother, Don Philip, the three duchies of Parma, Placentia, and Guaſtalla. Ferdinand died in 1758, when his brother Don Carlos, king of the Two Sicilies, aſcended the throne.

The titles of the king of Spain run thus: Charles III. by the grace of God king of Caſtile, Leon, Arragon, the Two Sicilies, Jeruſalem, Navarre, Granada, Toledo, Valencia, Galicia, Majorca, Seville, Cerdena, Cordova, Corſica, Murcia, Jaen, the Algarves, of Algezira, Gibraltar, the Canary Iſlands, the Eaſt and Weſt Indies, the Iſlands and Continent of the Ocean; archduke of Auſtria; duke of Burgundy, Brabant, and Milan, of Hapſburg, Flanders, Tirol, and Barcelona; lord of Biſcay and Molina, &c. He alſo enjoys the title of Moſt Catholic king, and ſince the year 1308 the hereditary prince is ſtiled prince of the Aſturias. The other royal children are called infantas.

The arms of Spain are a ſhield divided into four quarters, of which the uppermoſt on the right hand and the loweſt on the left contain a caſtle or, with three towers for Caſtile; and in the uppermoſt on the left and the loweſt on the right are three lions gules, for Leon; with three lilies in the center for Anjou.

The inferior nobility ſtile themſelves *cavalleros* and *hidalgos*; but enjoy no privileges above the burghers. However, the higher nobility, including the dukes, marquiſſes, and counts, who are ſtiled the *titulos*, or *titulados*; and particularly the grandees, who take precedence next the king and the princes of the blood, enjoy great privileges. They are divided into three claſſes, but conſider themſelves as being all upon an equality: yet when the king nominates a grandee, if he be of the firſt claſs, he kiſſes the king's hand, and returns his majeſty thanks covered; if of the ſecond, he does not cover himſelf till after the compliment; and if of the third, he does not put on his hat till he has kiſſed his hand, and returned to his place among the grandees who are preſent.

The pre-eminence of a grandee does not ſolely conſiſt of his being covered in the king's preſence; this being common to others, as cardinals, nuncios, archbiſhops, and the ambaſſadors of crowned heads; for at an aſſembly of the ſtates, or the nomination of a king, they take place of all temporal lords, the conſtable and amirant of Caſtile excepted. They enjoy all the privileges of a duke, though no dukes by title. When the king takes the air on horſeback, they ride next to his perſon, the maſter of the horſe only excepted, who by virtue of his office rides by the king's ſide. The king in writing or ſpeaking ſtiles them prince or couſin-german. At an audience of the pope they are permitted to ſit, and he gives them the title of Sennoria. No grandee can be taken into cuſtody for any offence, unleſs by expreſs order of the king; and it muſt be high treaſon, or ſome other heinous crime againſt the ſtate, that can occaſion the obtaining of ſuch an order. They and their eldeſt ſons are ſtiled Excellency, and they even eſteem themſelves equal to the princes of the empire and of Italy.

The principal order of knighthood in Spain is that of the Golden Fleece, which received its origin from the Burgundian dominions, and at preſent belongs both to the kings of Spain and the houſe of Auſtria. The collar of the order conſiſts of an alternate range of golden flints and ſteels, with ſparks of fire on all ſides, and a golden fleece pendant from it, with this motto, AUTRE N'AURAI. Charles V. permitted the knights, inſtead of this collar, to wear only a ſcarlet ribbon.

The three orders properly Spaniſh, and which have a revenue annexed to them, are,

The order of St. Jago di Compoſtella, inſtituted in 1175, by Ferdinand II. king of Leon, and has for its badge a red uniform croſs, divided into twelve departments. This order has four convents who are brothers of the order, ſeven religious ones, one college, five hoſpitals, and ſix hermitages.

The order of Calatrava, inſtituted by Sancho III. of Caſtile, has for its badge a red croſs, divided into five departments. To this order belong one convent of religious, and one college.

The order of Alcantara, the badge of which is a lily placed croſs-wiſe, was inſtituted by Ferdinand II. king of Leon, and was at firſt called St. Julian de Peregro. This order is alſo divided into five departments, and to it belong three convents of religious, and one college.

The king is grand maſter of theſe orders.

Beſides theſe, the preſent king of Spain has now introduced the Neapolitan order of St. Januarius; and has ordered it to be worn in his court above the French order of the Holy Ghoſt, or that of the Golden Fleece.

Spain, from the Gothic times to that of Pelagius, was an elective kingdom; and for two centuries afterwards the throne was filled by the ſuffrages of the ſtates, who, however, in no inſtance departed from the royal family. At preſent the crown of courſe devolves, without any form or ceremony, to the neareſt in blood, and females are capable of inheriting; but it is only on the failure of the male line. If the next heir be incapable of government, eſpecially when on the deceaſe of the former king affairs are in confuſion, the ſtates are impowered to chooſe five perſons to take the adminiſtration upon them, among whom the queen-mother is to hold the chief place.

On the inauguration of a new monarch, he is proclaimed in the church of the Jeromites at Buen Retiro, and receives homage from the ſtates; but he is neither anointed nor crowned; for theſe ceremonies have been diſuſed for ſome centuries.

The ancient Spaniſh cortes reſembled our parliament, it conſiſting of the clergy, the ancient nobility, and the deputies of the towns; and the legiſlative authority was ſo blended in that of the king and the ſtates, that no laws could be made, repealed, or ſuſpended, nor any money raiſed upon the ſubjects, but with their common conſent. But now this cortes is laid aſide; Spain is no longer a mixed monarchy, but entirely abſolute; the whole government being in the hands of the king and his miniſters, and the councils, which are always at his devotion. This change from mixed to abſolute monarchy, was occaſioned by the timidity of the commons of Caſtile, who having, in their laſt ſtruggles for expiring freedom, ſupported for ſome time a war againſt the crown, on a ſingle defeat, in the moſt abject manner deſerted the noble cauſe of liberty. This war began in the year 1520, and laſted only two years; at which time

time Charles V. carried his point with a high hand, and told the cortes he would always have the ſupplies granted firſt, and then would paſs the bills they petitioned for, and not before, to which they timidly ſubmitted. Since the time of Philip III. in the beginning of the ſeventeenth century, the cortes have been diſcontinued, and there have been no other aſſembly than conventions of the deputies or agents of the towns, among whom are ſettled the neceſſary taxes.

The laws of Spain are chiefly compounded of the Roman civil law, the royal edicts, and probably certain provincial cuſtoms. Where they thought the Roman law was not ſufficiently extenſive, they have made large additions of their own; theſe are called the *Leyes de Partidas*, and at preſent form a ſyſtem of modern Spaniſh law, and have been publiſhed in ſix volumes octavo. The name *Partidas* comes from their being divided into chapters.

The moſt weighty affairs of ſtate are diſcuſſed in the council of ſtate, which conſiſts of a preſident, three other counſellors, a ſecretary of ſtate, and two other ſecretaries.

The ſupreme royal council, or royal council of Caſtile, is the higheſt court of judicature, and is divided into five inferior courts or chambers, viz. the firſt and ſecond halls of government, which are frequently aſſembled as one, to determine appeals made from the chanceries of Valladolid and Granada. The hall of the *Mil y Quinientos*, ſo called becauſe the parties muſt firſt depoſite fifteen hundred doblas, about two hundred and twenty-three pounds, before the appeal can be lodged: this is nothing more than a committee of the ſupreme council. The hall of Juſtice, which is a court for matters purely litigious; and the hall of the Province, which is a court for matters chiefly relating to the police; the provinces being diſtributed among the ſeven counſellors of the firſt hall of government.

The chamber of the alcaldes of the court and houſehold, which may alſo be claſſed with the great councils, conſiſts of a governor or preſident, twelve judges, and a fiſcal.

The ſupreme council of war is at preſent compoſed of four counſellors, one of whom is ſecretary, one fiſcal, and three aſſeſſors, who are members of the royal council of Caſtile. This council determines all cauſes relating to the army, except what belongs to the following council.

The ſupreme royal council of the Indies conſiſts of a governor, twenty-two counſellors, four ſecretaries, two for Peru and two for New Spain, one accomptant general, and other officers. This tribunal decides without appeal in affairs relating to the Spaniſh ſeas and poſſeſſions in America.

The council of the finances is divided into four chambers, or halls.

The great court of the civil law is divided into the two chambers of Valladolid and Granada, which include the whole kingdom: but though Arragon, Valentia, and Catalonia, loſt their old privileges, yet they ſtill retain a court of chancery among themſelves, in audiences held in the capital of each kingdom, whoſe determinations are only ſubject to the ſupreme council of Caſtile. If it be a caſe of property, the ſuit is commenced in that chancery to which the plaintiff belongs, and then the affair is referred to the ſupreme royal council, at which the king may order all the deputy councils to aſſiſt. All other cauſes go before the reſpective courts to which they belong.

The revenue of the king ariſes principally from the tenth of every thing ſold, to which may be added the tithes and fourths of a hundred; the exciſe on wine, oil, tallow, ſoap, paper, ſalt-fiſh, &c. the uſual aid of four hundred and forty-one thouſand one hundred and ſeventy-ſix crowns, paid by all under the rank of nobility; the wine gauge money; the ſtamp duties, and the half annates; the duties on proviſions, which is fourteen per cent. thoſe on ſalt, tobacco, the poſt-office, the regulations of the crown of Arragon, and the bull of the cruſado, by virtue of which the clergy and laity pay a contribution towards carrying on a war with the infidels, even whether there be any ſuch war or not; indulgences; licences for eating butter, cheeſe, milk, and eggs, in Lent; the ſubſidies and tithes of church and abbey-lands; the money paid by thoſe orders in lieu of the lances and galleys they were bound to furniſh; the taxes on downs, commons, and other paſtures; the Madrid exciſe; the thirds, tenths, and patrimonial rents of Catalonia, Arragon, Valencia, and Majorca; the eccleſiaſtical payments for the military hoſpitals; the quickſilver, and other American revenues; the Weſt-India trade; the coinage, &c. all which together amount at preſent to about three million three hundred ſeventy-three thouſand two hundred eighty-eight pounds ſterling.

The Spaniſh land forces conſiſt of ninety-ſix thouſand five hundred and ninety-ſeven men. The kingdom is alſo well defended on all ſides: towards France it has a ſecure fence in the Pyrenean mountains; and the ſea-coaſts are lined with redoubts, forts, and towers; and up the country the army of an enemy would be put to very great inconveniences, particularly the horſe, for want of forage.

The naval forces of Spain conſiſt at preſent of forty-ſeven ſhips of the line, twenty-one frigates, fourteen xebecs, four packet-boats, and ſeventeen bomb-veſſels; the complement of all which amount to forty-five thouſand nine hundred ſixty men.

The foreign poſſeſſions of the crown of Spain in Africa, are the towns of Ceuta, Oran, and Maſalquiver, on the coaſt of Barbary; in Aſia, the iſlands of St. Lazarus, the Philippines, and Ladrones; the greateſt part of the main land of South-America; and in North-America, Mexico, New Mexico, California, the iſland of Cuba, part of Hiſpaniola, Porto Rico, &c.

SECT. VI.

The Diviſions of Spain, with a Deſcription of the kingdom or Province of Catalonia, containing its Situation, Extent, Rivers, Produce, and principal Cities, particularly Tortoſa, Tarragona, Barcelona, Roſes, and Gerona.

THE kingdom of Spain conſiſts of main land and iſlands. The main land is divided into fourteen provinces, ſome of which are reckoned to belong to the crown of Caſtile, and others to Arragon: the former are Old and New Caſtile, Biſcay, Leon, Aſturia, Galicia, Eſtremadura, Andaluſia, Granada, Murcia, and Navarre; the latter includes only Arragon, Catalonia, and Valencia, with the iſlands in the Mediterranean.

We ſhall begin with Catalonia, which is bounded on the weſt by Arragon and Valencia; on the ſouth and eaſt by the Mediterranean; and on the north is ſeparated from France by the Pyrenean mountains. Its greateſt extent from eaſt to weſt is a hundred and twelve Engliſh miles, and from north to ſouth a hundred forty-eight. It was formerly larger than at preſent; but France has, at different times, curtailed it of the counties of Rouſillon and Conflans, a good part of Cerdagne, and long ſince of Foix.

This fine country is watered by ſeveral rivers, ſome of which intermix, while others diſcharge themſelves ſeparately into the ſea. Of the firſt ſort is the Segre, in Latin Sicoris, the largeſt of all the rivers of Catalonia. It has its ſource in Cerdagne, and receives in its paſſage the Noguera Pallareſa, the Noguera Ribagorzana, and the Cervera. It afterwards unites with the Cinca, and at laſt loſes itſelf in the Ebro. Of the ſecond kind, beſides the large river Ebro, which paſſes through only a ſmall part of Catalonia, is the Francoli, which falls into the ſea at Tarragona; the Llobregat, anciently called the Rubricatus, which receives its ſource in the mountain of Pendis, and diſcharges itſelf into the ſea below Barcelona; the Beſos, or Betulus, which alſo joins the ſea not far from Barcelona; the Ter, Thicis, or Thiceris, which iſſues between the mountains, and diſcharges itſelf into the ſea below Torcella; the river Fluvia, which falls into the ſea near Empurias; and another Llobregat, the mouth of which is near Roſes.

Though Catalonia does not produce ſugar-canes, like the reſt of the provinces of Spain, yet it enjoys a very good

good ſoil, with a pure and wholeſome air. The winters in the northern parts, contiguous to the Pyrenees, are attended with ſome froſt and ſnow; but in the ſouthern, particularly along the ſea coaſt, that ſeaſon is very mild. It is almoſt entirely mountainous, a few places excepted, which extend themſelves into moſt delightful plains; but theſe mountains are ſo far from being barren, that they are covered with wood and fruit trees. The country yields plenty of wine, corn, oil, pulſe, and fruits, and alſo produces a great quantity of flax and hemp. The fleſh meat of this country, and in general all proviſions, are excellent.

With reſpect to minerals, marble, cryſtal, alabaſter, jaſper, amethyſts, &c. are found here; likewiſe gold, ſilver, tin, lead, iron, alum, vitriol, and ſalt, and the coaſt has ſeveral coral fiſheries. In ſhort, this province is one of the moſt populous in all Spain, and contains an archbiſhoprick, ſeven biſhopricks, twenty-eight large abbies, one principality, two duchies, five marquiſates, ſeventeen earldoms, fourteen viſcounts, and a multitude of baronies.

Some geographers divide this principality into Old and New Catalonia, including in the former the country extending eaſtward from the Pyrenean mountains along the river Llobregat to the Mediterranean; and, in the latter, they comprehend that tract to the weſt, which extends from the Llobregat to the confines of Valencia and Arragon. This country is uſually divided into fifteen juriſdictions, ſix of which lie along the coaſt; theſe are thoſe of Tortoſa, Monblane, Tarragona, Villa Franca, de Panades, Barcelona, and Gerona. Along the Pyrenean mountains are the two juriſdictions of Campredon and Puicerda, with the earldom of Cerdagne. The two juriſdictions of Belaguer and Lerida join to the frontiers of Arragon; and within the country are thoſe of Agramont, Tarrega, Cevera, Manreſa, and Vique: but as it is impoſſible to diſtinguiſh with any certainty the places belonging to each juriſdiction, we ſhall inſert the moſt remarkable, without ſtrictly attending to theſe minute diviſions.

Tortoſa is an antient, large, and fortified city, on the Ebro, over which it has a bridge of boats. It lies partly on a level, and partly on a hill, eighty miles to the weſt-by-ſouth of Barcelona, and a hundred and eighty-five to the eaſt of Madrid. It is divided into the Old and New Town, of which the former is the largeſt. The avenue to it is defended by two baſtions and other out-works, and the antient ſtrong caſtle, which is built in the form of a citadel, ſtands on an eminence between the two towns. Here are five gates, ſeventy-eight ſtreets, with a ſpacious ſquare or market-place, and many churches and convents; the biſhop, who is ſuffragan to the archbiſhop of Saragoſſa, has an annual revenue of fifteen thouſand ducats. Its univerſity is inconſiderable; but the adjacent conutry abounds in corn and fruit, oil and ſilk, and with quarries and mines; for there are thoſe of ſilver and iron, alabaſter, very fine jaſper of various colours, and ſtones with veins of gold. They alſo make here fine potters-ware, which reſemble porcelain.

Tarragona, an antient and ſtrong city, is ſituated on an eminence near the mouth of the little river Francoli, forty-five miles to the north-eaſt of Tortoſa, and about the ſame diſtance to the weſt of Barcelona. It is neither ſo large nor ſo populous as it was formerly; for though there is room for two thouſand houſes within the walls, there are not above five hundred, which are all built of large ſquare ſtones; but it is ſtill the ſee of an archbiſhop, who enjoys a revenue of twenty thouſand ducats a year. It has an univerſity founded in the year 1532. Its harbour, on account of its many rocks, will not admit of ſhips of burthen; but it has a pretty good trade. The neighbouring country produces corn, oil, flax, and very good wine; and both within and without the city are to be ſeen the ruins of magnificent buildings, and other ornaments of antiquity.

In this city are a multitude of Roman inſcriptions, and not far from thence, in the road to Barcelona, you paſs under a very handſome triumphal arch, erected by the family of the Licinii, adorned with fluted Corinthian columns, and a pediment with dentiles, like the Ionic order. A little way on one ſide the road, ſomewhat farther on, is the tomb of the Scipios; it being the baſe of an obeliſk, or pyramid, erected to their memory, with a figure on each ſide in the Roman habit; theſe are by ſome thought to be deſigned for the two Scipios, but others ſuppoſe them to repreſent weeping ſlaves.

Barcelona, or Barcino, the capital of Catalonia, is a large and well fortified ſea-port, ſeated at the foot of Montjoui, in the forty-firſt degree twenty minutes latitude, and in the ſecond degree five minutes eaſt longitude. It opens to the ſea in a beautiful ſemicircle, between the rivers Llobregat and Beſes. It is a large and well fortified place, divided into the Old and New Town, which are ſeparated from each other by a wall and ditch. Moſt of the ſtreets are broad, well paved, and clean. It has many beautiful ſtructures, a large and ſuperb cathedral, with ſome other beautiful churches and convents, and ſeveral handſome ſquares. At the church of Capiuleſmona, or the Alms-taker, cloſe by the cathedral, three hundred poor people are daily fed. The number of houſes in Barcelona is computed at about fifteen thouſand. Its biſhop is ſuffragan to the metropolitan of Tarragona, and his annual revenue is computed at ten thouſand ducats. Here is alſo an univerſity, an academy of the fine arts erected in 1752, a court of inquiſition, and a royal audience of Catalonia, in which, next to the governor and captain-general, ſits the regent. The other members here are ten counſellors, five criminal, or juſticiary, officers, and two fiſcals. On the coaſt of Barcelona is a ſafe road. The city carries on a good trade, and has a large, deep, and ſecure harbour, defended on one ſide by a large mole, at the extremtiy of which is a light-houſe, with a little fort, and a garriſon for the defence of ſmall veſſels, thoſe of larger burthens lying out in the road. On the the other ſide the caſtle of Montjoui covers the harbour, between which and the city is a line of communication, and upon this is a fort, whereby the entrance of the harbour is flanked and commanded.

Barcelona had its own counts till the year 1162, when it was united to Arragon. In 1640 the inhabitants revolted, and put themſelves into the hands of the French; but in 1652 the city was reduced by the Spaniards. In 1691 and 1697 it was beſieged and taken by the French, under the duke of Vendoſme; but the ſame year was reſtored to the Spaniards by the treaty of Ryſwic. The French poſſeſſing themſelves of this city and the reſt of the Spaniſh monarchy in 1700, king Charles III. afterwards emperor of Germany, by the title of Charles VI. took it on the fourth of October, 1705, ſword in hand, after a ſiege of only three weeks, with a handful of men, not much more numerous than the garriſon which defended the place. In April 1706, Philip, duke of Anjou, and marſhal Teſſe, inveſted it with a large train of braſs artillery, and a numerous army; but the city, animated by the preſence of king Charles, held out thirty-five days, till relieved by lord Peterborough and Sir John Leake, who coming up with the Engliſh fleet, the French and Spaniards raiſed the ſiege with great precipitation, leaving behind them all their cannon, ammunition, tents, baggage, and wounded men. The city remained in the poſſeſſion of Charles III. till the year 1712, when his brother Joſeph dying, he became emperor; and the citizens erecting themſelves into a ſort of commonwealth, ſet up for an independent ſtate; but in 1714, after holding out a long ſiege againſt the duke of Berwick, the inhabitants were obliged to ſubmit to Philip V. and ſtill continue in ſubjection to the crown of Spain.

The neighbouring country abounds with wheat and other grain, oil, rich wines, fruit of all ſorts, wood, cattle, fowl, plenty of wild game, and honey. It is well watered, and thick ſet with villages. They have ſilk and woollen manufactures, and excel in iron and ſteel works.

Roſas, or Roſes, a town of Catalonia, conſiderable for its ſtrength, trade, and commodious harbour, is ſituated on a bay of the ſame name on the Mediterranean, about ſixty-two miles to the north-eaſt of Barcelona. It was in a declining condition till Charles V. rebuilt, fortified, and peopled it; ſince which time it has flouriſhed very much, eſpecially under the French, who, from its vicinity to them, have often made themſelves maſters of it; but have always been obliged to give it up at the

 concluſion

conclusion of a peace. This was the only place in all Catalonia that held out for king Philip V. during queen Anne's wars, while all the reſt of the province had ſubmitted to Charles III.

Gerona, antiently Gerunda, is an old fortified city, ſtanding on an acclivity adjoining to the Onhar, which at a ſmall diſtance falls into the Ter. It is an earldom, and a place of conſiderable trade; yet the revenue of its biſhop, who is ſuffragan to the archbiſhop of Tarragona, is only three thouſand ducats a year, and its univerſity makes no great figure. The large juriſdiction, of which this is the capital, is reckoned the moſt fertile tract in all Catalonia. In 1694 this city was taken by the French; in 1697 by the Spaniards; in 1705 by the forces of Charles III. and in the year 1711 was again taken by the French.

SECT. VII.

Of the Kingdom or Province of Arragon; its Situation, Extent, Rivers, Produce, Hiſtory, and principal Cities; with a more particular Deſcription of Saragoſſa.

THE kingdom of Arragon is bounded on the north by the Pyrenean mountains; on the eaſt by Catalonia; on the ſouth by Valencia; and on the weſt by Navarre and Caſtile. Its extent from north to ſouth is upwards of a hundred and ſixty miles, and from eaſt to weſt above a hundred and four. The river Ebro croſſes the country from the north-weſt to the ſouth-eaſt, dividing it into two almoſt equal parts. Into it the following rivers diſcharge themſelves: on the north ſide the rapid Cinga, or Cinca, which riſes in the mountains of Bielſa; the Callego, the antient Gallicus, which iſſues from Mount Gavas; the Iſuela; and ſeveral other ſmaller ſtreams. From the ſouth it receives the Xalon, or Salo, which comes from New Caſtile, and the ſtill ſmaller ſtreams of Guadalaviar and Alhambra, all of them having plenty of good fiſh. The Torio, or Turio, fertilizes a great part of the country by its ſlow and gentle courſe, which gives the huſbandmen and gardeners an opportunity of cutting channels from it to water their grounds, which are much admired for their continual verdure and fertility. In ſhort, Arragon, both on theſe accounts and the ſerenity of its air, has been compared to Egypt; but this account of its fertility, given by ſome authors, ſeems exaggerated, for it is only true of particular ſpots; and Dr. Buſching obſerves, that, with all theſe rivers, the greateſt part of Arragon is dry and barren, and ſome places even uninhabited: the ſoil is for the moſt part ſandy, mountainous, and ſtony; ſo that where the rivers do not come, or where water is not conveyed by art, it produces nothing. In thoſe parts, however, which are watered are corn, wine, oil, flax, fruit, and in ſome places alſo ſaffron, which make up the whole riches of the country.

Arragon had formerly its own laws and privileges, ſome of which were ſo conſiderable, that they had even a ſupreme magiſtrate called the juſtica, or mayor of Arragon, whoſe office was to check the power of the ſovereign in behalf of the ſubjects; ſo that appeals lay to him from the other courts, and even from the king himſelf. Ennicus, ſurnamed Ariſta, from his love of fighting, who had been elected king of Navarre by the vote of the people, was the firſt choſen into this office. They had beſides by a ſpecial contract made with their firſt king, and ſworn to by all his ſucceſſors, this farther privilege, that if any of thoſe monarchs ſhould infringe their liberties, they might lawfully take up arms againſt them. Peter, one of the kings of Arragon, was the firſt who prevailed on their cortes, or parliaments, to aboliſh this privilege, and accept of ſome others. At length Philip II. of Spain, the ſon of the emperor Charles V. being enraged at the Arragonians for defending Anthony Perez, his ſecretary, ſent an army againſt them; and having defeated and deprived them of all their privileges and liberties, reduced them to the level of the meaneſt province. Dr. Buſching, however, gives a different account of that affair, and ſays, that the inhabitants of Arragon having, in the year 1605, eſpouſed the party of the archduke Charles III. Philip V. annulled all their privileges, and rendered them ſubject to the laws of Caſtile, by which the revenues of the crown from that kingdom were conſiderably encreaſed.

The natives of Arragon are generally courteous, well-bred, ingenious, generous, well verſed in military affairs, courageous, ſtrict obſervers of their laws; but bigotted in religion, and poſitive in their opinions.

Arragon is divided into ſeven dioceſes, namely, an archbiſhopric and ſix epiſcopal ſees. It has ten cities, two famous univerſities, ſeveral conſiderable abbies, beſides monaſteries, nunneries, hoſpitals, &c.

Saragoza, or Saragoſſa, the capital of this country, ſtands in a very fertile plain on the Ebro, by whoſe windings the neighbouring country is rendered ſo fertile, that it produces a variety of fruits in great abundance. It is ſurrounded with walls, which, though antique, are ſtrong and beautiful, being adorned with ſeveral ſtately towers, and four noble gates facing the four cardinal points. It is ſaid to have been built by the famous king Juba, and afterwards beautified by Auguſtus, while he was carrying on the war againſt the Cantabrians. It is of an oblong figure, and has two ſtrong and ſtately bridges over the Ebro. The city is large and handſome, the ſtreets long and broad, but ill paved and very dirty. The handſomeſt and broadeſt is the Calle Santa, or Calle de Coſſo, which is the uſual airing-place of the quality. It has a multitude of magnificent buildings, as churches, palaces, ſquares, market-places, and hoſpitals.

The number of inhabitants amounts to fifteen thouſand families, many of them of quality, included within fourteen large pariſhes, and three others that are ſmaller. Here are alſo twenty-three monaſteries, ſome of them large and magnificent, thirteen nunneries, and a noble hoſpital endowed with a revenue ſufficient to maintain eight hundred ſick perſons, beſides two others for orphans, ſome ſmaller for decayed people, and a very noble one at a ſmall diſtance from the city. Here is alſo an univerſity, which was founded in 1474.

The cathedral is a rich and ſtately edifice, in which are twelve dignitaries, twenty four canons, thirty-nine minor canons, and ſeventy beneficed prieſts. The annual revenue of the archbiſhop is about forty-five thouſand ducats. The tabernacle, or repoſitory of the pix over the high altar, is a magnificent piece of architecture, all of maſſy ſilver finely wrought, and weighing ſix hundred and twelve pounds.

The collegiate church of Our Lady of the Pillar, ſo called from a pretended miraculous image of the Virgin, is likewiſe a fine ſtructure. This image is very ſmall; but its crown and robes are almoſt entirely covered with rich ornaments, and holds a little Jeſus in its arms. It ſtands very high on a pillar of the fineſt jaſper. Whoever attentively views the image, finds his eyes dazzled with the multitude of ſilver lamps and wax lights continually burning in the chapel, mingled on all ſides with the reflection of the gildings, jewels, and golden chandeliers. To this image a vaſt number of pilgrims annually reſort, in order to pay their devotions to the Virgin.

Among the civil buildings is the palace, where the cortes meet, and the exchange, two very magnificent ſtructures; the latter built in the year 1551, and the former much earlier; but greatly beautified ſince. The royal palace ſtood at a ſmall diſtance from the city, and has been given to the fathers of the inquiſition.

The city carries on a conſiderable commerce, and a great number of trades and manufactures both within and without the walls; for it has handſome ſuburbs, and many fine buildings without the gates, as well as gardens, orchards, and beautiful walks.

Teruel, or Tervela, about eight miles to the ſouth of Saragoſſa, ſituated on the banks of the Turio on a pleaſant eminence, encompaſſed with ſpacious meadows incloſed and ſheltered by high and fertile mountains, covered with variety of ſtately trees, odoriferous plants, and fragrant flowers, which, with a multitude of gardens, orchards, and corn-fields, afford a moſt delightful proſpect. The city is walled, and inhabited by thirteen hundred

dred families, who are divided into eight pariſhes; beſides which there are four monaſteries, one nunnery, and a wealthy hoſpital. It is the ſee of a biſhop, whoſe revenue amounts to twelve thouſand ducats; the cathedral has ſix dignitaries, and fourteen canons, beſides inferior prieſts.

About forty-five miles to the ſouth-weſt of Saragoſſa is Catayud, which is ſituated at the foot of a pleaſant high hill on the banks of the Xalon. Its ſoil, ſituation, and air, are inferior to none in Spain in their fertility, pleaſantneſs, and ſalubrity. The walls are ſtrong, and adorned with many ſtately towers, and the city populous, it having about three thouſand families, divided into thirteen pariſhes, with eleven monaſteries, and four nunneries. The Romans, who gave it the name of Bilbilis, adorned it with ſeveral magnificent buildings, and endowed it with many privileges. It was particularly celebrated for being the birth-place of Martial the famed Epigrammatiſt.

SECT. VIII.

Of the Kingdom or Province of Valencia; its Situation, Extent, Produce, and Rivers; with a particular Deſcription of the Cities of Valencia and Alicant.

VALENCIA is bounded on the weſt by Murcia and New Caſtile; on the north by Arragon and Catalonia, already deſcribed; and on the eaſt and ſouth by the Mediterranean ſea; extending about a hundred and ſixty-two miles in length, and ſixty-two in breadth; and is the moſt populous and pleaſant country in Spain; for here they enjoy an almoſt perpetual ſpring. The country, beſides its extraordinary fertility in wine and fruits, produces alſo rice, flax, hemp, ſilk, honey, and ſugar; and if the ſurface of its mountains is leſs fruitful, this is well compenſated by the minerals within.

All its rivers run to the eaſt or ſouth-eaſt into the Mediterranean: theſe are the Segura; the Xucar; the Guadalaviar, which receives its ſource in the confines of Arragon and New Caſtile; its banks are delightfully bordered with woods and flowers, and it loſes itſelf in the ſea below Valencia: the others are the Morviedro and the Millares.

Valencia, the capital of the province, ſtands on the ſhady banks of the river Guadalaviar, over which it has five ſtately bridges, in the forty-firſt degree thirty-ſix minutes latitude, and nearly under the meridian of London. It ſeems to have been originally built by the Romans; but was deſtroyed by Pompey, and a little after rebuilt by Cæſar, and called Colonia Julia Valencia. It ſtands oppoſite to the place where the famous city of Saguntum formerly ſtood, on the other ſide of the river. Its preſent form is almoſt circular; it is about ſix thouſand four hundred and forty paces in circuit, and is ſurrounded by a ſtrong wall, which has many lofty towers, and thirteen gates. Grao, its ſea-port, which ſtands on the Mediterranean, furniſhes it with every thing either for convenience or delight, particularly with a great variety of ſea-fiſh, and its neighbouring lake of Albuſera with great abundance of water-fowl and freſh-water-fiſh; as does the fertile country round it with corn, wine, oil, fruit, herbs, and other proviſions. Mulberry-trees are planted in rows in all the fields, and ſo induſtrious are the inhabitants in its neighbourhood, that the ground never lies fallow. The city is ſaid to contain fifteen thouſand families, fourteen pariſh-churches, forty-eight monaſteries and nunneries, beſides other foundations of the military order, ſix chapels, ſix hoſpitals, and twenty fraternities, which every year give portions to a hundred and thirty poor maidens on their marriage. Here is alſo an univerſity, with five colleges.

Valencia is the ſee of an archbiſhop, whoſe revenue amounts to forty thouſand ducats a year. The cathedral has ſeven dignitaries, twenty-four canons, beſides minor canons, and other inferior prieſts. Among other valuable treaſures in this ſtructure is a chalice of a rich kind of agate, which they ridiculouſly pretend to be the ſame our Saviour uſed at his laſt ſupper. They alſo give out, that they have two of the thirty pieces which Judas received from the Sanhedrim as the reward for betraying his Divine Maſter; they are of ſilver, and weigh about fifteenpence of our money. Nothing can be more magnificent than their grand proceſſion on Corpus Chriſti day, when theſe are carried with the utmoſt pomp and devotion.

Here is alſo a ſovereign court of judicature, a court of inquiſition, and an exchange. The city is plentifully ſupplied with water, not only from the river, but from a vaſt number of deep wells dug almoſt in every houſe, and ſome compute that thoſe within and without the walls amount to thirty thouſand. There is here alſo an extraordinary common ſewer, ſaid to be a Roman work, by which the ſoil of every houſe is carried off under ground. Upon theſe accounts it is reckoned one of the healthieſt and moſt pleaſant places in Europe.

The city is enriched by the vaſt number of quality and gentry who reſide in it, and its great commerce; there is a variety of manufactures carried on here, eſpecially the woollen, the cloth made in this city being reputed the fineſt in all Spain. The ſilk manufactures likewiſe flouriſh here: the inhabitants alſo export large quantities of wine, oil, and fruit. In the markets of Valencia, and all over Spain, they cut their poultry into pieces, and ſell them by quarters. Here they make large veſſels of goats ſkins, for putting their oil and wine into.

The government of the city is by ſix jurats, or conſuls; there is alſo a judge for criminal cauſes, with an advocate to aſſiſt him, and a lieutenant-criminal; a muſtafa, who has the care of all proviſions, corn, weights, meaſures, &c. and a judge for civil cauſes.

In the year 1705, when all Catalonia had ſubmitted to Charles of Auſtria, the nominal king of Spain, this city likewiſe opened her gates to the earl of Peterborough and the Engliſh forces. Though after the unfortunate battle of Almanza, in 1707, the duke of Orleans, who commanded the Spaniſh troops for Philip of Anjou, recovered it; after which the inhabitants were ſeverely puniſhed by that prince for their forwardneſs in revolting, and ſtripped of the greateſt part of their antient privileges, which they had preſerved with the utmoſt bravery.

Alicant is ſituated ſixty miles to the ſouth of Valencia, and at the ſame diſtance north of Carthagena, in the thirty-eighth degree thirty-ſeven minutes north latitude, and in about five minutes weſt longitude: this is a celebrated city and ſea-port on the Mediterranean, delightfully ſeated between two hills. It is well walled and defended by a caſtle built on a high rock. On the neighbouring ſhore ſtand ſeveral watch-towers, from which the veſſels of the Sallee rovers are obſerved. It is a place of conſiderable trade, on account of its commodious harbour, and is well known to the Engliſh, eſpecially for its wines and fruit, which they uſed to bring from thence; as well as from their landing ſome of their forces here in the reign of queen Anne, when the ſucceſſion to the crown of Spain was conteſted between Charles of Auſtria and Philip of Anjou. The city then contained about ſeventeen hundred families, two pariſh-churches, one of which is collegiate, with ſix monaſteries, two nunneries, and three handſome market-places; beſides hoſpitals, chapels, &c. The Engliſh made themſelves maſters both of the city and caſtle in the year 1705, and held them till the peace of Utrecht in 1713, when they returned to Philip of Bourbon, ſtiled Philip V. of Spain.

About half a league from the city is a famous convent of nuns, to which there is a great reſort of pilgrims, in order to pay their devotions to the impreſſion of the holy face, ſaid to have been imprinted thrice on a napkin with which Veronica wiped the face of our Saviour, when he was going to his crucifixion. Among theſe votaries are many ſeamen, who on their leaving Alicant frequently make a vow of performing their devotions here upon their ſafe return, which they do bare-footed. This picture of our Saviour's face, ſaid to be repreſented in ſo miraculous a manner on a piece of white linen, we are told is a wretched piece of dawbing.

SECT. IX.

Of the Kingdoms or Provinces of Murcia and Granada; their Situation, Extent, Rivers, Produce, and principal Cities.

THE kingdom or province of Murcia is bounded on the north by New Caſtile, on the eaſt by the kingdom of Valencia, on the weſt by Andaluſia and Granada, and on the ſouth by the Mediterranean ſea, extending about ſixty-two miles in length, and fifty-eight in breadth.

The principal river is the Segura, which receives its ſource in New Caſtile, and running from weſt to eaſt traverſes this country and that of Valencia.

The air of this province is pure and healthy, and the country produces corn and wine, which are both good; but as the country is very mountainous, and the ſoil dry, from its having but little rain, its products are but in ſmall quantities. It, however, abounds in fine fruits, as oranges and lemons, and alſo with ſugar, honey, and ſilk. The principal places in this province are,

Murcia, the capital of the kingdom, which is ſeated in a pleaſant plain on the river Segura, in the thirty-eighth degree twelve minutes north latitude, and in one degree fourteen minutes weſt longitude, and is pretty large and populous, with large handſome ſtreets. It is walled round, and has twelve gates. It contains ſix pariſh-churches, and a ſuperb cathedral, which has a ſteeple ſo contrived that a man may ride up to the top, either on horſeback or in a coach. It is the ſee of a biſhop, who has a revenue of twenty thouſand ducats. Round the city are fine gardens, which abound with excellent fruit.

Carthagena, or Little Carthage, is a pretty good city, ſtanding on the ſide of a hill, by a fine bay of the Mediterranean, at the mouth of the river Guadalantin, in the thirty-ſeventh degree forty minutes north latitude, and in one degree five minutes weſt longitude. It has one of the beſt harbours in the kingdom: the ſmall iſland Eſcombrada ſo ſhelters it from ſtorms, that veſſels moor here in the utmoſt ſafety: it has plenty of freſh-water, and abounds with mackarel. The air is here ſo temperate in ſummer, and mild in winter, that the trees have leaves, bloſſoms, and fruit at the ſame time; and even roſes blow here at Chriſtmas. The adjacent country produces a great deal of ſedge, and in the bowels of the earth are found amethyſts, garnets, agates, and other gems. This city is the ſee of a biſhop, who enjoys a revenue of twenty-four thouſand ducats, and is ſuffragan to the archbiſhop of Toledo. It contains about twelve hundred inhabitants, and has four monaſteries and a nunnery: it lies twenty-ſix miles to the ſouth of the city of Murcia.

The kingdom of Granada, ſometimes called Upper Andaluſia, is bounded on the eaſt by the kingdom of Murcia, on the ſouth by the Mediterranean ſea, and on the north and and weſt by Andaluſia. It is about a hundred and ſeventy-five miles in length, and ſeventy-five in breadth.

The principal rivers are the Xenil, which riſes near the city of Granada, and paſſing through Andaluſia, falls into the Guadalquiver; and the Guadalantin, which alſo riſes in this province, and, after traverſing Murcia, runs into the Mediterranean. There are alſo a great number of ſmaller rivers.

The country is very mountainous, particularly towards the ſea; but is interſperſed with delightful valleys. The Las Alpuxarras are mountains of a prodigious height, inhabited by a Mooriſh race who have embraced the Romiſh religion; but ſtill retain their national cuſtoms and manner of living, and their language is a mixture of Arabic and Spaniſh. They are divided into eleven diſtricts.

The air in this country is temperate and healthy, and in general it is very fruitful, and produces corn, wine, oil, ſugar, flax, hemp, and fine fruit, as pomegranates, citrons, oranges, lemons, olives, figs, grapes, and almonds. There are prepared here two kinds of raiſins, thoſe dried by the ſun on the branches of the vines, and others which are dipped in the lye made of the aſhes of the burnt branches, and afterwards dried in the ſun. Here is alſo great plenty of honey and wax. Several places in the mountains near Antequera make ſalt, which the ſun prepares from water conveyed into pans. The cultivation of ſilk is here alſo very conſiderable. The country likewiſe produces plenty of dates, of which great advantage is made, and even of the very acorns, which are ſaid to exceed the fineſt nuts: and of the galls, which are found in this country in vaſt quantities, a dye is made for leather. Great quantities of ſumach, for preparing goat and chamois ſkins, are likewiſe exported from hence. Beſides good ſtone for building, the earth affords hyacinths, garnets, and other gems.

In the time of the Moors, Granada was the moſt populous and beſt cultivated province in Spain; but through the contempt which the Spaniards entertain for agriculture, things are much altered; however, Spain has not any tract of land ſo well inhabited as the mountains of Las Alpuxarras, which, beſides the many towns and villages interſperſed among them, are wonderfully improved by the induſtry of the inhabitants, who turn their vineyards and plantations to a very good account. The ſea-coaſt, for its protection againſt the African corſairs, is lined with high towers, which command an extenſive proſpect over the ſea, from the ſtreight of Gibraltar to the Rio Freyo, or the Cold River.

This province became a diſtinct kingdom in the thirteenth century, when the Mooriſh king Abenhud, who reſided at Cordova, loſing his life and crown in a battle againſt the Chriſtians in 1236, his ſubjects and followers betook themſelves to Granada, and choſe a new king, who made the city of that name his capital and place of reſidence. This kingdom, which was the laſt of the Mooriſh, then contained thirty-two large towns and ninety-ſeven ſmaller, and continued from the year 1236 to 1492, when Ferdinand the Catholic reduced it, and annexed it to the crown of Caſtile.

The city of Granada, the capital of the province, ſtands at the foot of a moſt noble ridge of barren mountains and rocks, which ſtretch round on each ſide in ſuch a manner as to embrace a lovely plain, varied with plantations, gardens, and villages. It is ſeated by the river Xenil, into which the Darro falls after watering a part of the city, in thirty-ſeven degrees twenty-eight minutes north latitude, and in three degrees fifty-one minutes weſt longitude. It is fortified with walls and towers, and is the ſee of an archbiſhop, who has forty thouſand ducats a year. The city is divided into four wards, the principal of which, called Granada, lies in the plain, and in the valleys between two mountains; and here the nobility, clergy, merchants, and moſt wealthy citizens reſide. Its public and private buildings are very handſome. In the cathedral lie buried ſeveral kings, as Ferdinand the Catholic, and Philip I. with their queens. The king's tribunal is held in a large and ſtately edifice, and oppoſite to it is the Alcaxeria, a vaſt building, in which the merchants have their ware-houſes. In the great ſquare are held the bull-fights. The univerſity here was founded in 1531, and the city has alſo a court of inquiſition.

The Mooriſh palace, called Al-Hambra, is built on a high hill that over-looks the city and the valley, and contains many grand apartments, all in the Mooriſh ſtile, with alcoves, domes, fountains, Arabic inſcriptions, &c. beſides which there is a part built by Charles V. but not finiſhed. The front is handſome, and the apartments built round a very beautiful circular court, with thirty-two fine marble pillars below, and as many in a gallery above. Not far from it is a delicious garden of the Mooriſh kings, with all kinds of trees flouriſhing upon a ſteep hanging rock, and as much water as ſupplies a number of jette d'eaus and fountains.

When Ferdinand the Catholic made himſelf maſter of this city, the ſhort method taken by cardinal Ximenes, for the converſion of the Moors, was, that they ſhould either be baptized, or be put to death. The preſent inhabitants conſiſt of the deſcendants of the antient Moors, and of old Spaniſh Chriſtians as they are termed.

Malaga

Malaga is an antient fortified ſea-port, in thirty-ſix degrees fifty-one minutes north latitude, and in four degrees fifty-ſix minutes weſt longitude, two hundred and ſixty miles to the ſouth of Madrid, and ſeventy-five to the ſouth-weſt of Granada. It ſtands at the foot of a ſteep mountain, and has one of the beſt roads on all the coaſt, with a fine moat running into it five hundred and thirty paces long, and twenty broad, with ſtairs for taking water, and ſeveral pillars of jaſper to faſten ſhips to, as alſo a chapel upon it for ſea-faring people. The city is handſomely built and populous, it being defended by two caſtles, one on the top, and the other at the foot of the mountain. It is large, and of a circular form, ſurrounded with a double wall, ſtrengthened by ſtately towers, and has nine gates. On one ſide the ſea waſhes its walls, and on the other runs the little river Guadalquivirejo, over which there is a handſome bridge. It is the ſee of a biſhop, whoſe revenue amounts to twenty thouſand ducats a year. The grounds all round being covered with vines and the greateſt variety of fruit, it yields a very beautiful proſpect both from the land and ſea. Their wines, raiſins, oranges, lemons, almonds, figs, and other fruit are well known, from the large quantities imported to England, beſides thoſe ſent into other parts of Europe; ſo that the duties paid to the king are computed to yield annually eight hundred thouſand ducats.

This place was in the poſſeſſion of the Moors ſeven hundred and ſeventy-three years, when king Ferdinand took it from them in 1487, after a bloody and obſtinate ſiege of three months. Off Cape Malaga, near this city, the Engliſh and Dutch, under Sir George Rooke, obtained a ſignal victory over the French fleet, commanded by the count de Thouloufe, in Auguſt, 1704. This defeat would have been more complete, had not the Engliſh juſt before exhauſted moſt of their ammunition in the taking of Gibraltar, and the Dutch ſent part of their ſquadron to convoy their merchantmen home.

SECT. X.

Of the Kingdom or Province of New Caſtile; its Situation, Extent, Produce, and principal Rivers; with a particular Deſcription of Madrid, and the Eſcurial.

CASTILE is the principal and moſt opulent kingdom in Spain, and is generally divided into the Old and New; the former being recovered from the Moors ſome time before the latter. New Caſtile, of which in regard to the order of ſituation we ſhall firſt treat, is by ſome called alſo the kingdom of Toledo, it being the center of the monarchy, and the reſidence of the king. It is divided on the north by a chain of mountains from Old Caſtile, and a like chain alſo divides it to the eaſtward from Arragon and Valencia, and this ſide alſo borders upon Murcia; to the ſouth it is likewiſe ſeparated by a chain of mountains from Andaluſia; and to the weſtward is bounded by Eſtremadura. Its greateſt extent from eaſt to weſt is a hundred and eighty-four miles, and from north to ſouth two hundred.

This province has a good air, and is very fertile. The rivers Tagus, Guadiana, and Guadalquiver have their ſources in this province. The other moſt conſiderable rivers are the Xucar, which runs through Valencia into the Mediterranean; the Xarama, which riſes in the mountains of Atiença, and, after receiving the Henares and Tajuna, unites with the Tagus. The Guadarama has its ſpring head in the mountains of Toledo, and running from north to ſouth through the country falls into the Tagus a little below Toledo. The principal places in this province are the following:

Madrid, the metropolis of all Spain, and the reſidence of the king, is ſituated in forty degrees thirty minutes latitude, and in four degrees fifteen minutes weſt longitude, and ſtands upon a chain of little hills that are in the center of a large plain, terminated on all ſides by lofty mountains, whoſe ſummits are always covered with ſnow. Weſt of the city, where it has neither walls nor moats, it is watered by the Manzanares, which ſwells in winter by the melting of the ſnow; but for the greateſt part of the year, particularly in ſummer, is naturally ſhallow. King Philip II. however, erected over it a ſtately ſtone bridge eleven hundred paces in length, and to the extent of ſeven hundred it is twenty-two broad. On the ſouth ſide of the city is a much finer bridge over this little river built by Philip V. called the bridge of Toledo.

The city is large, and contains fifteen thouſand inhabitants. It has four hundred ſtreets, a few of them wide and ſtraight, but the reſt long, narrow, and ſo exceſſive dirty, that, according to ſome authors, the ſtench may be ſmelt at above the diſtance of a mile. The houſes are moſt of them lofty, regular, and ſpacious, but partake in ſome degree of the nauſeouſneſs of the ſtreets; they are built of brick, and the beſt of them with lattice windows, moſtly of canvas, or ſome ſlight oil-cloth. The rich indeed have them glazed; but take the ſaſhes down during the heat of ſummer, and put up others in their ſtead, covered with gauze, or other thin ſtuff, to let in the air. They in general, however, look more like priſons than the habitations of people at liberty; the windows beſides having a balcony, which takes off much of their beauty, being grated with iron bars, particularly the lower range, and ſometimes all the reſt. A houſe is generally inhabited by many ſeparate families, who are, notwithſtanding, for the moſt part, ſtrangers to each other.

The city has fourteen ſquares, among which the large market-place, called the Place Mayor, would be a very fine one were it kept clean, it being four hundred and thirty-ſix feet one way, and three hundred and thirty-one the other; but it is commonly filled with ſmall ſtalls and proviſions. As public ſhews are exhibited here on extraordinary occaſions, the houſes that ſurround it, which are exactly uniform, and five ſtories high, have balconies and galleries to each ſtory, for the convenience of the ſpectators; and, as they amount to the number of a hundred and thirty-ſix, are capable of containing fifty thouſand people with eaſe, they being throughout ſupported by an arched cloiſter like that of Covent-Garden, with open walks underneath for ſheltering the people from the ſun and rain. The houſes of the nobility have no courts before them, but ſtand even with the ſtreet; theſe, with thoſe of the gentry, amount to twelve thouſand, all of them ſpacious and beautiful; thoſe of the grandees are generally built with ſtone, and adorned within with expenſive furniture.

The other principal ſquares in Madrid are the Sun-market, della Sabada, and that of St. Domingo. The king's palace ſtands on an eminence on the weſt ſide of the city, commanding a delightful proſpect of the river Manzanares and the country beyond it; it was burnt down in 1734, but has been ſince rebuilt with greater magnificence.

Among the other buildings the imperial college of Jeſuits is a very noble ſtructure. Some of the convents are fine, particularly that of Atoche, or Our Lady of the Buſh; in the church belonging to which they ſing Te Deum upon victories and other public occaſions. The convent of the Saleſas is likewiſe a new and noble ſtructure.

In this city are the colleges in which are managed the affairs of the government, and alſo the courts of juſtice. There are here likewiſe three academies, one inſtituted for the improvement of eloquence and the Spaniſh tongue, another for hiſtory, and a third for phyſic.

Proviſions of all kinds are here both excellent and reaſonable, and the reſidence of the court in this city cauſes a briſk trade and circulation of money: yet foreigners are very much diſtreſſed for lodging at Madrid, there being only one tolerable inn, which is the Golden Fountain; and the Spaniards are not fond of taking any ſtrangers into their houſes, eſpecially if they are not Catholics. There is no ſuch thing as either a tavern or coffee-houſe in the whole city, and they have only one news paper, which is the Madrid Gazette. Their places of diverſion are the amphitheatre, built for the exhibition of the bull-feaſt, as it is called by the Spaniards, which has been already deſcribed, and the two theatres of *la Cruz* and *del Principe*. The noiſe by the itinerant bodies of pſalm-ſingers in the evening is very diſagreeable; the frequent proceſſions, particularly thoſe of the hoſt, are troubleſome; eſpecially

at Eaſter, when the ſight of thoſe bloody diſciplinants, the Flagellentes, is extremely ſhocking. In ſhort, there is no paſſing the ſtreets of Madrid commodiouſly without a vehicle; for as they practiſe, ſays Mr. Clarke, the Edinburgh cuſtom of manuring the ſtreets by night, they would be too offenſive to your feet, as well as your noſe, without a chariot by day.

Madrid is governed by a principal officer called the corregidor, who is ſomething like our lord mayor, tho' he is not choſen by the city, but by the king, and is not a merchant or tradeſman, but a gentleman well verſed in the law. He acts as a ſuperior judge, and has under him forty-one regidors, not unlike our aldermen, who compoſe his council, acting as inferior magiſtrates under him.

At the end of the city is a famous place for airing and recreation, called the Prado or Pardo de St. Hieronymo, a delightful plain ſhaded by rows of poplar-trees, and adorned with twenty-three fountains, from which it is ſprinkled every evening when the nobility and gentry repair thither in their coaches, or on horſeback.

At the extremity of the Prado is the palace called Buen Retiro, or the Good Retreat. This, Mr. Clarke obſerves, is a very indifferent quadrangle, and is not ſo good a royal manſion as St. James's. It was deſigned as a place of retreat for the king, from the hurry of the court and town. It, however, contains a great number of ſtately rooms and noble apartments, adorned with the moſt coſtly furniture and paintings, executed by the greateſt maſters; but it is only built of brick. The gardens are ſaid to be a perfect paradiſe, and abound with the moſt delightful ſhady walks, water-works, and the moſt curious productions of art and nature; among the former is an equeſtrian ſtatue of king Philip IV. very finely executed in bronze, ſtanding on a marble pedeſtal. On the canals are pleaſure-boats, and ſome ſummer-houſes, in which the muſicians play, while the king amuſes himſelf on the water. At the entrance of the outer-court are the king's ſtables, in which are a great number of horſes and mules. Contiguous to theſe is the armoury, a ſpacious handſome room filled with curious ſuits of armour formerly worn by the kings of Spain. The outer-court of the palace juſt mentioned is a large ſquare, with cloiſters on both ſides, the ſtables and armoury fronting the palace.

Caſa del Campo is a royal ſeat ſtanding on the other ſide of the river, to the weſt of the city, directly facing the king's town-palace, and was a very delightful place with a fine park, but is now much neglected. Florida is another royal pleaſure-houſe, ſeated near the former in an enchanting ſituation.

The palace of Aranjuez, about thirty miles from Madrid, has a fine front, and is agreeably ſituated in a pleaſant vale at the confluence of two rivers, the Xarama and the Tagus. Though the gardens are only a dead flat, and the walks plantations of trees in ſtraight rows; yet there is ſomething chearful and refreſhing in this cool and ſhady ſpot.

St. Ildephonſo is a palace about ſixty miles from Madrid, in a delightful lonely country; part of it is alſo a convent. The building is not grand, nor in a good taſte; but the gardens are very fine, and the fountains the nobleſt in Europe. The gardens are ſaid to have coſt five millions ſterling. Here king Philip V. retired on his reſignation of the crown in the year 1724, and cauſed the relics of ſome ſaints, which were highly revered, to be brought from the Eſcurial into this chapel.

We now come to the palace, or convent, of the Eſcurial, ſo called from the village in which it ſtands, which is ſituated ſeven leagues to the north of Madrid. Philip II. the founder of this palace and the convent belonging to it, made a vow at the battle of St. Quintin againſt the French, on the frontiers of Picardy, to build a convent at the Eſcurial for monks of the order of St. Jerom, which he preferred from his being obliged to canonnade a convent of Jeromites during the ſiege of St. Quintin. The battle being gained on St. Laurence's day, he called the convent after the name of that ſaint; and as he was burnt upon the gridiron, this prince immortalized the very manner of his martyrdom; for he not only ſtuck gridirons, either of paint, wood, metal, or ſtone all over the convent, but built the very convent itſelf in the form of a gridiron. That part of the building which forms the palace is the handle of this gridiron, and the reſt being divided into a great number of ſquare courts, the buildings are ſo ranged as to form the ſides and bars. But in building this ſtructure he gave great diſguſt to the Spaniſh cortes: for Philip having aſſembled them to aſk ſupplies for carrying on the war againſt France, the ſtates very freely voted a large ſubſidy of ſome millions; which the artful monarch, as ſoon as he had once ſecured in his own coffers, applied to the building of this convent. This miſapplication of the public revenues gave ſuch vexation to the cortes, that they afterwards aſſembled with more reluctance, being unwilling to be cajoled out of their money by the tricks of deſigning princes.

This royal monaſtery of St. Laurence is built on the declivity of a mountain, part of the Segovian chain, which ſeparates the two Caſtiles. It is of a beautiful white ſtone, veined with blue and brown, of a very fine poliſh, and is ſurrounded with the moſt delightful proſpects. The length of the front from eaſt to weſt is five hundred and eighty feet, and at each extremity are two ranges of buildings that extend backward four hundred and thirty feet, and then are again joined by another front of the ſame dimenſions as the former; ſo that it conſiſts of four fronts, and at each angle is a tower. The principal front has three gates, of which that in the middle is ſupported by four Doric columns of ſpeckled marble on each ſide, and over them are others of the Ionic order. Above the portal is a beautiful ſtatue of St. Laurence, of white marble, fifteen feet high, dreſſed in the habit of a deacon, with a book in his left hand, and a large gridiron of bronze in his right. The number of windows in this front is two hundred and forty-ſeven.

After paſſing the principal gate you enter a portico that extends from the college to the convent; over it is the library; and in the front are three noble arches leading into a grand court, where the eye is ſtruck with the magnificent frontiſpiece of St. Laurence's church, on each ſide of which is a lofty tower, and in the centre a dome. It has five grand arches that form the entrance into the veſtibule, and on the lower part of the portal are ſix large ſtatues, placed on pedeſtals, of David, Solomon, Hezekiah, Joſiah, Manaſſah, and Jehoſaphat, with crowns of gilt bronze on their heads, and ſceptres in their hands.

The whole ſtructure is ſupported by four ſtrong ſquare pillars round the centre of the church, forming four grand arches. Every pillar has two altars, and two niches over them; and in the niches of the pilaſters along the walls, on both ſides, are altars anſwerable to the others. Beſides theſe, the whole circuit of the church is ſurrounded with very elegant chapels, and over theſe are galleries with braſs baluſtrades extending quite round. The cupola is encompaſſed by two galleries, and crowned with a lantern, that has eight windows divided by pilaſters gradually diminiſhing to the top, where there is another ſmall dome on the crown of the lantern; and over this a fluted ſtone obeliſk, on the top of which is a globe of gilt braſs, with a croſs and vane. The doors are nine in number, and over the arches of the principal of theſe, and on the great altar, are twelve croſſes, of a very beautiful red jaſper. The altars amount to forty, all of which are richly adorned with carved work, and innumerable paintings, many of them by the greateſt maſters.

You next view the great chapel, the aſcent to which from the church is by twelve ſteps of red jaſper. The pavement of this chapel conſiſts of Moſaic work of jaſper and marble of various colours, ranged in the moſt beautiful compartments. The altar-piece is adorned with all the orders of architecture, except the Tuſcan. You firſt ſee ſix Doric columns, in the middle of which the tabernacle is placed, and in the compartments of the other columns are ſeveral paintings of ſacred hiſtory. Their baſes and capitals, with thoſe of all the other columns and pilaſters behind them, are of braſs gilt, and the ſhafts are of jaſper fluted and beautifully poliſhed. At the two extremes are niches, containing the ſtatues of four doctors of the church in gilt braſs, which has a fine effect, the jaſper of the niches being green. In the ſpaces on each ſide of the tabernacle are two pieces of painting, the

the one of the Nativity, and the other of the Eaſtern Magi worſhipping the Infant Jeſus.

The ſecond range of columns is of the Ionic order, inlaid with green in the compartments; and in the extreme intercolumniations are niches of green jaſper, containing the ſtatues of the four Evangeliſts, of the ſame materials and beauty with the former. The principal picture over the tabernacle repreſents the martyrdom of St. Laurence, by Peregrino; and in the ſide compartments are our Saviour bound to the pillar, and his carrying the croſs, by Zuccaro.

The third range conſiſts of only four columns of the Corinthian order, the extremes of the lower rank being ſupplied by two pyramids of green jaſper, between which are fine braſs ſtatues of St. James, the patron of Spain, and St. Andrew, both larger than the life. The hiſtory in the middle repreſents the Aſſumption of the Virgin, thoſe on the ſides are the reſurrection, and the deſcent of the Holy Ghoſt.

Two columns of the Compoſite order ſupport the frontiſpiece, which terminates in the principal arch of the chapel. The compartment is green jaſper, in which is a crucifix of braſs gilt, with the ſtatues of the Virgin Mary and St. John ſtanding on the ſides, and thoſe of St. Peter and St. Paul on the extreme pedeſtals. The whole height from the pedeſtal of the Doric order to the centre of the grand arch is ninety-three feet, and the breadth forty-nine. The above tabernacle ſtands on a pedeſtal of jaſper, within an arched portal, whoſe pilaſters are of red and green jaſper. The form is globular, and the order Corinthian. The materials are all gems, and gilt braſs. The firſt pedeſtal is of jaſper finely inlaid. It ſupports eight jaſper columns of a deep red veined with white. In the intercolumniations are four niches, with as many ſtatues of Apoſtles. Over the cornice is another baſe, with eight pedeſtals ſupporting the like number of ſtatues in gilt braſs: it alſo ſuſtains the cupola, which is divided into four compartments inlaid with jaſper. Above is a ſmall lantern crowned with another cupola, and over all is an image of our Saviour of the ſame metal as thoſe of the Apoſtles. In the lower part are two doors of rock-cryſtal leading into the ſanctuary, the jambs and lintels of which are of a beautiful green jaſper; the other parts conſiſt of jaſper of ſeveral colours and poliſhed braſs. In ſhort, this whole chapel is adorned with the richeſt Moſaic work, and a great variety of ſtatues and paintings.

The other chapels and all the different parts of this ſuperb church are adorned in the moſt beautiful manner, columns of jaſper, the richeſt kinds of marble, and moſt beautiful paintings and ſtatues are every where to be ſeen.

The convent conſiſts of five beautiful cloiſters, and may be entered from the church. The principal cloiſter is as large as the other four; it extending two hundred and ſeven feet from eaſt to weſt, and two hundred and ten feet from north to ſouth. The grand ſtair-caſe is forty feet broad; the ſteps are of the moſt beautiful ſtone, each of one piece, and the baluſtrades of exquiſite workmanſhip. The arcade above is adorned with painting, exhibiting the founder's motives for erecting this edifice, and the whole ſtructure is adorned with the works of the moſt celebrated Spaniſh and Italian painters.

In the gallery of the royal apartments are excellent paintings by Baſan; and along the wall are repreſented two curtains hanging down from the hooks ſo naturally, that the ſpectators often endeavour to lift them up. On theſe curtains are painted the battle fought by Don John II. againſt the Moors of Granada, in the plains of Higuernala, and the battle of St. Quintin; and at the two extremities are two naval victories gained off the iſle of Tercera.

In the ſouth ſaloon are two doors of inlaid work brought from Germany, extremely beautiful, and the inſide is adorned with a number of exquiſite paintings. The next is the apartment in which king Philip II. reſided, and where he died: here the furniture, cielings, and walls are plain. It is, however, adorned with ſmall ſtatues of ſaints, ſome very beautiful pictures of the Virgin Mary, and other religious pieces. From this apartment is a paſſage to the queen's, which is of the ſame conſtruction. The monks here have a higher opinion of Philip II. the founder, than even of St. Laurence and St. Jerom: this indeed is only a decent part of gratitude; for as he thought that, by raiſing this ſuperb fabric he ſhould atone for all his ſins, ſo he ſpared no expence to render it complete. It coſt during his reign twenty-eight millions of ducats, which is about three millions three hundred and ſixty thouſand pounds ſterling. He lived here chiefly during the laſt fifteen years of his life; and when he died, ordered himſelf to be brought out in his bed to the foot of the high altar, that he might die in ſight of it; and thus he expired. The place where his bed was placed is ſince railed off, as ſacred. However, ſome are ſo ſuperſtitious, ſays Mr. Clarke. as to believe that his unquiet and perturbed ſpirit ſtill nightly viſits his favourite manſion, and ſtalks horrid round the long arcades and corridores of the Eſcurial. "For a certain princeſs, to my knowledge, "he adds, gave orders laſt October, that the guard ſhould "patrole in the night round the cloiſters, to ſee if Philip "II's ghoſt really walked there or not."

There are two libraries in the Eſcurial, one upon the firſt floor, and the other upon the ſecond: that upon the firſt floor is a fine arched room a hundred and ninety-five feet long, thirty-two broad, and thirty-ſix in height; and the pavement is of black and white marble in beautiful knots. The concave part of the cieling is finely painted by Pelligrino, exhibiting Divinity, Philoſophy, Grammar, Logic, and all the other ſciences, ſurrounded with proper groups of figures. This library contains all the printed books, except ſome firſt editions which are kept above. The library above ſtairs is ſuppoſed to be one of the nobleſt collections of manuſcripts in the world, there being eighteen hundred and twenty-four volumes of Arabic manuſcripts only; Greek manuſcripts in profuſion, in folio and quarto, of very great antiquity, yet fair and legible. But all this wealth is depoſited in the hands of a few illiterate Jeromites, who are as jealous of theſe treaſures as if they underſtood their true value.

The laſt part we ſhall mention of this ſuperb ſtructure is the Pantheon chapel, the ſepulchre of the princes of Spain. The portal is one of the fineſt pieces, in the compoſite order, in the world. The principal members are of black marble, regularly veined and ſpotted with white. In the leſſer parts gems, gold, ſilver, and bronze, unite their luſtre. On the ſides are two pillars in relievo, with their baſes and capitals, beſides the jambs and lintels, formed out of one block of marble. Over this is the frize, and figures to the number of ten, ſupporting the crown. The pedeſtals, capitals, &c. are of braſs gilt; and before the door is a baluſtrade of gilt braſs, of moſt beautiful workmanſhip.

From this portal you deſcend a ſtair-caſe compoſed of the fineſt Tortoſa jaſpers and Toledo marble, beautifully variegated, finely poliſhed, and joined with ſuch art as to appear only one ſingle piece, ſixty-four feet in length, conſiſting of thirty-four ſteps, divided into three flights, by the like number of landing-places. The baluſtrades are of beautiful jaſper marquetry, with marble mouldings. In the middle hangs a gilt luſtre with ſix cornucopias. At the third landing-place is the Pantheon door, adorned with four pilaſters, two of jaſper, and two of bronze. The pavement between the pilaſters is of poliſhed jaſper, and the ceiling repreſents Jacob's ladder.

Upon entering this auguſt cemetry, you are ſtruck with the beauty of its ſeveral parts. The order of its architecture is the compoſite. Its circumference is one hundred and thirteen feet, and the diameter from wall to wall is ſomething more than thirty-ſix feet; the height from the pavement to the central ſtone at the top is thirty-eight feet, and its figure is perfectly circular. The pavement repreſents the figure of a ſtar, the rays of which are formed of innumerable gems, jaſpers and different kinds of marble, with a fleuron in the center, glittering with gems. The whole is ſurrounded with a beautiful pedeſtal or baſe, on which ſtands ſixteen fluted Corinthian pilaſters of jaſper, the baſes and capitals of gilt bronze. The ſarcophagi or coffins are placed in niches

all

all round the Pantheon; and the marble of which they are made, is remarkable for the fineneſs of the grain, the beauty of the colour, and the ornaments beſtowed on them.

The ring in the cieling, in the middle of which is the key-ſtone, forms a ſplendid fleuron, eighteen feet in circumference, and is of braſs gilt, and the deſign and workmanſhip very fine. From this fleuron hangs a large iron-rod, to which is faſtened a large gilt luſtre of beautiful workmanſhip. At the lower end are the four evangeliſts in demi-relievo; over theſe are twenty-four cornucopias, along the edges of which are cherubins; and above theſe eight angels holding flambeaus; and the other eight are fixed to the heads of as many ſeraphs. It is every where embelliſhed with feſtoons, &c. and ſurmounted by a ſplendid crown. When the tapers in theſe cornucopias, the flambeaus held by the angels, and the candles on the altar are lighted, no words can expreſs its grandeur.

On the right-hand, going out of the Pantheon, a door opens into a vault which may be called the ſecondary Pantheon, where thoſe of the royal family who are not entitled to a place in the principal ſtructure are interred. On every ſide are three rows of niches, to the number of fifty-one, for the coffins; and on the wall next the door is an altar-piece, in which is a good copy of Chriſt on the croſs, from Titian. Leaving this monaſtery, we proceed to

Toledo, an ancient fortified city, ſituated in the fifty-ninth degree forty-ſix minutes north latitude, and in the fourth degree twenty minutes weſt longitude, and ſtands on a ſteep and craggy rock, encompaſſed by the Tagus, in the form of a horſe-ſhoe, over which it has two ſtately bridges. The land-ſide is fortified by a double wall, in which are one hundred and fifty towers, and five large gates, beſides poſterns. It was formerly eſteemed a place of ſtrength; but in the laſt wars about the ſucceſſion, it always ſubmitted to thoſe who were maſters of the field. The plain around the city is ſpacious, fertile, pleaſant, and ſo well watered by the Tagus, that it produces corn, wine, oil, fruit, and in ſhort every thing that can contribute to the convenience and delight of man. The air is particularly ſerene aud healthy, and there is plenty of proviſions, which are very cheap. Here reſide many noble families, beſides gentry, learned and religious perſons, merchants, trades-people, and artificers, eſpecially in the ſilk and woollen manufactures, which two branches alone are ſaid to have employed ten thouſand hands; but at preſent they are much declined.

The city is divided into twenty-three wards, and has twenty-ſeven pariſhes, about twenty chapels, thirty-eight monaſteries and nunneries, four grand houſes of retirement for women, two large colleges, and twenty-five hoſpitals, one of them for lunatics.

The ſtreets are narrow and ſteep; but there are no leſs than ſeven ſquares or market-places. There is here a magnificent and ſpacious old palace taken from the Moors, the ſtables of which can hold at leaſt five hundred horſes.

The cathedral is a large Gothic ſtructure, rich in carving, but the building is neither light, nor in a good taſte. It is three hundred and eighty-four feet long, one hundred and ninety-one broad, and one hundred and ſeven high, all of white ſtone. The roof is ſupported by eighty-eight lofty pillars, which divide it into five leſſer, the middlemoſt of which is very handſome, it being divided into two choirs neatly carved and inlaid. One of them is called the chapel of the Bleſſed Sacrament, and is the burying-place of many of the Spaniſh monarchs. It is encloſed with coſtly iron grates on baſes of jaſper; and on each ſide ſtands a braſs pulpit on pillars of the ſame metal. The other choir belongs to the canons, cloſed in after the ſame manner, and beautified with carvings in wood and jaſper. All the outſide of the two choirs is adorned with ſtatues in niches, and other ſculpture repreſenting the hiſtory of the Old and New Teſtament. There are in this ſtructure thirty-four chapels, and the entrance into it is by eight large braſs gates, with magnificent porticos; and above is a lofty tower with a ring of bells of a prodigious ſize. The treaſury is of an ineſtimable value; the veſtments for the prieſts, and the utenſils, are of the richeſt materials and fineſt workmanſhip. The image of the Virgin Mary here has a garment covered with pearls; and the paintings in this ſtructure are anſwerable to the reſt. The cieling of the veſtry is painted by Luca Giordano, and is indeed fine and well preſerved. The cuſtodia, jewels, and precious ſtones, are inconceivable, as well as ineſtimable: altars, with ſteps to them of maſſive ſilver, gilt; the figures of the four quarters of the world, each adorned with the precious ſtones peculiar to its own quarter, and ſitting on globes of two feet diameter, the globe reſting on a pedeſtal, and that on a baſe; the figure, globe, pedeſtal and baſe, being all together ten feet, and ſaid to be all of maſſive ſilver, were the gift of Charles II's queen. In ſhort this is one of the richeſt cathedrals in the univerſe, and the archbiſhopric, both in power and revenue, the greateſt next to that of Rome; ſo that the late queen of Spain obtained it from the pope for one of her ſons, though a minor. The lands for the repairs of the church are ſaid to bring in annually thirty thouſand ducats, and for the dignatories and canons two hundred thouſand more. The whole number of perſons belonging to the cathedral, is ſaid to amount to ſix hundred.

The remains of the alcaſſar, or palace built by Charles V. or according to others, by the archduke Charles, appear very noble; but it was burnt by the allies and Auſtrian party in the partition or ſucceſſion war, leſt it ſhould fall into the hands of Philip V.

There is alſo a very great curioſity at Toledo, which is an original Hebrew temple, and is a fine piece of antiquity; but the piety of the Spaniards in converting this temple from Judaiſm to Popery, has taken away much matter of entertainment to the antiquarians. The ancient diviſions have been all taken down; the holy of holies, and even the tabernacle itſelf, have been literally done away. The walls, it has ſince been found, were covered with the Pſalms in Hebrew characters; but the Spaniards had zealouſly plaſtered them over; but a gentleman of parts and learning, who is canon and treaſurer of the church, has lately cauſed the plaſter to be carefully removed. There are alſo the remains of a Roman circus and amphitheatre.

The Caſtilian language is ſpoken here in its utmoſt purity. One of the greateſt inconveniences of this city is, the inhabitants having no water but what is brought from the Tagus, or ſaved from the eves of their houſes, when it rains. There is here a remarkable common ſewer, which is ſaid to run under every houſe, to carry off all the ſoil into the river. Beſides the above ſtructures, there is here an univerſity founded in the year 1475, and a court of inquiſition. The city is populous, and carries on a great trade in fine ſword-blades, wool, ſilk, and ſtuffs.

SECT. XI.

Of the Kingdom or Province of Old Caſtile; its Situation, Extent, Rivers, and Produce; with a Deſcription of Avila, Segovia, Valladolid, and Burgos.

OLD Caſtile is bounded on the north by the Aſturias and Biſcay; on the eaſt by Navarre and Arragon; on the ſouth by New Caſtile; and on the weſt by Leon. Its figure is very irregular, and conſequently its dimenſions extremely different; however, its greateſt length from Valladolid to Tarraçona, is about one hundred and twelve Engliſh miles, and its greateſt breadth about one hundred and eighty.

Its principal rivers are the Duoro and Ebro, the firſt of which is joined by the Atayada, the Andaja, the Arebarillo, and the Piſuerga, which alſo receives the Arlança and Arlançon. The ſources of all theſe rivers are in this province, which is mountainous and leſs fertile than New Caſtile. The moſt fruitful part is a tract called la Tierro de Campos, which lies to the north, near Medina de Prio Seco. The wine produced here is excellent; the plains are covered with cattle, particularly with ſheep, which yield the beſt wool in all Spain. It was formerly only a country ſubject to the kings of Leon;

but in 1016 was erected into a kingdom. The moſt remarkable places in this province are the following:

Avila, or Avila del Rey, forty miles to the eaſt of Salamanca, is an ancient city, ſeated on a fine plain environed with mountains, and producing excellent grapes and other fine fruits; it is ſurrounded with a wall, on which are eighty-ſix towers, and ten gates. It has nine pariſh churches, as many monaſteries, ſeven nunneries, eighteen chapels, two colleges, nine hoſpitals, and an annual charitable donation of ten thouſand ducats given by the city, for maintaining poor orphans and other needy perſons. The royal caſtle ſtands on a rock, and is provided with a garriſon and artillery.

The city of Segovia is of great antiquity, and ſtill a conſiderable place. It ſtands high between two hills, and is large, populous, and handſome. It has excellent manufactures of cloth and paper, and alſo exports a very fine ſort of wool. The number of families in this city, amount to at leaſt four thouſand. It has twenty-ſeven pariſh churches, thirteen monaſteries, eight nunneries, five hoſpitals, three chapels, ſeven ſquares, and forty-three ſtreets of the firſt rank, beſide a great number of lanes.

The cathedral is a noble ſtructure, in the Gothic ſtyle of architecture, and has two choirs, as it were ſurrounded by a moſt ample baſilica, which is lined on the wall-ſide with a vaſt variety of fine altars, and rich ſhrines. The painted glaſs is good, and gives a dim religious light. The ſacriſty is a fine room, and contains ſome paintings. There is an old cloyſter adjoining to the cathedral, in which are hung up ſome hundreds of veſtments, the badges of ſo many unhappy Jews, who had the misfortune to be burnt, becauſe they did not believe all that the inquiſitor did. The inquiſition, or the holy office, as it is called, was then at Segovia, but has been ſince removed. In this cathedral is a grant of queen Urraca, which mentions the Alcazar, or royal palace; and, according to the Rev. Mr. Clarke, is concluded in the following impious manner: "Whoſoever ſhall violate this "grant, let them be ever baniſhed from God's threſ-"hold, and be eternally tormented with Dathan and "Abiram, whom the earth ſwallowed; be damned with "the traitor Judas, and pay a thouſand pounds of un-"alloyed gold to the biſhop."

There are ſeveral fine churches beſides the cathedral; that of St. Milan is very old. The arches of this church are all round and large; and the pillars, which are lofty, have carved capitals, containing many figures both of men and animals; ſome with beautiful foliage: the ſhafts are round and plain, placed upon ſquare baſes extremely large. At the entrance is a ſort of alcade, with beautiful ſmall columns of black marble, and the pillars joined to one another by a ſort of ſpiral line.

The church of St. John the Baptiſt is ſaid to be the oldeſt in the city, it being built in 923. It conſiſts of three naves, all round arches of the old Gothic, and here the archives of the city are kept in a handſome cheſt. The cornice is compoſed of the heads of animals, the capitals of the pillars carved with animals and human figures, and the windows are ſmall, long, and narrow.

The Alcazar, or royal palace, is ſuppoſed by Mr. Clarke to have been built in the eighth century. The front is about fifty feet long: there are two conic turrets at each wing; and the façade is adorned with ſeveral diminutive turrets in the ſame ſtyle; above the ſkilling or ſpan-roof of the firſt front, there riſes another ſkilling-roof adorned with turrets in the ſame ſtyle; and between the wings in the middle riſes a lofty ſquare brick tower, ſurrounded with ſmall circular turrets ending in a conſole. Along the front of the firſt building runs a neat, ſmall, open gallery, juſt under the cornice. The whole of the fabric appears to be in the old Mooriſh ſtyle, and is extremely pretty and light. You go to it through a ſort of a court, over a ſmall bridge; it being on one part encompaſſed by a deep foſs, and on the other ſides by ſteep precipices, it ſtanding on a rock. Having paſſed the bridge, you enter a cloyſter, where there is a court within and a fountain, and having paſſed through a large hall, enter into a ſtate-room, with a rich cieling, carving of ſtucco upon the walls, and Dutch tiling round the room at the bottom. This brings you to a ſecond apartment in much the ſame taſte, but a much richer cieling; then you enter a magnificent room, called the Hall of the Kings, it containing the wooden or waxen images of nineteen kings of Caſtile, ſix of Leon, two of the Aſturias, and ſixteen of Oviedo, all placed over your head, about the middle of the wall, round the room, with their queens, and four counts, or dukes, placed under them. Round all the rooms are inſcriptions containing prayers and pious ſentences, in old Gothic characters.

This is the famous tower or caſtle of Segovia, ſo celebrated in Gil Blas and other romances, the ancient receptacle of ſtate priſoners. There is another large priſon in the middle of the city; but that is only for common felons.

The Placa Mayor is a very tolerable irregular ſquare, but the buildings are in the old Spaniſh ſtyle; and tho' wood is ſcarce, and cracks with the ſun, the fronts of moſt of them are of deal, and moſt miſerable buildings.

This city has a famous univerſity: it is the ſee of a biſhop, who has an annual revenue of twenty-four thouſand ducats.

The town-houſe is a good modern ſtructure; but the city, upon the whole, has a ſtrange appearance: the buildings look wild and odd, ſometimes being raiſed upon the uneven and craggy parts of the rock, and conſiſting of all the ſtyles of architecture, Roman, Gothic, Mooriſh, Saxon, and Spaniſh.

But what is moſt worthy of notice among the buildings of this city, is the Segovian aqueduct, which extends to a ſmall river, called Rio Frio, which riſes in the ſkirts of a paſs in the mountains, and takes from it as much water as would fill a duct that would contain a human body. It is received into an arch of ſtone, five hundred paces from the city; and from thence begins to run in the channel of the aqueduct, which does not require more elevation than ſeventeen feet. By little and little, the height increaſes as it comes to deeper ground, but without requiring more than one range of arches, till the water has paſſed over ſixty-five arches, where the arches have a height of thirty-nine feet, cloſe to a Franciſcan convent. There they begin to wind from eaſt to weſt, requiring two ranges of arches, one arch being put upon the other; that being the loweſt part of the valley, which is the little ſquare, now called Azoguejo. In that part the aqueduct is one hundred and two feet high; the channel entering by the battlements of the walls, with an extreme elevation from the ground to the top of the arch. The aqueduct goes through the middle of the city, from eaſt to weſt, with an arched duct ſo large, that a man may walk in it: and from thence dividing, it extends to the public fountains, and the ciſterns of convents and private houſes. This ſtructure conſiſts of one hundred and ſixty-one arches, of hewn ſtones of a bluiſh granite, placed one upon another. This was doubtleſs built by the ancient Romans, and ſome attribute it to Trajan. In two niches on the higheſt part was formerly ſtatues of Hercules, which are now changed for thoſe of our Lady of St. Sebaſtian.

In this city is fixed the principal mint of all Spain, which, when at work, can coin thirty thouſand ducats in a day. Here they make good paper; but the woollen manufacture of this city is the beſt and moſt conſiderable in all Spain; the blankets of Segovia are, perhaps, the fineſt in the world; for they have a vaſt quantity of the fineſt wool, produced from the numberleſs flocks bred in the neighbouring plains. Here are alſo ſeveral other manufactures, particularly of linen, which is carried on with great ſucceſs.

Valladolid, anciently called Pindia, is a large, beautiful, and populous city, eighty-ſix miles to the north-weſt of Madrid. It is ſituated in a ſpacious and delightful plain, watered by the Piſuerga, over which it has a ſtately bridge: beſides which, it has about nineteen ſmall ones over the Eſquera, a ſmall river that runs thro' ſeveral of the ſtreets, and thence through a delightful landſcape of gardens, orchards, meadows, and fields, which it waters in its courſe. The city is walled round; but is a place of no great ſtrength, and has ſix gates. It has long broad ſtreets, with large and lofty houſes, ſplendid palaces, ſpacious and elegant ſquares, and fountains; ſeventy convents, among which the Dominican convent

of St. Paul has a magnificent church, and the college of St. Gregory, and that of the Jeſuits are particularly worthy of notice.

The great ſquare, or piazza, is built after the model of that at Madrid, and conſiſts of five hundred arches with gilt balconies, three thouſand windows all in view, and three hundred and thirty gates or doors. It is in circuit ſeven hundred paces, and is capable of containing thirty thouſand perſons. Near one ſide of this ſquare is a large well-built ſtreet, chiefly inhabited by gold and ſilverſmiths.

Here is a royal palace, near the Dominican convent; an univerſity, founded in 1346; a geographical academy, lately erected; a court of inquiſition; and a tribunal of juſtice, compoſed of one preſident, fifteen counſellors, four criminal judges, one ſupreme judge for Biſcay, four judges of nobility, two fiſcals, and an alguazil mayor; yet the revenue of its biſhop, who is ſuffragan to the archbiſhop of Toledo, does not exceed twelve thouſand ducats per annum.

The inhabitants of Valladolid are as polite and well-bred as any people in Spain. They not only carry on a conſiderable trade abroad, but cultivate ſeveral manufactures at home, in which they are very expert and ingenious.

Burgos, the capital of Old Caſtile, ſtands on a hill between the rivers Alanzo and Arlanza, and is encompaſſed with mountains. It is ſituated in forty-two degrees thirty minutes latitude, and in four degrees five minutes weſt longitude, one hundred and ten miles to the north of Madrid. It has old but ſtrong walls, ſeven gates, and has a good bridge over the Arlanza, and on the north-ſide is a caſtle ſeated on a ſteep rock. The air is here ſo diſagreeable, that the Spaniards have a proverb, that Burgos has nine months of winter, and the other three of hell; the former meaning rainy and cold weather, and the latter exceſſive heat. This city is large, but irregular, and moſt of its ſtreets are narrow and crooked. It has, however, many fine ſquares, public buildings, and noblemen's houſes. This city has fifteen pariſh churches, with five hoſpitals, ſix chapels, a college, ten monaſteries, and nine nunneries, one of which is the royal foundation of Huelgas, of the order of St. Bernard; its lady abbeſs is a woman of the firſt quality, and next in rank to the royal family; ſhe having ſeventeen monaſteries, ſixteen towns, and fifty villages ſubject to her. In this abbey are one hundred and fifty nuns, all gentlewomen; and its revenue amounts to eighty thouſand ducats a year. The convent of St. Auguſtine has what they term a miraculous crucifix, which they pretend was made by Nicodemus.

The cathedral, which is one of the nobleſt and richeſt in Spain, has five large choral chapels, with an organ in each, yet ſo incloſed and remote, as not to diſturb each other. The archbiſhop has a revenue of forty thouſand ducats a year. Bega, one of its ſuburbs, exceeds it in convents and hoſpitals. The inhabitants of both ſexes are here more induſtrious, and carry on a greater number of trades and manufactures, than is common in the large cities of Spain.

SECT. XII.

Of the Kingdoms, or Provinces of Navarre and Biſcay; their Situation, Extent, Produce, and Rivers; their Hiſtory, and Principal Cities.

NAVARRE, which to diſtinguiſh it from the country of the ſame name belonging to the French, is called Upper Navarre, is bounded on the weſt by Old Caſtile and Biſcay; on the ſouth by Arragon; and on the eaſt by Arragon and the Pyrenean mountains, which divide it from French Navarre; and alſo by the ſame mountains towards the north. It is an hundred miles in length, and about ſixty in breadth; it is mountainous and colder than the reſt of Spain; and as the greateſt part of the province lies among the Pyrenean mountains, its chief wealth conſiſts in cattle. Hence it produces very little corn, wine, or fruit; but has abundance of excellent timber, and ſome iron-mines. The mountains alſo abound in game of all kinds, as bears, ſtags, roe-bucks, wild-fowl, &c. It is watered by three rivers, all of which fall into the Ebro; theſe are the Arga, the Ega, and the Arragon, which iſſues from the kingdom of the ſame name.

The king of Spain receives no revenue from this country, all the impoſts and duties being by compact to be employed in the public ſervices. Navarre, from the year 718 to 1512, had its peculiar kings of different families; but in the laſt mentioned year, was reduced by king Ferdinand the Catholic, under the idle pretence that John D'Albert, its king, by being an ally of Lewis XII. of France, with whom pope Julius II. was at variance, had been declared an enemy to the church, and excommunicated by the pope.

Pampeluna, anciently Pompeiopolis or Pompelo, from its being built by Pompey the Great, is the capital of Navarre; and is ſeated on a plain near the Pyrenees, by the river Arga, one hundred and ſixty-ſeven miles to the north-eaſt of Madrid. It is a place of tolerable extent, and has two caſtles, one within the city, and the other without, on a rock. Its ſquares are handſome, and adorned with ſhops full of rich merchandize. Its biſhop is ſubject to the archbiſhop of Burgos, and has an annual revenue of twenty-five thouſand ducats. It has alſo an univerſity, founded in the year 1608, and is the reſidence of the viceroy of Navarre.

The province of Biſcay is bounded to the weſt by the Aſturias; to the northward by the ſea, which is here called the Bay of Biſcay; to the eaſt by Navarre; and to the ſouth by Old Caſtile. Its extent from north to ſouth, is between eighteen and ſeventy-five miles, and from eaſt to weſt one hundred and eight.

The air here is mild and temperate; but the ſoil is ſtony and uneven, ſo that in ſome places hardly any thing grows; but in others they have a little wine, called chacolino, which is pleaſant, and drank as ſmall-beer. They have corn ſufficient for the uſe of the inhabitants, and have apples in great plenty, of which they make excellent cyder, which in ſome meaſure ſupplies the want of wine. The coaſt alſo abounds with oranges and lemons, which they ſell very cheap, and in the foreſts is excellent timber fit for ſhip-building. The mountains yield mines of iron and lead; while the valleys produce ſome flax.

Its commodious ſituation on the ſea, in the neighbourhood of France, renders the trade very flouriſhing: they particularly export great quantities of iron-work, with all ſorts of powder and fire-arms, which are very neatly finiſhed, and a great deal of tar. Here they ſhip off large quantities of wool, which is moſtly brought from Old Caſtile: but their own produce in this laſt article, being neither ſo fine, nor produced in ſuch quantities, they manufacture wholly at home. The ſea alſo furniſhes this province with all kinds of excellent fiſh.

The natives of Biſcay are of Celtic extraction, and like their progenitors, generous, brave, hardy, choleric, active, and of few words. They are alſo reckoned the beſt ſoldiers and ſailors in Spain, and enjoy many privileges, of which they are extremely jealous. They have a particular language of their own, called the Baſque, or Biſcayan, that has no affinity with the other European tongues, and there are few who do not ſpeak it readily; having preſerved this, with their genius, ancient laws, government, and manners, without innovation.

Till the year 859 the Biſcayans were governed by counts, or governors, ſent them by the kings of Ovieda and Leon; but under the latter they revolted, and choſe themſelves a chief, which they retained till they were ſubdued by Peter the Cruel, who, under the title of a lordſhip, united Biſcay to Caſtile.

This province contains the three following ſubdiviſions, Biſcay Proper, Guipuſcoa, and Alaba; the principal places in which are the following:

Bilboa is a corruption of Bello Bado, and ſignifies a fine ford, one lying near it. It is the capital of the province, and is ſeated in a plain environed by high mountains, ſix miles from the ſea, in latitude forty-three degrees thirty minutes, and in three degrees ten minutes weſt longitude. The tide which flows up here into the river Ybaiçabal, the antient Nervius, forms a ſecure harbour, which is very much reſorted to; ſmall veſſels

coming up to the mole, while thoſe that are larger lie farther out in the road. The greateſt export of this place conſiſts of fine wool and excellent iron, moſt of the latter in bars, though great quantities of it are wrought into ſwords, fire-arms, and other military implements; they alſo export ſaffron and cheſnuts. This city is large and populous; it has a bridge over the river, and contains twelve hundred houſes, five pariſh-churches, the like number of monaſteries, and ſeven nunneries. It has a good air, and is ſurrounded by a fruitful country, whence proviſions are plentiful and cheap.

There is alſo in this province Ordunna, a ſea-port city, ſeated in a pleaſant valley formed by high mountains, twenty-five miles to the ſouth-weſt of Bilboa, and two other ſmall towns.

Guipuſcoa, the ſecond ſubdiviſion of Biſcay, runs along the coaſt of the north bay, and is bounded to the weſtward by Biſcay Proper, and part of Alaba; to the ſouthward by Navarre; and to the eaſtward by Navarre and France. It abounds in moſt things, except wheat. The principal places it contains are the following:

St. Sebaſtian, a city of conſiderable ſize, ſituated in forty-three degrees thirty-ſeven minutes latitude, and in one degree fifty-ſix minutes weſt longitude, has a ſecure harbour at the mouth of the little river Gummea, and is ſeated at the foot of a mountain, which ſerves as a defence to it againſt the tempeſtuous ſea. The harbour is ſecured by two moles, between which only one ſhip can paſs at a time. Near its entrance is alſo a fort defended by a garriſon. The town is ſurrounded by walls defended with baſtions and half-moons, and on the mountain under which it lies, is a citadel. The ſtreets are long, broad, ſtraight, and clean; they being paved with white flag ſtones. The houſes are pretty handſome, the churches very neat, and the environs extremely pleaſant; one ſide affording a proſpect of the ſea, and the other a diſtant view of the Pyrenean mountains.

A conſiderable trade is carried on here in iron and ſteel, which ſome take to be the beſt in Europe, and alſo in wool. This town was taken by the French in the year 1719. In time of war with the Engliſh there are many privateers here, and the prizes are generally brought into this harbour.

Fontarabia, or Fuentarabia, is a little neat town, ſeated on a peninſula on the ſea-ſhore, twenty-two miles to the ſouth-weſt of Bayonne. It is fortified both by nature and art, and has a pretty good harbour, though it is dry at low water. This town is built in the form of an amphitheatre, on the declivity of a hill, and on the land-ſide is ſurrounded by the lofty Pyrenean mountains. It is a very important place, it being accounted the key of Spain on that ſide.

The young gentlewomen of this city have ſomething particular in their dreſs; for their braided hair falls on their ſhoulders, and on their heads they wear a ſmall muſlin veil, which flutters about their necks, round which they have necklaces of coral: their garment is a waiſt-coat with looſe ſleeves, and they are very alert and active: but this is chiefly to be underſtood of thoſe who inhabit the adjacent villages.

In 1638 this place held out a ſiege againſt the French, for which it was honoured by the king with the title of a city; but in 1719 was taken by them. Near the city runs the river Bidaſſoa, or Vidoſſo, which is here very broad, and is the boundary between Spain and France.

Pheaſant iſland, which is formed by the river Bidaſſoa, and ſeparates France from Spain, is worthy of notice, both on account of the peace of the Pyrenees, which was concluded in 1659, and for the treaty of marriage tranſacted there between Lewis XIV. and Mary Thereſa, the infanta of Spain. In 1722 were exchanged at this place the infanta Maria Anna Victoria, and Mademoiſelle de Montpenſier, daughter to the duke of Orleans, regent of France. It is called by the French *l'Iſle de la Conference*, and *Iſle de Paix*.

Toloſa, the capital of Guipuſcoa, is ſeated between two mountains in a delightful valley, at the confluence of the Araxas and Oria, over which there are two handſome bridges, and at a ſmall diſtance ſeveral fine natural caſcades. It is not large, but inhabited by a great number of perſons employed in making ſword-blades.

The province of Alaba, the laſt of the three diviſions of Biſcay, is bounded on the north by Guipuſcoa and Biſcay Proper, on the eaſt by Navarre, on the ſouth by Old Caſtile, and on the weſt by Biſcay Proper and Old Caſtile. It is pretty fertile in rye, barley, and ſeveral kinds of fruit, and has alſo tolerable wine. It has likewiſe very rich mines of iron.

The capital of this little diſtrict is the city of Vittoria, which lies about thirty miles to the ſouth of Bilboa, is ſeated on an eminence, at the end of a pleaſant valley, and is environed with double walls. In the principal ſquare are the town-houſe, two convents, ſeveral well built houſes, and in the middle is a fine fountain. The large ſtreets are bordered with trees, which are a good defence againſt the heat of the ſun. The monaſteries are magnificent, and the convent of St. Francis is in particular very large. There are here ſome rich merchants, who carry on a great trade in iron and ſteel, ſword-blades, wool, and wine.

SECT. XIII.

Of the Principality of the Aſturias; its Situation, Extent, Produce, Hiſtory, and principal Cities.

THE principality of the Aſturias is bounded on the north by the bay of Biſcay, on the eaſt by the province of Biſcay, on the ſouth by Old Caſtile and Leon, and on the weſt by Galicia; and takes its name from the Aſturians, a Celtic nation, who came hither from Gaul, and whoſe valour rendered all attempts by other nations abortive. Its greateſt extent is about forty-eight miles from ſouth to north, and about a hundred from eaſt to weſt. The air is tolerable; but the country uneven, rugged, and thinly peopled; yet the ſoil produces a pretty deal of grain, fruit, and wine. Its horſes were antiently very famous, and much ſought after on account of their ſpirit and goodneſs.

The nobility of this province value themſelves on being deſcended from the Goths, and on their blood not being adulterated by a mixture with that of the Jews and Moors. For after the unfortunate battle which the Goths, commanded by king Roderic, fought with the Moors near Xeres, Pelagius, the Gothic prince, retreated with a conſiderable number of the nobility into the mountains of the Aſturias, where he aſſembled a ſmall army; but being unable to face the enemy in the field, retired with a thouſand brave Goths to a large cave in the mountain of Auſena, and upon the approach of the Moors ſallied out and entirely defeated them. The bold ſtand made by the Goths is ſtill ſo celebrated in Spain, that all the inhabitants of this mountain enjoy particular privileges; and though they are but peaſants, and go in great numbers from this mountain to ſeek for work in the other provinces of Spain, both great and ſmall give themſelves the appellation of illuſtrious Goths, or illuſtrious mountaineers; and, amidſt their poverty, think it a diſgrace for them to marry with the great and rich families of any other race. Indeed they are ſo highly eſteemed, that other families frequently give conſiderable ſums to marry among them. This diſtrict belongs to the hereditary prince of Spain, who takes his title from it. It is divided into two unequal parts, and hence ariſes the name of the Aſturias in the plural number.

Theſe diviſions are called Aſturia d'Oviedo and Aſturia Santellana: the former lies to the weſtward, and is the largeſt diviſion; and the latter to the eaſtward.

Oviedo, the antient Brigetum, the capital of all Aſturia, and the only place that bears the name of a city, is ſeated on a plain, in a kind of elevation between the little rivers Ove and Deva, fifty miles to the north-weſt of Leon. The biſhop of this place, who enjoys an annual revenue of twelve thouſand ducats, is immediately ſubject to the pope. The cathedral boaſts of poſſeſſing a vaſt number of relics that were brought hither from all parts of Spain, in order to ſecure them from being taken by the Moors; and here is an univerſity, erected in 1580.

Villa

Villa Vicioſa, a town ſeated twenty-two miles to the north-eaſt of Oviedo, and has a good harbour on the bay of Biſcay, into which the river Aſta diſcharges itſelf.

Santellana, in Latin Fanum Sanctæ Julianæ, the capital of the other diviſion, lies ninety-four miles to the weſt of Bilboa. It is ſmall, has a harbour on the bay of Biſcay, with a collegiate church, and gives the title of marquis to the duke of Infantado.

There are ſeveral other towns in this province; but they are all of them very inconſiderable places.

SECT. XIV.

Of the Kingdom or Province of Leon; its Situation, Extent, Produce, Rivers, and principal Cities.

THE kingdom of Leon is bounded on the eaſt by Old Caſtile, on the ſouth by Eſtremadura, on the weſt by Galicia and Portugal, and on the north by the Aſturias. Its extent from north to ſouth is about a hundred and ſixty-five miles, and from eaſt to weſt between ſixty-ſeven and ninety-three. The ſoil in ſome places produces all the neceſſaries of life, and particularly very good wine: In this province are likewiſe mines of turquoiſe; but a great part of the country is a naked, dreadful, barren rock, except where it is covered with a few pitiful firs or ſhrubs. "I turned round, ſays Mr. "Clarke, to take a view of Leon from one of the higheſt "mountains, and was almoſt frightened at the ſight; "a brown horror, as Mr. Pope expreſſes it, was ſpread "over the whole; ſands, rocks, and craggy precipices "formed as ſavage a proſpect as can be imagined."

The principal rivers of Leon are the Piſuerga and the Carrion, which riſe in Old Caſtile; the Eſla and Orbego, both which have their ſources near the city of Leon; the Torto and Tera, which run into the Orbego; and Formes, or Rio de Salamanca, which, on the frontiers of Portugal, falls into the Douro.

The moſt remarkable places in this province are the following:

Leon, the capital of the province, was built by the Romans in the reign of the emperor Galba, and called Legio Septima Germanica, from whence it derived the name of Leon. It is ſeated in the forty-third degree ten minutes north latitude, and in the ſixth degree twenty minutes weſt longitude, between both the ſprings of the river Eſla, and at the end of a large plain bounded by the mountains of the Aſturias, fifty miles to the ſouth-eaſt of Oviedo. The biſhop, whoſe annual revenue is twelve thouſand ducats, is immediately ſubject to the pope. The cathedral is famous not only for its beauty, but for its being the burial place of ſeveral ſaints, thirty-ſeven kings of Spain, and one emperor. This city was formerly both larger, richer, and more populous than at preſent. It was indeed the firſt city of any conſideration that was retaken from the Moors; Pelagius making himſelf maſter of it in the year 722, when he fortified it, and it continued a royal ſeat till 1029. It contains thirteen pariſhes, ſix monaſteries, five nunneries, fifteen chapels, and four hoſpitals.

The city of Aſtorga, in Latin Aſturica Auguſta, is ſituated in a wide plain on the river Aſtura, or Torto, in the forty-ſecond degree north latitude, and in the ſixth degree twenty minutes weſt longitude, and is well fortified both by nature and art; but neither large nor populous. Its biſhop is ſuffragan to the archbiſhop of St. Jago, and has an annual revenue of ten thouſand ducats. The cathedral is a noble Gothic building, and has a baſilica, conſiſting of ſix pointed arches, ſupported by tall, light, neat pillars in a good taſte. There are here ſeven or eight fine altars, and the high altar is exceeding magnificent: it conſiſts of twenty compartments of marble ſculpture in alto relievo, the figures as large as the life; the ſubject is the hiſtory of our Saviour; and on the ſummit is God the Father crowning the Virgin Mary. The glory is well expreſſed; for being cut through the frame, and a light placed behind it, the light ſhews the rays. "We happened, ſays Mr. Clarke, to attend at "the veſpers; the muſic of the organ was fine; the "number of the tapers, the richneſs of the altars, and, "in ſhort, the whole ſcene was ſtriking." This city was formerly the capital of the Aſturias; but it at preſent only gives the title of marquis to the family of Oſorio.

The city of Salamanca is ſituated in forty-one degrees five minutes latitude, and in ſix degrees ſixteen minutes weſt longitude: it is of a circular form, built on three hills and two valleys, and on every ſide ſurrounded with proſpects of fine houſes, noble ſeats, gardens, orchards, fields, and diſtant villages; and is antient, large, rich, and populous. Its walls are ſix thouſand three hundred and ſixty paces in circuit, and adorned with thirteen handſome gates and ſtately towers. Within the city are a hundred and ſixty-two ſtreets, five thouſand houſes, many of which are magnificent buildings, ſeventeen ſquares, twenty-five pariſh-churches, twenty monaſteries, eleven nunneries, two houſes of retirement for young women to lead a penitent life, ſixteen chapels, ſix hoſpitals, and twenty-five colleges. The river Tormes, which runs by it, fertilizes the neighbouring country. The univerſity, which in 1239 was removed hither from Palencia, is the moſt famous in all Spain. The univerſity-college is a very ſpacious ſtructure, and near its ſtately entrance is an infirmary for ſick poor ſcholars: it contains twenty-four other colleges, in each of which live thirty ſtudents; and among theſe the four moſt conſiderable are termed the great colleges, and appropriated to perſons of rank. Moſt of the colleges are noble ſtructures and well endowed, and the great public ſchools, and other buildings, are extraordinary magnificent. The Spaniards term this city the mother of virtues, ſciences, and arts.

Roderigo, an epiſcopal city, which, after its being ruined by the Goths, was, in 1102, rebuilt by Don Roderigo Gonzales Giron, and from him received its name. It was afterwards deſtroyed in the wars, and rebuilt by Ferdinand II. in order to be a check upon Portugal; it being only about twelve miles from the frontiers of that kingdom. It ſtands on the little river Agneda, or Agujar, twelve miles from the frontiers of Portugal, and has good ſtrong walls, nine gates, three ſquares, fifty-four ſtreets, two thouſand houſes, eight pariſhes, two monaſteries, two nunneries, ten chapels, and three hoſpitals. The biſhop is ſuffragan to the archbiſhop of St. Jago, and has an annual revenue of ten thouſand ducats. This city is one of the three places of rendezvous for the Spaniards, when they are at war with Portugal.

The city of Zamora is ſituated on the Douro, over which it has a fine bridge, and ſtands in a fertile country, thirty-four miles to the north of Salamanca. The Moors gave it the name of Zamora, or Medinato Zamorati, which ſignifies the Town of Turquoiſes, moſt of the rocks in its neighbourhood containing that kind of gems. The biſhop of this place has an annual income of twenty thouſand ducats, and is ſuffragan to the archbiſhop of Toledo. In this city is kept the body of St. Ildefonſo, formerly biſhop of Toledo.

SECT. XV.

Of the Province of Galicia; its Situation, Extent, Rivers, Produce, and principal Cities.

THE province of Galicia is bounded on the eaſt by Aſturia and Leon, on the north and weſt by the ſea, and on the ſouth by Portugal. It receives its name from the antient Gallazi, the moſt powerful and numerous of the ſeveral nations who inhabited it. Its extent from north to ſouth is about a hundred and twenty-ſeven miles, and from weſt to eaſt about a hundred and twelve.

This is the moſt maritime of all the Spaniſh provinces, and accordingly enjoys the greateſt number of ſea-ports; among which Corunna and Ferrol are the moſt conſiderable. Cape Finiſterre, one of its promontories, is ſeated on the weſt, and is well known to all navigators.

The coaſts enjoy a temperate air; but in the inland parts, it is ſomewhat colder, and very damp. This country is ſo mountainous, as to admit of few plains, and the ſea-coaſt excepted, is but thinly inhabited; it has

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no leſs than ſeventy rivers, and ſmaller ſtreams, the principal of which are, the Minho, the Ulla, the Tambra, and the Mandes.

This province produces little corn; but has plenty of wine, lemons, and flax; it has alſo very fine paſtures. Its foreſts afford timber fit for ſhip-building, and the ſea abounds in excellent fiſh. But the univerſal poverty of the inhabitants induces many of them to ſeek a living in the neighbouring provinces, where they perform the moſt ſervile and laborious employments. Yet for this humble induſtry, they are deſpiſed by the other Spaniards.

This province contains ſixty-four cities and towns, but few of the latter are any way conſiderable.

Bayona, a ſmall town on a bay, which forms a convenient harbour. The ſea in this place abounds with fiſh, and the diſtrict of land belonging to the town with fine fruit. At the entrance of the bay lies certain iſlands, formerly called the Iſlands of the Gods.

The city of Corunna, commonly called the Groyne, ſtands on a ſmall bay and peninſula, in the forty-third degree twenty-eight minutes latitude, and in the ninth degree twenty minutes weſt longitude, ſixteen miles to the ſouth-weſt of Ferrol. The harbour preſents you with a fine proſpect as you ſail into it; on your right are the tower of Hercules, the fort and the town; before you the ſhipping, terminated by an agreeable view of the country: on your left, you ſee cape Prior, the entrance of Ferrol, and a ridge of barren mountains, with a large river running between them. The city is divided into the Upper and Lower Town; the former is defended by the caſtle of St. Diego, the latter ſtands on a neck of land, ſurrounded with water on three ſides. Thus the city is in form of a half-moon, with a caſtle at each point. This city is the ſeat of the royal audience of Galicia, and here the Engliſh packet-boats uſually come. It has a collegiate church, and in its neighbourhood is a quarry of jaſper. In ſhort, Corunna is well built and populous; but, like moſt other Spaniſh towns, has an offenſive ſmell. Their method of keeping the tiles faſt on the roof of houſes, is by laying looſe ſtones upon them.

The poorer ſort, both of men and women at Corunna, wear neither ſhoes nor ſtockings; but thoſe in better circumſtances have a great flapped hat, a cloak reaching down to their feet, and generally carry a ſword under their arm; the women wear a ſhort jacket of one colour, a petticoat of another, and either a white or black woollen veil.

Vigo, a town ſeated on a ſmall bay, one hundred and five miles to the north-weſt of Madrid, is ſurrounded by a wall that has ſome baſtions, and defended by an old caſtle and a fort which ſtands on an eminence, but is incapable of making a long reſiſtance. This harbour is rendered famous by a ſea-fight in 1702, between Sir George Rooke, commander of the Engliſh and Dutch fleet, and a ſquadron of French men of war, with thirteen Spaniſh galleons under their convoy; when, after admiral Hopſon had broke through the boom laid acroſs the mouth of the harbour, the Engliſh took four galleons and five men of war, and the Dutch five galleons and one large man of war. Four galleons and fourteen men of war were deſtroyed, with a great quantity of plate and other rich effects. However, a great deal of ſilver was taken, though a conſiderable quantity was carried on ſhore before the engagement. While this was doing, the duke of Ormond, with a large body of land-forces, drove the Spaniards from the caſtles which defended the harbour. In the year 1719, the Engliſh again got poſſeſſion of this place, but relinquiſhed it after raiſing contributions.

St. Jago de Compoſtella, the capital of the whole province; ſituated in forty-two degrees fifty minutes north latitude, and in eight degrees twenty minutes weſt longitude, between the rivers Tambra and Ulla, in a moſt fertile plain, ſurrounded with hills of a moderate height, which ſhelter it from the nipping winds which blow from the mountains. The public ſquares and the churches are very magnificent; it has alſo a great number of monaſteries for both ſexes, and about two thouſand houſes. The cathedral is particularly worthy of notice, and in it is kept the pretended body of the apoſtle James the younger, the titular ſaint and patron of all Spain; which towards the cloſe of the ninth century, they ſay, was diſcovered by a divine revelation. This draws a great number of pilgrims thither, who walk in proceſſion to the church to adore his wooden image, which ſtands in the great altar and is illuminated with forty or fifty wax candles. They kiſs it three times with a very reſpectful devotion, and then put their hats on its head. In the church are thirty ſilver lamps always burning, and ſix chandeliers of ſilver five feet high. Thoſe pilgrims who are poor, are admitted into an hoſpital that ſtands near the church, and has galleries of free-ſtone, ſupported by large pillars. The archbiſhop is one of the richeſt prelates in Spain, his annual revenue amounting to ſixty thouſand ducats, and that of the cathedral to no leſs; but out of this ſum he pays the king eighteen thouſand ducats a year. The order of St. Jago takes its name from this city, which alſo maintains a certain number of knights. The univerſity was erected in 1532, and there is here alſo a tribunal of the inquiſition.

Orenſe, a city ſeated forty-ſeven miles to the ſouth-eaſt of St. Jago de Compoſtella, in a delightful country on the banks of the Minho, and abounding in excellent wine and fine fruit. One part of it ſtands at the foot of a mountain, in which is felt a ſharp cold that is of long continuance; while the other part of the city, which lies on the ſide of the plain, enjoys all the pleaſures of ſpring and the fruits of autumn. This is ſaid to be in ſome meaſure owing to the ſprings, which warm the air with their exhalations. Some of theſe are ſo moderately warm, that a perſon may bathe in them; while the water of others, on the contrary, is ſo hot that eggs may be dreſſed in them; but they are both ſalutary in ſeveral diſtempers. Its biſhop, who has an annual revenue of ten thouſand ducats, is ſuffragan to the archbiſhop of St. Jago.

SECT. XVI.

Of the Province of Eſtremadura; its Situation, Extent, Climate, Produce, Rivers, and Principal Cities.

ESTREMADURA is bounded on the north by Leon; on the eaſt by New Caſtile; on the ſouth by Andaluſia; and on the weſt by Portugal. Its extent from north to ſouth is pretty nearly one hundred and twelve miles, and from eaſt to weſt between ſixty and one hundred.

The inhabitants are inured to the air; but the ſummer heats are intolerable to the foreigners who travel there. Thoſe who live at the foot of the mountains have good water; but the inhabitants in the plains are obliged to put up with what is taken out of pits dug in the ground. The ſoil abounds with corn, wine, and fruit; and its paſtures are ſo good, that great numbers of cattle are brought hither from other provinces to fatten. The rivers Tagus and Guadiana run quite through the country of Portugal, and in many places are joined by ſeveral ſtreams.

The diſtrict of Vera de Plazencia, or the Orchard of Plazencia, conſiſting of alternate mountains and valleys, is extremely delightful, and, next to Andaluſia, the moſt fertile in all Spain. The fineſt and moſt delicious fruits and vegetables, with wholeſome and odoriferous plants, grow here in the greateſt abundance. Here is alſo excellent wine, fine ſprings, and pleaſant brooks that abound with trout. In ſhort, every thing in this diſtrict wears a ſmiling aſpect.

The city of Plazencia, or Placentia, from which the diſtrict takes its name, is a beautiful well-built city, ſixty-ſeven miles to the ſouth-weſt of Madrid: it is ſeated on an eminence between mountains, on the little river Xerte, and is defended by a good caſtle. Its biſhop, who has a revenue of fifty thouſand ducats per annum, is ſubject to the biſhop of St. Jago, and under its juriſdiction are two ſmall towns.

Alcantara, a fortified town a hundred and ſeventy-two miles to the north-weſt-by-weſt of Seville, is ſeated on the Tagus in a fruitful country, near the frontiers of Portugal, and takes its name, which ſignifies a ſtone bridge, from an antient ſtately one, built on this river in the

reign of the emperor Trajan, it being two hundred feet high, ſix hundred and ſeventy long, and twenty-eight broad. It was taken by the earl of Galway in 1706, and retaken by the French the ſame year.

Badajoz, the capital of Eſtremadura, and a frontier town againſt Portugal, ſtands upon an eminence on the ſouth ſide of the Guadiana, and is divided into the Upper and Lower Town. It is not a large place, but has good houſes, pretty broad ſtreets, fine churches, ſome convents, and a jeſuits college. The biſhop, who has an annual revenue of ſixteen thouſand ducats, is ſuffragan to the archbiſhop of St. Jago. Its fortifications are antique, but it has ſome wooden out-works, particularly a caſtle fortified in the modern taſte, called St. Michael's; and on the farther ſide of the river the caſtle of St. Chriſtoval, which covers an old Roman bridge of ſtone that extends over the river, and is ſeven hundred paces long and fourteen broad. On this bridge the Portugueſe were defeated by Don John of Auſtria in 1661, and in 1705, the city was beſieged by the allies, but not taken. The neighbouring country is extremely fruitful, and its flocks of ſheep produce very fine wool.

SECT. XVII.

Of the Province of Andaluſia; including the antient Kingdoms of Seville, Cordova, and Jean Its Situation, Extent, Rivers, Produce, and principal Cities; with a more particular Deſcription of Seville, Cadiz, and Gibraltar.

THE name of Andaluſia, which this province owes to the Vandals, is divided from Vandalenhaus, or the habitation of the Vandals, and formerly extended alſo over the kingdom of Granada, then called Upper Andaluſia. This country is bounded on the north by Eſtremadura and New Caſtile, from which it is divided by a range of mountains, called the Sierra Morena; on the eaſt by Granada and Murcia; on the ſouth partly by the Mediterranean, and partly by the ſtreights of Gibraltar; and on the weſt by the Portugueſe diſtricts of Alentejo and Algarve, extending from eaſt to weſt about two hundred and twenty-five miles; but its breadth is very different, and where largeſt, not above one hundred and twelve.

The river Guadalquiver, by the antients called Bœtis and Tarteſſus, traverſes the whole country, and the Guadiana ſeparates it to the weſt from the Portugueſe Algarve. Of the other ſmall rivers ſome run into the ſea, as the Odier, or Odiel; the Tinto, or Azeche, the water of which cannot be drank, it being noxious even to herbs and the roots of trees, and having neither fiſh or any living creature in it; and the Guadalate, or river of Oblivion. Others fall into the Guadalquiver, as the Xenil, and the Guadiamar.

Andaluſia is eſteemed the beſt province in all Spain, it abounding in exquiſite fruit of all kinds, honey, excellent wine, grain, ſilk, ſugar, fine oil, numerous herds of cattle, particularly horſes, with metals, cinnabar, and a certain ſpecies of quickſilver. The heat in ſummer is indeed very great; but the inhabitants generally ſleep by day, travelling and following their other employments in the night. The air is, however, in other reſpects good, and is ſometimes refreſhed with cooling breezes.

This province is properly compoſed of three antient kingdoms, which, in the king's titles, inſtead of the common names, are expreſſed by that of Andaluſia. Theſe are the kingdoms of Seville, Cordova, and Jean.

Seville, the antient Hiſpalis, the capital of the kingdom of the ſame name, is ſeated in the thirty-ſeventh degree fifteen minutes north latitude, and in the ſixth degree five minutes weſt longitude, two hundred miles to the ſouth-weſt of Madrid, in a large plain on the banks of the Guadalquiver. It is almoſt round and of conſiderable extent, but not proportionable to the number of its inhabitants: the ſtreets are narrow, but the houſes fine, though in the Mooriſh taſte: they are clean built round a ſquare court, with green lattices, and ſhaded from the ſun by a canvas extending from the top of the houſes acroſs the court.

The cathedral is a fine Gothic ſtructure, raiſed on noble pointed arches, and adorned with good painted glaſs windows. It conſiſts of five naves; but the whole is ſpoiled by the ſkreen of the choir, which intercepts the view of a magnificent altar, and a pretended miraculous virgin at the eaſt end. Before that altar is a ſarcophagus of ſilver, within which lies the body of Fernando Santo. There is much plate belonging to this church; particularly one whole altar and frontiſpiece of plate, and a moſt beautiful ſilver cuſtodia. The tower of the cathedral, which is about forty-four feet ſquare, and upwards of a hundred and thirty feet high, was built by the Moors in the year 1000, with turrets, and a cupola has been added by the Chriſtians, which makes it about three hundred feet to the top of the image upon the dome. The aſcent of the tower is ſo eaſy, that a horſe may aſcend to the top, there being no ſteps. The chapter-houſe is a fine oval room, and in this ſtructure are many fine chapels.

In this city are reckoned twenty-nine churches, forty-four convents for monks, and thirty nunneries, all which are rich and well-built, twenty-four hoſpitals, and as many ſquares. Of the convents, the moſt remarkable and magnificent are thoſe of the Franciſcans, Nueſtra Signora de la Merred, and the Dominicans. Its univerſity was founded in 1504. The great college ſtands near the king's palace. St. Thomas's college was built in the fifteenth century, and the Jeſuit's college is alſo worth ſeeing.

The royal palace, called Alcaçar, ſtands near the cathedral, and is very ſpacious: it was built by the Moors, and has been conſiderably enlarged by the kings of Spain, but the new works are inferior to the old. Some parts of this vaſt ſtructure are very grand, but want the conveniencies of modern architecture.

The exchange, which ſtands behind the cathedral, is a large building. To the ſuburbs of Triana is a paſſage over the river, by a ſtrong bridge of boats. The circuit of the city, including the ſuburbs, is computed at near fourteen miles; but that of the walls is only eight. They are pretty ſtrong, and have fifteen gates, and a hundred and ſixty-ſix towers. Quite along the river are commodious quays, where veſſels of a large burthen may lie with ſafety; and near the water-ſide is a ſtately tower, which commands the whole river, city, and ſuburbs. The archbiſhop of Seville has a yearly revenue of a hundred thouſand ducats. Here are ſeveral publiic offices and a court of inquiſition.

This city was once famous for its flouriſhing manufactures; but theſe have ſo dwindled, that from a thouſand artificers in wool and ſilk, ſcarce four hundred remains at preſent. The adjacent country abounds in wine, corn, and fruit; great quantities of oil are particularly made here. Without the city is a long Mooriſh aqueduct, worthy the notice of the curious traveller.

Puerto de Santa Maria, or Port St. Mary's, the capital of an earldom belonging to the duke of Medina Celi, is ſeated at the mouth of the river Guadalete, directly oppoſite to Cadiz, and exceeds that city in bigneſs: the ſtreets are alſo broader and better paved, and the houſes handſome, though it contains ſcarce eight thouſand inhabitants. It is only walled round, and has a little caſtle of ſmall force. Here are great numbers of French, Engliſh, Dutch, Genoeſe, and other merchants, who carry on a flouriſhing trade; and here alſo are made vaſt quantities of ſalt. In the year 1702 the Engliſh and Dutch made themſelves maſters of this place without oppoſition.

Cadiz, by the Romans called Gades, a celebrated trading city, ſtands on an iſland in the thirty-ſixth degree thirty minutes latitude, and in the ſixth degree forty minutes weſt longitude, on the north-weſt end of a long neck of land, that extends from the ſouth-eaſt to the north-weſt, and is alſo joined to the continent, from which it is divided by a narrow ſtreight, by means of the bridge of Suaco, both ends of which are defended with redoubts, and ſome other raiſed works of earth. This iſland from Fort St. Catalina to the iſland of St. Pedro, is about eighteen miles long, and from the ſouth point

near

near the iſland of St. Pedro to the northern one near the bridge of Suaco about ſeven in breadth. It produces little grain, but ſome of the beſt wine in Spain is made there. It has alſo ſome paſtures, and on the ſide next the harbour is made large quantities of ſalt. It has alſo a conſiderable fiſhery, particularly of tunnies, which are here commonly between ſix and eight, and ſometimes ten feet in length.

The city of Cadiz is of pretty large circumference, yet the whole neck of land which extends from the iſland is not built upon; the weſt ſide, which is very delightful, being almoſt uninhabited, the only buildings upon it are a ſpacious hoſpital and two chapels, it being leſs commodious for ſhipping than the eaſt ſide. Moſt of the ſtreets are narrow, crooked, ill paved, and dirty; but a few of them are broad, ſtraight, and well paved. The houſes are generally three or four ſtories high, and many of them are handſome buildings; but houſe-rent and proviſions are dear, and good freſh water very ſcarce. It contains about thirteen convents, among which the college of the Jeſuits is the fineſt in all Andaluſia; but has only one pariſh church, which is the cathedral, tho' the ſettled inhabitants are computed at forty thouſand. The biſhop of this city is ſuffragan to the archbiſhop of Seville, aad has an annual revenue of twelve thouſand ducats. Here is eſtabliſhed the Weſt India company, which in 1717 was removed hither from Seville. Indeed at the earneſt requeſt of the laſt-mentioned city, it was reſtored to it again in 1725; but in 1726 was a ſecond time brought back to Cadiz. Both before and after the arrival of the Spaniſh American fleet, this city is ſaid to be crowded with ſtrangers to the number of fifty thouſand, who reſort hither on account of trade, which cauſes an extraordinary circulation of money. Cadiz is the center of the whole American trade, to which the Engliſh, French, Dutch, and Italian merchants ſend their goods, which are ſhipped off here in Spaniſh bottoms to America, by Spaniſh factors in their own names. Beſides theſe nations, all others who carry on any traffic here by ſea, have alſo their agents, correſpondents, and factors, in this city; and the conſuls of thoſe nations make a great figure.

Both the harbour and bay of Cadiz are ſpacious and ſecure, the entrance being defended by Fort Matagorda, which covers the harbour and bay of Cadiz, and by Fort Puntal, which ſtands oppoſite to it, on a point of that neck of land on which Cadiz is built. The Spaniards commonly call both theſe Los Puntales. The entrance into the harbour, between theſe points, is ſaid to be five hundred fathoms wide. During the time of ebb a good part of the harbour, which is ten miles in circumference, is dry. Cadiz is fortified with walls and irregular baſtions, and on the ſouth ſide there is no approaching it, on account of the high and ſteep ſhore; on the north ſide the acceſs is dangerous from the many ſand-banks and rocks that lie under the water. The ſouth-weſt ſide will indeed admit of landing; but is defended by Fort St. Catalina. On the ſouth-ſouth-weſt point is a ridge of rocks, part of which at full ſea is covered with water; the outermoſt of theſe forms a ſmall iſland, on which is a guard and light-houſe, with two chapels, and Fort St. Sebaſtian.

No people are happier than the merchants of Cadiz; for they ſeldom riſk any thing upon their own account, and enrich themſelves at the coſt of thoſe who ſend them goods; ſo that let things go as they will, they are no loſers. But it muſt be ſaid to their honour, that they are diſtinguiſhed in a remarkable manner, by the ſtrict honeſty and integrity of their dealings; whence foreigners, with the utmoſt confidence, truſt their effects and fortunes in their hands.

In 1596 this city was plundered and burnt by the Engliſh; but was again rebuilt by the Spaniards. In 1702 the Engliſh made another attempt upon it, but without ſucceſs.

Algeziras is at preſent a poor old town in the Streights, and has a decayed harbour, with only a few ſhattered houſes. The word Algezira, in Arabic, ſignifies an iſland, and the harbour being formed by two iſlands, it has been called in the plural number Algeziras. Here the Moors firſt landed, and held the place almoſt ſeven hundred years.

Between the mountain and promontory, near Algeziras, and the mountain on which Gibraltar ſtands, is a bay. The laſt-mentioned mountain is a high and ſteep rock, joined to the continent by a low neck of land about four hundred yards broad, bounded to the weſt by the above bay, and to the eaſt by the Mediterranean, where this rock is of an uncommon height, and almoſt perpendicular; yet towards the bay, or on the weſt ſide, the aſcent is not ſo difficult. It divides itſelf into ſeveral parts, between which the ſea flows, and its capes are defended by walls, bulwarks, and towers. This rock abounds with very wholeſome herbs, among which is the ranunculus. The mountain formerly known by the name of Celpe, according to Buſching, lies directly oppoſite to Cauta, in Africa, and is alſo called Sierra Ximiera and Sierra de las Mona, or the Apes Hill; but was formerly named Abyla. Theſe two mountains are generally allowed to be the celebrated pillars of Hercules.

To the weſtward, at the foot of the firſt mountain towards the bay, lies Gibraltar, called by the Moors Gibel-Tarif, or Taric, that is Mount Tarif, or Taric, from the name of a Mooriſh general, who, at the beginning of the eighth century, bringing the auxilliaries of three Mooriſh princes to Spain, landed at the foot of this mountain, to which he gave his name, and the town afterwards built upon it was ſo called from him; Gibraltar being evidently an abbreviation of Gibel-Tarif, or Taric. It is not ſo conſiderable either for its extent or beauty, as for its ſtrength and ſituation, which renders it one of the keys to Spain; and, what is ſtill of more conſequence, the key to the Mediterranean and Levant. It is accordingly provided with all the artillery, ſtores, and forces neceſſary for its defence. Excluſive of Europeans of moſt nations, here are Jews, Turks, and Moors, who are all permitted to enjoy a free trade. The harbour is formed by a mole, which is well fortified and planted with guns. It is acceſſible only on the land ſide by a narrow paſſage between the rocks and the ſea, but that walled and fortified both by art and nature, being there ſo incloſed by high ſteep hills, as to be almoſt inacceſſible that way. It has but two gates on that ſide, and as many towards the ſea. Acroſs this iſthmus the Spaniards have drawn a fortified line, chiefly with a view to hinder the garriſon of Gibraltar from having any intercourſe with the country behind them. Thoſe who have the courage to climb to the top of the rock will find it a plain, that affords a proſpect of the ſea on each ſide the ſtreight, and of the kingdoms of Barbary, Fez, and Morocco; beſides the cities of Seville and Granada, in Spain: for the ſtreight is here only fifteen miles in breadth; and twenty-four in length. There is always a ſtrong current running through it from the ocean into the Mediterranean. The garriſon of Gibraltar is, however, confined within very narrow limits; and as the ground produces hardly any thing, all their proviſions are brought them either from England or from Ceuta on the coaſt of Barbary.

This city was taken in 1704 in two days by a combined fleet of Engliſh and Dutch ſhips under the command of Sir George Rooke: but the ſame year the Spaniards attempted its recovery, at which time it ſtood out a memorable ſiege, in which between four and five hundred of the enemy having crept up the rock that covers the town, were the next morning driven down headlong: after which it was ceded to the Engliſh by the treaty of Utrecht, in 1713. The Spaniards again made an attempt, in the year 1727, with a powerful army; but were at laſt obliged to raiſe the ſiege, after lying before it ſeveral months, and even endeavouring to blow up the rock, which they found to be impracticable; it therefore ſtill belongs to the crown of Great Britain. Since the above ſiege this fortreſs has been more ſtrongly fortified, new works and improvements being daily added: it is rendered impregnable by any other means than treachery or ſurprize, for it cannot be ſtarved while our fleet can bring ſupplies.

We

We now come to Cordova, the next kingdom included in the province of Andaluſia, which, though much ſmaller than that of Seville, is equal to it in fertility.

The city of Cordova, antiently called Corduba and Colonia Patricia, is large, beautiful, and finely ſituated in a wide plain, on the banks of the Guadalquiver, at the foot of a ridge of mountains that are a branch of the Sierra Morena, in thirty-ſeven degrees fifty minutes north latitude, and in four degrees fifty-three minutes weſt longitude. Within its circuit it contains ſeveral gardens and vineyards; but its ſtreets are narrow, and it is not very populous in proportion to its extent. Its fine ſuburbs have the appearance of ſo many towns. The biſhop, who is ſuffragan to the archbiſhop of Toledo, has an annual revenue of forty thouſand ducats. The cathedral is a large antique and magnificent ſquare building, its roof being ſupported by three hundred and ſixty-five ſtately pillars of alabaſter, jaſper, and black marble; and was built by the Moors for a moſque. It has nineteen naves running from north to ſouth, ſeparated by ſmall beautiful pillars, ſome with fine Corinthian capitals taken out of the old temple of Janus Auguſtus, as appears by an inſcription on a pillar of green marble, which in Mariana's time ſtood in the Franciſcan convent in this city. Theſe pillars would have a beautiful effect, were not the view of them interrupted with croſs walls, altars, the choir, and the preſbytery, which is built in the middle. The epiſcopal palace is a large ſtructure. The inquiſition ſtands by the river ſide, and the king's palace, which is at the weſt end of the city, is very ſpacious. In 1586 Cordova ſuffered very much by an earthquake.

The adjacent mountains are covered with delightful gardens and plantations of olives, oranges, lemons, and figs. They are alſo interſperſed with pleaſant valleys, refreſhed by ſprings of good water. When the above-mentioned trees are in bloſſom, they diffuſe a fragrancy all over the country. Beſides the excellence of the wine, and the plenty of fruits and vegetables, this country breeds the fineſt Spaniſh horſes.

Andujar, or Anduxar, an antient and pretty large city, thirty-two miles to the eaſt of Cordova, is ſituated on the river Guadalquiver, over which it has a ſtately bridge, and is defended by a ſtrong caſtle. It contains three thouſand families, has five pariſhes, ſix monaſteries, three nunneries, and two hoſpitals; beſides other ſtately and handſome buildings. It vends great quantities of ſilk. The neighbouring country abounds in corn, wine, oil, honey, and all ſorts of fruit; and likewiſe yields excellent game.

The kingdom of Jean is the ſmalleſt of the three comprehended in the province of Andaluſia.

The principal city it contains is Jaen, which ſtands at the foot of a mountain, and is defended by a caſtle. It is populous, and has ſome fine churches and monaſteries; but the greateſt devotion is paid here to St. Veronica. Its biſhop, who is under the archbiſhop of Toledo, has a yearly income of twenty thouſand ducats. It was once the capital of a Mooriſh kingdom; and the country, beſides producing great plenty of corn, wine, oil, and fruit, particularly abounds in ſilk.

SECT. XVIII.

Of the Balearic Iſlands, Majorca, Minorca, Ivica, and Formentera. Their Hiſtory, Situation, Extent, Produce, Inhabitants, and principal Towns.

THE four iſlands of Majorca, Minorca, Ivica, and Formentera, formerly compoſed the kingdom of Majorca. Theſe iſlands are ſituated to the weſt of Spain; yet it is not known by whom they were originally inhabited: but Strabo mentions a colony of Greeks, who ſettled there from the iſle of Rhodes. Afterwards the Carthaginians became maſters of them, but were ſubdued by the Romans. In the fifth century the Vandals poſſeſſed themſelves of theſe ſeveral iſlands, and towards the end of the eighth and beginning of the ninth century theſe were diſlodged by the Moors, who, after a much ſhorter poſſeſſion were expelled by the emperor Charlemagne; but the Moors ſoon recovered them again, and had their particular king over them. Numerous wars were carried on between them and the Catalonians with various ſucceſs, till towards the concluſion of the year 1229, James I. king of Arragon, diſpoſſeſſed them of all the iſland of Majorca: in 1232 he alſo reduced Minorca, and in 1234 Ivica; and thus the whole kingdom of Majorca became annexed to the crown of Arragon.

Theſe four iſlands, with the ſmaller ones lying near them, were by the antients divided into the Balearic and Pithyuſæ. The former are Majorca and Minorca, which, with ſome ſmaller iſlands, were termed by the Latins Baleares, and by the Greeks Balearides, which ſignify the iſlands of Slingers, the inhabitants excelling in the dexterous uſe of the ſling, as the Minorcans do to this day.

Mallorca, or, as it is pronounced by foreigners, Majorca, is ſituated about eighty miles ſouth of the Spaniſh coaſt, and is the largeſt of theſe iſlands, it being about ſixty miles in length, and forty-five in breadth. It has four chief capes which lie to the four cardinal points; theſe are Pedra on the eaſt, Palermo on the weſt, Salinas on the ſouth, and Formentella, or St. Vincent, on the north. This iſland is divided into two parts, that towards the north and weſt is mountainous, but not barren; and the other, which lies to the ſouth and eaſt, is level and laid out in corn-fields, vineyards, orchards, and paſtures. The air is temperate and wholeſome; but the exceſſive heat and drought frequently occaſions a ſcarcity, though the iſland in general is well ſupplied with water, and naturally abounds in corn, wine, oil, honey, ſaffron, large and ſmall cattle, wool, cheeſe, rabbets, partridges, deer, wild fowl, fiſh, and horſes, without any ravenous wild beaſts. The whole iſland is encompaſſed with ſtrong towers, from which an enemy may be obſerved at a diſtance, and it has ſeveral good harbours and anchoring-places.

The inhabitants in their manners and cuſtoms reſemble the Spaniards, and particularly the Catalonians. People of faſhion ſpeak the Spaniſh tongue, but the language of the commonalty is a medley of Spaniſh, Latin, and Limoſin, which is a corrupt kind of French, Greek, and Arabic. The iſland maintains twenty companies of foot, five troops of horſe, and two companies of matroſſes, for the defence of the capital; beſides four regiments ſtationed in other parts of the iſland.

Majorca, the antient Palma, is the capital, and is ſeated on a bay between two capes, in thirty-nine degrees forty minutes latitude, and in two degrees thirty-ſix minutes eaſt longitude, on the weſt ſide of the iſland. It is fortified in the modern taſte; is large, and has broad ſtreets, ſpacious ſquares, ſtately ſtone houſes, and twenty-two churches, beſides chapels and oratories. The largeſt ſquare is that of Born, which is encompaſſed on every ſide with grand buildings, from whence the principal inhabitants view the bull-fights and other ſhows. The cathedral is a large and magnificent ſtructure, and the biſhop is ſuffragan to the archbiſhop of Valencia. In the city are ſix hoſpitals, and three other foundations for women. It has a royal audience, in which the governor preſides, an univerſity, and a court of inquiſition. The inhabitants are computed at about ten thouſand. This city was taken by the Engliſh in 1706, and retaken in 1715.

There are ſeveral ſmall towns in the iſland beſides the capital, and round it are a conſiderable number of ſmall iſlands, the principal of which are,

Cabrera, which is ſo called from the multitude of goats found there. It is all over mountainous, and uninhabited, except its ſpacious and ſecure harbour, the entrance into which fronts Majorca, and is defended by a caſtle, in which is always kept a ſmall garriſon. This iſland is a place for exiles.

Las Bledes is of ſome conſideration; it was formerly very populous, and is ſtill diſtinguiſhed by having a good quarry of marble.

Dragonera is about a thouſand paces in length, nine hundred broad, and twelve hundred from Majorca. It is uninhabited, and only produces an edible bird of prey called a Spaniard. It has, however, a fortreſs on a hill called Mount Popia.

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We now come to Minorca, a conſiderable iſland fifty miles to the north-eaſt of the iſland of Majorca. It is about thirty miles in length, twelve in breadth, and is chiefly valued for its excellent harbour of Port Mahon. The ſouth ſhore of the iſland is ſmooth, but towards the north very rugged; and may in general be conſidered as a mountainous country, with ſome fruitful vallleys. The ſea has ſo withdrawn from this iſland, that near the harbour are ſeveral new flats, which are turned into garden-grounds. The air is moiſt; the heat in Farenheit's thermometer placed in the ſun riſes only to a hundred and two degrees, and is conſequently not very intenſe: nor is the quickſilver known to ſink very often under forty-one, which is ſhort of the freezing point. The ſoil cannot be extolled for its fertility; beſides, the water being hard, nephritic diſorders are common here. The hedgehog is in this iſland eſteemed a venomous animal, it being ſuppoſed to corrupt the water, particularly in rutting-time in the ſpring. One of the moſt profitable commodities of the country is ſalt, which the ſun prepares in cavities between the rocks. Some of the wine is excellent, and the inhabitants are ſaid to ſell to the Engliſh as much of it as amounts annually to twenty-ſeven thouſand pounds ſterling. Here is great plenty of fiſh, particularly of wilks, which are of great ſervice to the commonalty in Lent. Rabbets are to be met with here in great plenty; here are alſo wool, honey, wax, and capers, which grow upon the walls; but theſe, as well as olives and cotton, are alſo cultivated in plantations. The palm-trees here bear no fruit. The opuntia is very common, and plentifully eaten, as are alſo the acorns; and the myrtles, which abound here, are of great advantage to tanners. The inhabitants, however, are obliged to have their chief neceſſaries, as corn, beef, brandy, tobacco, linen, ſtuffs, books, relics, Agnus Deis, from abroad; and all theſe together are ſaid to ſtand them in no leſs every year than ſeventy-one thouſand two hundred pounds ſterling.

The natives live moſtly on vegetables, love dancing, and have ſuch a turn for poetry, that the very peaſants challenge each other to trials of their poetic genius. They are very dexterous with their ſlings, and with them command their cattle; but as they are far from being induſtrious, they neglect many advantages they might enjoy by huſbandry and trade. The houſes on the iſland are computed at about three thouſand and eighty-nine, though the inhabitants are ſaid to amount to twenty-ſeven thouſand.

The Engliſh took this iſland from the Spaniards in 1708, after which it was confirmed to them by the treaty of Utrecht; but it was invaded by the French in 1756, when, after a very brave reſiſtance under general Blakeney, the garriſon was obliged to ſurrender, the French having inveſted Fort St. Philip with an army of fifteen thouſand men, well provided with all military ſtores; but it was again reſtored to the Engliſh by the late treaty of peace. The principal places in the iſland are the following:

Port Mahon is defended by the caſtle of St. Philip, and works of great ſtrength cut in the rock, on account of its being eſteemed one of the moſt commodious harbours in Europe. Its entrance is indeed ſomewhat difficult, from the ſeveral rocks within it; but on the inſide it is land-locked, and perfectly ſecure from tempeſts. Near it lies the little trading town of Mahon, from whence it takes its name.

Citadella, the capital of the whole iſland, and the ſeat of the governor, is fortified, and conſiſts of about ſix hundred houſes.

The iſland of Ivica, or Yvica, the antient Ebuſus, lies fifty-ſix miles to the ſouth-weſt of the iſland of Majorca, and is about five miles in length and four broad. The ſoil is not unfruitful; but is little cultivated, moſt of the inhabitants being taken up with the ſalt-trade, as being moſt profitable. It is very mountainous, yet, beſides pines, produces fruit-trees of various kinds. Ivica, the capital, is fortified in the modern manner; but is much dwindled from what it was in the times of the Carthaginians and Romans. It is the reſidence of the governor, from whom there lies an appeal to the royal audience at Majorca.

Formentera, the antient Ophiuſa and Collubaria, or the Adder Iſland, was formerly well inhabited, but at preſent is forſaken and deſart, which is owing to the African corſairs, who are continually ſwarming about it. The iſland contains ſome harbours, and good anchoring-places; but all that is to be ſeen there is a kind of wild aſs.

CHAP. XXVII.

Of the Kingdom of PORTUGAL.

SECT. I.

Its Name, Situation, Extent, Climate, Soil, Produce, and Rivers.

THIS country was formerly called Luſitania; but its boundaries were then different from thoſe it has at preſent. The name of Portugal is by ſome thought to ariſe from Portus Gallus, or Portus Gallorum, from the multitude of French which came to the city of Porto, on the river Douro, in order to aſſiſt the Chriſtians againſt the Moors. But the more general opinion is, that it is derived from a town on the river Douro, by the antients called Cale; but by the moderns changed to Gaya: oppoſite to this place a new town, with a harbour, was built by the inhabitants, who gave it the name of Portucale, or the Port of Cale, which, by its uninterrupted proſperity, proved the origin of the preſent flouriſhing city of Porto; and the whole country from hence received the name of Portugal.

This kingdom, which is the moſt weſtern in Europe, is bounded on the north by the Spaniſh province of Galicia; on the eaſt by the provinces of Leon, Eſtremadura, and Andaluſia; and on the ſouth and weſt by the Atlantic ocean; extending from the thirty-ſixth degree fifty minutes to the forty-ſecond degree three minutes north latitude, and beween the ſeventh and tenth degree of weſt longitude from London. Its length from Valença, the moſt northern town in it, to Sagres, the moſt ſouthern, near Cape St. Vincent, is about three hundred and ten miles; and its greateſt breadth, from Peniche, a ſea-port in Eſtremadura, to Salvaterra, on the frontiers of Spain, is a hundred and twelve.

The climate is much more temperate than in Spain, though it is a little different in the ſeveral provinces. The northern parts feel a kind of painful cold in winter, though this is chiefly owing to the rains which fall at that ſeaſon, and in the ſouthern the ſummer heats are very great. However, both winter and ſummer are very ſupportable; for cooling ſea-breezes, during the latter, refreſh the country, and the ſeaſon of ſpring is extremely delightful.

The country is in many parts mountainous, and theſe mountains contain the ores of ſilver, copper, tin, and iron: but the Portugueſe being ſupplied with metals from their poſſeſſions in other parts of the globe, and particularly with abundance of gold from America, no mines are worked in their own country. Gems of all kinds, as

turquois and hyacinths, are alſo found in the mountains; and particularly a beautiful variegated marble, with many other curious foſſils of the lapidary kind, of which ſeveral ſorts of work are made: here are alſo very good mill-ſtones, and on the hill of Alcantara, not far from Liſbon, is a remarkable mine of ſalt-petre.

Though the ſoil is very fruitful, agriculture is ſo much neglected, that above half the country lies waſte, and the inhabitants are ſupplied with a great part of their corn by the Engliſh and Dutch, and have Indian corn from Africa. Portugal, however, abounds in excellent wine and oil; the greateſt part of the latter is made in the province of Alentejo, for the olive-trees thrive better here, near the ſea, than up in the country. Here are alſo abundance of oranges, lemons, figs, pomegranates, raiſins, almonds, cheſnuts, and other fruit. It produces great plenty of fine honey, and conſequently of wax. The beſt honey found in the fields is almoſt of a white colour, and of a moſt agreeable flavour; and the wood-honey is more agreeable to the taſte than in other countries.

As Portugal has ſome excellent paſtures, particularly in the country about Monteſtrella and near Ourique, the grazing is in ſome places very conſiderable, and there are ſeen an uncommon number of horned cattle and ſheep; but in moſt places it is at ſo low an ebb, that the greateſt part of their oxen come from Spain. The horſes are not large, but very fleet; and they have fine mules, which ſell for a great price. The Portugueſe breed more aſſes than horſes, the latter being clandeſtinely imported from Spain.

From the mountains iſſue ſeveral ſtreams and ſmall rivers, which fertilize the valleys and fields, and either join the great rivers in their courſe, or diſcharge themſelves ſeparately into the ſea: but all the great rivers of Portugal have their ſources in Spain. The principal of theſe are the Minho, the Lima, or Lethe, the Douro, the Tajo, or Tagus, the largeſt river in the kingdom, and the Guadiana, with the Cavado; which laſt riſes in the mountains of Trazos, and diſcharges itſelf into the ſea below Barcelos.

All theſe rivers abound in fiſh; and the three principal, namely the Douro, the Tagus, and Guadiana, divide the kingdom into three parts.

SECT. II.

The Manners, Cuſtoms, Perſons, Dreſs, Houſes, Furniture, Method of Travelling, Religion, &c.

EMANUEL de Farca, a Portugueſe writer, deſcribing his conntrymen, ſays, "The nobility think "themſelves gods, and require a ſort of adoration; the "gentry aſpire to equal them; and the common people "diſdain to be thought inferior to either." This pride is the characteriſtic both of the Spaniards and Portugueſe; and here the grandees and their ladies carry their haughty ſpirit to ſuch an extravagant height, that they ſtand upon the niceſt punctilios with reſpect to rank and titles. The ladies of quality are ſerved by their maids and ſlaves on the knee; and indeed the women of quality will ſcarce be ſpoken to by mean people in any other poſture: a degree of haughtineſs practiſed in no other Chriſtian country, and which they probably received from the Moors. But this is far from being the worſt part of their character; for it is become a proverb, that a Spaniard ſtript of all his good qualities, makes a perfect Portugueſe. Indeed they are generally characterized, as being cruel, treacherous, malicious, and revengeful, both to one another and to ſtrangers; crafty in their dealings, and the meaner ſort addicted to thieving. But to this general character there are many noble exceptions.

The Portugueſe ladies are ſmall of ſtature, with their complexion pretty much upon the olive; their features delicate; but their viſage thin: their hair is black and ſhining, and their eyes ſparkling; nor do they want a good ſhare of wit. In ſhort, they are for the moſt part generous, charitable, and modeſt. They wear hoops, and ſeveral gowns, one over another, of rich ſtuffs trimmed with gold and ſilver lace; but the uppermoſt is ſaid to be of coarſe black ſtuff, and ſo long that it trails upon the ground. Their ſhoes are of black Spaniſh leather, ſtraight as a glove, and without heels; whence within doors they ſeem to ſlide along rather than to walk. When they go abroad they have pattens, which are a kind of ſilk ſandals faſtened to rings or plates, that raiſe them half a foot from the ground, and make them walk very aukwardly; but in the houſe they neither wear hoops nor pattens. The ſtays, in which they have but little bone, are high before, but ſcarce reach half way up their backs behind, and conſequently would expoſe the tawny complexion of their ſkins, if their ſhoulders were not covered with paint. Their hands and feet are ſmall and well proportioned, and their wide ſleeves, with broad ruffles, buttoned at the wriſts, make their hands appear leſs than they are. The people of quality wear very fine linen, and as this is ſcarce and dear, the meaner ſort have none; for rather than wear coarſe linen, they will go without. The ladies wear about their necks a broad laced tucker, and inſtead of a girdle tie a ſtring of medals or relics, or perhaps the cord of ſome religious order, about their waiſt, the ends of which reach down to the ground. Acroſs the top of their ſtays they have a kind of breaſt-plate of diamonds, from whence there hangs a chain of pearls, or ten or twelve little knots of diamonds. They have likewiſe bracelets, rings, and pendants in abundance; but no necklaces. In their hair they wear a variety of precious ſtones, ſometimes in the form of artificial butter-flies, or other inſects; ſometimes they adorn their hair with ribbons and feathers of various colours. When they go abroad they throw a veil over all, and women who are advanced in years wear a fine coif over their hair; but many of the young ladies have none.

The Portugueſe gentlemen commonly wear black, and thoſe of the court frequently follow the French faſhions.

With reſpect to their houſes and furniture, they have uſually a great many rooms on a floor. The floors and ceilings are formed of a plain white plaſter, that looks like poliſhed marble. They change their furniture and apartments according to the ſeaſon of the year; and upon the lower floors of their ſummer apartments they uſually throw water every morning, which ſoon dries up, and leaves a refreſhing coolneſs. Upon theſe floors they ſpread fine mats, and cover the walls with them chair-high; above theſe are hung pictures and looking-glaſſes, and all round the rooms of the ladies apartments cuſhions of ſilk or velvet are laid upon the mats, which they ſit upon croſs-legged, as hath been already obſerved with reſpect to the Spaniſh ladies. Between theſe cuſhions are fine tables and cabinets, and, at certain diſtances, vaſes of ſilver, in which are orange or jeſſamine trees, and in their windows they have frames of ſtraw-work, to keep out the ſcorching beams of the ſun.

In the upper apartments the hangings, cabinets, looking-glaſſes, paintings, and plate, are extremely rich, and the floors are frequently covered with Turky carpets. In winter their beds and hangings are of velvet, trimmed with gold or ſilver lace; but in ſummer they uſe no curtains, except very thin ones, made of gauze, or ſome other ſlight ſtuff to keep out the gnats.

Veſſels of copper, tin, or pewter, are ſaid to be never ſeen in the houſes of perſons of quality, where they only uſe ſilver, or earthen-ware, and have many dozens of ſilver plates, and a great number of diſhes of the ſame metal, with other utenſils in proportion. But amidſt all this wealth, the bad œconomy of the grandees is ſcarce credible, and reduces them to a neceſſitous condition, even while they make this glittering appearance. Moſt of them paſs their lives in or near the capital, without ever viſiting their eſtates, unleſs they happen to be diſgraced at court: they leave every thing to their ſteward, and are above inſpecting his accounts. Their tradeſmen deliver their goods upon truſt, and ſet down their own prices, being pretty well aſſured their bills will not undergo a ſtrict examination. It is beneath a perſon of quality to endeavour to beat down the price of a piece of ſilk, or other goods, or even to take change of a ſhopkeeper out of a piece of gold; and as the tradeſman frequently gives ſeven or eight years credit, he is obliged to ſet down double the price the goods might be bought for with ready money. They ſeldom, however, loſe their debts, for

the Spaniſh and Portugueſe quality are men of ſuch honour, that they readily aſſign a part of their rents for the payment of their debts, when preſſed for money by their tradeſmen.

The houſes of the nobility are crowded with domeſtics; but their wages are very low, they having only eight-pence or ten-pence per day to purchaſe diet, cloaths, and every thing elſe; and a gentleman belonging to a grandee has only about fifteen crowns a month, though he is obliged to dreſs in velvet in winter, and ſilk in ſummer. Indeed the ſervants lay out the greateſt part of their ſalaries in cloaths, living upon onions, peaſe, beans, and other pulſe. One reaſon of the Portugueſe nobility having ſuch a number of ſervants is a cuſtom which prevails among them of keeping all in their pay who have ſerved their anceſtors; ſo that ſome of the grandees have four or five hundred of both ſexes, the greateſt part of whom are merely for ſhow, and ſeldom appear but on days of ceremony.

The quality, beſides their ordinary ſervants, retain abundance of dwarfs of both ſexes, who are dreſſed as fine as poſſible; they have alſo a pretty many ſlaves who are Moors, and are valued at four or five hundred crowns a piece. Over theſe they had formerly the power of life and death; but at preſent the government will not permit their killing them. Where two ſlaves marry, their children are ſlaves; but if a freeman marries a ſlave, the children are free. Theſe ſlaves are their beſt ſervants, for the others will ſometimes pride themſelves on having as good blood as their maſters. The very beggars rather demand than ſupplicate an alms, alledging their being deſcended from old Chriſtians; and if you give them no money, muſt be diſmiſſed with a compliment, upon which they go away contented.

The food of the Portugueſe is nearly the ſame with that of the Spaniards, and they are equally ſober and abſtemious. The men mix water with their wine, and the women generally drink only water. It is cuſtomary with the Portugueſe to betake themſelves to ſleep about noon, on account of the heat, and to tranſact moſt of their buſineſs in the morning and evening, or even at night.

The method of travelling here is much the ſame as in Spain, except their having fewer coaches, and travelling more by water than the Spaniards, from their country lying along the ſea-coaſt, and its being croſſed by many great rivers that riſe in Spain. The mule or the litter are generally uſed on a journey; their horſes, which are ſprightly and well made, ſerve indeed for ſhort viſits, to prance at a proceſſion, or before the windows of their miſtreſſes; but the mules being ſtronger and ſurer-footed, are fitteſt to climb their mountains; but have only a ſlow pace.

Their language is a compound of the Spaniſh, Latin, Mooriſh, and French.

With reſpect to the religion of the Portugueſe, they are the moſt bigotted Papiſts; but though the exerciſe of the Jewiſh religion be prohibited by the fundamental laws of the kingdom, yet all authors agree, that great numbers of ſecret Jews ſtill remain among the Portugueſe, and theſe too among the nobility, biſhops, prebends, monks, nuns, and the very inquiſitors themſelves; and when unable to conceal themſelves, eſcape to England or Holland, and there openly profeſs Judaiſm. The inquiſition, which was introduced by king John III. and has ſince been ſet up in all the Portugueſe dominions, except Brazil, is very active in detecting them, and thoſe they call heretics, and no leſs rigorous in puniſhing them. Impious, cruel, and inhuman as this tribunal is, yet its feſtivals or ſolemn burnings, called *auto da fe*, or the act of faith, afford the higheſt delight to the infernal bigots, who, while their fellow-creatures, the ſuppoſed heretics, are burning in the flames, cry aloud, "Oh, what great "goodneſs! Praiſed be the holy office." King John IV. in ſome meaſure, however, curtailed the power of the inquiſition, commanding that all its ſentences ſhould be laid before the parliament, and that the accuſed ſhould be allowed council for making their defence; and enacted, that only blaſphemy, ſodomy, hereſy, ſorcery, pagan cuſtoms, and the converſion of the Jews, ſhould come under their cognizance.

The being an antient Chriſtian, or in other words of an antient Chriſtian race, is eſteemed in Portugal a very high degree of pre-eminence, and far ſuperior to what they call a new converted Chriſtian, or a half new converted Chriſtian; by which laſt they mean thoſe whoſe new converted anceſtors have married the antient Chriſtians.

The number of convents in Portugal is ſaid to amount to nine hnndred, and moſt of them are very rich; but the Jeſuits, who in multitude and opulence ſurpaſſed all the other orders, have lately been baniſhed.

With reſpect to the eccleſiaſtics, there is a patriarch of Liſbon, who muſt always be a cardinal, and of the royal family. Next to him are three archbiſhops, who rank with marquiſſes, and the firſt of them the archbiſhop of Braga, who is primate of the kingdom, and lord ſpiritual and temporal of his city and the neighbouring country. The biſhops hold the rank of counts. Beſides thoſe in Europe, the Portugueſe have archbiſhoprics and biſhoprics in the other three parts of the world.

The king of Portugal, beſides the nomination of all biſhops, receives a fourth of their revenue. The pope confirms the biſhops, publiſhes his bulls in the kingdom without the king's previous conſent, and, by his legate, governs the clergy, who with reſpect to taxes and contributions depend on him. He has alſo the gift of many ſmall prebends. The pope's nuncios have here ſo lucrative a poſt, that they never fail of raiſing vaſt fortunes before they return to Rome.

SECT. III.

The State of Learning and Arts; with the Commerce, Meaſures, Weights, and Coin of Portugal.

WITH reſpect to the ſtate of learning in Portugal, it is at as low an ebb as poſſible. Indeed there are univerſities at Coimbra and Evora. At Liſbon is a royal academy for the Portugueſe hiſtory; at Santarene is an academy of hiſtory, antiquities, and languages; and at St. Thomas an academy of ſciences, on the ſame footing as that of Paris: but while bigotry continues here at its preſent enormous height, it is impoſſible for ſcience to flouriſh. An Italian Capuchin, in 1746, publiſhed a work in the Portugueſe tongue on the true method of ſtudy, in four volumes quarto, which he dedicated to the king of Portugal, and there aſſerts, that the ſchools of this country are places of retreat for thoſe errors which by Newton and Des Cartes were driven out of the other parts of Europe; and according to him Galilæo, Des Cartes, Newton, and Gaſſendi are conſidered in Portugal as atheiſts and heretics, not to be mentioned but with ſome marks of execration. D'Oliveira, a Portugueſe, ſays, in the preface to the firſt volume of Memoirs, "In "our country we live in ignorance, without knowing it; "but on leaving Portugal our eyes ſeem ſuddenly to open, "and we immediately ſee that ignorance in which we "were involved. Foreigners allow us underſtanding, "docility, morals, diſcernment, and a genius for com-"prehending what is commendable and good; but our "conceit, our gravity, our confined manner of life, "which deprive us of all freedom of thought, expoſe us "to juſt cenſures, and give riſe to thoſe hateful opinions "other nations entertain of us. The main ſource of our "ignorance, and the miſerable cauſe of offence to all "nations, is the cuſtom in Portugal of publiſhing ſuch "a multitude of books, &c."

The Portugueſe not only neglect agriculture, but all arts and manufactures, though the country has the fineſt materials; the greateſt part of theſe are diſpoſed of unwrought to foreigners, and when worked up are purchaſed again at a high price. The Portugueſe indeed make a little linen, a variety of ſtraw-work, and candy ſeveral kinds of fruit, particularly oranges. They have likewiſe ſome coarſe ſilk and woollen manufactures; but theſe are trifling articles that ſupport only a very ſmall part of the nation.

The Portugueſe, however, carry on a very extenſive trade; but from this they reap little profit, being obliged to

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With reſpect to their houſes and furniture, they have uſually a great many rooms on a floor. The floors and ceilings are formed of a plain white plaſter, that looks like poliſhed marble. They change their furniture and apartments according to the ſeaſon of the year; and upon the lower floors of their ſummer apartments they uſually throw water every morning, which ſoon dries up, and leaves a refreſhing coolneſs. Upon theſe floors they ſpread fine mats, and cover the walls with them chair-high; above theſe are hung pictures and looking-glaſſes, and all round the rooms of the ladies apartments cuſhions of ſilk or velvet are laid upon the mats, which they ſit upon croſs-legged, as hath been already obſerved with reſpect to the Spaniſh ladies. Between theſe cuſhions are fine tables and cabinets, and, at certain diſtances, vaſes of ſilver, in which are orange or jeſſamine trees, and in their windows they have frames of ſtraw-work, to keep out the ſcorching beams of the ſun.

In the upper apartments the hangings, cabinets, looking-glaſſes, paintings, and plate, are extremely rich, and the floors are frequently covered with Turky carpets. In winter their beds and hangings are of velvet, trimmed with gold or ſilver lace; but in ſummer they uſe no curtains, except very thin ones, made of gauze, or ſome other ſlight ſtuff to keep out the gnats.

Veſſels of copper, tin, or pewter, are ſaid to be never ſeen in the houſes of perſons of quality, where they only uſe ſilver, or earthen-ware, and have many dozens of ſilver plates, and a great number of diſhes of the ſame metal, with other utenſils in proportion. But amidſt all this wealth, the bad œconomy of the grandees is ſcarce credible, and reduces them to a neceſſitous condition, even while they make this glittering appearance. Moſt of them paſs their lives in or near the capital, without ever viſiting their eſtates, unleſs they happen to be diſgraced at court: they leave every thing to their ſteward, and are above inſpecting his accounts. Their tradeſmen deliver their goods upon truſt, and ſet down their own prices, being pretty well aſſured their bills will not undergo a ſtrict examination. It is beneath a perſon of quality to endeavour to beat down the price of a piece of ſilk, or other goods, or even to take change of a ſhopkeeper out of a piece of gold; and as the tradeſman frequently gives ſeven or eight years credit, he is obliged to ſet down double the price the goods might be bought for with ready money. They ſeldom, however, loſe their debts, for

the Spaniſh and Portugueſe quality are men of ſuch honour, that they readily aſſign a part of their rents for the payment of their debts, when preſſed for money by their tradeſmen.

The houſes of the nobility are crowded with domeſtics; but their wages are very low, they having only eight-pence or ten-pence per day to purchaſe diet, cloaths, and every thing elſe; and a gentleman belonging to a grandee has only about fifteen crowns a month, though he is obliged to dreſs in velvet in winter, and ſilk in ſummer. Indeed the ſervants lay out the greateſt part of their ſalaries in cloaths, living upon onions, peaſe, beans, and other pulſe. One reaſon of the Portugueſe nobility having ſuch a number of ſervants is a cuſtom which prevails among them of keeping all in their pay who have ſerved their anceſtors; ſo that ſome of the grandees have four or five hundred of both ſexes, the greateſt part of whom are merely for ſhow, and ſeldom appear but on days of ceremony.

The quality, beſides their ordinary ſervants, retain abundance of dwarfs of both ſexes, who are dreſſed as fine as poſſible; they have alſo a pretty many ſlaves who are Moors, and are valued at four or five hundred crowns a piece. Over theſe they had formerly the power of life and death; but at preſent the government will not permit their killing them. Where two ſlaves marry, their children are ſlaves; but if a freeman marries a ſlave, the children are free. Theſe ſlaves are their beſt ſervants, for the others will ſometimes pride themſelves on having as good blood as their maſters. The very beggars rather demand than ſupplicate an alms, alledging their being deſcended from old Chriſtians; and if you give them no money, muſt be diſmiſſed with a compliment, upon which they go away contented.

The food of the Portugueſe is nearly the ſame with that of the Spaniards, and they are equally ſober and abſtemious. The men mix water with their wine, and the women generally drink only water. It is cuſtomary with the Portugueſe to betake themſelves to ſleep about noon, on account of the heat, and to tranſact moſt of their buſineſs in the morning and evening, or even at night.

The method of travelling here is much the ſame as in Spain, except their having fewer coaches, and travelling more by water than the Spaniards, from their country lying along the ſea-coaſt, and its being croſſed by many great rivers that riſe in Spain. The mule or the litter are generally uſed on a journey; their horſes, which are ſprightly and well made, ſerve indeed for ſhort viſits, to prance at a proceſſion, or before the windows of their miſtreſſes; but the mules being ſtronger and ſurer-footed, are fitteſt to climb their mountains; but have only a ſlow pace.

Their language is a compound of the Spaniſh, Latin, Mooriſh, and French.

With reſpect to the religion of the Portugueſe, they are the moſt bigotted Papiſts; but though the exerciſe of the Jewiſh religion be prohibited by the fundamental laws of the kingdom, yet all authors agree, that great numbers of ſecret Jews ſtill remain among the Portugueſe, and theſe too among the nobility, biſhops, prebends, monks, nuns, and the very inquiſitors themſelves; and when unable to conceal themſelves, eſcape to England or Holland, and there openly profeſs Judaiſm. The inquiſition, which was introduced by king John III. and has ſince been ſet up in all the Portugueſe dominions, except Brazil, is very active in detecting them, and thoſe they call heretics, and no leſs rigorous in puniſhing them. Impious, cruel, and inhuman as this tribunal is, yet its feſtivals or ſolemn burnings, called *auto da fe*, or the act of faith, afford the higheſt delight to the infernal bigots, who, while their fellow-creatures, the ſuppoſed heretics, are burning in the flames, cry aloud, "Oh, what great "goodneſs! Praiſed be the holy office." King John IV. in ſome meaſure, however, curtailed the power of the inquiſition, commanding that all its ſentences ſhould be laid before the parliament, and that the accuſed ſhould be allowed council for making their defence; and enacted, that only blaſphemy, ſodomy, hereſy, ſorcery, pagan cuſtoms, and the converſion of the Jews, ſhould come under their cognizance.

The being an antient Chriſtian, or in other words of an antient Chriſtian race, is eſteemed in Portugal a very high degree of pre-eminence, and far ſuperior to what they call a new converted Chriſtian, or a half new converted Chriſtian; by which laſt they mean thoſe whoſe new converted anceſtors have married the antient Chriſtians.

The number of convents in Portugal is ſaid to amount to nine hnndred, and moſt of them are very rich; but the Jeſuits, who in multitude and opulence ſurpaſſed all the other orders, have lately been baniſhed.

With reſpect to the eccleſiaſtics, there is a patriarch of Liſbon, who muſt always be a cardinal, and of the royal family. Next to him are three archbiſhops, who rank with marquiſſes, and the firſt of them the archbiſhop of Braga, who is primate of the kingdom, and lord ſpiritual and temporal of his city and the neighbouring country. The biſhops hold the rank of counts. Beſides thoſe in Europe, the Portugueſe have archbiſhoprics and biſhoprics in the other three parts of the world.

The king of Portugal, beſides the nomination of all biſhops, receives a fourth of their revenue. The pope confirms the biſhops, publiſhes his bulls in the kingdom without the king's previous conſent, and, by his legate, governs the clergy, who with reſpect to taxes and contributions depend on him. He has alſo the gift of many ſmall prebends. The pope's nuncios have here ſo lucrative a poſt, that they never fail of raiſing vaſt fortunes before they return to Rome.

SECT. III.

The State of Learning and Arts; with the Commerce, Meaſures, Weights, and Coin of Portugal.

WITH reſpect to the ſtate of learning in Portugal, it is at as low an ebb as poſſible. Indeed there are univerſities at Coimbra and Evora. At Liſbon is a royal academy for the Portugueſe hiſtory; at Santarene is an academy of hiſtory, antiquities, and languages; and at St. Thomas an academy of ſciences, on the ſame footing as that of Paris: but while bigotry continues here at its preſent enormous height, it is impoſſible for ſcience to flouriſh. An Italian Capuchin, in 1746, publiſhed a work in the Portugueſe tongue on the true method of ſtudy, in four volumes quarto, which he dedicated to the king of Portugal, and there aſſerts, that the ſchools of this country are places of retreat for thoſe errors which by Newton and Des Cartes were driven out of the other parts of Europe; and according to him Galilæo, Des Cartes, Newton, and Gaſſendi are conſidered in Portugal as atheiſts and heretics, not to be mentioned but with ſome marks of execration. D'Oliveira, a Portugueſe, ſays, in the preface to the firſt volume of Memoirs, "In "our country we live in ignorance, without knowing it; "but on leaving Portugal our eyes ſeem ſuddenly to open, "and we immediately ſee that ignorance in which we "were involved. Foreigners allow us underſtanding, "docility, morals, diſcernment, and a genius for com- "prehending what is commendable and good; but our "conceit, our gravity, our confined manner of life, "which deprive us of all freedom of thought, expoſe us "to juſt cenſures, and give riſe to thoſe hateful opinions "other nations entertain of us. The main ſource of our "ignorance, and the miſerable cauſe of offence to all "nations, is the cuſtom in Portugal of publiſhing ſuch "a multitude of books, &c."

The Portugueſe not only neglect agriculture, but all arts and manufactures, though the country has the fineſt materials; the greateſt part of theſe are diſpoſed of unwrought to foreigners, and when worked up are purchaſed again at a high price. The Portugueſe indeed make a little linen, a variety of ſtraw-work, and candy ſeveral kinds of fruit, particularly oranges. They have likewiſe ſome coarſe ſilk and woollen manufactures; but theſe are trifling articles that ſupport only a very ſmall part of the nation.

The Portugueſe, however, carry on a very extenſive trade; but from this they reap little profit, being obliged to

to vend not only their own produce, but all the merchandize and riches brought from their ſettlements in other parts of the globe; and eſpecially from America to the Europeans; particularly the Engliſh, in exchange for corn and manufactured goods of all kinds, with which they ſupply both Portugal and its poſſeſſions abroad. The chief commodities of the Portugueſe conſiſt of imports from their own colonies, particularly from Brazil, as tobacco, cacao-nuts, ſugars, ſpices, drugs, ivory, ebony, brazil-wood, hides, gold, pearls, diamonds, and other valuable gems. In 1755 a new trading company to Groſpan and Maragnan was eſtabliſhed here, and foreign merchants admitted to ſhares.

The Portugueſe ſhips ſeldom frequent the other countries of Europe or the Levant, their voyages rather lying to the coaſts of Africa, particularly the Gold Coaſt, whence they carry negroes to Brazil, and alſo purchaſe ſome gold and ivory. They likewiſe trade to their Eaſt India colonies of Goa, Diu, and Macao; but this traffic, though once very important, is now greatly declined. Brazil, however, is ſtill a plentiful treaſury to Portugal, and foreigners are entirely excluded from all commerce with that country. However, the Portugueſe carry on a conſiderable clandeſtine traffic with the Spaniards, which chiefly conſiſts in the exchange of gold and ſilver. From Brazil the Portugueſe bring not only ſugar and tobacco, but a great quantity of gold and diamonds. The fleet which annually ſails to Brazil goes and returns in ſeven or eight months, and when homeward bound is convoyed by ſome men of war which are ſent to meet it. Their ſhips from Africa or the Eaſt Indies alſo return home in company.

The long meaſure uſed by the Portugueſe conſiſts of barros and cavidos; a hundred barros make one hundred and ſixy-four cavidos, or one hundred ninety-five and a half Hamburgh ells; but an hundred cavidos are only equal to ſixty-one barros, or about one hundred and nineteen Hamburgh ells.

Of the Portugueſe weights, we ſhall only mention the arrobas and quintals. In Portugal, an arroba is thirty-two pounds, and a quintal is four arrobas.

All ſums of money are reckoned in Portugal by reis and cruſadoes, which are not real, but only imaginary coins. The gold coins of Portugal are the double moedas of one pound ſeven ſhillings value, the quarter of which is called a millrei, or a thouſand reis, and has therefore the number one thouſand marked upon it; and the Johns, worth three pound twelve ſhillings, which are ſubdivided into halfs, quarters, eights, and ſixteenths. The ſilver coins are the vintain of twenty reis; the half teeſton of fifty; and the whole teeſton of one hundred.

SECT. IV.

Of the Number of the Cities, Towns, and Inhabitants; with a conciſe hiſtory of Portugal, the preſent Nobility, the Titles of the King, the Orders of Knighthood, the Government, public Offices, Courts of Juſtice, Revenue and Forces.

WITHIN the kingdom of Portugal are nineteen cities, and five hundred and twenty-ſeven villages, or ſmaller towns. The number of the inhabitants may be pretty nearly computed, as liſts of all the pariſhes in the towns and villages throughout the whole kingdom, and of the ſouls in every pariſh, have been made; and according to one of theſe liſts in the year 1732, there is in the whole kingdom, three thouſand three hundred and forty-four pariſhes, and one million ſeven hundred and forty-two thouſand two hundred and thirty ſouls. But this liſt is ſaid not to include the eccleſiaſtics, monks, and nuns, who amount to about three hundred thouſand; ſo that in all Portugal, there were above two millions of people. The foreign merchants and colonies greatly diminiſh the number of inhabitants, and the multitude of convents muſt hinder their increaſe.

Portugal paſſed from the Phœnicians and Carthaginians into the hands of the Romans, and by the emperor Auguſtus was made a Roman province. Towards the beginning of the fifth century the Alans, and afterwards the Swabians and the Viſigoths, ſucceſſively made themſelves maſters of this country. In the eighth century it was over-run by the Moors and Saracens, but gradually wreſted from them by the Chriſtians. Henry duke of Burgundy diſtinguiſhing himſelf by his eminent ſervices againſt the Moors, Alphonſo VI. king of Caſtile, gave him his daughter Thereſa in marriage; created him earl of Portugal, and in 1110, left him that kingdom. Alphonſo Henriques, his ſon and ſucceſſor, obtaining a ſignal victory in 1139 over the Moors, was created king by the people; and in 1181, at an aſſembly of the ſtate, the ſucceſſion of the crown was ſettled. Alphonſo III. added Algarve to the crown of Portugal. In 1383, the legitimate male line of this family becoming extinct in the perſon of Ferdinand. John I. his natural ſon was two years after admitted to the crown, and in his reign the Portugueſe made ſettlements in Africa, and diſcovered the Iſlands of Azores. In 1482, his great grandſon John II. received the Jews who had been expelled from Spain, and gave great encouragement to navigation and diſcoveries. Afterwards, in the reign of king Emanuel, Vaſco de Gama diſcovered the way to the Eaſt Indies, by doubling the Cape of Good Hope. In 1500, Brazil was diſcovered by Don Pedro Alvarez, and the Spaniards made numerous diſcoveries in the Eaſt Indies, where they ſoon erected forts, ſubdued the neighbouring inhabitants, and carried on a bloody war in Africa. The power of Portugal was then at its height; but in 1580, on the deceaſe of Henry the Cardinal, the male line of the royal family became extinct, and the ſucceeding year the kingdom became united to Spain. The Portugueſe now loſt moſt of the advantages they had obtained under their own monarchs; their poſſeſſions in the Eaſt Indies, in Brazil, and the coaſt of Africa, were neglected, and many of them wreſted from them by the Dutch, who were at war with Spain, and by the other maritime powers, while at home the Portugueſe were much oppreſſed; but in 1640, they ſhook off the Spaniſh yoke, by electing John duke of Braganza for their king. This prince, who aſſumed the title of John IV. drove the Dutch out of Brazil, and from him all the ſucceeding kings of Portugal have been deſcended. Alphonſo VI. was dethroned by his brother Peter, who in 1668, concluded a treaty with Spain, by which Portugal was declared an independent kingdom. Don Joſeph, the preſent king, aſcended the throne in 1750; but his reign has been filled with a variety of calamities, which have deeply affected the kingdom in general, and particularly Liſbon: an earthquake, a fire, famine, an aſſaſſination plot againſt the ſovereign, executions upon executions, the ſcaffolds and wheels for torture reeking with the nobleſt blood; impriſonment after impriſonment of the greateſt and moſt diſtinguiſhed perſonages, which produced the expulſion of the Jeſuits, who are ſaid to have been concerned in the horrid ſcheme of murdering their king. The invaſion of the kingdom by a ſtronger and more powerful nation; the numerous troops of the enemy laying waſte the country with fire and ſword, and rolling like diſtant thunder towards the capital. "The "Spaniſh miniſtry, ſays Mr. Clarke, had already decreed "the doom of Portugal, and nothing was to be heard "at the Eſcurial, but Carthage is fallen. Carthaginian, "perhaps, or Jewiſh ſtory, may poſſibly afford a ſcene "ſomething like this, but for the ſhortneſs of the pe-"riod, not ſo big with events, tho' in their final de-"ſtruction ſuperior. From that, indeed, under the "hand of Providence, the national humanity and genero-"ſity of Great Britain has preſerved the Portugueſe: and "it remains now to be ſeen, in future treaties, how that "people will expreſs their gratitude."

The nobility are extremely numerous; many of them are of the royal blood, and deſcended from the natural ſons of the royal family. The nobility are divided into the high and low: the higher, ſtiled titled nobility, conſiſt of dukes, marquiſſes, counts, viſcounts, and barons. Thoſe who are grandees, and ſtiled dons, are, like thoſe of Spain, divided into three claſſes, and receive from the royal treaſury a penſion ſufficient to ſupport their reſpective dignities. The ſons of a duke are alſo grandees, and his daughters hold the rank of marchioneſſes. The inferior nobility, or gentry, are termed fidalgos, and

are incapable of bearing the title of don, unleſs they obtain the king's permiſſion.

The king's titles run thus, Joſeph by the grace of God, king of Portugal, and of the Algarves on this and the other ſide of the ſea of Africa; lord of Guinea, of the conqueſt, trade, and navigation in Æthiopia, Arabia, Perſia, India, &c. and in 1749, Pope Benedict XIV. conferred on him the title of Moſt Faithful Majeſty.

The arms of Portugal are a ſhield argent, with five ſmall ſhields azure, placed croſſwiſe, on each of which are five ſilver pieces in the form of a St. Andrew's croſs. On the border of the ſhield are the arms of Algarve, which conſiſts of ſeven ancient caſtles.

The principal order of knighthood is that of Chriſt, inſtituted by king Dennis, ſoon after the abolition of the knights Templars. They have four hundred and fifty commanderies, and wear for a badge of the order, a red croſs within a white one.

The order of St. James, has forty-ſeven ſmall towns, with one hundred and fifty commanderies, beſides the ſplendid convent of Santos o Novo, a little to the weſt of Liſbon. The badge of this order is a red ſword, in the ſhape of a croſs, the hilts reſembling thoſe of ancient ſwords.

The order of Aviez has forty-nine commanderies, and the badge belonging to it, is a green croſs in the form of a lily. Theſe three orders are all religious; but the knights have leave to marry, and the kings of Portugal are perpetual grand maſters. The knights of Malta have alſo twenty-three commanderies here.

With reſpect to the government of Portugal, the king is in many reſpects an unlimited monarch; but on the impoſition of new taxes, the ſettlement of the ſucceſſion, and other important concerns, the conſent of the cortes, or ſtates, which conſiſt of the clergy, the high nobility, and the commons, is neceſſary. The clergy are here repreſented by the archbiſhops and biſhops, the high nobility are, as hath been already ſaid, the dukes, marquiſſes, counts, viſcounts and barons, and the repreſentatives of the commons are choſen by the cities and towns. Among them are alſo reckoned the lower nobility, and the maſterſhips of the order of knighthood. This aſſembly never meets but by the king's proclamation, and though the crown is hereditary, yet the conſent of the ſeveral ſtates is neceſſary to the ſucceſſion of a brother's children. The crown too devolves to the female line; but this right is forfeited, if they marry out of the kingdom.

The higheſt office is the council of ſtate, in which all the great affairs of the kingdom are tranſacted, with the diſpoſal of all eccleſiaſtical and temporal offices, as the nomination of all archbiſhops and biſhops, viceroys, captain-generals, governors of the provinces, with every thing relating to peace and war, embaſſies, alliances, &c. In the year 1732, this council conſiſted of five eccleſiaſtics, and an equal number of officers, with the ſecretary of ſtate.

The council of war regulates all military affairs, and every thing relating to them.

The council of the palace is the higheſt tribunal, to which cauſes may be brought from inferior courts by appeal; it nominates to all offices belonging to the law, beſides diſputes of juriſdiction, between the lay and ſpiritual courts; examines the briefs of the Pope's nuncios; and, beſides a variety of other buſineſs; draws up all laws, orders, edicts, privileges, and grants. This court conſiſts of a preſident and ſeveral counſellors, whoſe number is not limited; five ſecretaries, each of whom has his particular department. And under this tribunal is the chancery, which conſiſts of a chancellor, a treaſurer, and other officers.

The *Caſa da Supplicaçao*, is the firſt and higheſt tribunal of juſtice, and without appeal in civil and criminal caſes. To its ordinary juriſdiction belong the provinces of Eſtremadura, Alentejo, and Algarve; and to it lie final appeals from the following court.

The ſecond high court of appeal, has its ſeat at Porto, and to its ordinary juriſdiction belong the provinces of Entre Duro e Minho, Trazos Montes and Beria. All proceſſes not exceeding twenty-five thouſand reis in moveables, and three hundred thouſand in immoveables are finally determined in this court, which conſiſts of twenty-three officers.

The treaſury court is divided into three offices, one of which ſuperintends the finances of the kingdom; the other thoſe of Africa; and the third, thoſe of the Indies, the magazines, and armaments.

For the inferior adminiſtration of juſtice, each of the ſix provinces of the kingdom have inferior courts.

The king's revenue ariſes firſt, from the hereditary eſtates of the royal houſe of Braganza, to which belong fifty villas. Secondly, from the royal domains. Thirdly, from the cuſtoms, of which thoſe of Liſbon are moſt conſiderable. Fourthly, from the taxes. Fifthly, from the exciſe, which is very high, and paid even by the clergy. Sixthly, from the monopoly of Brazil ſnuff, which, in 1755, was farmed for three millions of cruſadoes. Seventhly, from the coinage. Eighthly, from the ſale of indulgencies, which the Pope renews to the king every three years by a ſpecial bull. Ninthly, from the grand maſterſhips of the order of knighthood, which the king holds in his own hands. Tenthly, from the eccleſiaſtical tithes in foreign countries. Eleventhly, from the duty of the fifth part of all gold brought from Brazil, which annually amounts to three hundred thouſand pounds ſterling; and laſtly, from the farm of the Brazil diamonds.

The military forces in time of peace, when complete, amount, according to Dr. Buſching, to no more than fourteen thouſand men, and the ſame author obſerves, that the Portugueſe navy in 1754, conſiſted only of twelve ſhips of war, and theſe but weakly manned.

The Portugueſe foreign dominions, which were formerly extremely conſiderable, are now greatly diminiſhed.—They at preſent poſſeſs in the Atlantic ocean, the Cape de Verd iſlands, St. Thome, &c. In Africa, fort Magazan on the coaſt of Morocco, Cacheo on the Negro coaſt; ſeveral forts in the kingdom of Congo, Loango, Angola, and Monomotapa; a fort in Monoemugi; the town of Moſambique in the kingdom of that name, and the town of Sofala. In Aſia, the towns of Diu, Goa, Onor, Macao, &c. In America, Brazil, part of Guiana, and Paraguay.

The provinces of Portugal beginning at the ſouth eaſt, are the following, Eſtremadura, Beira, Algarve, Alentejo, Eſtremadura, Beira, Trazos Montes, and Entre Duro e Minho. We ſhall begin with the former, and treat of them in this order.

SECT. V.

Of the Province of Algarve, or Algarva: Its Situation, Extent, Produce, and principal Towns.

THE kingdom of Algarve, or Algarva, is the moſt ſouthern province of Portugal, and is bounded on the north by the province of Alentejo, from which it is ſeparated by the mountains called Caldeirao and Monachique. On the eaſt it borders on the Spaniſh province of Andaluſia; and on the ſouth and weſt on the ſea. Its length from north to ſouth is computed at about eighty-four miles, and from eaſt to weſt at about twenty-four.

As palm-trees abound in Algarve, the poor people employ themſelves in working up the leaves into a variety of forms. But this province, notwithſtanding its maritime ſituation, commodious harbours, and inland fertility, ſeems to have been treated by the kings of Portugal rather as a conquered country, than a province of the kingdom.

Algarve anciently comprehended a much larger tract than it does at preſent; for it extended, not only beyond the whole coaſt of Cape St. Vincent, as far as the town of Almeria, in the kingdom of Granada, but along the oppoſite coaſt of Africa; hence the kings of Portugal ſtile themſelves kings of Algarve, both on this and the other ſide of the ſea, in Africa; they having formerly made themſelves maſters of Tangiers, Ceuta, and ſeveral other parts of the African coaſt in the Mediterranean.

The face of the country is generally mountainous; but affords plenty of wine, figs, raiſins, oil, and almonds, which are however inferior to thoſe of Spain; and it likewiſe abounds in dates; but they have not always corn ſufficient for their own uſe.

It contains four cities, twelve towns, and ſixty villages, ſome of which are very populous; with ſixty-ſeven pariſhes, and ſixty thouſand ſix hundred and eighty-eight inhabitants. This province is divided into three juriſdictions, the principal places in which are

Lagos, a city in a fine bay, navigable for the largeſt ſhips, it is ſeated in latitude thirty-ſix degrees fifty-one minutes, and in nine degrees thirty-ſix minutes weſt longitude, about five leagues to the eaſtward of Cape St. Vincent. Its ſituation will not admit of a regular fortification; but the city is walled, and the harbour well ſecured by two forts. The inhabitants amount to about two thouſand ſix hundred; it contains two pariſhes, and four convents, ſome chapels, an houſe of mercy, and is the reſidence of the governor and captain-general of Algarve, of a corregidor, and other officers. Here the Engliſh fleets, bound to the Streights, uſually take in freſh water.

Tavira is a city pleaſantly ſeated on a bay, which has a harbour defended by two forts, and lies twenty-five miles to the eaſt of Faro. The little river Sequa, which runs into the bay, divides it into the eaſt and weſt-town. Beſides its walls, and the above ports, the town is defended by a caſtle, and contains above four thouſand ſeven hundred inhabitants, two pariſh churches, one houſe of mercy, one hoſpital, and five convents.

Faro is a conſiderable port, ſtrongly ſituated on the ocean, in a level country, in the thirty-ſixth degree forty-eight minutes north latitude, and in the ninth degree twelve minutes weſt longitude, twenty-four miles to the eaſt of Lagos, and is defended by a good modern fortification, with a caſtle and other works. It contains four thouſand five hundred inhabitants, and is the ſee of a biſhop; but has only a cathedral, one church, a houſe of mercy, an hoſpital, and four convents. The town is ſubject to the queens of Portugal. The ſea in its neighbourhood produces abundance of good fiſh, and moſt of the inhabitants are employed in the fiſhery.

SECT. VI.

Of the Province of Alentejo; its Situation, Extent, Produce, and principal Cities.

THE province of Alentejo, which is one of the largeſt in the kingdom, is bounded on the north by Eſtremadura and Beira, on the eaſt by Andaluſia and Spaniſh Eſtremadura, on the ſouth by Algarve, and on the weſt by the Atlantic ocean; extending from north to ſouth about a hundred and twenty-ſeven miles, and nearly as much in breadth. It is called Alentejo, from its being ſituated beyond the Tejo, or Tagus.

Its principal rivers are the Tagus and Guadiana; and though it contains ſome mountains, it is for the moſt part level and very proper for tillage. Its principal products are wheat and barley; it alſo produces excellent wine and admirable fruit; the beſt ſweet or China oranges come from hence, and they have abundance of game and fiſh. Their mutton and beef are good, and they make better cheeſe than in any other province. Here are alſo ſeveral kinds of marble, and in ſome parts are found various gems. The fertility of this province has frequently rendered it the theatre of war; and on this account the king of Portugal has here ſeveral good fortifications. The whole province contains four cities, eighty-eight towns, three hundred and fifty-ſix pariſhes, and about two hundred and ſixty-eight thouſand and eighty ſouls; and is divided into eight diſtricts, the principal places in which are the following:

Evora, a city ſixty-eight miles to the ſouth-eaſt of Liſbon, is ſeated on a hill, which is at ſome diſtance almoſt ſurrounded with mountains: on the north and eaſt ſtands Mount Oſſa; to the ſouth, the mountains of Portal and Viana; and to the weſt, Montemaro. The inhabitants amount to about twelve thouſand: it has five pariſh-churches, including the cathedral, one houſe of mercy, one royal and ſeveral other hoſpitals, and within its circuit and neighbourhood are twenty-one convents and colleges. It has been lately fortified with twelve whole and demi-baſtions, and on the north ſide is defended by a quadrangular fort, with four baſtions, and a like number of ravelins. It was antiently only a biſhop's ſee; but in in 1540 was raiſed to an archbiſhopric, under which are the biſhops of Elvas and Faro. It is the capital of the province, and has an univerſity.

Eſtremos is a city which ſtands ſix or ſeven leagues to the north-weſt of Evora, on a hill which it entirely covers, and is divided into the Higher and Lower Town. The houſes of people of condition make a handſome appearance, being built with white marble, which they find near the city. It contains three pariſh-churches, one houſe of mercy, one hoſpital, and ſix convents, with above ſix thouſand five hundred inhabitants. Without the town is ſo large a ſpring, that it turns ſeveral mills near its ſource. It was ſtrongly fortified when Portugal ſhook off the Spaniſh yoke, it being not far from the frontiers of Andaluſia. They make here a very fine red earthen-ware, great quantities of which were formerly exported to England and other parts of Europe.

Villa Vicioſa, or the Delightful Town, ſtands in a moſt fertile pleaſant country between Elvas and Eſtremos, and is alſo defended by a caſtle which commands the place. It is particularly remarkable for having a large and beautiful palace, with an adjoining park three leagues in circumference. The city contains only two pariſhes, ſix monaſteries, three nunneries, a houſe of mercy, and an hoſpital, with about three thouſand ſeven hundred inhabitants. In the ſuburbs is an old temple formerly dedicated to Proſerpine, and now to St. James. Many inſcriptions have been found here in honour of that pagan deity.

The city of Elvas ſtands about twenty-four miles to the eaſtward of Eſtremos, and ſix from the frontiers of Spaniſh Eſtremadura; it is ſeated on a hill, defended by a caſtle, and ſtrongly fortified; the works being of hewn-ſtone. It contains three pariſh-churches, beſides the cathedral, one houſe of mercy, one hoſpital, and ſeven convents. The inhabitants of this place and its diſtrict, which conſiſts of ten pariſhes, amount to about twelve thouſand four hundred perſons. One of its principal curioſities is a very large reſervoir, or ciſtern, ſo ſpacious, that it is ſaid to hold water enough for the inhabitants for ſix months. The water is conveyed into it through an aqueduct about four miles in length, ſupported in ſome places by three arches one over the other.

Olivenza is ſeated in a large plain on the eaſt ſide of the river Guadiana, fifteen miles to the ſouth of Elvas; and as the Spaniſh Eſtremadura lies near it, it is fortified after the modern way, having nine baſtions, eight ravelins, with a caſtle, and other works; it has alſo two pariſh-churches, one houſe of mercy, a monaſtery, two nunneries, and an hoſpital; and, including its diſtrict, in which are four pariſhes, contains about five thouſand three hundred ſouls.

Campo Mayor is a modern fortification, in which are four whole and five demi-baſtions, which lie about the diſtance of a muſket-ſhot from the town. It is ſeated in a wide plain, ten miles to the north of Elvas; and though it contains only one pariſh-church, two convents, one houſe of mercy, and an hoſpital, has no leſs than five thouſand three hundred inhabitants.

Portalegre is a fine city, ſituated at the foot of a lofty mountain in an agreeable country, ninety miles to the eaſtward of Liſbon, and near the frontiers of Spain. It is fortified after the antique taſte, with walls and towers, and contains about five thouſand ſix hundred inhabitants. It has a cathedral, four pariſh-churches, five convents, a houſe of mercy, and an hoſpital. In the year 1550 it was erected into the ſee of a biſhop, in whoſe dioceſe are forty-one pariſhes.

Beja ſtands on an eminence in the midſt of a fertile plain, ninety miles to the ſouth-eaſt of Liſbon, and nine to the weſtward of the Guadiana. It was formerly called Pax Julia, and alſo Pax Auguſta. It is of a round form,

form, and defended by an antique wall and towers. It was antiently a Roman colony, and three of the preſent gates are ſaid to be of Roman architecture. This city contains ſix thouſand two hundred inhabitants, and is divided into four pariſhes, ſeven convents, one houſe of mercy, and an hoſpital,

Serpa is ſituated on a rocky and uneven eminence, eighty-three miles to the ſouth-eaſt of Liſbon, and about a league to the eaſtward of the Guadiana; it contains two pariſhes, a monaſtery, and a houſe of mercy, with about four thouſand inhabitants. The adjacent fields are extremely agreeable, being planted with groves of olive and fig-trees.

SECT. VII.

Of the Province of Eſtremadura; its Situation, Extent, Produce, and principal Cities; with a particular Deſcription of the City of Liſbon.

ESTREMADURA, or Extremadura, is bounded on the north by the river Mondego, which ſeparates this province from Beira; on the eaſt by the ſame province of Beira, and that of Alentejo; on the ſouth by another part of Alentejo; and by the ocean on the weſt; extending about an hundred Engliſh miles in length, and forty-five from eaſt to weſt.

It obtained its name from a cuſtom obſerved by the kings of Leon, during the dominion of the Moors in Spain, of nominating their conqueſts, of which the preſent kingdom of Portugal was a part, by their ſituation with reſpect to the Douro, all the countries beyond that river being called Eſtrema Durii.

The ſoil is eſteemed the moſt fruitful in Portugal, it producing collectively what is found only ſeparately in the other provinces; particularly corn, wine, oil, millet, pulſe, and fruit of all kinds. The country that lies between Liſbon and Abrantes is a moſt delightful plain, thick ſet with olives and other fruit-trees. This province alſo produces and exports great quantities of ſea-ſalt. Through it runs the large river Tagus, which, after forming a ſpacious and ſecure harbour at Liſbon, loſes itſelf in the ſea.

Eſtremadura at preſent contains three cities, an hundred and eleven towns, and three hundred and fifteen pariſhes, which in 1732 were computed to contain two hundred and ninety-three thouſand five hundred and ninety-eight ſouls, excluſive of the inhabitants of the pariſhes of the eaſt part of Liſbon, which are not brought into the account; and the province is divided into eight juriſdictions, the principal places in which are the following:

Liſbon, the metropolis of the kingdom, is ſituated in the thirty-eighth degree forty minutes twenty-five ſeconds north latitude, and in the fifth degree thirty-ſeven minutes fifteen ſeconds weſt longitude. It extends from eaſt to weſt along the north ſide of the river Tagus, and reſembles an amphitheatre, containing within its circuit ſeven ſteep hills. The length of the whole city is near two miles; but its breadth is inconſiderable. The valleys of theſe hills form ſtreets above a mile in length; but moſt of them are very narrow, ill paved, and dirty. Thoſe ſtreets that have a deſcent, and are waſhed clean by the rain, are much the ſweeteſt; for the reſt are ſo full of all manner of filth thrown out of the houſes, that it is not eaſy to paſs them. The houſes of the citizens are generally old ill-contrived buildings, with lattice windows, which are no great ornament; but thoſe of the nobility are very handſome ſtructures, built with hewn-ſtone, and have both yards and gardens that take up a great deal of ground; but few of them have courts before them. This city contained, before the late earthquake, forty pariſh-churches, beſides the cathedral, and about as many monaſteries of both ſexes. The fineſt ſquare is that before the royal palace, which forms one ſide of it, another ſide runs along the river, and on the oppoſite ſide is a range of fine buildings. This ſquare, before the period juſt mentioned, was extremely delightful; for here were the moſt elegant buildings in the city: here they celebrate their bull-fights; and here they more barbarouſly burn thoſe unhappy people who have the misfortune to be condemned by the inquiſition. Near this is another ſquare on the bank of the river, where the principal market is held; but the largeſt is that called the Rucio, where the ſeveral hills about it form a kind of amphitheatre, and it is adorned with ſeveral magnificent houſes of the nobility.

The king's palace is the moſt remarkable building, and makes a very ſplendid appearance. The apartments are grand, very commodious, and richly furniſhed in winter; but in ſummer they take down the hangings and curtains, and there only remain the bare walls, which are, however, adorned with pictures. In it are two galleries about a hundred paces in length, in the firſt and ſecond ſtories, with balconies in the windows. In the third ſtory is the royal library, which contains a great number of valuable books in preſſes. Within the palace are alſo ſeveral large rooms where the cortes, or ſtates, the council of war, and the courts of juſtice aſſemble. The king's chapel is an elegant building, richly adorned, and ſhining with gold and azure, the very ſilver alone being valued at about a million ſterling. Adjoining to the palace is a ſquare court ſurrounded with a piazza, where the merchants meet, and expoſe their goods to ſale.

Since the erection of the royal chapel into a patriarchate, the city, with reſpect to its eccleſiaſtical juriſdiction, is divided into two dioceſes: Eaſt Liſbon, which is ſubject to the archbiſhop, and contains ſixteen pariſhes; and Weſt Liſbon, under the patriarch, contains twenty-one pariſhes. The pomp aſſumed by the patriarch on feſtivals is ſaid to ſurpaſs even that of the pope.

The churches of Liſbon are very fine, but the cathedral is a very heavy building, though it is handſome and richly ornamented within; as indeed are moſt of their churches, with a profuſion of paintings, images, croſſes, pixes, &c. coſtly veſtments for the prieſts, and dreſſes for the ſaints; many of them enriched with diamonds, and other precious ſtones; with a vaſt quantity of ſilver candleſticks and other ornaments. The convents and colleges amount to thirty-two for the monks, and eighteen for nuns; ſome of theſe have moſt magnificent churches, particularly that of the Dominicans, in which are three chapels ſhining with gold from the pavement to the roof; this ſtructure is very large, and on the day of an Auto da fé is the rendezvous of the proceſſion; and in it the ſentence of the unhappy ſufferers is publicly read. In the church of the Auguſtines, called Our Lady of Grace, is a croſs of gold adorned with precious ſtones, which is valued at a hundred thouſand crowns, and carried in proceſſion at their grand feſtivals. The moſt remarkable of the other convents are, that of St. Bento, belonging to the Benedictines; St. Domingo Graça, where the Auguſtine hermits reſide, which, beſides a delightful proſpect, reſembles a ſtately palace.

Among the many noble hoſpitals in this city is the celebrated houſe of mercy, which is under the direction of a ſociety compoſed of perſons of the higheſt rank in the kingdom, the king and princes of the blood being frequently members of it. They not only breed up ſixty boys, and give portions to a hundred and fourteen maidens, but diſtribute an incredible number of other charities, as relieving priſoners for debt, maintaining decayed perſons that cannot beg, and aſſiſting families that are aſhamed to let their wants be publicly known.

The great hoſpital is obliged to receive all perſons of whatever nation or religion; nor is this charity confined to the ſick, or to ſuch as meet with caſual misfortunes, as broken limbs, blindeſs, &c. but extends to ideots, lunatics, and foundlings.

The inhabitants of the city do not at moſt exceed a hundred and fifty thouſand. The government of Liſbon is lodged in a council, which conſiſts of a preſident, who is always a perſon of the firſt rank, ſix counſellors, and ſeveral other inferior officers.

The trade of this place, and the navigation to and from it, is ſo very conſiderable, that the cuſtom-houſe, which lies on the Tagus, is the principal ſource of the king's European revenues; and this is the grand magazine of all the goods which the Portugueſe fetch from their foreign colonies. The harbour is very large, deep, ſecure, and convenient; and has two entrances, that on

the north, called the Corredor, lies between the ſand-bank, the rock of Cachopos, and Fort St. Julian: the ſouthern entrance, which is much broader and very convenient, is between Cachopos and the fort of St. Laurence. The city is walled round, having ſeventy-ſeven towers on the walls, and thirty-ſix gates. It has ſo increaſed by degrees, particularly toward the weſt, that the old walls now divide the two dioceſes. In the center of the city, on one of the hills, ſtands a citadel that commands the whole place, and has caverns in it, in which four regiments of foot are conſtantly quartered. Cloſe by the ſea, at the diſtance of about ten miles from the city, both the entrances to the harbour are defended by two forts; that on the north ſtands on a rock in the ſea, and is called St. Julian; the other to the ſouth is built on piles on a ſand-bank, and is named St. Laurence, but is more commonly called Bogio. Two Portugueſe miles from St. Julian, and one from Liſbon, ſtands the fort of Belem, which commands the entrance into the city, where the maſters of all ſhips coming up the Tagus muſt bring to, and give an account of themſelves; and directly oppoſite to it on the ſouth ſide is the fort of St. Sebaſtian, commonly called the Old Fort, which ſtands on the angle of a mountain, along which a little way on the other ſide of the city the paſſage is defended from the beginning of the harbour by a chain of twelve forts.

If we take a view of Liſbon from the river, or from the oppoſite ſhore, it affords an admirable proſpect; for the city being built in the form of a creſcent, and the palace, churches, convents, and other buildings riſing gradually from the river one above another, we command the whole city at once. On the other hand, the view of the Tagus, from thoſe windows of the town which command it, is remarkabably pleaſing: the ſmall boats which ſail with any wind or tide, and are continually paſſing; the river crowded with ſhips of all nations; the coming in of a Bahia or Brazil fleet; the opening of the river towards the bar, with the caſtle of Belem on the right, the king's palace, and the caſtle of St. Julian's on the left; all together form a fine and agreeable view.

In order to convey as diſtinct an idea as poſſible of the preſent condition of this city, and what it has ſuffered by the late dreadful earthquake, which happened on the firſt of November, 1755, we ſhall give the obſervations of the Rev. Mr. Clarke, who was there in the latter end of the year 1761. "After landing, ſays he, "we paſſed through ſome ſtreets, near a mile in length, "where the houſes were all fallen on each ſide, and lay "in that undiſtinguiſhed heap of ruin, into which they "ſunk at the firſt convulſive ſhocks. Not that the reader is to imagine, that the greateſt part of that fine "city fell on that fatal morning; ſo far from it, that, I "believe, not above one-fourth part of it was deſtroyed: for it prevailed more in one particular quarter than "the reſt; and there the deſolation was almoſt univerſal, "ſcarce an houſe or building that was not thrown down. "In the other parts of the city, ſome ſingle ill-conditioned, or ruinous buildings fell, but the reſt ſtood. "And there is ſcarce a ſtreet but you will ſee ſhores, and "props fixed to the buildings on each ſide, to prevent "their falling even now; they having ſuffered ſo much "from the ſhocks they had received. Conſidering how "much time has elapſed ſince the earthquake, little has "been rebuilt in proportion.—They have built a cuſtom-houſe, an arſenal, a theatre, and ſome few other "buildings. All agree, that the fire occaſioned infinitely more havock than the earthquake. Thouſands of "the inhabitants, unhappily, in the firſt confuſion of "their fear, taking the ill-judged ſtep of thronging into the churches; the doors of which being ſometimes "ſhut by the violence of the crowd, and ſometimes "locked by miſtake, when the fire ſeized the roofs of "thoſe buildings, theſe unhappy ſufferers were moſt of "them deſtroyed; ſome by ſheets of lead, that poured "like a molten deluge upon their heads; others maſhed by the fall of the roofs, and the reſt burnt alive. "One's imagination can ſcarce form a ſcene of confuſion, horror, and death, more dreadful than this. "After the ſhocks were over, the fire continued burning "for many weeks; and it is thought, was one principal "cauſe of their eſcaping the plague, as the putrefaction "of the bodies was by that means much leſs.

"The calculation of the number that periſhed, as "they kept no regiſters, muſt be in great meaſure conjectural; but that thouſands and ten thouſands were "deſtroyed, there is no doubt. The morning on which "it happened was moſt remarkably ſerene and pleaſant, "particularly about ten o'clock, and in one quarter "more, all was involved in this dreadful ſcene of terror "and deſtruction. As this event produced many changes, "thoſe among the commercial parts of the city were "not the leaſt remarkable. One, who yeſterday was "at the eve of bankruptcy, found himſelf to day with "his books cleared; and hundreds, who lived in eaſe "and affluence, as ſoon as they had recovered from their "firſt panic and diſmay, ſaw want and poverty ſtare "them in the face."

The ſame author obſerves, that ſome of their churches, the arſenal, the theatre, which is an elegant building, and above all the aqueduct of Liſbon, deſerve the attention of every traveller; the center arch for its height being one of the nobleſt perhaps in Europe. One thing, he obſerves, is remarkable, that during the earthquake this building ſtood, though many of the key-ſtones fell ſeveral inches, and hang, only becauſe a ſmall part of the key-ſtone was catched by the centers cloſing again.

Belem, about a mile from Liſbon, is a ſmall town, where ſtands a port already mentioned, and a monaſtery belonging to the monks of St. Jerom, founded by king Emanuel. Its large and magnificent church, which was dedicated to our lady of Judah, whence the palace obtained the name of Belem, or Bethlehem, was lined with jaſper and the fineſt marbles from top to bottom, and here were interred ſeveral kings and queens of Portugal; but in the year 1756, this ſtructure ſuddenly ſunk into the earth.

Mafra, a ſmall town, containing about one thouſand and forty inhabitants, near which king John V. erected a building of extraordinary magnificence, in a ſandy, barren ſpot. This was done in purſuance of a vow made in a dangerous fit of illneſs, when he promiſed to found a convent for the pooreſt friary in the kingdom. Upon enquiry, the pooreſt convent appeared to be at Mafra, where twelve Franciſcans lived together in a hut. To accompliſh this vow, the king procured from Rome the draught of a building that was greatly to exceed the Eſcurial. This he erected: in the center ſtands a temple built entirely of marble, and behind the choir is a houſe endowed with a large revenue for two hundred Capuchins, who officiate in this pompous church as chaplains. To the right of this building is a ſuperb and ſpacious palace for the king, the royal family, and the chief officers of the court. On the left is another palace, equal in grandeur to the former, for the patriarch and twenty-four canons, who have the privilege of wearing mitres. Twelve thouſand people were employed in raiſing theſe ſtructures, and, by certain computation it coſt three fourths of the royal treaſure, and of the gold of the Brazil fleets. At the diſtance of a mile from the church ſtands an elegant houſe, with a ſmall wood, which has a beautiful effect in this ſandy waſte. The palace at Mafra looks towards the ſea, and ſerves for a landmark.

Torres Vedras is ſeated in a low place among the mountains, and in its neighbourhood are all kinds of fruit. It is one of the moſt ancient towns in the kingdom: to the north it is waſhed by the little river Sigandro; it contains about two thouſand two hundred and fifty inhabitants, four churches, three convents, and a caſtle, with one houſe of mercy, and an hoſpital.

The mountain of Cintra conſiſts of large rocks of flint, ſome of which are ten feet in diameter, and lie on one another without any connection. It is alſo very rich in ore, and produces a great number of remarkable plants, and alſo a vein of loadſtone. Near the ſummit are the ruins of an old Mooriſh town and fortreſs, with a reſervoir which contains very fine water, to the depth of ten feet. Among the waſtes and rocks between the mountain of Cintra, and the top of Cabo da Roca, is a tract ten miles in length, which abounds in wolves and a ſpecies of wild goats. At the foot of the mountain

of

of Cintra, is a town of the ſame name, which contains about one thouſand nine hundred inhabitants, with four churches, and is defended by an old caſtle built in the Mooriſh taſte. The air here is thought to be the beſt in all Portugal, it enjoying a pleaſing coolneſs, while the heat of Liſbon is extremely ſultry.

Thomar, a town ſeated in a pleaſant plain near the ruins of the old city of Nabancia, from which it is ſeparated to the north by the river Nabao. The inhabitants are about three thouſand ſix hundred, and beſides its two churches, one of which is collegiate, it contains one houſe of mercy, one hoſpital, and four convents, among which is that of the religious order of Chriſt, ſituated on a hill to the weſt of the town. This is the principal place belonging to the order, and the ſuperior of the convent bears the title of prior and general of the order of Chriſt. In 1752, the king founded an academy of ſciences here on the ſame footing as that of Paris, and not only aſſigned a liberal income for its ſupport, but declared himſelf preſident. This place formerly belonged to the knights templars, and on their ſuppreſſion, the order of Chriſt ſucceeded to their poſſeſſions, and to the government of Thomar.

Santarem, a town on the Tagus, about twelve or thirteen miles to the north eaſt of Liſbon, is ſeated on a delightful plain, environed with mountains beautifully interſected with valleys. In its form it reſembles an half moon, and is defended by a citadel erected in the modern taſte. It contains thirteen churches, eleven monaſteries, and two nunneries. One of its churches is collegiate, and belongs to the order of Aviz; it has alſo an academy of hiſtory, antiquities, and languages, founded in 1747; one houſe of mercy, one royal hoſpital, and two others.

Setubal, by the Dutch and Engliſh called St. Ubes, is a ſtrong town, ſeated about twenty-two miles to the ſouth of Liſbon, on a ſmall bay, into which the river Sandao diſcharges itſelf; and has a harbour capable of receiving ſhips of any burthen. Beſides its old walls and towns, it is ſtrengthened with eleven whole, and two demi-baſtions, with ſeveral other out-works. It has likewiſe a ſtrong citadel called St. Philip's, in which is a ſpring of excellent water; with the fort of Outao near the harbour, which alſo ſerves for a light-houſe; and two ſmaller forts. In it are four churches, one houſe of mercy, one hoſpital, ten convents, and an academia problematica founded by John V. The town is under the juriſdiction of the order of St. James.

SECT. VIII.

Of the Province of Beira; its Situation, and Extent; with a particular Account of the Mountain of Eſtrella, the Produce of the Country, and its principal Towns.

BEIRA is one of the largeſt provinces of Portugal, it being bounded on the north by the provinces of Entre Douro e Minho and Trazos Montes; on the eaſt by Eſtremadura and Alentejo; and on the weſt by the ſea. Its extent from eaſt to weſt is about one hundred and two miles, and about the ſame from north to ſouth. It is divided into Upper and Lower Beira, the former being the northern part, and lying on the ſea-coaſt, and the latter towards Spain and Eſtremadura.

The mountain of Eſtrella, the Mons Herminius of the Romans, is very remarkable. The aſcent from Villa St. Romæo at its foot, up to the ſummit, takes up two hours and a half. In ſeveral places it is found to be hollow, and the noiſe of a rapid ſtream running through it is diſtinctly heard. It has alſo a fine quarry of alabaſter, and on the top the traveller is agreeably ſurpriſed to find verdant paſtures and rivulets of a very clear and pleaſant water; but what is moſt worthy of attention, is a lake environed with high rocks, the water of which iſſues out of the ground, and is very clear and tepid, with a kind of tremulous motion in the middle; and from the ſtrong attraction towards one certain place, it is conjectured that it has an aperture through which it runs off again, and is the ſpring of another lake a little lower; and from theſe is formed a river that takes its courſe to the foot of the mountain. The ſnow of a deep valley in one part of it furniſhes Liſbon the whole ſummer, though it is at the diſtance of above ſixty leagues.

This province produces wheat, rye, and millet; and in ſeveral parts excellent wine and oil, in ſuch plenty, that conſiderable quantities of each are exported.

This province contains four cities, two hundred and thirty-four towns, a thouſand and ninety-four pariſhes, and in 1732 it had five hundred and fifty-one thouſand ſix hundred and eighty-ſix inhabitants. John V. erected it into a principality in honour of his grandſon, the eldeſt ſon of the prince of Brazil. The principal places in this province are the following:

Coimbra, a city on the river Mondego, formerly called Colimbria, or Conimbriga, contains eleven thouſand nine hundred inhabitants, a cathedral, nine pariſh-churches, eight convents, eighteen colleges, among which the Jeſuits college was extremely large, and eſteemed the fineſt edifice in the place. There are alſo one houſe of mercy, and an hoſpital. The cathedral and the reſt of the churches and monaſteries are handſome buildings, well adorned and beautified; but the ſtreets and private houſes have no great elegancy in them, and, as the city ſtands on the ſide of a hill, they are generally uneven. Among the other public buildings is the bridge, which is a fine ſtructure built with ſtone, and conſiſts of two rows of arches, one above the other, forming a covered way, through which people paſs without being expoſed to the weather. The aqueduct which brings water to the city, is alſo admired.

The biſhop is ſuffragan to the archbiſhop of Braga; but has under him no leſs than three hundred and forty-three pariſhes. Here is an univerſity, which is a magnificent ſtructure, and has a rector, a governor, a chancellor, who is always prior of the convent of Santa Cruz in this city, with other profeſſors and officers. The number of ſtudents is ſaid to be two thouſand. Here is alſo a court of inquiſition.

The country about this city is extremely pleaſant, and well planted with olives and vines.

The city of Lemego is ſituated near the river Douro, in a low country ſurrounded with mountains, and contains about four thouſand four hundred inhabitants, two pariſh-churches, including the cathedral, four convents, one houſe of mercy, and an hoſpital. Its biſhop is ſuffragan to the patriarch of Liſbon.

Aveiro is ſeated on a ſmall bay into which the Vouga diſcharges itſelf, ſeven leagues to the ſouth of Oporto, and nine to the northward of Coimbra. It has a harbour fit for ſhips of burthen, and is ſeparated from the ſea by ſand-banks, with ſeveral little iſlands in which ſalt is made. The town conſiſts of five wards, the fourth of which is the moſt antient, as well as the principal, and is walled in. The inhabitants amount to about four thouſand four hundred, and the town contains four pariſh-churches, ſix convents, a houſe of mercy, and an hoſpital.

SECT. IX.

Of the Province of Trazos Montes; its Situation, Name, Extent, Produce, Rivers, and principal Cities.

THE province of Trazos Montes is bounded on the north by Galicia, and on the eaſt by Leon in Spain; on the ſouthward alſo by Leon, and the province of Beira laſt deſcribed; and on the weſtward partly by the province of Entre Douro e Minho, and partly by Beira. It obtained its name from its ſituation with reſpect to the province of Entre Douro e Minho, it lying on the other ſide of the mountain of Marao. Its extent from north to ſouth is about ninety miles, and from eaſt to weſt about ſixty. It is for the moſt part mountainous, wild, barren, and thinly inhabited; but has fertile and delightful valleys, that produce wheat, rice, fruit, and wine.

Beſides the Douro, which divides the north eaſt part from Leon, and then turning to the weſtward divides it almoſt into two equal parts, it has the rivers Tamega, Corgo, Tuela, and Sobor; all which run into the Douro.

It contains two cities, fifty-ſeven towns, five hundred and forty-nine pariſhes, in which were computed, in

1732, a hundred and thirty-five thouſand eight hundred and four perſons; and is divided into twenty-four juriſdictions, the principal places in which are,

Miranda de Douro, thus called from its ſtanding on that river, to diſtinguiſh it from Miranda in Caſtile: it is ſtrongly ſituated on a rock, in a barren mountainous country, at the confluence of the Douro and the little river Freſno, and, beſides its works, is defended by a caſtle and fort; it being a place of importance, as it opens a paſſage into the province of Leon, which lies expoſed to incurſions on this ſide. It is a city and biſhop's ſee, though the only church in the city is the cathedral, and it contains no more than about ſeven hundred inhabitants, a houſe of mercy, an hoſpital, and one ſeminary. To the diſtrict of this city belong twenty-two pariſhes.

Braganza, the antient Brigantium, is ſeated thirty-two miles to the north-weſt of Miranda, in a ſpacious plain near the river Trervença. It is divided into the city and the town; the former is ſurrounded with walls and towers, and has within it a good caſtle; the latter is alſo fortified, and has a fort on an eminence which covers them both. The whole conſiſts of two pariſhes, two monaſteries, as many nunneries, a houſe of mercy, and an hoſpital. Braganza is the capital of a celebrated dutchy belonging to the preſent king of Portugal, whoſe anceſtors were dukes of Braganza, the moſt illuſtrious houſe among the nobility, they being deſcended from their antient kings. This place has a variety of ſilk manufactures, and is one of the moſt antient cities in the kingdom. The diſtrict of this city includes no leſs than a hundred and twenty-three pariſhes.

Chavez, or Chaves, a pretty good fortified town on the river Tamega, twenty-ſeven miles to the weſt of Braganza, is ſuppoſed to have been built by the emperor Veſpaſian, who gave it the name of Aquæ Flaviæ, and it has ſtill ſome traces of its antient extent and grandeur. It is ſituated two leagues from the frontiers of Galicia, and is defended by a double wall and two forts, one of which has the appearance of a citadel, and contains a convent within it. Between the town and the ſuburb called Magdalena is a Roman bridge of ſtone over the river Tamega, above ninety-two geometrical paces in length; but not much above three in breadth. The town has one collegiate church, which is alſo the pariſh-church, two convents, and two hoſpitals.

Villa Real, the beſt and largeſt town of the province, is ſeated fifteen miles to the north-eaſt of Lamego, between two ſmall rivers which diſcharge themſelves into the Douro. The greateſt part of the houſes ſtand without the walls, and the few within them are called the Old Town. It has two pariſh-churches, three convents, and an hoſpital.

SECT. X.

Of the Province of Entre Douro e Minho; its Situation, Extent, Produce, and principal Towns; with a particular Deſcription of the Cities of Porto and Braga.

THIS province receives its name from its being ſituated between the Douro and Minho; it being ſeparated by the river Minho from the Spaniſh province of Galicia on the north, and by the river Douro from the province of Beira on the ſouth; the province of Trazos Montes bounds it on the eaſt; as does the Atlantic ocean to the weſt. Its extent from north to ſouth is about ſixty-ſeven miles, and from eaſt to weſt about forty-five.

This province is naturally well defended, it being ſeparated from Spain on the north and eaſt by rivers and almoſt inacceſſible mountains, and on the weſt waſhed by the ocean. The inhabitants enjoy a ſweet ſerene air, and an almoſt perpetual ſpring; but they have little grain, and that chiefly rye and millet: however, the country abounds in wine and fruit; and its rivers, which diſcharge themſelves into the ſea, with its good harbours, particularly thoſe of Porto and Viana, are ſo convenient for trade, that in proportion to its extent it is the moſt populous province in the whole kingdom. The principal places it contains are the following:

Guimaraens, a town which owes its origin to a convent of Benedictines, built there in the year 927. Its walls are eighteen hundred and fifty paces in circuit, and it contains four pariſhes, two of which are in the ſuburbs, ſix convents, beſides another a little way out of the town, three hoſpitals, one houſe of mercy, and five thouſand inhabitants.

Viana is ſituated near the mouth of the river Lima, fifteen miles to the weſt of Braga, and is a large, well-built, and ſtrong city, defended by the caſtle of St. Jago. It contains ſeven thouſand inhabitants, two pariſh-churches, ſeven convents, one houſe of mercy, and an hoſpital; but its harbour is only fit for ſmall veſſels.

Porto, Oporto, or Port a Port, is ſituated in forty degrees fifty-three minutes latitude, and eight degrees thirty-five minutes weſt longitude, eight miles to the ſouth of Braga, on the ſide of a rugged mountain, the foot of which is waſhed by the Douro, and is about a league diſtant from the mouth of that river, which here forms a good harbour; but it has a very difficult entrance, from the rocks and ſands, which form a bar, that can only be got over at high water, with the aſſiſtance of a coaſting pilot. The harbour is ſafe againſt all winds; but when the floods or freſhes in the river come down, no anchor can hold, at which times the ſhips are faſtened to each other along the walls, in order to avoid the impetuoſity of the torrent. The ſtreets are well paved; but the inequality of the ground on which the city ſtands, renders it not very pleaſant to walk in them. A fine quay runs along the banks of the river, cloſe to which the ſhipping lie, ſo that a merchant may ſee his veſſels unloaded from his own windows. It is fortified with an old wall and towers, and defended by a caſtle. In opulence, populouſneſs, beauty, and commerce, it is the next city in the kingdom to Liſbon, and has an arſenal, docks, and yards, for building and fitting out men of war. It has four ſuburbs and ſeven pariſh-churches, including the cathedral, it being the ſee of a biſhop, twelve convents, beſides four others without the walls, ſome hoſpitals, one houſe of mercy, and above twenty thouſand ſeven hundred inhabitants. The moſt elegant building in the city is the convent of the Auguſtines, in which is a beautiful gallery of a vaſt extent: the church belonging to it is of a circular form, and very richly adorned. Here is alſo one of the ſovereign councils or courts of the kingdom.

On the ſouth ſide of the river oppoſite to Porto is Villa Nova do Porto, a ſmall town near the place where the old town of Gaya formerly ſtood, in reſpect to which it is called Villa Nova. It contains only one pariſh-church, one houſe of mercy, one hoſpital, and one convent, with two others near the town, and about two thouſand nine hundred inhabitants.

Braga is an antient archiepiſcopal city ſeated, according to F. Capaſſi, in forty-one degrees thirty-three minutes north latitude, and in eight degrees forty-four minutes weſt longitude, thirty-two miles to the north-weſt of Porto, in a pleaſant plain between the rivers Cavado and Deſte, and received its name from that of a kind of garment worn by its antient inhabitants. It is ſaid to have been built by the Greeks; but afterwards fell under the power of the Carthaginians, Romans, Swabians, Goths, Moors, and the kings of Leon. The Romans gave it the title of Auguſta, and the Swabian kings honoured it with their reſidence. The city contains four pariſh-churches, beſides its antient large cathedral, eight convents, a ſeminary, a houſe of mercy for perſons of both ſexes well-born who are come to decay, and are ſettled in it for life, or provided for with wonderful privacy, and an hoſpital. Its inhabitants amount to about twelve thouſand three hundred. The houſes are generally old ſubſtantial ſtone buildings, but have no great elegance, any more than the archbiſhop's palace and the cathedral, which are more admired for their antiquity and extent, than for their beauty. The archbiſhop is both ſpiritual and temporal lord of the place, on which account he has a ſword, as well as a croſs, carried before him. His revenue is forty thouſand ducats per annum, and he is primate of the kingdom. In this city are ſome ſtately remains of antique buildings, particularly of an amphitheatre and an aqueduct. The country about Braga produces corn, wine, and fruit; and here is a great deal of paſture, on which they feed large flocks of ſheep.

SECT. XI.

Of the AZORES, *or* TERCEIRAS.

Their Names, Situation, Number, Climate, Produce, with a Deſcription of each.

AS the Azore Iſlands are ſituated in the Atlantic ocean oppoſite to Portugal, to which they belong, and are never included under the American iſlands, we can no where more properly place them than here.

The Azores, Terceiras, or Flemiſh Iſles, derived their firſt name from the great number of hawks and falcons found there by the Portugueſe at their firſt diſcovery; the ſecond from Terceira, the name of the principal iſland; and the third from the Flemings, who diſcovered them much about the ſame time as the Portugueſe.

Theſe iſlands are ſituated to the weſt of Liſbon, between the thirty-ſixth and fortieth degree of north latitude, and between the twenty-fifth and thirty-third degree of weſt longitude from London. They are nine in number, and are named Santa Maria, St. Miguel, Terceira, St. George, Gracioſa, Fayal, Pico, Flores, and Corvo.

All theſe iſlands enjoy a very clear and ſerene ſky, with a ſalubrious air; but are expoſed to violent earthquakes, from which they have frequently ſuffered; as they have alſo by the violent agitations of the waves by which they are ſurrounded. They are, however, extremely fertile in corn, wine, and a variety of fruit; and likewiſe breed large quantities of cattle.

Santa Maria is diſtant about two hundred and fifty Portugueſe miles, or rather leagues, from Cape St. Vincent in Algarve, and was diſcovered in 1342 by Gonzalo Velho Cabral, and is about four miles long and three broad, with a harbour to the ſouth-weſt defended by ſome redoubts. The principal place in the iſland is a ſmall town named Porto, beſides which there are a few villages.

St. Miguel is the firſt of the Azore iſlands in the paſſage from Liſbon, and lies about two hundred and twelve Portugueſe miles from Cabo de Eſpichel. It was diſcovered in 1444, on the feſtival of the appearance of St. Michael, which occaſioned its being called by this name. It is eighteen miles in length, and two in breadth. Its two principal harbours, named Ponta Delgada and Villa Franca, lie on the ſouth ſide. This is the beſt peopled of all the Azore Iſlands, the inhabitants being ſaid to amount to above fifty-one thouſand five hundred, beſides about thirteen hundred and ninety eccleſiaſtics, monks, and nuns; and though it has not long been entirely cultivated, it is the moſt fruitful, particularly in corn and wine; ſo that one year with another the wheat amounts to twelve thouſand buſhels, the millet to near as much more, and its wine to about five thouſand pipes. This iſland contains one city, five towns, and twenty-two villages.

Ponta Delgada, the capital, is ſeated in a level country, on an open harbour defended by a fort, and contains about eighteen hundred and eighty hearths, three pariſh-churches, and ſeven convents, the palace of the governor, the cuſtom-houſe, and poor-houſe.

Villa Franca, the moſt antient town in the whole iſland, is ſo called from its being at firſt a free port. An iſland about a mile in circumference lies before the harbour, and towards the ſea the town is defended by a fort and ſome other works. It has eighteen hundred and thirteen hearths, two pariſh-churches, and two convents; with nine villages belonging to its juriſdiction.

In the year 1720 a little iſland appeared between St. Miguel and Terceira, which has ſince gradually vaniſhed.

Terceira is the third iſland that was diſcovered, and is thirteen miles long, and ſix broad. The harbour of Angra, its capital, is two hundred and forty-five Portugueſe miles diſtant from Liſbon; and the iſland is divided into two captainſhips, which contain one city, two towns, and ſeveral villages.

The city of Angra is ſituated on the ſouth-eaſt coaſt of the iſland. Its harbour is formed by a bay ſituated between two capes, the one lying weſt, and the other eaſt, about a quarter of a mile from each other, and both about twice that diſtance from the town. On the weſt cape ſtands Fort St. Sebaſtian, and on a high mountain, called the Mount of Brazil, Fort St. John the Baptiſt. The harbour is ſpacious, and has good anchorage; but is expoſed to the ſouth-eaſt winds. It is a populous city, in which are broad, ſtraight, clean, and well paved ſtreets, a cathedral, five other churches, and one poor-houſe, an hoſpital, and eight convents. The biſhop of this place has all the nine iſlands of the Azores under him, and is himſelf ſuffragan to the patriarch of Liſbon. This city has the privilege of ſending a repreſentative to the cortes or aſſembly of the ſtates.

St. George is ſituated about eight Portugueſe miles or leagues from Terceira. To the north it is little more than a high rock, but in other parts the eminences and plains ſucceed each other. It is eleven miles long, and one and a half broad, excluſive of its two capes. On the ſouth it has a harbour for ſmall veſſels. It is ſaid to have been diſcovered on St. George's day, 1450. The ſouth ſide of the iſland is well cultivated and inhabited, and has three towns and four villages. The principal town, named Vela de Velas, is but ſmall, and has only one church, one convent, and the above harbour.

Gracioſa lies directly eaſt and weſt, and is about ten miles in length and ſeven in breadth, and contains two towns; the principal of theſe is Santa Cruz, which is ſeated on a bay that forms a harbour named Calheta, defended by a fort, and contains one church, one houſe of mercy, and a convent. This iſland is ſaid to have received its name from its remarkable fertility.

Fayal is nine Portugueſe miles in length, and three in its greateſt breadth. The chief place in the iſland is Villa de Horta, ſituated on its weſtern coaſt, which has an harbour land-locked on all ſides, except to the eaſt and north-eaſt; and is defended by ſeveral forts. The town contains one pariſh-church, and five convents; and the iſland contains ten other pariſhes.

Pico is ſixteen Portugueſe miles in length, and five in breadth. This iſland is viſible at a great diſtance on account of the height of its mountain, to which it owes its name, and which is ſaid to riſe three miles above the ſurface of the ſea. This iſland is on the north ſeparated from that of St. George, by a channel in ſome places ſix, and in others twelve miles over; and to the weſt from Fayal by another channel. Its principal harbour is at Villa Das Lagens; the ſecond, which is called Magdalene, is only for ſmall veſſels. This iſland carries on a great trade in its excellent wines, and in wood, with which it alſo abounds, particularly in cedar, and in a firm red wood that is highly eſteemed.

Flores, the next iſland, is about thirty miles long, and nine broad; but has only two towns, and a number of villages. The principal place is Santa Cruz, which is ſmall, and contains only one church and a convent.

Corvo lies to the northward, oppoſite to the iſland of Flores, from which it is divided by a ſtreight about three miles in breadth. The whole circuit of this iſland is but about ten miles, and the whole coaſt conſiſts of a chain of rocks. It has two ſmall harbours, one church, and an inſignificant place called Noſſa Senhora do Roſario, which is ſubordinate to the church of Santa Cruz, on the iſland of Flores.

CHAP.

CHAP. XXVIII.

Of the Kingdom of FRANCE.

SECT. I.

Its Name, Situation, Extent, Climate, Mountains, Minerals, Foſſils, Rivers, Fruits, Vegetables, and Animals.

FRANCE obtained its preſent name from the Franks, who in the fifth century paſſed out of Germany into Gaul, and made themſelves maſters of the whole country, from the Rhine to the mouth of the Loire. This kingdom is bounded by the Britiſh channel, and the Netherlands, towards the north; on the eaſt by Germany, Swiſſerland, and Italy; on the ſouth by the Mediterranean ſea, and Spain, from which it is ſeparated by the Pyrenean mountains; and on the weſt by the Atlantic ocean; extending from the forty-third to the fifty-firſt degree of north latitude, and from the fourth degree weſt to the ſeventh degree eaſt longitude. Did not the province of Bretagne extend itſelf above an hundred miles farther into the ocean, than any other part of the kingdom, it would be nearly of a ſquare form, and the breadth and length almoſt equal, that is, about five hundred and forty miles; but allowing for the hills and valleys, with the winding of the roads, it would in a traveller's account be above ſix hundred miles over either way.

The air is mild and wholeſome, particularly the interior parts of the kingdom. The winters, however, in the northern provinces are cold, and laſt four or five months. Indeed the cold is in that ſeaſon generally much ſeverer there than in England; for we being ſurrounded by the ſea are leſs ſubject to continued froſts, and are beſides better provided againſt the cold from our being much better ſupplied with firing. They have, however, the advantage of clear ſettled weather, and are but little troubled with fogs, which are ſo diſagreeable in Great Britain and other countries. The ſummers in France are hotter than with us.

France, with reſpect to its ſituation, has the advantage of every kingdom in Europe, the ſeas which border upon it affording the inhabitants an eaſy communication with the reſt of the world; the northern ſhores being waſhed by the Britiſh channel, the weſtern coaſt by the Atlantic ocean, and the ſouth by the Mediterranean. Hence no country can be better ſituated for the advancement of trade and navigation.

The chief mountains of France are the Alps towards Italy, the Pyrenees, which border on Spain, and thoſe of the Cevennes and Auvergne.

With reſpect to minerals, Languedoc is ſaid to have veins of gold and ſilver. In Alſace theſe metals have been found in the ſand of the Rhine; and the mountain of Waſgau, in that province, yields a ſilver ore, which is worked, and farther diſcoveries are making after it. Plenty of iron ore is found in various parts of the kingdom, and in Alſace are mines of lead. Pit-coal is principally found in Hennegau, and all parts of the kingdom make ſalt-petre. Here is alſo no want of marble; for ſince Colbert's time, quarries, particularly in Languedoc, Provence, and Bourbonnois, are kept continually open. France, however, produces few gems; but has in Languedoc a mine of excellent turquoiſes.

The country is extremely well watered with navigable rivers, the chief of which are the Loire, the Rhone, the Garonne, and the Seine. Of theſe the Loire is the largeſt. It riſes in the mountains of the Cevennes, and taking its courſe north and north-weſt, runs to Orleans; and from thence directly weſt by Tours, Angers, and Nantes, falling into the Weſtern ocean forty miles below the laſt city; having received in its courſe the Allier, Cher, Indra, Creuſe, Vienna, and the Maine; and has a communication with the Seine, by means of the canals of Briare and Orleans. Its whole courſe, with all its windings, is computed to be about five hundred miles.

The Rhone riſes in the mountain of La Fourche, in the province of Uri in Swiſſerland, and running weſtward through the country of the Valais, paſſes through the lake of Geneva; and having viſited that city, flows ſouth-weſt to Lyons, where it joins the Soan, and then runs ſouth till it falls by three ſeveral channels into the Mediterranean.

The Garonne receives its courſe in the mountains of Aure, in the county of Comenges. It becomes navigable at Muret, and, after being joined by ſeveral rivers, changes its name into the Gironde; and at length diſcharges itſelf by two outlets into the Atlantic ocean. This river has a celebrated canal, by which the Weſtern ocean is joined to the Mediterranean.

The Seine riſes near Dijon, in Burgundy, and running to the north-weſt viſits Troyes, Paris, and Rouen in its way, and at length falls into the Britiſh channel near Havre de Grace.

The country of France is in general fertile, yet has many barren tracts and mountains. In ſome parts it produces plenty, and in all of them a ſufficiency of the neceſſaries of life. In plentiful years it yields more corn than is neceſſary for the ſubſiſtence of the inhabitants; but a bad harveſt is generally ſucceeded by a ſcarcity, and in war-time there has been often a great dearth of grain, which is the more felt in this country as bread is the principal food of the inhabitants.

Their roots differ much from ours; for here are no round turnips; theirs are long and ſmall but well taſted, and being not ſo ſtrong as ours, are more proper for their ſoups. They have few potatoes; but plenty of Jeruſalem artichoaks. They abound in vaſt quantities of large red onions and garlic; and alſo in ſhallots, rockambole, and leeks. Theſe laſt are ſmaller than ours; but three times as long in the white part. Lettuces are the great and univerſal ſallad. In April and May the markets are ſerved with vaſt quantities of white beets. Aſparagus is here very plentiful; and they are ſo fond of ſorrel, that large fields are planted with it. They are alſo particularly fond of muſhrooms, of which they have ſeveral different kinds.

This kingdom enjoys great plenty of wine, which is produced in all its provinces. Among the ſeveral French wines that of Champagne is reckoned the beſt, it being a good ſtomachic, racy, and in taſte and flavour exquiſite, with an agreeable tartneſs. That of Burgundy, the beſt of which is produced about Beaume, has a fine colour, and a pleaſant taſte. The wines of Angers and Orleans are alſo delicate, but a little heady. In Poictou is produced a white wine that reſembles Kheniſh. The neighbourhood of Bourdeaux and the lower parts of Gaſcony produce excellent wines. Pontac grows in Guienne. Muſcadel and Frontiniac are the delicious products of Languedoc. Between Valence and St. Valliere, along the banks of the Rhone, is produced a very agreeable, but roughiſh red wine that has a taſte not unlike that of bilberries; it is named hermitage, and is eſteemed for its wholeſomeneſs.

The territories for oil of olives are Provence and Languedoc. Theſe and other provinces produce ſaffron, and the northern parts in particular have large orchards, and make great quantities of cyder, which is there the common drink of the inhabitants. Bourdeaux exports great quantities of prunes, and capers are principally produced in the country about Toulon. Flax and hemp thrive in ſeveral parts of the kingdom; but linſeed is produced only in the north. Moſt of the provinces abound in wool, and ſilk is cultivated with great induſtry, eſpecially in Languedoc, Provence, Lionnois, and Dauphine;

and, during all the time in which the inhabitants attend on the silk-worms, public prayers are offered up for the prosperity of those useful insects.

France also produces horned cattle, sheep, and hogs; but they are neither so numerous, nor in general so fat and fleshy as those of Great Britain. Good horses are also produced here, as well as asses, and a great number of mules. Game and wild-fowl are in the greatest plenty, and extremely good. The people on the sea-coast employ themselves in fishing. The Pyrenean mountains furnish timber for ship-building, great quantities of which are also purchased out of Alsace, Burgundy, and Lorraine; but in the other provinces the scarcity of timber and wood for fuel begins to be more and more felt. This kingdom also produces plenty of sea and spring-salt.

SECT. II.

The Persons, Dress, Food, Manners, and Customs of the French. Their Religion, Arts, Manufactures, Commerce, and Coin.

THE French are generally slender, nimble, active, and well-proportioned; their hair and eyes are for the most part black, their complexions brown, and the ladies fond of giving a high colour to their cheeks. The people in general are merry, sprightly, and seldom lay any thing to heart; they are familiar, and acquainted with a stranger at first sight; but many are extremely vain, and most of them remarkably talkative. The common people are in general extremely extravagant in their dress, though they live as meanly as possible with respect to provisions.

The French are far from eating the same quantity of flesh that we do, nor do they often dress it in the same manner, fricassees, ragouts, hashes and soups disguised with onions, herbs, and spices, are preferred before joints boiled or roasted; and what they do boil or roast has scarce a drop of gravy left. They keep their meat before they dress it till it is very tender: for as their meat is leaner, drier, and more stringy than ours, their keeping it longer not only makes it less tough, but improves the taste; especially as the dryness of the air preserves it from that disagreeable mustiness which stale meat acquires by the dampness of our moister climate. But as the French eat much less meat than we, and are excessively fond of soup, they usually eat twice the quantity of bread, which is generally exceeding light and good. As they are strangers to the fine fat sirloin and rump of beef, and other large joints which in Great Britain grace the tables of people even in middling circumstances, they are unacquainted with the many English dishes called by the general name of puddings. The wealthy, however, supply this deficiency with sweetmeats, and a number of little delicacies; but the poor mechanics, and all the labouring part of the nation, live almost entirely on soups and vegetables. In Lent the common people feed much on white kidney-beans, that is the seed boiled, and on white lentils, a sort of pulse not known in England; and a variety of sallads, some of which grow wild in almost every field.

The French are so far from being addicted to jealousy, that it is good manners to commend the beauty of a woman, and to extol her charms even before her husband's face. The women in general behave without reserve. The French are much commended for their obedience to their governors, and pride themselves on their profound veneration for their prince; but while the people had any thing to contend for, rebellions and civil wars were as frequent in France as in any other country. They had once the privilege of making their own laws; but their privileges are swallowed up by the prerogatives of the crown, and their parliaments are of little use with respect to their legislative capacity, except to register the edicts of the sovereign, which they may indeed remonstrate against, and present their petitions to have them rendered more favourable to the people; but if the king continues obstinate, they are at last obliged to submit. Their lands are so highly taxed, that small estates will scarce afford the proprietors a subsistence, who have not a place; and indeed there is scarce a considerable family in the kingdom that has not some preferment in the church, the army, or the court.

The nobility and gentry of France never apply themselves to trade; they seem indeed naturally designed for the court or the army; and if they happen to be of a melancholy disposition, here are always convents, and numerous preferments to be met with in the church. As to their military virtues, it must be acknowledged that they do not want bravery, and have brought the art of war to great perfection, there being no people upon earth who attack or defend a place better than they, or are better skilled in fortification. As to their exercises, there are few French gentlemen who do not learn to dance, to fence, and to ride the great horse. The usual diversions of the French are gaming, of which they are very fond, walking, or taking the air in coaches, and attending plays and operas.

The French tongue is formed out of that of the Gauls, Romans, and Franks, with the additions and refinements made in it from time to time by persons of genius, till it arrived at its present perfection.

The established religion in France, since the repeal of the edict of Nantes in 1685, is the Roman Catholic; yet in Dauphiné, Languedoc, and other provinces, there are such a number of secret Protestants, that they have been computed to amount to no less than three millions; but those, on account of their religious assemblies, at which sometimes great numbers have been present, have been cruelly harrassed and persecuted; and in 1745 some Protestant preachers were hanged, laymen were sent to the galleys, women to the convents, and children forced away from the arms of their parents. The French Protestants now perform their public worship with as much secrecy as if it were a crime to hear the Gospel read, and to offer up their devotions to their Maker; for this purpose they meet in private cellars and caverns remote from public view. The clergy are frequently very active in persecuting them; but outward compulsion is lodged in the hands of the temporal magistrates alone, who are seldom backward in lending their assistance when it is required by a priest. In Alsace, however, the Protestants are openly tolerated by virtue of a treaty, and in many places even the Jews.

The privileges of the Gallican church, or the church of France, are pretty considerable. The principal of these are the following:

I. In temporal affairs, and such as relate to government, neither the sovereign, nor his officers, or magistrates, are subject to any church-discipline, inflicted either by the bishops or even by the pope himself.

II. The pope has no other jurisdiction in France than what the king is pleased to grant him; his nuncios and legates à latere are only considered as envoys from the court of Rome to that of France, and cannot in virtue of any papal mandate interfere in affairs of justice, unless such mandate has previously received the king's sanction, and has been formally registered in parliament.

III. The calling and holding all ecclesiastical assemblies, with the confirmation of their decrees, depends on the civil power, without requiring the knowledge and consent of the pope.

IV. The king is impowered to enact laws that merely concern the ecclesiastical constitution, and to limit the exercise of the power of the clergy; and without the king's permission and ratification, no law of the church, either by the bishops or the pope, can subject any one to outward penalties or punishment, or even to church-discipline.

V. The pope can levy no money in France, on any pretence whatever, except the fees and imports allowed him by the *concordat*; though the king can tax the clergy without standing in need of a papal mandate, a privilege which other princes must purchase by paying a quota of such tax to the see of Rome. It is but lately since the king enjoined the clergy to pay the twentieth penny, and for that purpose to deliver in an inventory of their estates and incomes. This indeed occasioned a great ferment, till in 1753 the clergy consented to pay the king the annual sum of twelve millions of livres, under the

name of a free gift, without being exempted from the uſual free gift which they bring to the throne every five years.

VI. No eccleſiaſtical foundations, nor any new order of monks and nuns, are to be introduced without warrant from the king; and the rules of ſuch order are ſubject to the cognizance and amendment of the civil power.

VII. The king nominates all archbiſhops and biſhops, abbots and priors, except with reſpect to the latter, where the convent is indulged with the choice of its ſuperior.

VIII. The eccleſiaſtical juriſdiction is ſo far ſubordinate to the civil power, that appeals from the ſentences of the eccleſiaſtical courts are received by the parliament.

In the whole kingdom are eighteen archbiſhops, a hundred and thirteen biſhops, twenty-two thouſand two hundred and ninety-one prieſts, ſeven hundred and ſeven abbies for men, three hundred and ſeventeen abbies and priories for women, beſides a great number of other convents, together with two hundred and fifty commanderies of the order of Malta, among which are ſix grand priories, and four principal commanderies. The annual revenues of the archbiſhops and biſhops amount in the whole to four millions three hundred and thirty-ſeven thouſand livres. The number of monks and nuns is computed in the whole at above a hundred and ninety thouſand, whoſe income is ſaid greatly to exceed a hundred millions of livres. The eccleſiaſtical ſtate is compoſed of eighteen provinces, each of which conſiſts of an archbiſhopric, and the biſhops ſubordinate to it.

The French have always diſtinguiſhed themſelves by their ſkill in the arts and ſciences. Painting was firſt brought to great perfection among them under Francis I. when Roux and Franciſco Bologneſe introduced all the beauty of that art into France; and ſince that time this kingdom has produced ſeveral eminent maſters. In 1648 was inſtituted at Paris the royal academy of painting and ſculpture; but it is ſaid that the ingenious art of painting is now on the decline in France, and is ſupported by a frivolous taſte, which is far from tending to the improvement of the liberal arts. Engraving has been brought to a perfection yet unequalled in any other part of Europe. France has alſo made great advances in ſtatuary. It has alſo been famous for its architects; and the great Colbert, in 1671, founded a royal academy of architecture, who now hold their meetings in the Louvre. The French learned the art of ſhip-building from the Engliſh. Their reputation in military architecture is well known, and they alſo excel moſt nations in gunnery and fire-works. At Paris, beſides the antient univerſity and royal college, are four academies, namely the French academy, the academy of inſcriptions and belles lettres, that of ſurgery, and the academy of ſciences, with three others for the education of young noblemen. Beſides theſe there are eighteen other univerſities in France, and ſeveral academies for the ſciences and the polite arts.

The French manufactures and productions are ſupported and improved with the greateſt diligence. By the advice of the above-mentioned Colbert, that wiſe encourager of manufactures and the liberal arts, Lewis XIV. erected the manufacture of the Gobelins at Paris, which is ſo called from two brothers, Giles and John Gobelin, who under Francis I. found out the method of dying a moſt beautiful ſcarlet, which was afterwards called by their name. The houſe of the Gobelins at Paris is full of the works of the moſt excellent maſters in tapeſtry, fillegree, and ſculpture; and in the article of tapeſtry alone no leſs than two hundred perſons are conſtantly employed. There are alſo conſiderable manufactures of tapeſtry in ſeveral other parts of the kingdom. The French hiſtorians inform us, that ſilk manufactures were firſt ſet up in France in the reign of Lewis XI. yet in the time of Henry II. ſilk was ſo ſcarce, that the king was the firſt who had ever been ſeen with a pair of ſilk ſtockings on, which were a part of his dreſs at the marriage of his ſiſter. The ſucceeding kings made good regulations with reſpect to the culture of ſilk, and the planting of white mulberry-trees; but it was not till the time of Lewis XIV. that this was brought to any conſiderable degree of proſperity; and under his government the quantity of raw ſilk produced in the province of Dauphiné, Languedoc, and Provence alone, annually amounted to one million eight hundred thouſand pounds weight. However, the revocation of the edict of Nantes has been of the greateſt detriment to this trade, by compelling the manufacturers to fly from France, to ſeek that protection, and to enjoy that religious liberty, which they were not allowed to poſſeſs at home. Hence the art of weaving ſilk is become almoſt univerſally known, and England has been enabled to ſurpaſs in the elegance and beauty of their patterns the French themſelves. Within theſe laſt hundred years the French have conſiderably improved their woollen manufactures, in which they have been aſſiſted by the clandeſtine exportation of wool from Great Britain and Ireland. Hence the cloths and other woollen ſtuffs made at Abbeville, are little inferior either in fineneſs or goodneſs to the Engliſh. Several provinces abound in manufactures of linen, thread, and ſail-cloth; and at Cambray is made the fine and beautiful linen called Cambray linen, or cambrick; and St. Quintin excels in its lawns. The glaſs manufacture is alſo of great advantage to France. In 1688 one Abraham Thevert contrived a method for caſting better and larger plates of looking-glaſs than had been before known. Vincennes has alſo a manufactory of very handſome porcelain.

The trade of France is very conſiderable, though it is nothing near ſo great as it was formerly: it conſiſts of gold and ſilver brocades, gold and ſilver embroideries, ſilk ſtuffs, ſattins, ſewing ſilks, crapes, cambric, lawn, fine linen, laces, toys, and millinery-ware, tapeſtries of various kinds, fine cloths, pluſh, woollen ſtuffs, ſail-cloth, looking-glaſſes, drinking-glaſſes, paper, parchment, ſope, knives, and other hard-ware; wines of many ſorts, vinegar, brandy, corn, hemp, flax, walnut-tree wood, pot-aſh, pitch, turpentine, oil of turpentine, linſeed oil, and oil of olives, almonds, raiſins, cheſnuts, figs, prunes, capers, nuts, honey, ſaffron, ſalt, mules, &c.

The navigable rivers are of great advantage to the inland trade, and theſe have been joined at a vaſt expence by canals, the moſt famous of which is the royal canal in Languedoc. The coaſt trade is very conſiderable; for by this the maritime provinces reciprocally ſupply each other with their own produce. The land trade is carried on with Swiſſerland, by the way of Lyons; to Germany, through Metz and Straſburg; to Holland, by the way of Liſle; and to Spain, by the way of Perpignan and Bayonne. The French ports on the Channel and the Weſtern ocean are frequented by all the trading nations of Europe. The trade with England, the United Provinces, and Italy, is of great advantage to France. However, but few French ſhips are ſeen in the ports of the northern nations. Their trade on the Mediterranean with Aſia and Africa has for ſome years been very conſiderable, and the far greateſt part of it is carried on by the city of Marſeilles alone. They alſo carry on a conſiderable traffic to Guinea for gold, ivory, and ſlaves for their American colonies. The Eaſt India trade is in the hands of a company at Port L'Orient, in Brittany.

Accounts are kept in France in livres, ſous, and deniers. One livre contains twenty ſous, and one ſou twelve deniers. The French livre is nearly of the value of ten-pence, one ſou is worth a half-penny, and conſequently the denier is the ſixth part of a farthing. Three deniers make a liard, which is alſo a ſmall piece of copper.

The French ſilver coin is the ecu, or crown, equal to three livres; ſixty ſols, or ſeven hundred and twenty deniers, equal to our half-crown. One louis blanc is five ſhillings.

The gold coin are the louis d'or, of one pound value; there are alſo double and half louis; and a piſtole is eight ſhillings and four-pence.

SECT. III.

A conciſe Hiſtory of France. The Titles of the King; his Succeſſion to the Throne: His Arms, Coronation, Enſigns of Royalty; the different Orders of the Nobility, and of Knighthood; the Parliaments; the great Officers of the Crown

Murther of the Duke of Burgundy.

Crown and of the Houſhold; the great Councils of State, and Courts of Juſtice; the Laws, Taxes, Land Forces, and Navy of France.

FRANCE was antiently inhabited by the Celtæ, on whom the Romans firſt conferred the name of Gauls, and Julius Cæſar reduced the country into a Roman province. In the fifth century the Burgundians, Viſigoths, and Bretons, ſettled in ſeveral parts of Gaul. Theſe were followed by the Franks from Germany, who under Merovie and Childeric conquered a part of Gaul, and under Clovis extended their dominion from the Rhine to the mouth of the Loire: for king Clovis, who was baptized in 496, quelled the Burgundians, Viſigoths, and inhabitants of Brittany.

At this time the kingdom of the Franks was divided into Auſtraſia, or the eaſt part, and Neuſtria, or the weſt; and on the deceaſe of Clovis, his four ſons divided their father's kingdom among them.

The lands of Gaul were on their being conquered by the Franks diſtributed among their officers, and theſe with the clergy formed the firſt great councils or parliaments. Thus the government appears to have been a mixed monarchy, in which nothing of moment was tranſacted without the grand council of the nation, conſiſting of the principal officers, who held their lands by military tenures: while the conquered Gauls were reduced to a ſtate of ſervitude, and manured the lands for the Franks.

This was the conſtitution of the government, till Charles Martel in 732, uſurped the ſovereignty. This nobleman was marſhal of France, or mayor of the palace, and had long exerciſed the ſovereign power in the name of Childeric, a weak and indolent prince. The Saracens, who had made themſelves maſters of the ſouth of France, penetrating into the heart of the kingdom, he entirely defeated them, and driving them out, was conſidered as the deliverer of Chriſtendom: he there became ſo popular, that with the conſent of the people, and even of the pope, he aſſumed the dominion of France; and having a victorious army at his command, not only depoſed the king, but rendered himſelf an abſolute prince, by depriving the nobility and clergy of their ſhare in the government.

His ſon Pepin ſucceeded him in the throne, but reſtored the privileges of the nobility and clergy, on their agreeing to exclude the former race of kings. He alſo divided the provinces among his principal nobility, allowing them to exerciſe ſovereign authority in their reſpective governments; till at length aſſuming a kind of independency, they only acknowledged the king as their head: and this gave riſe to the numerous principalities, and their ſeveral parliaments, every province retaining the ſame form of government that had been exerciſed in the whole; and no laws were made, or taxes raiſed, without the concurrence of the nobility and clergy.

Charlemagne, or Charles the Great, the ſon of Pepin, conquered Italy, Germany, and part of Spain, and was crowned emperor of the Romans, by pope Leo, in the year 800, and from him was deſcended the race of kings, called the Carlovingian line. About eighty years after the death of Charlemagne, the empire was divided from France, and that country ſuffered much from the invaſion of the Normans.

The Carlovingian race of kings continued ſovereigns of France till the reign of Lewis V. when in 987, Hugh Capet, a popular nobleman, aſſumed the throne, and began the Capetine line of monarchs. Cruſadoes, or expeditions to the Holy Land, for the recovery of Jeruſalem from the Saracens, being preached up by order of the pope, the princes of every kingdom in Europe engaged in theſe falſely called Holy wars, in which Chriſtianity was to be propagated by fire and ſword; and in which ſeveral hundred thouſand Chriſtians periſhed: but though they at length took Antioch, Jeruſalem, and ſeveral other ſtrong places, they loſt them all again within two hundred years. Lewis IX. with moſt of the nobility, was taken priſoners in Egypt, in one of theſe expeditions, and their ranſoms coſt an immenſe ſum.

In 1285, the kingdom of Navarre was added to the crown of France, by the marriage of Philip IV. with Jane queen of Navarre. During this reign the conſtitution of the government received a conſiderable alteration; for the nobility and clergy refuſing to grant the king the ſupplies he demanded, he ſummoned the deputies or repreſentatives of the commons to parliament, and on their granting him what he wanted, conſtituted them a third ſtate.

In 1344, Hubert count dauphin of Vienne transferred his dominions to the crown of France, on condition that the king's eldeſt ſon ſhould ever after be ſtiled dauphin.

Edward III. king of England, laying claim to the crown of France, on account of his being deſcended in a direct line from Philip IV. invaded that kingdom; and in 1346, obtained a complete victory at Creſſy in Picardy, and the next year took Calais. In 1356, the French were again defeated at Poictiers, by Edward the Black prince, the eldeſt ſon of Edward III. and king John and his ſon Philip brought priſoners to England.

At length the French king Charles VI. being ſeized with a kind of phrenſy, and becoming unfit to govern, the dukes of Burgundy and Orleans contended for the adminiſtration, and the quarrel grew to that height, that the duke of Burgundy cauſed the duke of Orleans to be aſſaſſinated in the ſtreets of Paris, which laid the foundation for a civil war. About the ſame time Henry V. king of England, invading France, obtained a victory at Agincourt in 1415. The French now propoſed a reconciliation between the duke of Burgundy and the family of Orleans; and a conference was held between the young duke of Orleans and the duke of Burgundy, to accommodate matters; but at a ſecond conference, the dauphin and the duke of Orleans cauſed the duke of Burgundy to be murdered. Upon this the queen and the young duke of Burgundy joined the Engliſh, with whoſe aſſiſtance king Henry made an almoſt entire conqueſt of France; and a parliament being held at Paris, the king of England was made regent of France, during the life of the French king Charles VI. declared ſucceſſor to that crown; and at the ſame time married the princeſs Catharine, the French king's daughter. King Henry dying, and leaving an infant ſon, that infant was crowned king of France at Paris, in 1431; but Charles the dauphin alſo cauſing himſelf to be proclaimed king, recovered all the countries that had been taken by the Engliſh.

In the year 1498, died Charles VIII. the laſt of the firſt line of the houſe of Valois, on which the crown deſcended to Lewis XII. duke of Orleans. Three of his ſons ſucceeded him in order. Under the firſt, namely Francis II. the religious diſputes began to break out in France, the Proteſtants were perſecuted, and under Charles IX. theſe diſputes occaſioned two civil wars; after the concluſion of which, on the 18th of Auguſt 1572, was perpetrated the barbarous maſſacre of Paris, which left an indelible ſtain on the hiſtory of France. Afterwards king Henry III. being thought to favour the Proteſtants, was aſſaſſinated by one Clements, a monk. His legal ſucceſſor was Henry IV. king of Navarre, the firſt of the houſe of Bourbon, that ſat on the throne of France: but he being a Proteſtant, was obſtinately oppoſed by the popiſh party; and though he changed his religion in order to pleaſe his ſubjects, yet having paſſed the edict of Nantes, for the toleration of the Proteſtants, he was aſſaſſinated in 1610, by one Ravilliac, a monk, in the ſtreets of Paris.

Lewis XIII. a minor of nine years of age, ſucceeding to the throne, Mary of Medicis, his mother, was declared regent. She continued to invade the liberties of the ſubjects, and revived the perſecution againſt the Proteſtants, which occaſioned another civil war. Cardinal Richlieu, being about this time introduced into the miniſtry, entirely ſubdued the parliament of Paris, and put a final period to the liberties of the people.

On the death of Lewis XIII. and that of cardinal Richlieu, which happened about the ſame time, his ſon Lewis XIV. ſucceeded to the throne, and in his long reign carried the power of France to its greateſt height. To his kingdom he added the provinces of Alſace and Rouſillon, with a conſiderable part of the Netherlands, Franche Comté, or the earldom of Burgundy, and the principal city of Orange. He alſo enlarged his dominions in America and Aſia, and placed his grandſon Philip of

Anjou on the throne of Spain, while navigation and manufactures were improved throughout the kingdom. But the bravery and ſkill of the great duke of Marlborough ſet bounds to his conqueſts, which had been carried on with the utmoſt cruelty; and in particular on his invading the Palatinate of the Rhine in 1689, he burnt and deſtroyed all the fine towns in that country. He alſo repealed the edict of Nantes, and began a ſevere perſecution againſt the Proteſtants, who fled into England and other countries, where they ſet up ſilk manufactures.

Lewis XIV. was ſucceeded by his great grandſon Lewis XV. the preſent king, on the firſt of September 1715, and was crowned at Rheims on the 25th of October 1722. But we ſhall not here recapitulate the accounts of his reign, which are freſh in every one's memory.

The title of the king is Lewis XV. by the grace of God king of France and Navarre. The title of ſire or lord, is given him by his ſubjects, as a mark of his unlimited power; and foreigners ſtyle him the moſt Chriſtian king, or his moſt Chriſtian majeſty; but the king's ſubjects are not to make uſe of it. Since the year 1349, when Hubert count dauphin of Viennois, as hath been already intimated, united his country to the crown of France, the king's eldeſt ſon, and preſumptive heir to the crown, has been ſtyled dauphin.

According to French writers their king never dies, but as ſoon as his eyes are cloſed, the next prince of the blood ſucceeds to the throne, and is inſtantly inveſted with the ſupreme authority; but where the king is a minor, that is, before he has entered the fourteenth year of his age, the adminiſtration of the government is entruſted to a regent, uſually the queen-mother, or a prince of the blood, according to the determination of the parliament at Paris, in which the reſt of the kingdom generally acquieſce. But if the deceaſed king has appointed a regent by his will, that is ſeldom diſputed.

When a new king enters into his fourteenth year, he goes in great ſtate to the parliament of Paris, attended by the princes of the blood, the peers, and general officers of ſtate. This aſſembly is generally called his bed of juſtice, and here he is declared to be of age; yet the regent frequently procures himſelf to be conſtituted prime miniſter, and under that title ſtill continues to govern the kingdom till his majeſty thinks fit to take the reins of government into his own hands.

The arms of France are three fleurs de lys or, in a field azure, ſupported by two angels in the habit of Levites, each holding in his hand a banner with the ſame arms: the creſt is an open crown: the whole under a grand azure pavilion ſtrewed with fleurs de lys, or, and ermine, and over it a cloſe ground with a double fleur de lys or, on the ſides of which are flying ſtreamers, on which are written the words uſed in battle, MON JOIE S. DENNIS, and above them on the royal banner or oriflame, LILIA NON LABORANT NEQVE NENT; that is, the lily neither labours nor ſpins; which is ſuppoſed to be an alluſion to the Salique law that excludes females from the ſupreme command.

The coronation of the king is performed whenever the court thinks fit. He is uſually crowned at Rheims, by the archbiſhop of that city, aſſiſted by five other eccleſiaſtical peers, and ſix noblemen, who repreſent the ſix ancient lay peers of France. The oil with which the king is anointed, according to a ridiculous tradition, was brought from heaven by a dove, and is kept in a phial called the Holy Bottle. The crown of Charlemagne is firſt placed upon the king's head; but being very heavy, it is exchanged for another. The other enſigns of royalty are the ſceptre, which he wields in his right hand, and the hand of juſtice, which he holds in the left; the latter is a ſtaff about two feet long, at the end of which is an ivory hand: this is chiefly uſed at the coronation, and the ſceptre alone on other days of ceremony.

The nobility of France are divided into four claſſes: the firſt includes only the princes of the blood, conſiſting of the houſe of Orleans, and the two branches of the family of Bourbon, thoſe of Condé and Conti. Next to theſe immediately follow the king's natural children who have been legitimated, and theſe precede all the nobility of the kingdom. To the ſecond claſs belong the high nobility, as the dukes and peers of the realm, of which there are forty-five in all, including the ſix princes of the blood, who are peers by birth. The principal duties and privileges of the peers are, the giving their aſſiſtance at the anointing of the king, their attending when he holds a bed of juſtice, and their enjoying a ſeat in the parliament of Paris, which is from hence called the court of peers. To this claſs alſo belong the other dukes, counts, and marquiſes, the principal officers of the court and other departments; the knights of the Holy Ghoſt, the governors of provinces, lieutenant-generals, bailiffs, &c. The third claſs is compoſed of the common ancient nobility, who in ſome provinces, particularly in Languedoc, are ſtiled nobles; but in moſt of the others ecuyers. Theſe are divided into the nobleſſe de race, and the nobleſſe de naiſſance; the firſt are thoſe whoſe anceſtors have been for a hundred years at leaſt in poſſeſſion of employments which confer nobility; and the ſecond are thoſe nobles whoſe anceſtors were created ſuch, and from whoſe patent it appears that they were commoners. In the fourth claſs are the new nobility, whom the king has either raiſed by patent, or ennobled by their employments: thus the officers of the crown, the king's ſecretaries, the counſellors of the parliament of Paris, and of other high tribunals in that city, are claſſed under this rank. The etchevins, or chief magiſtrates of the ſeveral cities are alſo ennobled. The military nobility are alſo of this claſs. The nobles enjoy particular privileges, they being exempted from paying the poll-tax, from the quartering of ſoldiers, the duties of franc-fief, with other privileges of leſs importance.

The higheſt order of knighthood is that of the Holy Ghoſt, founded in 1578 by king Henry III. the enſigns of which are a gold croſs, with a white dove enamelled on one ſide in the middle, and on the other the image of St. Michael, appendant to a blue ribbon, paſſing from the right ſide to the left. The knights alſo wear on the left breaſt of their coats a ſilver croſs, with a dove embroidered argent. The temporal knights are alſo knights of the order of St. Michael, and the greateſt part of them likewiſe of that of St. Lewis.

The order of St. Lewis was inſtituted in 1693 by Lewis XIV. Its enſign is a gold croſs enamelled argent, and adorned with golden lilies. On one ſide of it is a coat of mail with this inſcription, LUD. M. INSTIT. 1693. On the other is a drawn ſword, with a wreath of laurel at its point, and the motto BELL. VIRTUTIS PRÆM. Thoſe called the *grands croix*, or great croſſes, wear it on a broad flame-coloured ribbon over the ſhoulder, having alſo a gold embroidered croſs on their coat. The commanders wear it in the ſame manner, but without the embroidered croſs. The other knights wear the croſs appendant to a narrow flame-coloured ribbon, faſtened to a button-hole. Thoſe knights of the Holy Ghoſt who are at the ſame time knights of the order of St. Lewis, wear the croſs of the latter, with a narrow red ribbon near the croſs of the Holy Ghoſt. Of the ten *grands croix*, each has a penſion of ſix thouſand livres per annum. Each of the ten commanders has four thouſand; of nineteen others each three thouſand, thirty knights have each two thouſand, thirty-two others have each fifteen hundred, ſixty-five others have each a thouſand, and fifty-four others have each eight hundred.

The order of St. Michael was inſtituted in 1469 by Lewis XI. and revived in 1665 by Lewis XIV. The knights wear a gold chain of double ſcalloped ſhells, with a medal repreſenting a rock, on which is repreſented St. Michael encountering the dragon.

The religious order of St. Lazarus owes its origin to the Holy Land, after the reduction of which by the Saracens the knights returned to France, where Lewis VII. in 1137, beſtowed ſettlements on them at Boigni, Orleans, and St. Lazarus at Paris, which grant was confirmed in 1265, by St. Lewis. This order is divided into two grand maſterſhips, one of which reſides in France, and the other in Savoy. The knights wear a temporal habit, and are allowed to marry. In 1607 Henry IV. inſtituted the order of Our Lady of Mount Carmel, and united it with the order of St. Lazarus, which union was confirmed by Lewis XIV. The ſovereign himſelf is grand maſter of the three firſt orders; but he nominates one for the fourth.

Formerly nothing of conſequence in relation to the ſtate was decreed or enacted without the conſent of the three ſtates of the kingdom, conſiſting of the repreſentatives of the clergy, the nobility, and the repreſentatives of the citizens; but theſe aſſemblies are entirely aboliſhed, and have never been convened ſince the year 1614. The courts in which juſtice is now uſually adminiſtered, are firſt the parliaments, which are the laſt reſort when the court does not interpoſe. Theſe are at preſent twelve, namely, thoſe of Paris, Toulouſe, Rouen, Grenoble, Bourdeaux, Dijon, Aix, Rennes, Pau, Metz, Beſançon, and Douay. They principally conſiſt of a certain number of preſidents and inferior judges, who purchaſe their places either of the crown, or of thoſe who are in poſſeſſion of them: for all magiſtrates and officers of juſtice in France openly purchaſe their places, and the government makes a conſiderable revenue by theſe ſales. They enjoy their poſts for life, except they have been guilty of ſome crime in the exerciſe of their offices. The parliament of Paris is the moſt conſiderable in the kingdom, for hither the king frequently comes in perſon, and here the royal edicts are recorded and promulged; till when they have not the force of laws. It is compoſed of the princes of the blood, dukes, and peers of France, beſides the ordinary judges, and takes cognizance of all offences committed by peers, where the court does not interfere.

This parliament conſiſts of ten chief preſidents, ſome honorary counſellors, or judges, four maſters of the requeſts of the houſhold, twenty-one preſidents *a mortier*, ſo called from the form of their caps, and of two hundred and thirty-two other counſellors or judges; an attorney-general, advocates, ſollicitors general, regiſters, notaries, ſecretaries, &c. Theſe members are diſtributed into the grand chamber, five chambers of enqueſts, and two of requeſts. Beſides theſe eight chambers there is another called the *tournelle*, which takes cognizance of criminal matters, in which the nobility are not concerned; for they are tried in the grand chamber. In the chambers of enqueſts depoſitions of witneſſes are taken, and the proceedings are by way of bill and anſwer, as in the court of chancery in England; and the chamber of requeſts takes cognizance of cauſes relating to privileged perſons. On days of ceremony the preſidents of parliament wear a ſcarlet robe with a mantle lined with ermine, and a black velvet cap in the form of a mortar, bordered with gold lace; that of the chief preſidents being diſtinguiſhed by a double gold lace. The honorary counſellors, the maſters of requeſts, the preſidents of enqueſts and requeſts, the attorneys, and ſollicitors-general have ſcarlet robes, and caps bordered with ermines. The chief regiſter for civil cauſes has a ſcarlet robe and mantle lined with ermines. The chief regiſter for criminal cauſes, the four notaries, and the clerks or ſecretaries of parliament have alſo ſcarlet robes, and caps lined with ermines. The advocates have black gowns and caps, and all the reſt of the officers have only black gowns.

The great officers of the crown are the chancellor, who preſides in all courts and councils of ſtate in the king's abſence; the keeper of the ſeals, four ſecretaries of ſtate, the marſhals of France, the colonel-general of the horſe, the great maſter of the artillery, the admiral of France, two vice-admirals, the general of the galleys, the four great officers of the order of the Holy Ghoſt, namely the chancellor, the maſter of the ceremonies, the great treaſurer, and the ſecretary; the chief preſidents of the ſeveral parliaments, with the governors and lieutenant-generals of the provinces.

The principal officers of the houſhold are, the great maſter of the houſhold, the great maſter of the horſe, the great almoner, the great chamberlain, the gentlemen of the bed-chamber, the great butler, the great huntſman, the four captains of the guard du corps, and the great porter.

The great councils by which all affairs of ſtate are governed are ſeven in number.

I. The ſupreme council of ſtate, in which, beſides the king and prime-miniſter, when there is one, it is compoſed of the three ſecretaries of ſtate, and the comptroller-general of the finances.

II. The ſecretary of ſtate's office, in which, beſides the king, the dauphin, and prime-miniſter, ſit the chancellor, the preſident of the council of finances, the four ſecretaries of ſtate, and the comptroller-general of the finances. Here all affairs of the provinces are tranſacted; commiſſions, letters, and orders ſent to the governors and other officers of the ſeveral provinces and cities. The ſecretaries of ſtate make the motion, and every one expedites the reſolutions taken on the articles of his department; the foreign and domeſtic affairs of ſtate being divided among the members.

III. The council of finances, beſides the king and chancellor, conſiſts of a preſident, one of the ſix intendants of the finances, a member of the council of ſtate, and the comptroller-general of the finances. This council has the direction of the royal revenues.

IV. The privy-council is convened by the chancellor on ſuch days as he pleaſes. In the king's abſence there is always a chair ſet for him. This council at preſent conſiſts of the chancellor, or keeper of the great ſeal, twenty-one ordinary counſellors of ſtate, the ſecretaries of ſtate, the comptroller-general of the finances, the intendants of the finances, who are all ordinary members, and twelve ſtate counſellors, who officiate only half yearly. The ordinary ſtate-counſellors have each a ſalary of five thouſand five hundred livres, the half yearly three thouſand three hundred. In this council alſo aſſiſt twenty-two maſters of requeſts, who belong alſo to the parliament, and lay before it any affairs committed by them.

V. The grand council, which has the deciſion of all cauſes relating to archbiſhoprics, biſhoprics, and abbies; and has alſo the power of determining all diſputes of the other ſovereign tribunals, in matters of juriſdiction and other conteſts. The preſident is the chancellor of France, aſſiſted by ſeveral preſidents, counſellors, and other officers.

VI. The high court of chancery conſiſts of the keeper of the great ſeal, who is frequently the ſame with the chancellor of France; of four grand audienciers, who peruſe papers ſent from the ſecretary of ſtate's office to be ſealed, and make report to the chancellor; of four comptrollers-general of the audience, who give the papers allowed to be ſealed to an officer called chauff-cire, or chaff-wax, and receive them back from him; and four keepers of the rolls of the offices of France, who keep the regiſters of all the officers that require the great ſeal, with ſeveral clerks and other officers.

VII. The council of commerce, the members of which, beſides the king and prime-miniſter, are the chancellor, two ſecretaries of ſtate, and the comptroller-general of the finances.

Juſtice is adminiſtered in the kingdom by inferior, middle, and ſuperior courts: to the inferior courts belong the prevotes, mayors, judicatures, chatellanies, and other juriſdictions dependent on the crown, or particular lordſhips. From theſe appeals lie to the bailiwics, or precinct courts, and from theſe again to the provincial courts. The middle tribunals pronounce definitively in certain ſmall caſes both civil and criminal; but the more important caſes are cognizable only by the parliament, which decides cauſes in the laſt reſort.

With reſpect to the laws by which juſtice is adminiſtered, the civil law prevails in many of the provinces; while others have their own cuſtomary laws. Thoſe of principal note among the latter are about ſixty; but, including the juridical cuſtoms of ſingle places, they make about two hundred and eighty-five. Beſides theſe, there are ordinances, edicts, and declarations, which are of univerſal force. In 1666, under Lewis XIV. the civil and criminal proceſſes were amended, and reduced to a general uniformity.

A ſtrict diſtinction is made in France between the canonical and papal eccleſiaſtical law; and by the obligatory canons, or church ordinances, are only underſtood thoſe canons of the firſt ages of Chriſtianity, and the œcumenical councils, that have been confirmed by the conſent of the churches bound by them, which could not be tranſacted without the approbation of the civil power. Thus the interpolated decretals of the ſee of Rome are

abſolutely excluded. The king's ordinances iſſued for the protection of the liberties of the Gallican church, conſtitute the moſt conſiderable part of the eccleſiaſtical law.

The revenues of the king are both ordinary and extraordinary. The ordinary revenues comprehend the domains, which conſiſt in lands, lordſhips, and foreſts: the aids or duty on wines, which are the twentieth part of the wine ſold by wholeſale, and the eighth or tenth of that retailed: the gabelle, or ſalt-duty, which is here extremely high. The province of great ſalt-duty contains the departments of Alençon, Amiens, Angers, Bourges, Caen, Chalons, Langres, Laval, Mans, Moulins, Orleans, Paris, Rouen, St. Quentin, Soiſſons, and Tours; in all which ſalt is ſold at a high rate. The province of the ſmall ſalt-duty includes the departments of Lyonnois, Dauphiné, Provence, Languedoc, Rouſſillon, Rouergue, and Auvergne, in which ſalt pays a much lower duty. The provinces where the ſalt-duty does not take place are Poitou, Limouſin, Guienne, Gaſcony, and Brittany. In the three biſhoprics of Metz, Toul, and Verdun, and in French Compté, the price of ſalt is different. The other duties are the taille, or land-tax, the capitation, or poll-tax; the cuſtoms of all kinds, the duty on ſtamped paper, &c.

With reſpect to the cuſtoms, wine-licenſe, ſalt and ſtamp-duty, tobacco, poſts, &c. they are farmed out to the farmers-general, who have their under farmers and receivers. The great officer for levying the taxes is the comptroller-general, who keeps a duplicate of all receipts and diſcharges relative to the royal revenue.

The extraordinary impoſitions are of what number and kind the king pleaſes. Among theſe is the augmentation of the tax for the ſupport of the army, the taillon, the tenth or twentieth part of the revenue of the whole kingdom in lands, houſes, offices, &c. and the erection and ſale of new offices.

The ambition and extenſive views of France, with its various wars, have neceſſarily burthened the ſubjects with enormous taxes and impoſitions; and theſe being aggravated by the rapacity of the financiers and farmers, the people have often been reduced to the laſt extremity of wretchedneſs, from which, without the many reſources nature and induſtry have put into their hands, they could never have recovered.

The number of people in France in the reign of Lewis XIV. were computed at twenty millions; but the perſecution and expulſion of the Proteſtants, with the many wars in which the French have been engaged, have probably reduced the number to fifteen millions; for the celibacy of the prieſts, and the numerous convents, muſt ever prevent their increaſe, ſo as to ſupply the deficiencies made by the ravages of war.

The ordinary revenues of the crown, ariſing from the above taxes, amount to about ten millions ſterling. An amazing ſum, conſidering the lands belonging to the church, and what is payed to ſupport the clergy; and the many thouſand drones who, ſhut up in convents, are ſupported by the labour of others.

The land forces of France amount in time of peace to about two hundred thouſand men, among which are a great number of Swiſs, Germans, and other foreigners; and in time of war they are frequently augmented to four hundred thouſand. The number of fortreſſes belonging to the kingdom is very great, and exact plans of them, as alſo of the foreign fortreſſes, to the number of a hundred and eighty, may be ſeen in the gallery of the Louvre, where there is a royal academy for training up young gentlemen in the ſeveral branches of the art of war. Beſides the magnificent building of the invalids in the capital, where diſabled ſeamen are admitted, there are in the whole kingdom above ſeventy other military hoſpitals.

The navy of France is alſo very conſiderable. Claſſes are inſtituted throughout all the maritime provinces, where the ſea-officers and ſailors, and others belonging to the navy, reſide. Each claſs ſerves three or four years alternately, and thoſe who are not in actual ſervice on board the king's ſhips, may enter on board thoſe of the merchants. In the beginning of the late war, France had a hundred and eleven men of war. Beſides the ſailors, there are three companies of marine guards ſtationed at Toulon, Breſt, and Rochfort, conſiſting entirely of perſons verſed in navigation, and the art of war. Another company has been erected under the title of guards of the admiral's flag, who always attend the admirals, and ſerve only on board flag ſhips. Theſe are choſen out of the marine guards juſt mentioned. The king alſo maintains one hundred independent companies for the ſea, each conſiſting of forty-five men, under the command of a lieutenant of a man of war.

France is now divided into thirty-ſix generalities, or general governments, in deſcribing which we ſhall begin at the ſouth-eaſt of this extenſive country.

SECT. IV.

Of the Situation, Extent, Climate, Produce, and Rivers of Provence; with a Deſcription of its principal Cities, particularly Aix, Arles, Marſeilles, Toulon, the Iſlands of Hieres, and the little State of Avignon ſubject to the Pope.

PROVENCE, which derives its name from the Latin Provincia, is bounded on the north by Dauphiné; on the eaſt by the Alps and the river Var, which divide it from the territories belonging to the king of Sardinia; on the ſouth by the Mediterranean; and on the weſt is ſeparated from Languedoc by the Rhone. Its utmoſt length is about a hundred and forty miles, and its breadth from the iſles of Hieres to the village of Sauze about ninety.

Upper Provence enjoys a pretty temperate air, and has a great deal of meadow ground, well ſtocked with cattle. It alſo produces corn, apples, and pears, though but little wine. On the contrary, Lower Provence is extremely hot, and near the ſea-coaſt would be much more ſo, were not the air refreſhed by a breeze, which uſually laſts from nine or ten in the morning till evening. The north-weſt wind alſo cools the country, and ſometimes, particularly after rains, blows freſh. Lower Provence does not produce half corn enough for the ſubſiſtence of its inhabitants; but the ſoil being dry and ſandy, oranges, lemons, pomegranates, and olives; with maſtich, cypreſs, palm, and the African acacia-trees, thrive extremely; as do alſo ſhrubs of all kinds, ſuch as bruc, which reſembles box, only the leaves are longer and more pointed, bearing a red fruit, which continues on all the year round, and by a peculiar ſingularity proceeds out of the middle of the leaf. The ſea-cherry-tree has a leaf like the alkermes, and its fruit reſembles a cherry. The wine in Lower Provence is thick, luſcious, and heady; but the ſort moſt admired is muſcadel.

In this part of France is the beccafigo, a ſmall delicious bird, that feeds only on grapes and figs; and among the ſea-fiſh here is a remarkable kind called the date, which is ſo named from the reſemblance of its ſhape to that fruit, and is found within hollow ſtones in the road and harbour of Toulon. In order to get them out, the ſtone muſt be broke; they alſo abound along the coaſt of the marquiſate of Ancona, on the Adriatic. In this province are ſome quarries of black agate.

The rivers here are inconſiderable; theſe are the Durance, the Sourge, the Largens, and the Var, which divides France from Italy. Along the coaſt of the Mediterranean are ſeveral capes, bays, and harbours; the principal of which is Toulon.

Authors have variouſly divided this province; ſome French geographers divide it into two parts, ſome into three, and others into ſixteen; we ſhall take that which is the moſt natural and leaſt liable to perplex the reader, by dividing it into Upper and Lower Provence, and ſhall begin with the latter, the principal places in which are the following:

Aix, in Latin Aquæ Sextiæ, called Aquæ from its baths, and Sextiæ from its being enlarged and beautified by Sextus Calvinus. This city, which is the capital of Provence, ſtands in a valley of conſiderable extent planted chiefly with olives, in the latitude of forty-five degrees fifty four minutes, and in ſix degrees ten minutes eaſt longitude, twenty miles to the northward of Marſeilles, and thirty-five to the ſouth-eaſt of Avignon. It is rather populous than large; the ſtreets are well paved, and the houſes

houſes handſome, and moſt of them built of free-ſtone: there is a beautiful ſpacious walk within the city called Orbitelle, conſiſting of three rows of trees a mile long, interſperſed with fountains, and on each ſide are elegant uniform buildings: this is the uſual walk of the citizens. This city is the ſee of an archbiſhop, who enjoys a revenue of thirty-two thouſand livres, out of which he pays to the court of Rome two thouſand five hundred florins. In the cathedral is a conſecrated roſe of gold, the preſent of pope Innocent IV. to count Raymond Berenger. In this city are alſo two colleges, with an univerſity founded in 1409, an academy of the polite arts erected in 1668, a public library in the town-houſe, eighteen convents, a palace formerly the reſidence of the counts of Provence, and now of the high bailiff. Here is alſo a mint, and this city is the ſeat of a parliament, of a chamber of accounts, a court of taxes, and many other public offices. The nobility of Provence reſide here, eſpecially in winter, ſo that this city is ſaid to have the moſt agreeable company, next to Paris, of any place in the whole kingdom. In its ſuburbs the warm mineral ſpring, once ſo celebrated, was found a ſecond time in 1704, but its antient virtues are much decayed. The country in its neighbourhood produces excellent wine; but its principal trade conſiſts in its fine oil; ſome ſtuffs are alſo made here.

Arles, the antient Arellas, Arelata, and Arelatum, is a large and well built city, ſeated on the eaſt bank of the Rhone, in the forty-third degree thirty-two minutes north latitude, and in the fourth degree forty-five minutes eaſt longitude, upon very uneven ground, and almoſt ſurrounded by a moraſs, which renders the air thick and unhealthful. Over the Rhone is a wooden bridge, to preſerve the communication with Languedoc. The cathedral is a vaſt Gothic ſtructure, charged with an infinite number of figures, and the high altar is adorned with a tabernacle of ſilver, an admirable piece repreſenting the martyrdom of St. Stephen, to whom the church is dedicated. The archbiſhop ſtyles himſelf prince of Montdragon, has a province of fifty-one pariſhes, and an annual revenue of thirty-three thouſand livres, out of which his taxation to the court of Rome is two thouſand and eight florins. Beſides the cathedral, it contains one collegiate, and ſeven pariſh-churches, with an abbey, fourteen convents, an hoſpital, and a royal academy of ſciences founded in 1688. The town-houſe is an elegant regular ſtructure, finely ſituated. It is of a ſquare form, adorned with three orders of architecture, one above another; the portico is magnificent, and embelliſhed with the buſts of the counts of Provence, and the roof ſupported by twenty double columns.

Arles was antiently the capital of the kingdom of Burgundy, which was alſo called the kingdom of Arles, and the diſtrict belonging to this city is ſtill very extenſive. Several councils have been held here, the moſt antient and diſtinguiſhed of which was in 1314.

Among the numerous Roman antiquities to be found at Arles is a large obeliſk of porphyry, which was dug up here in the year 1675, and in 1676 ſet up again and dedicated to Lewis XIV. It is of one entire ſtone, fifty-two feet high, and ſeven feet in diameter at the baſe. On the top is placed an azure globe, ſtrewed with golden lilies, and a ſun, which was that prince's device; but its new plain pedeſtal of ſand-ſtone ill agrees with the valuable monument above.

There are alſo the ruins of an amphitheatre, ſuppoſed to have been built by Julius Cæſar; it is of an oval form, and a hundred and ninety-four fathoms in circumference, the longeſt diameter of the area ſeventy one fathoms, and the ſhorteſt fifty-two. The porticos are three ſtories high, built of free-ſtone of a prodigious ſize; each ſtory contains ſixty arches, which ſtill remain, and the walls are of a ſurpriſing thickneſs, but very much decayed. However, this fine monument of antiquity is almoſt entirely concealed by the private houſes built about it. There is here alſo the fragment of a circus, conſiſting of a door, with two columns of marble of the Corinthian order; the remains of a Roman capitol erected here, and a large collection of Roman ſepulchral monuments, urns, and the like, kept in the archbiſhop's palace; among which is an urn of very extraordinary dimenſions, it containing above twenty gallons.

Near the city is what they call the Elyſian Fields, and there the Romans uſed to bury the aſhes of their dead. Accordingly there are here ſeen an incredible number of ſtone and marble ſarcophagi, ſome ſtanding half, and ſome entirely out of the ground. Theſe fields afterwards became a Chriſtian cemetery. The ſpot on which they ſtand may be called a mine of antiquities.

Near the city the Rhone divides itſelf into two large branches, forming the iſland of Camargue, called in Latin Camaria, which is one of the beſt and moſt fruitful tracts in this country, it being interſected with ſeveral canals.

Marſeilles, in Latin Maſſalia, and Maſſilia, the ſecond city of Provence, but the firſt in point of trade, is large, rich, and the moſt ancient place in all this province, and is ſaid to have been a town five hundred years before the birth of Chriſt. It is ſeated at the foot of a rocky mountain near the ſea, in forty-three degrees eighteen minutes north latitude, and in five degrees twenty-ſeven minutes longitude, twenty miles to the ſouth of Aix, and thirty to the north-weſt of Toulon. It is divided into the Old and New Town: the former ſtands on an eminence, and conſiſts of narrow crooked ſtreets, with mean houſes; but in the latter the ſtreets are ſtraight and broad, and adorned with handſome edifices. The Walk is a very fine ſtreet, with beautiful houſes on each ſide, and in the middle two rows of lofty trees, which form a fine viſta; and there are here a number of benches for reſting places. This city is the reſidence of a high bailiff, and has a biſhop, ſuffragan to the archbiſhop of Arles, who has a dioceſe containing thirty-ſix pariſhes, with an annual revenue of thirty thouſand livres, and his taxation at Rome is ſeven hundred florins. This city has alſo a mint, with four pariſh churches, including the cathedral, which is ſaid to have been a temple of Diana, and the moſt ancient in France, and two collegiate ones, with two abbies, an academy of the polite arts, and an obſervatory. This city alſo contains a large arſenal, well ſtored with materials for fitting out the king's gallies. The large armoury, which conſiſts of four walks croſswiſe, and is eſteemed the fineſt in the whole kingdom, contains arms for forty thouſand men. In the arſenal is a dock for building the galleys, which is roofed over, and has a communication with the harbour, which is in the form of a parallelogram, and has public and private buildings on the two long ſides, and on one of the ſhorter. The other, which opens into the Mediterranean, is defended on each point by a fine ſtrong fort. The entrance into the harbour, on account of a rocky cape near it, is difficult, and has not a depth of water ſufficient for men of war.

On the land-ſide is one of the moſt beautiful plains in the world, in which there are ſaid to be no leſs than eight hundred country-ſeats of the citizens with their gardens and vineyards, whither they retire from the noiſe of the town, which is very diſagreeable from the multitude of ſlaves in the ſtreets rattling their chains, ſome of whom ſerve as porters, and others have little ſhops and huts, where they are allowed to work at their trades.

Gold and ſilver ſtuffs are made here, and almoſt all the trade of France with Spain and Italy is carried on by Marſeilles, which is alſo the center of the commerce of the Levant. To Italy the inhabitants export cloths, ſerges, honey, figs, prunes, olives, capers, freſh eels, a ſpecies of ſmall ſardines, oil, ſail-cloth, aqua vitæ, cotton waiſtcoats, ſtockings, &c. and the returns are made in ſilk, hemp, ſulphur, manna, aniſe, corn, and rice. To Spain they export all kinds of linen, ſilk, wool, gold and ſilver ſtuffs, gold, ſilver, and thread lace, with ſeveral home and Levant commodities; and their trade in ſilk to Conſtantinople, Smyrna, Athens, Candia, the Archipelago, Tripoli, and Alexandria, is very conſiderable. In the year 1720, this city was viſited by a moſt dreadful peſtilence, which raged till 1722.

Toulon, a pretty large city, ſeated in a bottom, almoſt encompaſſed with hills on the land-ſide, and on a bay of the Mediterranean, which forms a ſecure and commo-

dious harbour, in the latitude of forty-three degrees five minutes, and in the ſixth degree two minutes eaſt longitude; near four hundred miles ſouth-eaſt of Paris. It is defended by very ſtrong fortifications towards the land-ſide, and the new part of the town is very handſome. The biſhop of this city is ſubject to the archbiſhop of Arles, under whom he has a dioceſe of twenty-five pariſhes, with an annual revenue of fifteen thouſand livres, out of which his taxation at the court of Rome is four hundred florins. Beſides the cathedral, it has nine convents, a ſeminary, and a college, under the direction of the fathers of the Oratory, and the Jeſuits had here a very fine houſe. The old and new harbour lie contiguous, and by means of a canal you paſs from one to the other, both having an outlet into the ſpacious outer harbour, which is ſurrounded with hills, and formed by nature almoſt circular. Its circuit is of very great extent, and at the entrance on both ſides is defended by a fort with ſtrong batteries. The new harbour, which was made by order of Lewis XIV. is alſo well defended by batteries, and round it ſtands the arſenal, where every man of war has its own particular ſtore-houſe; but the guns and cordage are laid up ſeparate. In it are alſo ſpacious work-houſes for blackſmiths, joyners, carpenters, lock-ſmiths, carvers, &c. The rope-houſe, which is built entirely of free-ſtone, is ſix hundred and forty yards in length, with three arched walks, in which as many parties of rope-makers may work at the ſame time. The general magazine, which ſupplies whatever may be wanting in the particular ſtorehouſes for ſingle ſhips, contains an immenſe quantity of all kinds of ſtores, diſpoſed in the greateſt order. The cannon foundery is alſo worth viewing.

In the year 1707, the duke of Savoy laid ſiege to this city, but without ſucceſs; and in 1721, it ſuffered greatly by the plague. The inhabitants make a kind of coarſe woollen cloth, and its neighbourhood abounds in capers.

Hieres, the ancient Areæ, a ſmall town, formerly much more conſiderable than at preſent; it having once an harbour where pilgrims uſed to embark for the Holy Land. This town has a diſtrict court, and ſeveral public offices; it alſo contains one collegiate, with two other pariſh churches, and five monaſteries and nunneries. The ſoil is excellent, and being laid out in orchards, produces the fineſt fruit in France. A great deal of ſalt is made here, both from ſea-water and a large ſalt lake; but the air was unwholeſome, till this inconvenience was remedied by forming a canal, which extends from the lake to the ſea.

This town gives name to the iſlands of Hieres, which lie in the neighbouring ſea; and in conjunction with the continent, form a fine road. Theſe iſlands are three in number. The principal, which lies neareſt the town is Porqueroles, ſo called from the great number of wild hogs, which ſwim over hither from the continent, for the ſake of the acorns, abundance of oaks growing here. It is four French leagues in length, one in breadth, and is defended by an old caſtle. The ſecond is Portecroz, that being the name of the harbour where a fort is built. The third is called Titan, or Levant, from its ſituation to the eaſtward of the former; but though it is four French leagues in length and one broad, it is uninhabited. On theſe iſlands are ſaid to be found the moſt curious medicinal plants of all the ſpecies that grow in Italy, Spain, Greece, and Egypt.

Frejus, the ancient Forum Julii, is a fortified city ſeated on the river Argent, at the diſtance of a mile and a half from the ſea, and thirty-ſix miles to the north-eaſt of Toulon. It has a court of admiralty, and is the ſee of a biſhop, ſuffragan to the archbiſhop of Aix, and has within his dioceſe eighty-eight pariſhes, with a yearly revenue of twenty-eight thouſand livres, out of which he is taxed one thouſand florins at the court of Rome. This city contains four convents. Among the remains of Roman antiquities, there are here an aqueduct of conſiderable length, and an amphitheatre.

The principal place in Upper Provence is Siſteron, a city that has a ſmall citadel, ſeated at the foot of a rock on the Durance, thirty miles to the ſouth-weſt of Embrun, and is the ſee of a biſhop, ſuffragan to the archbiſhop of Aix, who has ſixty-four pariſhes, and a revenue of fifteen thouſand livres per annum, and his taxation at the court of Rome is eight hundred florins. Here is a cathedral and five convents, and on the other ſide of the river is a pretty large ſuburb called La Baune, which contains one pariſh church, and one convent.

Though the ſtate of Avignon belongs to the pope, yet the greateſt part is ſurrounded by Provence; and as the natives of Avignon enjoy the privileges of natives of France, it is proper to give that country in this place. The country we are now to deſcribe is very delightful, and particularly abounds in corn, wine, and ſaffron. It is ſubject to few taxes, and pays only the tenth of its produce; ſo that the annual expence of the vice-legate, and the militia, exceed the income ariſing from it to the court of Rome. The French farmers-general have, by means of a ſum of money, obtained the monopoly of ſalt and tobacco in this country, though that trade is ſtill carried on in the pope's name.

Avignon, in Latin Avenis, is ſituated on the river Rhone, about twenty miles to the north of Arles, and is ſurrounded with a wall of fine free-ſtone; but has little trade, eſpecially ſince the manufacture of printed linen, which afforded a comfortable ſubſiſtence to great numbers of the inhabitants, was ſuppreſſed in favour of the French Eaſt-India company, who purchaſed this prohibition of the pope by paying him a conſiderable ſum. The vice-legate, as governor, uſually reſides in the papal palace, which is a large ſtructure of free-ſtone, encompaſſed with moats; but is far from being a regular edifice. The arſenal is a long lofty building, but without any other fire arms than what are juſt neceſſary to be diſcharged on public rejoicings. The upper court of the vice-legate is called the Rota, and has a right of appeal to Rome. The cathedral, which ſtands on the ſame eminence with the palace, is not very large. In two chapels are to be ſeen the monuments of pope Benedict XII. and John XXII. and alſo the chair or throne of the ancient popes, during their reſidence here. In the church of the Celeſtines, are fine paintings of the pretended miracles performed by cardinal Peter of Luxemburg, to whom the church is dedicated. In this church is alſo a ſplendid chapel, and a monument in it erected in honour of ſome ſhepherds, who are ſaid to have built the ſtone-bridge here over the Rhone. In the church of the Franciſcans, is the tomb of the beautiful and learned Laura, immortaliſed by the poetry and paſſion of the celebrated Petrarch. In this town are two ſocieties of Jeſuits, to one of which belongs a fine college, with an univerſity founded in 1303. The popes reſided here from the year 1305 to 1377. In this city the Jews enjoy the free exerciſe of their religion.

SECT. V.

Of the Province of Dauphiné; its Situation, Extent, Produce, and Singularities; its Medicinal Springs, Rivers, and Principal Cities, particularly Grenoble, Ambrun, Vienne, and Valence.

THE province of Dauphiné is bounded on the north by the country of Breſſe and the river Rhone; on the eaſt it is ſeparated from Piedmont by the Alps and Savoy; on the ſouth it borders on Provence; and on the weſt on the Rhone. It is nearly of a triangular form, and each ſide of the triangle is about an hundred Engliſh miles in length.

Lower Dauphiné produces corn, wine, olives, ſilk, hemp, ſalt, wood, vitriol, cryſtal, iron, copper, and lead; but Upper Dauphiné, and indeed above two thirds of the whole province, being very mountainous, are ſo barren, that great numbers of the natives ſeek for ſubſiſtence in other parts; yet theſe mountains have ſome uſeful products, and contain many curioſities. In thoſe of Ambrun and Die, are found marcaſites. The golden mountain, as it is called, yields a ſpecies of cryſtal. Several mountains are covered with larch-trees, on the rind of which is gathered manna, benjamin of a delightful fragrance

fragrance, and agaric, which is uſed in phyſic and ſcarlet dyes. Theſe mountains abound in beaſts that are not found in any other part of France, particularly the chamois, bear, and marmot, which have been already deſcribed, pheaſants, hawks, eagles, &c.

Ancient hiſtorians and modern geographers give very pompous deſcriptions of the wonders of Dauphiné, which ſome repreſent as ſeven and others more. The firſt is the burning ſpring, on a hill nine miles from Grenoble. It is a little brook, which iſſues from a ſoil emitting ſmoke, and even ſmall flames have been ſometimes perceived in it, which communicated heat to the water; but for theſe two centuries paſt, this rivulet has altered its courſe to the diſtance of twelve feet from that igneous ſoil, and is now as cold as common water. The ſecond is the tower without venom, about a league from Grenoble, it being pretended that no venomous creature will ſtay in it; but this is a notorious miſtake, it being known to ſwarm with adders and ſpiders. The third is the inacceſſible mountain, which is a ſteep craggy rock, ſituated on a very high mountain, about two leagues from Die. But though it is extremely difficult to climb up to the top of it, this has been frequently done. The fourth is the caves of Saſſanage, which are two excavated ſtones, that lie in a grotto above a village of that name. The country-people relate, that annually on the ſixth of January they become full of water, and that the quantity of it in one of theſe ſtones, foretels whether they ſhall have a good or bad winter, and the other prognoſticates whether they ſhall have a good or bad harveſt of corn. For ſeveral centuries paſt this ſtory has been kept up by the artifices of ſome of the inhabitants, who themſelves take care to fill the ſtones with water.

There are ſeveral other ſuppoſed wonders in this province, among which is a water fall in a grotto near the above caves, and the floating meadow in the lake of Pelhotiers; but this ſuppoſed meadow conſiſts merely of graſs and ruſhes cemented, as it were, together, by the ſlime of the water.

The waters of La Mothe in this province, are highly eſteemed, as a certain remedy againſt all diſorders of the ſtomach, fluxes, and even lameneſs, they being much better than the water at Aix, in Savoy. La Mothe is a valley about five leagues from Grenoble, that runs between two high mountains, and enjoys no other proſpect but that of bare and ſteep rocks. The only dwellings here are wretched huts of ſtraw, ſo that the country is in every reſpect diſagreeable. The Drac, a very rapid river, proceeding from the high part of the diſtrict of Gap, is, as it were, ſqueezed in at La Mothe between two high rocks. On its ſhore, at the foot of a very ſteep rock, is the mineral ſpring, which if the river riſes but half a foot, is covered with its turbid water. To come at the ſpring, a perſon muſt clamber half a French league over ſteep rocks and dreadful precipices, which ſeem to threaten the paſſenger with immediate deſtruction; and therefore it is no wonder that theſe excellent waters are but little frequented. There are ſeveral other mineral ſprings in this province.

The principal rivers are the Rhone, the Durance, the Iſere, and the Drome. In this province are two archbiſhopricks, and five biſhoprics. The civil law takes place here; the inhabitants have alſo particular cuſtoms of their own, and likewiſe a parliament, which is alſo a court of taxes, with one provincial court of juſtice, ſeven prefecturates, three bailiwics, four royal juriſdictions, and as many private lordſhips. The governor and lieutenant-general of the province ſit in the parliament, and take place above the chief preſident. The principal places in this province are the following:

Grenoble, in Latin Gratianapolis, the capital of the province, is pleaſantly ſeated at the foot of a mountain on the river Iſere, near the place where the river Drac diſcharges itſelf into it. Here the parliament meets. This city has alſo an intendency, a chamber of accompts, a court of taxes, a mint, and a court of the lord-treaſurer of France. It is a pleaſant populous city, and beſides other fortifications, is defended by a citadel, called the Baſtile. The biſhop of this place is ſuffragan to the archbiſhop of Vienne, and has a revenue of twenty-eight thouſand livres, out of which he pays one thouſand florins to the court of Rome. The river Iſere divides the city into two unequal parts, the ſmalleſt of which is called La Perriere, and contains one pariſh church, and one convent. The name of the largeſt is Bonne; this is the moſt beautiful, it being built with ſtraight handſome ſtreets, and contains ſeveral magnificent public buildings, as the biſhop's palace, the palace in which are held the courts of juſtice, the cathedral, the arſenal, and a general hoſpital.

The grand chartreuſe, the moſt celebrated of all the convents belonging to the order of Carthuſians, is ſeated on the Alps, at the diſtance of three leagues from Grenoble. There are two ways leading to it, but both are carried over ſteep rocks and precipices of a dreadful height, the terror of which is increaſed by the roaring of the river Guyer la Mort, during its precipitate courſe among them. The convent, which ſtands on an eminence reſembling a meadow, is environed with rocks and mountains covered with wood, that riſe to a much greater height. This convent forms a ſpacious oblong ſquare walled in, and without it are a few inns and ſtables. In the large hall of this convent is annually held the general chapter of the order of the Carthuſians, where the German priors take the precedence of all others; and at their arrival may ride into the court of the convent, which none of the reſt are permitted to do; but, like ſtrangers, muſt alight at the gate. In the hall are fine paintings, repreſenting the life of St. Bruno, and likewiſe the pictures of the generals of the order. The former are copies of the admirable paintings in the Chartreuſe at Paris. In a large gallery may be ſeen views of all the Carthuſian convents in Chriſtendom, moſtly executed by eminent hands. The church is not large, but very magnificent; and among other relics it is ſaid to contain the arm of St. Bruno, his body being interred in Calabria. The firſt ſettlement of Bruno and his diſciples was half a league from this place, and it having no particular name, was ſo called from Carthreuſe, a village ſituated near it in a valley, and which is ſtill in being. From the kitchen of this monaſtery above a hundred perſons are daily fed, and among them thirty monks and forty lay-brothers; and all ſtrangers are entertained here gratis. The wine-cellar conſiſts of two lanes lined with caſks of an extraordinary ſize, and which being immoveable, are filled through the roof by means of leather pipes. This convent is the head of the order, and chooſes the general, who is obliged to reſide here during life.

Briançon, the capital of a territory called Brianconois, is ſeated forty-five miles to the ſouth-eaſt of Grenoble, on the ſide of a ſteep rock, on the top of which ſtands a caſtle; near the town the two little rivers of Dure and Ance unite their ſtreams, and thus form the river Durance.

Ambrun, or Embrun, the capital of the territory of Ambrunois, is ſituated on a ſteep rock, at the foot of which runs the river Durance, and is about twenty miles to the ſouth of Briançon. It is a ſtrong place both by art and nature, and is the ſee of an archbiſhop, who ſtyles himſelf prince and count of Ambrun, and baron of Guilleſtre and Beaufort, who has alſo one-half of the lordſhip and juriſdiction of the city. His annual revenue amounts to twenty-two thouſand livres, and his taxation at the court of Rome is two thouſand four hundred florins. The epiſcopal palace is the fineſt building in the city, which, beſides the cathedral, contains five pariſh-churches, with a Capuchin convent, and had lately a college of Jeſuits.

Vienne, in Latin Vienna Allobrogum, the capital of a diſtrict in Lower Dauphiné called Viennois, is a very antient city ſeated on the Rhone, ſeventeen miles to the ſouth of Lyons. It is of pretty large extent; but the ſtreets are narrow and ill paved. The cathedral is a beautiful ſtructure, and in it are three chapters. Here is alſo a priory, nine convents, one ſeminary, and there was till lately a college of Jeſuits. The church of Notre Dame de la Vie is ſaid to have been a Roman prætorium. The archbiſhop of this place enjoys the title of upper primate of Gaul, and his annual revenue amounts to twenty-two thouſand livres, out of which he is taxed eighteen hundred and fifty-four florins at the court of Rome. In this city are made anchors and ſword-blades, with other manufactures in iron and ſteel, and alſo paper-mills.

Valence, in Latin Valentia, the capital of a diſtrict

called Valentinois, is ſeated on the Rhone, forty-eight miles to the ſouth of Lyons, and is pretty well built: it is large, and one of the moſt antient cities in France, having been formerly a Roman colony. The biſhop is ſubject to the archbiſhop of Vienne, and has an annual revenue of ſixteen thouſand livres, out of which his taxation to the court of Rome is two thouſand three hundred and eighty-nine florins. The epiſcopal palace is a fine building: beſides the cathedral, it contains one chapter, and three abbies; with ſix convents, and an univerſity.

SECT. VI.

Of the Situation, Extent, Produce, and principal Rivers of Franche Comté; with a Deſcription of Beſançon, Salines, Dole, and Gray.

THE earldom of Burgundy, or Franche Comté, is bounded on the north by Lorrain; on the eaſt by the earldom of Mumpelgard and Swiſſerland; and on the ſouth and weſt by the government of Burgundy and Champagne. Its extent from ſouth to north is about ninety miles, and from the ſouth-eaſt to the north-weſt ſixty. Almoſt one-half of it is a level country abounding in corn, wine, paſtures, hemp, &c. and the other half is mountainous, but produces a good breed of cattle, and ſome corn and wine.

This country contains mines of copper, iron, lead, and ſilver. Near the village of Touillon is a ſpring that runs and ceaſes at ſtated times, and the town of Salines has profitable ſalt-ſprings and marſhes. In this diſtrict are likewiſe quarries of alabaſter and marble; and alſo near the river Doux is a large grotto in which nature has formed pillars, and a ſurpriſing variety of figures; and near Leugne is a natural cavern of ice, which freezes in ſummer and thaws in winter.

The principal rivers of this province are the Saone, the Ougnon, the Doux, the Louve, and the Dain.

Franche Comté has a parliament of its own; it is ſubject to a governor, lieutenant-general, and ſub-governor; and is divided into four large diſtricts, the principal places in which are the following:

Breſançon, in Latin Veſontio, and Beſontium, the capital of the country, is a hundred and ſixty miles to the ſouth-eaſt of Paris, and is the ſeat of an archbiſhopric, a parliament, an intendency, a bailiwic, a country and a mint-court, &c. It is divided by the river Doux into the Upper or Old Town, and the Lower or New Town, and is ſurrounded by a wall and other fortifications: it is alſo defended by a citadel that ſtands on a ſteep rock, and is an oblong ſquare, flanked with four irregular baſtions, the ground being too uneven to admit of regular works. Till the peace of Weſtphalia it was an imperial city, but at that time was transferred to Spain: it was afterwards taken by France, and its fortifications were greatly ſtrengthened by Lewis XIV. The cathedral, which is dedicated to St. John, ſtands at the foot of Mount St. Stephen; and the archbiſhop, who ſtyles himſelf a prince of the empire, has three ſuffragans under him, with a revenue of thirty-ſix thouſand livres, out of which he pays a thouſand and twenty-three florins to the court of Rome. The city alſo contains two chapters, eight pariſh-churches, two abbies of monks, and two of nuns, twelve convents, one univerſity, three hoſpitals, and had a college of Jeſuits. The town-houſe, the governor's palace, and that of Granville, are the moſt remarkable buildings in the place; the laſt of which is furniſhed with a great variety of excellent ſtatues and pictures, and a library containing a great number of valuable books and manuſcripts. In the neighbourhood of Beſançon are the ruins of an amphitheatre, a hundred and twenty feet in diameter, and of ſome pagan temples, with a triumphal arch dedicated to the emperor Aurelian.

Salines, in Latin Salinæ, ſo called from an excellent ſalt-ſpring which yields the crown a great revenue, is pleaſantly ſituated on a rivulet in a valley between two mountains, twenty miles to the ſouth of Beſançon, and two hundred to the ſouth-eaſt of Paris. It is a long town, chiefly conſiſting of one ſtreet, and has four chapters, four pariſh-churches, ten convents, one college, and one hoſpital. The hall, in which they have their magazine of ſalt, and where their courts of juſtice are held, is a magnificent building. The town is defended by a wall, and near it ſtands Fort Belin, which is ſeated on a hill, and on another is Fort Brecon, and a caſtle. It contains five or ſix thouſand inhabitants, and in its neighbourhood are quarries of jaſper, beautiful alabaſter, and black marble.

Dole, a town ſeated on the river Doux, eighteen miles to the ſouth-weſt of Beſançon, in a diſtrict of the ſame name, which, from its beauty and fertility, is ſtyled Val d'Amours, or the Vale of Love, was formerly, while Beſançon continued a free imperial city, the capital of the country, the ſeat of a parliament, of a chamber of accounts, and of an univerſity. On its being taken by Lewis XIV. in 1668, he cauſed the fortifications to be demoliſhed; it was afterwards taken by the Spaniards, who fortified it again; but the French retaking it in 1674, it was a ſecond time diſmantled, and the parliament and univerſity afterwards removed to Beſançon; but the chamber of accompts ſtill remains here. It is ſtill a pretty town, the ſtreets are ſpacious, and the houſes tolerably well built. The publick edifices moſt worthy of notice are the church of Our Lady, the Jeſuits college, and the palace where their parliament was held. It has alſo one chapter, eleven convents of both ſexes, and an hoſpital. The inhabitants are ſaid to amount to between four and five thouſand. Here are ſtill the remains of ſeveral Roman antiquities, particularly of two aqueducts.

Gray, in Latin Gradicum, is a pretty trading town ſeated on the Saone, about ten miles to the north-weſt of Beſançon, and was well fortified, till taken by Lewis XIV. in 1668, who demoliſhed the works. It contains but one pariſh-church, a collegiate church, five convents, and had a college of Jeſuits. The inhabitants are computed to amount to about four thouſand. Here they embark great quantities of corn, iron, and other merchandize, which they tranſport to Lyons.

SECT. VII.

The Situation, Extent, Produce, and Mountains of Alſace. The Inundations of the Rhine; with the Gold Duſt and beautiful Pebbles found in that River. Of the other Rivers of Alſace. The Number of its Inhabitants; the Manner in which that Country became ſubject to France; with a Deſcription of Straſburg, and the other principal Cities of Alſace.

ALSACE terminates to the ſouthward on Swiſſerland and the Franche Comté, to the eaſtward on Ortenau and Briſgau, to the northward on the Palatinate, and to the weſtward on Lorrain, extending from north to ſouth about eighty-five miles. The country in general is very pleaſant, and abounds in all kinds of grain, fruit, eſculent vegetables, flax, tobacco, and wood: its wine is very palatable, and its paſtures are alſo rich. The country between the rivers Ill, the Haardt, and the Rhine, is narrow and but indifferently fertile; but has ſome vineyards and a few paſtures: here rye, barley, and oats, are the only grain; but that partwhich lies between the mountains, the Ill, and the plain of Soults, in Upper Alſace, to the diſtahce of ſix miles beyond Hagenau, yields an exuberance of grain, wine, and paſtures. The mountains abound in wood, and, though they produce but little corn, they feed large herds of cattle. The country from Mount Saverne, and the levels about Straſburg to the Rhine, is incomparably fertile and delightful, it being rich in all kinds of grain, tobacco, culinary vegetables, ſaffron, and hemp.

The chief chain of mountains in this country is the Waſgau, in French the Voſge. This chain begins in the neighbourhood of Langres, and extending at firſt from weſt to eaſt ſeparates the country of Burgundy from Lorrain. After this, winding towards the north, it ſeparates Lorrain from Alſace, and forms another curve towards the electorate of Triers. The ſummits and valleys of this chain, as well as the plains of Alſace, according to Buſching, produce a hundred and fifty kinds of trees and ſhrubs, and fifteen hundred and fifty ſpecies of herbs, which all grow wild. This chain has alſo ſome excellent paſtures, and the eminences, where the ſoil is favoured

with a ſunny expoſure, produce very agreeable red and white wine, of which a great deal of brandy, vinegar, and tartar is made. This chain of mountains has alſo for theſe ſeveral centuries been famous for its mines of ſilver, copper, and lead; ſeveral parts alſo abound in iron, antimony, cobalt, ſulphur, and other minerals. It is alſo obſervable, that theſe mountains are thick ſet with an uncommon number of churches, convents, and chapels.

The Rhine, which ſerves as a ſecurity to this country, frequently cauſes terrible devaſtations, not only in winter, but in the midſt of ſummer, when the ſnow melts on the Alps. Its inundations then ruin the fields, by covering them with ſand. The violent torrents of the Rhine, which generally happen every year, frequently alter the ſituation of the iſlands within it. One ſingularity of this river is, that in its ſand are found particles of gold, which the torrents in their fall waſh from the Alps, and bring into the Rhine. Accordingly it is only below Baſil that the ſand contains this precious mixture, which in autumn and winter, when the river is at the loweſt, is drawn out with the ſand, and, after paſſing through ſeveral waters, the gold is extracted. The particles of this metal are ſeldom ſo large as a grain of millet; the gold is indeed very fine and beautiful; but is ſo ſcarce, that the city of Straſburg, which has the privilege of gathering gold for the length of four thouſand paces, ſcarce collects five ounces in a year. The Rhine alſo contains many cryſtals, and particularly pebbles that receive a beautiful poliſh, and are much uſed in France under the name of Rhine pebbles.

The following rivers iſſue from the above chain, and run into the Lower Alſace, the Leber, the Cher, the Andlau, the Ergers, and the Breuſch; theſe three laſt run into the Ill. The Serr, the Motter, the Seltzbach, the Lauter, and the Queich, which run into the Rhine. In Upper Alſace the Berre and the Ill, which alſo run into the Rhine.

The number of inhabitants in Alſace is computed at about half a million. In Upper Alſace and Sundgau are thirty-two large and ſmall towns, in Lower Alſace thirty-nine, and in both are upwards of a thouſand ſmall towns and villages. The common language of the inhabitants is the German, and they are partly Lutherans and partly Roman catholics.

Alſace has been ſubject to ſeveral German families, and particularly to the houſe of Auſtria; but at the peace of Munſter the emperor ceded to the crown of France all right to the town of Briſac, the landgravate of Upper and Lower Alſace, Sundgau, and the diſtrict of the ten united imperial cities in Alſace, with the whole ſovereignty belonging to them. On the other hand, France engaged that the inhabitants ſhould continue unmoleſted in the enjoyment of their freedom; and promiſed to be ſatisfied with the power which the houſe of Auſtria had enjoyed over them, and had transferred to France by that treaty. In the ſucceeding wars France took the ten imperial cities in Alſace, and as by the peace of Nimeguen no expreſs ſtipulation was made for their reſtitution, the king treated them as a part of his acquiſitions, and directed a chamber of appeals at Briſac, to which not only thoſe cities, but the nobility of the empire, and all others holding imperial lands in Alſace, were to bring their proceſſes, and not to the imperial chamber of the empire. At the peace of Ryſwic, in 1697, the emperor and the empire ceded to France the perpetual ſovereignty of the city of Straſburg, and of all its dependencies on the left ſide of the Rhine.

The principal place in Upper Alſace is Straſburg, in Latin Argentoratum, the capital of the whole country. It is a royal, free, imperial city, and the ſeat of a mint-court. It ſtands in forty-eight degrees thirty-ſix minutes north latitude, and in ſeven degrees forty-one minutes eaſt longitude, near two miles diſtant from the Rhine, and is ſurrounded by the rivers Ill and Breuſch, which alſo run through it; beſides which an arm of the Rhine is conveyed to the city. It is not very well fortified, but by means of a ſluice in the city may be laid under water. The ramparts are extremely pleaſant and planted round with trees, and towards the Rhine it has a regular citadel.

The city is large and populous, it containing about thirty-two thouſand houſes, four thouſand three hundred families, and thirty thouſand inhabitants. The ſtreets are in general narrow, two only excepted, and are adorned with few handſome houſes. The public buildings are the town-houſe, the epiſcopal palace, that of the intendant, the arſenal, and the play-houſe. In the city hoſpital is kept corn of a great age, and they are ſaid to have wine that is ſome hundred years old. The French hoſpital is a fine building, it being erected by Lewis XIV. for the reception of his ſoldiers.

The cathedral is a very antient ſtructure, it being finiſhed in the year 1449, and conſequently the Proteſtants are not chargeable with the ſatyrical ſculptures which a few years ago were to be ſeen on the cornices and pedeſtals, repreſenting monkies, aſſes, hogs, and other animals, in monkiſh habits; and among the reſt a monk in an indecent poſture with a nun. It is ſuppoſed that theſe were done by order of the ſecular clergy, to be revenged on the monks for the ill offices they were always doing them. The ſteeple of the cathedral is juſtly reckoned one of the higheſt in Europe, it being five hundred and ſeventy-four feet in height. The clock of this ſtructure has been greatly admired; for it not only ſhews the hours of the day, but the motion of the ſun, moon, and ſtars: among other things there is an angel which turns an hour-glaſs every hour, and the twelve apoſtles proclaim noon by each of them ſtriking a blow with a hammer on a bell: there is likewiſe a cock which ſteps out and crows every hour. Among the curioſities within this church are the furniture and ornaments which Lewis XIV. preſented to it, and are extremely rich and magnificent; fifty perſons it is ſaid were employed on them during eleven years, and they coſt that prince ſix hundred thouſand dollars; the principal of theſe is a ſplendid altar-cloth. There are here alſo a triple ſet of miſſal veſtments and altar furniture, ſix large ſilver chandeliers, each ſo heavy that it requires a ſtrong man to carry it, and a crucifix of double the weight. Theſe ſeven pieces of plate put together weigh a thouſand and ſixty-ſix pounds eight ounces.

There are here alſo three collegiate churches, two of which are parochial, together with four others belonging to the Romiſh community; but the Lutherans are in poſſeſſion of St. Thomas's church, in which the illuſtrious count Maurice of Saxony was interred in the year 1751; yet the Proteſtants perform their public worſhip at Wolniſheim, and not in the city. The univerſity and gymnaſium here are Lutherans; and here are alſo an anatomical theatre, a phyſic garden, a royal ſociety founded in 1752, and particularly inſtituted for the natural hiſtory of Alſace: there are alſo ſix convents, and till lately a college of Jeſuits.

The city council is half Lutheran and half Roman catholics; but moſt of the burghers are Lutherans: the college of magiſtrates conſiſts of three chambers; to the firſt belong thirteen perſons, who preſide over matters of juſtice; the ſecond is compoſed of fifteen perſons, under whoſe care are the rights and privileges of the city, the hoſpitals, police, and finances; the other chamber is compoſed of twenty-one, in whom is lodged the ordinary government of the city. Over theſe is the grand council, which conſiſts of thirty members, ten of whom are noblemen, and twenty burghers. It has alſo an inferior council, for the determination of affairs of leſs importance. The ſupreme magiſtrate here, ſince the city has become ſubject to France, is the royal prætor, who takes care of the king's rights, and that nothing be done in the college of magiſtrates, contrary to his majeſty's pleaſure. The inhabitants, however, pay nothing to the king; but all the impoſts levied here are expended in the ſupport of the city.

To this city belong five diſtricts, or lordſhips. The biſhopric of Straſburg alſo comprehends a conſiderable tract of territory, ſubject to the biſhop, as a temporal lord. It lies ſcattered in Upper and Lower Alſace, and on the other ſide of the Rhine, where he has two diſtricts. He ſtyles himſelf prince of the empire, and landgrave of Alſace; and though at preſent ſubject to France, yet, by virtue of the diſtricts on the other ſide of the Rhine,

Rhine, is actually a ſtate of the empire, and has a ſeat and voice in the diet: he has alſo many vaſſals under him, and among them almoſt all the nobility in Lower Alſace, together with a great part of thoſe in the Upper. His revenue is ſaid to amount annually to two hundred and fifty thouſand livres, and it was formerly much more conſiderable. As a biſhop he is ſubordinate to the archbiſhop of Mentz.

Fort Louis is a very ſtrong and handſome fortification, upon an iſland in the Rhine, twenty miles to the north-eaſt of Straſburg. It was erected in the year 1686, and conſiſts of a ſpacious and regular quadrangle, with four large baſtions, and the ſame number of half-moons. Near it is a ſmall town, formed of ſtraight ſtreets, and the whole iſland is fortified round.

Zabern, a ſmall town ſeated on the river Sor, fifteen miles to the north-weſt of Straſburg. It was the uſual reſidence of the biſhop of Straſburg, till this place embraced the Lutheran religion; and his palace and gardens here are delightful. Here is a collegiate church, one hoſpital, and two convents; but what is particularly remarkable, is the beaten broad road, carried, behind the city, to the top of a high mountain, the aſcent to which is rendered ſo eaſy by ſuch a number of windings, that a perſon may either aſcend or deſcend without the leaſt difficulty.

Colmar, the capital of Upper Alſace, is ſituated near the river Ill, thirty-five miles ſouth-by-weſt of Straſburg, and had ſtrong walls, which Lewis XIV. cauſed to be demoliſhed in the year 1673; but after the treaty of Ryſwic he encompaſſed it with new walls. The inhabitants are ſaid to enjoy all their privileges, and, tho' moſt of them are Lutherans, have liberty of conſcience. It contains about eight hundred houſes, and ſeven thouſand one hundred and forty inhabitants.

SECT. VIII.

Of the Dutchies of Lorrain and Bar; their Situation, Extent, Produce, and Rivers; the Manners and Language of the Inhabitants. The Manner in which they became ſubject to the preſent Duke of Lorrain; his Titles, and a Deſcription of the principal Cities in thoſe Dutchies.

THE dutchy of Lorrain derives its name from Lotharius II. grandſon to the emperor Lewis I. and was formerly of much greater extent. It is at preſent bounded on the eaſt by the Lower Palatinate and Alſace, from the latter of which it is ſeparated by the Vogean mountains, on the ſouth by Franche Comté, on the weſt by Champagne, and on the north by Metz. Its greateſt breadth from north to ſouth is about a hundred miles, and it is nearly as much from eaſt to weſt.

It enjoys a very temperate climate, and has a fruitful ſoil, which particularly abounds in grain, though it has many woods and mountains; but in theſe are good game, and alſo excellent paſture. The country has alſo ſalt ſprings, with ſome mines of iron, copper, tin, and ſilver. In the mountains of Waſgau are found agates, chalcedonies, and other gems. Its lakes too abound in fiſh, particularly the lake of Lindre, the profits of which are ſaid to amount to ſixteen thouſand livres per annum.

The principal rivers in this dutchy are the Maeſe, the Moſel, and the Saar. Here are alſo the ſmall rivers of Voloy, Mortaire, and Meurte.

The inhabitants have always been reputed brave ſoldiers, and their modern dukes have conſtantly kept on foot a particular army, which have performed ſignal ſervice. But the French have frequently had the policy to turn the power of Lorrain to their own advantage, and to the prejudice of the duke. The Lorrainers are alſo laborious; but have little trade with ſtrangers, they having no navigable rivers, and all neceſſaries within themſelves; but what little trade they have conſiſts of corn and linen.

The language ſpoken here is French, except in the German diſtricts, where that language is ſpoken. The Romiſh religion prevails all over the country.

Lotharius, the younger ſon of the emperor of the ſame name, may be conſidered as the firſt founder of the ſtate of Lorrain, its name being derived from him. The country, after his deceaſe, was divided among his relations, and was afterwards ſometimes poſſeſſed by the Germans, and ſometimes by the French, and continual diſputes aroſe between the emperors of Germany and the kings of France. At length, in 1733, France took poſſeſſion of this dutchy; and in the preliminaries of peace in 1735 it was concluded, that not only the duchy of Bar, but likewiſe that of Lorrain, the earldom of Falkenſtein excepted, ſhould be ceded to Staniſlaus, king of Poland, and father-in-law to Lewis XV. and after his deceaſe both duchies, together with the abſolute ſovereignty of them, ſhould for ever belong to the crown of France. On the other hand, the emperor Charles VI. engaged in return to cede the great dutchy of Tuſcany to his ſon in-law Francis Stepnen, the late emperor, to atone for his loſing Lorrain. This was ſettled in 1736, and the following year Staniſlaus took actual poſſeſſion of the dutchies of Lorrain and Bar, and the duke of Lorrain became poſſeſſed of Tuſcany.

The dukes of Lorrain bear the following titles: S. by the grace of God duke of Lorrain and Mercœur; king of Jeruſalem and Marchis; duke of Calabria, Bar, and Guelders; margrave of Pont à Mouſſon and Nomeny; and count of Provence, Vaudemont, Blamont, Zutphen, Saarwerden, and Salem. From hence may be ſeen not only the countries the duke actually poſſeſſes, but likewiſe their pretenſions. The eldeſt ſon, during the life-time of his father, is ſtyled count of Vaudemont, and alſo writes himſelf, while unmarried, margrave of Pont à Mouſſon; but after his marriage he aſſumes the title of duke of Bar. The antient houſe of Lorrain, by virtue of a treaty concluded in 1736, retains all the titles, arms, and privileges, with the rank and quality of ſovereign princes, which it formerly enjoyed, yet without any claim to the ceded countries.

The principal places in the dutchy of Lorrain are the following:

Nancy, the capital of the dutchy, and the antient reſidence of the dukes, is ſeated in a delightful plain near the river Meurte, ſeventy-five miles to the weſt of Straſburg, and is divided into the Old and New Town. The former is both the ſmalleſt, and makes the meaneſt appearance, it being built with narrow ſtreets; but in it ſtands the palace, which was begun by duke Leopold Joſeph; yet only the main body is finiſhed. The ſpacious long ſquare, or wide ſtreet before it, has a fine appearance. In the palace are eighteen very exquiſite pieces of tapeſtry, repreſenting the atchievements of Charles IV. duke of Lorrain. Here are alſo ſhewn the ſabres of two Burgundians, who were killed with Charles the Bold; and likewiſe that duke's helmet, lined with red velvet, and a yellow creſt on the top. This helmet uſed to be carried every year in proceſſion by the captain of the Swiſs, while two other Swiſs carryed the ſabres. Near the palace is a beautiful garden upon one of the baſtions, from which there is a very fine proſpect. Adjacent to this garden ſtands the opera-houſe, which was built by Bibiena, an Italian architect, who alſo built the theatre at Vienna. This houſe is not remarkable for its largeneſs, but is extremely well contrived, and on each ſide of it is a good tribuna, which is a great ornament to it.

The New Town is larger, and contains broad and ſtraight ſtreets, with ſeveral beautiful houſes; but, according to the faſhion of this country, they are generally low. In this city are three pariſh and three collegiate churches, with two abbies, ſeventeen convents, one college, one hoſpital, an academy of ſciences, and one commandery of the knights of Malta. Among the collegiate churches is the new ſtately cathedral, which is immediately ſubject to the pope. This is a magnificent building, it being adorned with two towers and a cupola after the Italian taſte. The chapter conſiſts of a primate and ſixteen canons. The duke nominates the primate without conſulting the canons. In the collegiate church of St. George ſtands not only the monument of Charles the Bold, duke of Burgundy, who was ſlain in 1476, but alſo the tombs of the antient dukes of Lorrain. The latter dukes are interred in the church of the Capuchins. The city was

formerly fortified, but by the peace of Ryſwic was diſmantled, only the works of the Old Town ſtill remaining.

Luneville, in Latin Lunaris Villa, a ſmall, very antient, and once fortified town on the river Veſouze, ſtands in a low marſhy country, twelve miles to the ſouth-eaſt of Nancy. It is at preſent the capital of a provoſtſhip, and has a fine palace, in which not only the two laſt dukes of Lorrain chiefly reſided, but was the reſidence of king Staniſlaus, till in the year 1755, when the right wing of the palace was entirely burnt down. In this town is alſo an abbey, with a commandery of the knights of Malta, and three convents. The gymnaſtic academy in this place is altered to a foundation for cadets, one-half Lorrainers, and the other Poles.

It is remarkable that at a few miles diſtance from Luneville is Beaupré, an abbey of Proteſtant Benedictines, but they follow the Ciſtercian rule of St. Benedict. It is ſeated in a delightful country, and has an abbot, nine prieſts, nineteen religious and twenty-three lay-brothers, with a yearly revenue of eighty thouſand Lorrain livres.

The duchy of Bar, or Barrois, was antiently an earldom, ſo called from the caſtle of Bar, erected in the year 964 by Frederic I. whom the emperor Otho created earl of Bar. The principal place in this diſtrict is

Bar le Duc, the capital of the country, ſeated on a riſing ground on the banks of the river Ornain, about forty miles to the weſt of Nancy, and is a handſome well-built city, with two chapters, one pariſh-church, one priory, ſeven convents, and an hoſpital. Here alſo is a ducal palace.

SECT. IX.

Of the Meſſin, or Government of Metz, and the Counties of Verdun and Toulois: their Situation, Produce, Rivers, and principal Cities.

THE government of Metz conſiſts of the countries of Meſſin, French Barrois La Saare, and French Luxemburg. Its principal rivers are the Maeſe; the Moſelle, which riſes in one of the Waſgau mountains, and is conſtantly navigable from Metz, diſcharging itſelf into the Rhine; the Meurte, which alſo riſes in the Waſgau chain, and runs into the Moſelle; the Orney, or Ornain; the Saare, which runs into the Moſelle; and the Saone, which falls into the Rhone.

The Meſſin, or the country round the city of Metz, is but indifferently fertile, and produces little wheat. It was antiently a part of the kingdom of Auſtraſia, of which Metz was for a long time the capital, and the uſual reſidence of the king. When the children of Charles the Great and Lewis the Pious divided the dominions of that crown, the kingdom of Lorrain roſe out of the remains of that of Auſtraſia; and towards the end of the ſecond royal line of France, Metz, Toul, and Verdun, three principal cities, ſhook off the yoke, and, to ſecure their freedom, put themſelves under the protection of the emperor. The power was divided between the biſhop and the magiſtrates; but the latter, by the aſſiſtance of the people, obtaining the ſuperiority over the former, the biſhop had no other power in the city of Metz and the country of Meſſin than a ſhare in the election of the magiſtrates, and in the adminiſtration of the oath of office. The magiſtrates enjoyed an unlimited authority in the city and in the country of Meſſin, and the biſhop in the domains of his biſhopric on this ſide the Vis; though in certain caſes appeals lay to the imperial chamber, which they acknowledged as the ſupreme power of the empire. In 1552 Metz, Verdun, and Toul, put themſelves under the protection of France, which kept poſſeſſion of theſe three cities under the name of the protected diſtrict, till the year 1648, when, at the peace of Weſtphalia, the three biſhopricks were abſolutely tranſfered to France.

Metz, in Latin Metæ and Metis, the capital of the country, lies between the Moſelle and Seille, which here unite their ſtreams, and is ſituated twenty-eight miles to the north of Nancy. The Old Town is large, but the ſtreets are narrow; and though the houſes are built in the old taſte, they are handſome ſtructures. The New Town is likewiſe large, and much more beautiful than the former. Beſides the cathedral, this city contains three chapters, ſixteen pariſh churches, ſix abbies, and as there are here many Jews they have a ſynagogue. There is here a parliament, an intendency, a chamber of accompts and impoſts, a mint, a country and foreſt court, beſides other public offices. Among its fortifications are three citadels. The biſhop, who ſtiles himſelf a prince of the Roman empire, is ſuffragan to the archbiſhop of Treves, and has a dioceſe of ſix hundred and thirteen pariſhes, with a revenue of a hundred and twenty thouſand livres, out of which he annually pays to the court of Rome ſix thouſand florins.

The biſhopric of Metz and its diſtrict muſt be diſtinguiſhed from the Meſſin, and is a long but irregular tract of land, the lord of which is the biſhop; but he has been deprived of his temporal juriſdiction, which chiefly belongs to the duke of Lorrain, particularly the ſalt-works, in lieu of which the biſhop receives thirty thouſand livres, and four hundred buſhels of ſalt, which the duke, or at preſent the French king, cauſes to be annually delivered into the biſhop's magazine.

Sare-Louis is a new town and fortification begun by Lewis XIV. on the river Sare in 1688, and finiſhed about four or five years after. It is ſituated about thirty-two miles to the north-eaſt of Metz. Its ſtreets are regular, and the fortifications form a regular hexagon. It is the ſeat of the county court, and contains one pariſh-church, with two convents. This town, with a diſtrict belonging to it, has been ceded by the duke of Lorrain to France.

The country of Verdun extends along the Maeſe; has many large towns and villages; but has only one city, which is that of Verdun.

The city of Verdun, in Latin Verodunum, or Veredunum, the capital of the country, is ſituated about thirty-eight miles to the north-weſt of Nancy; it is the ſee of a biſhop, and has a provincial and a manor court. It conſiſts of three parts, namely, the Upper, Lower, and New Town; and, beſides its other fortifications, is defended by a fine citadel. The biſhop, before the city and diſtrict were annexed to the crown of France, was a prince of the empire, and ſtill ſtyles himſelf ſuch, as alſo count of Verdun. The archbiſhop of Treves is his metropolitan. His dioceſe conſiſts of a hundred and ninety-two pariſhes, his revenue is fifty thouſand livres, and he pays to the court of Rome four thouſand four hundred and ſixty-ſix florins. Beſides the cathedral, there are in this city one collegiate and nine pariſh-churches, ſix abbies, and a college of Jeſuits. It was formerly an imperial city, but in the year 1552 the inhabitants put themſelves under the protection of France, and in 1648 they fell abſolutely under the power of the French king.

The earldom of Toulois being ſmall, is hemmed in by Lorrain; and, together with the city of Toul, and the other biſhoprics of Metz and Verdun, put itſelf in 1552 under the protection of France, which in 1648 obtained the abſolute ſovereignty over them.

Toul, in Latin Tullum, the principal city in this earldom, and the ſee of a biſhop, is ſeated on the Moſelle, over which is a fine ſtone bridge, with a regular fortification. This town, which ſtands ten miles to the weſt of Nancy, has a provincial and diſtrict court, and was formerly an imperial city. Its biſhop was a prince of the empire, which title, together with that of earl of Toulois, he ſtill aſſumes: he is ſuffragan to the archbiſhop of Treves; and his dioceſe contains fourteen hundred pariſhes; yet his revenue is little more than ſeventeen thouſand livres, and he pays at the court of Rome two thouſand five hundred florins. In this city is a fine cathedral, one collegiate and four pariſh-churches, three abbies, two priories, ſeven convents, two hoſpitals, one commandery of the knights of Malta, and one ſeminary.

SECT. X.

Of French Flanders; its Situation, Produce, and principal Places; with a particular Deſcription of Gravelines, L'Iſle, Douay, Cambray, and Dunkirk.

WE have already given a deſcription of Flanders in general in page 277, where we have deſcribed that part belonging to the houſe of Auſtria, and with this we

have concluded our account of Germany, that country making a part of the circle of Burgundy. We have given Dutch Flanders under the ſection which treats of the Generalité Lands, in page 297, under which name the Dutch include that country; and we ſhall now give a deſcription of French Flanders, which is properly inſerted here, as it conſtitutes a part of France, and is in no reſpect a ſeparate country.

French Flanders contains a part of the antient earldom of Flanders, the Cambreſis, the country of Hainault, and a ſmall part of the earldom of Namur. This country is bounded on the north by the Seine and the German ocean, on the eaſt by the Auſtrian Netherlands, on the ſouth by Artois, and on the weſt by the German ocean.

French Flanders being a part of the earldom of Flanders which Lewis XIV. over-run in 1667, it thence obtained its name. It abounds in corn and vegetables of all kinds, as alſo in flax. Its paſtures are excellent, and conſequently produce fine cattle; but for want of wood, or coal, the inhabitants are obliged to make uſe of turf for their fuel.

The principal places in French Flanders are the following:

Gravelines, or Gravelingen, a ſmall but ſtrong town ſeated near the mouth of the Aa, on the Engliſh channel, fifteen miles to the ſouth-weſt of Dunkirk, and, beſides its other fortifications, is defended on the land-ſide by a good citadel, and to the ſea by a fort. It was taken and burnt by the Engliſh in the year 1383, but afterwards rebuilt to better advantage, and walled round. In 1528 it was fortified by the emperor Charles V. but its works have been ſince conſiderably improved by marſhal de Vauban, ſo that it is now a pretty ſtrong place. In 1644 it was taken by the French, and in 1652 by the archduke Leopold. In 1658 it was again taken by the French, and was at laſt yielded to them by the treaty of the Pyrenees; but in 1694 was entirely laid in aſhes.

L'Iſle, Liſle, or Ryſſel, the capital of French Flanders, and of all the French conqueſts in the Netherlands, is ſituated on the Deule, thirty-ſeven miles to the ſouth-eaſt of Dunkirk. It is beautifully built, and is large, handſome, and populous; it is the reſidence of the governor-general; and has an intendency, a mint, a caſtellany, a bailliwic, and foreſt court. It has a collegiate church, and about thirty other churches, ſeven of which are parochial, a great number of convents, and a noble hoſpital called *L'hôpital Comteſſe*. Several of the buildings are very fine, particularly the exchange, which is a ſquare ſtructure, ſurrounded with piazzas.

This city is ſtrongly fortified, which the Engliſh and their allies experienced in the reign of queen Anne, when prince Eugene, after the battle of Oudenarde, having ſat down before it in 1708 for near three months, took it at laſt, though with the loſs of a great number of men; but it was reſtored to the French by the treaty of Utrecht in 1713.

Both the antient and new fortifications are very numerous and conſiderable, they having been greatly improved by marſhal de Vauban. The citadel, which was the firſt built by that great engineer, is a pentagon, compoſed of five regular baſtions, defended by ſeveral works, and ſurrounded with a deep ditch, a covert-way, and glacis. To this fortreſs are two gates, one towards the city, and the other towards the country. The eſplanade, or ſpace between the city and citadel, is planted with four rows of trees, which form very pleaſant walks. The general governor of French Flanders is alſo governor of this city, in whoſe abſence his place is ſupplied by the king's lieutenant. The citadel has alſo a governor, and a lieutenant of the king.

The governor preſides at the meeting of the ſtates, which is commonly held about the cloſe of the year. The other members of this aſſembly are the magiſtrates of L'Iſle, who have always the firſt rank, the lords who have ſovereign juriſdiction, and the deputies from Douay and Orchis. The ſum demanded by the king from the ſtates generally amounts to two hundred and fifty thouſand livres, which is always granted and raiſed from the twentieth part of the revenue of eſtates, and from duties on taxes. Beſides which the city of L'Iſle annually pays thirty-ſeven thouſand five hundred livres toward the repairs of the fortifications. The clergy and nobility pay no ſubſidy, and do not aſſiſt at the meeting of the ſtates; but three or four days after they break up, theſe are called together by the governor, &c. and a ſum demanded in the king's name; and then theſe two bodies commonly grant a twentieth part and a half of the income of their eſtates. The body of the magiſtracy of L'Iſle and its diſtrict is compoſed of a mayor, ſtyled *revart*, and twelve echevins, all of whom are annually changed. There are here conſiderable manufactures of ſilk, cambric, fine linen, and other ſtuffs; and their camblets are highly eſteemed. The trade of L'Iſle through France by land-carriage, or by way of Dunkirk, is pretty conſiderable. The moſt profitable commerce is that to Spain and the Weſt Indies, either on their own account or by commiſſion.

Douay, a pretty large and well fortified city, lies on the river Scarpe, twelve miles to the eaſt of Arras, and is of an oval form, larger than L'Iſle, but leſs populous by one-third. It is defended by Fort Scarpe, which ſtands about a mile below the city, and the whole country may be laid under water by means of ſluices. Here is an univerſity founded in the year 1559, one collegiate church, and ſeven that are parochial, with a famous Engliſh ſeminary.

The principal trade of this city conſiſts in the making and ſelling of worſted camblets, which are bought up by all the neighbouring people, eſpecially at the annual fair kept here in September. The magiſtracy conſiſts of twelve echevins, the firſt of whom is ſtyled the chief. In 1710 the confederates made themſelves maſters of the city; but loſt it again in the year 1712.

The Cambreſis is about ten leagues in length, and from five to ſix broad, though in ſome places not above two or three. It is fruitful and populous.

Cambray, in Latin Cameracum, and Camaracum, the capital of the Cambreſis, is ſituated on the Scheld, fifteen miles to the ſouth-eaſt of Douay, and is a pretty large well fortified city, defended by a citadel and fort. It is the ſee of an archbiſhop, and, beſides its cathedral, contains two chapters, ten pariſh-churches, two abbies, and two hoſpitals. The archbiſhop ſtyles himſelf prince of the holy Roman empire, as indeed he formerly was, and count of Cambreſis. He is, however, lord of the city. His dioceſe conſiſts of eight hundred pariſhes, and his revenue is a hundred thouſand livres, out of which he is annually obliged to pay ſix thouſand florins to the court of Rome. This city is famous for its cambric, which took its name from it. It has been ſubject to France ever ſince the year 1667.

Chateau-Cambreſis, the capital of the earldom of Cambreſis, lies thirteen miles to the ſouth-eaſt of Cambray, and was once fortified; but at preſent lies open, and contains one abbey. The archbiſhop, who has here a very magnificent palace, and fine gardens, is lord of this palace.

In the year 1559 the famous treaty of this name was concluded here, between Henry II. king of France, and Philip II. king of Spain, by which the French gave up a hundred and ninety-eight towns for St. Quintin.

French Hainault is a part of the earldom of Henegau, and its principal city is the following:

Valenciennes, a large and populous city, ſeventeen miles to the north-eaſt of Cambray, is ſeated on the river Scheld, which not only divides it into two parts, but almoſt runs round it. The fortifications are after the manner of Vauban; it has a good citadel on the Scheld, and very fine ſluices. That part on the right of that river belongs to the dioceſe of Cambray, and has one collegiate church, and one abbey; the other ſide belongs to the dioceſe of Arras. The inhabitants have manufactures of woollen ſtuffs, and very fine linen. This city was taken by the French in 1677.

The government of Dunkirk contains only the town of the ſame name, and ſome neighbouring villages. At the peace of Utrecht, and all the other treaties that have been concluded ſince, it was agreed, that the fortifications and harbour ſhould be demoliſhed.

Dunkirk, called by the French Dunquerque, is ſeated on the Colne, which here falls into the Britiſh channel, in

in the fifty-firſt degree two minutes north latitude, and in the ſecond degree twenty-ſeven minutes eaſt longitude, twenty-ſix miles to the eaſt of Calais. It derives its name from a church built there on the Duns, or ſand-banks, erected, as it is ſaid, by St. Eloi, who firſt preached Chriſtianity among the Flemings. Some houſes were gradually built near it, ſo as to form a little town, which Baldwin, earl of Flanders, in the tenth century, encompaſſed with a wall; and it enjoying a harbour commodious for trade, the inhabitants engaged in commerce, by which it grew large and wealthy, and had even ſome ſhips of war; ſo that in the twelfth century the inhabitants fitted out a ſmall fleet againſt the Norman pyrates, and performed ſuch eminent ſervices, that Philip, earl of Flanders, conferred ſome conſiderable privileges on the town. In the thirteenth century it was ſold to the biſhop of Cambray, who enlarged the town and improved the harbour. It was afterwards in the poſſeſſion of ſeveral different families, and in 1538 the emperor Charles V. erected a caſtle here; but in 1551 it was taken and deſtroyed by the French. It was afterwards poſſeſſed by Spain; and, though the town recovered itſelf again, the inhabitants had a great ſhare in the diſturbances which aroſe in the Netherlands. In 1646 and 1658 it was taken by the French, and in the laſt-mentioned year ceded to the Engliſh for aſſiſting France againſt Spain. In 1662 Charles II. king of England, ſold the town to France for five millions of livres, by which means Lewis XIV. acquired alſo Mardyke, and the other villages which the Engliſh had built round Dunkirk.

Lewis upon this ordered the city to be well fortified, erected a fine citadel, and built Fort Lewis, which ſtands to the ſouth on the canal of Bergen, about a mile and a half from the town. The harbour was alſo put into a moſt excellent condition, two moles of piles forming a canal in the ſea, a thouſand fathoms in length, and about forty in breadth, and at each end of the moles were erected two batteries. Beſides theſe, on each ſide of the dyke was a fort, together with the battery of Revers; the caſtle of Gaillard on the eaſt, and a little farther Fort Blanc. Between all theſe forts ſhips were to paſs in their way to the harbour, contiguous to which was alſo a large baſon.

This city enjoyed a flouriſhing trade, and in 1706 contained ſixteen hundred and thirty-nine houſes, in which were fourteen thouſand two hundred and ſeventy-four inhabitants. The Engliſh, for the ſecurity of their commerce, which had ſuffered immenſe damage from the privateers of Dunkirk, compelled France to promiſe at the peace of Utrecht to deſtroy the fortifications, to fill up the harbour, to demoliſh the dams and ſluices, and never to repair them. This was actually begun; but it was found, or at leaſt pretended, that by filling up the harbour, the country round, for about ten French leagues, would be in danger of being overflowed. To remedy this inconvenience ſeveral fruitleſs negotiations paſſed between France and England, and in the mean while a new canal was made at Mardyke. By the treaty concluded at the Hague between France, England, and Holland, in 1717, it was agreed, that the large entrance of the new ſluice at Mardyke, which was forty-four feet broad, ſhould be entirely demoliſhed; and that no harbour, ſluice, or baſon, ſhould ever be made either at Dunkirk or Mardyke, or within two French leagues round; and that the demolition of the works of Dunkirk ſhould be entirely completed: but France making no great haſte in this work, it was in 1748 made an article of the peace at Aix la Chapelle. After which France, inſtead of fulfilling theſe engagements, began ſome new works, which gave freſh umbrage to the court of England, who received certain intelligence that the city was again fortified on the land-ſide, the baſon widened, and rendered as commodious for the reception of ſhips as ever the harbour had been. The French court replied, that theſe works had no other view than to free the inhabitants from the exhalations of the ſtagnating water, a pretence as falſe as it was ridiculous, ſince the French made the greateſt advantage of this place during the late war; but at the concluſion of it, again agreed to demoliſh the works, and fill up the bar, which is the more neceſſary to be inſiſted upon, as the French have no other harbour in the Channel, but that of St. Malo's, which is only capable of receiving ſhips of between thirty and forty guns.

Mardyke is a village about four miles to the eaſt of Dunkirk, and was formerly conſiderable only on account of its fort, built on the ſea ſhore, which has often been beſieged and taken, and was at laſt demoliſhed. Mardyke at length became celebrated for its noble canal, which Lewis XIV. cauſed to be formed under the direction of Le Blanc, it being three thouſand three hundred and thirty-eight fathoms and two feet in length. It began at the canal of Bergen, near Dunkirk, and extending itſelf, with the breadth of between twenty-five and thirty fathoms, no leſs than fifteen hundred from eaſt to weſt in length; it then winded from ſouth to north, and three hundred fathoms farther had an incomparable ſluice with two baſons, one of which was forty-four feet broad, it being contrived for the reception of large veſſels; the other twenty-ſix feet in breadth, and intended for thoſe that were ſmall. By all the above treaties ſince that of Utrecht, the French have agreed to deſtroy this canal, and other works.

SECT. XI.

Of the County of Artois; its Situation, Extent, Produce, Government, and principal Cities.

THE county of Artois, which forms a part of the Netherlands, is bounded on the north by Flanders, on the eaſt by Hainault, and on the ſouth and weſt by Picardy. It is twenty-ſix French leagues in length, and about half as much in breadth. This is one of the beſt and fineſt provinces in the whole kingdom, and, beſides its great fertility, carries on a conſiderable trade in flax, hops, wool, oil of turnip-ſeed, and has ſeveral manufactures of linen.

Its principal rivers are the Scarpe, the Aa, and the Canche.

This country, together with Picardy, is ſubject to one governor-general, a lieutenant-general, and two deputy-governors, one for Arras and Bapaume, and the other for Aire and St. Omer's. Here is a provincial council, which in civil affairs is ſubordinate to the parliament of Paris. The raiſing of the royal revenues is here adminiſtered by conſent of the ſtates, which conſiſt of the clergy, a great number of abbots, and the deputies from every chapter: beſides theſe there are the nobility, who amount to about ſeventy perſons, and the commoners, who conſiſt of the council of Arras, and the deputies of the magiſtracy of the eight principal towns of the country. No cuſtoms are paid here; the free gift required is in ſome meaſure ſettled at four hundred thouſand livres; but the charges of forage are more or leſs according to the number of cavalry in the country.

The principal places in the county of Artois are the following:

Arras, the Origiacum of Ptolemy, and the Atrebatæ of Cæſar, is ſituated in a diſtrict of the ſame name, and ſtands on the Scarpe, twelve miles to the ſouth-weſt of Douay. It is a very antient and large place, divided into two parts, the one called the city, and the other the town, which is the more modern of the two; each of theſe is ſurrounded with old walls, which have round towers, built after the antient manner, and a gate, over which was an inſcription in French, "That when the "French ſhall take Arras, the mice ſhall eat the cats," as if that event was impoſſible; but the event ſhewed that it was not, for the French took it in 1640.

The old walls were repaired by Vauban, who added ſeveral baſtions, and a great number of new works in the ditch, which is large and very deep, particularly lunettes, built after Vauban's manner, and the firſt works of that kind which that excellent engineer performed. The ditch is ſurrounded with a covert-way, and a glacis as uſual, beyond which are ſeveral redoubts of a pentagonal figure, placed in the re-entering angles, and each has its particular ditch, covert-way, and glacis. The citadel is ſomewhat higher, towards the country; it is not very large, but is eſteemed one of the ſtrongeſt in the kingdom; it being an oblong pentagon, compoſed of five

baſtions, as many half-moons, four tenailles, placed in the curtains, and a fauſſe-braye, which cover the front on the city-ſide. All theſe works are ſurrounded with a ditch, into which the Scarpe runs, or at leaſt a canal drawn from that river.

This town has handſome broad ſtreets, and is inhabited by wealthy traders and artificers, who make ſail-cloth and tapeſtry, eſpecially the latter, which was invented here, and therefore that manufacture obtained the name of Arras, which is indeed very beautiful, tho' inferior to the tapeſtry made at Paris, Bruſſels, and Antwerp. The large market-place here is ſurrounded with fine buildings, among which is the governor's houſe. There are eleven pariſh churches, ſeveral convents, one ſeminary, and there was lately a college of Jeſuits. The cathedral, which is dedicated to the Virgin Mary, is a fine ſtructure, in which are preſerved ſome famous relics. The abbey of St. Vaſt has a magnificent church belonging to it; and among the chapels here, is one called the chapel of the Holy Candle, in which was kept a candle, which it is pretended was given by the Bleſſed Virgin, to the inhabitants, to cure them of an inward heat, which burnt and conſumed them. The biſhop is ſuffragan to the archbiſhop of Cambray, and has a dioceſe of four hundred pariſhes, with a revenue of twenty-two thouſand livres a year, and is taxed at the court of Rome four thouſand florins. He is lord of the city, and preſident in the aſſembly of the ſtates.

Aire, in Latin Aeria, and Aria, a conſiderable fortreſs on the river Lys, near the confines of Flanders, and about ten miles to the ſouth-eaſt of St. Omer's. This is a ſtrong and well fortified place, having, beſides the walls, baſtions, half-moons, horn-works, redoubts, counter-ſcarps, ditches, and a moraſs, which encompaſſes it on three ſides. On that ſide which is acceſſible, at the diſtance of a cannon-ſhot from the city, and the river Lys, ſtands fort St. Francis, to which you go from the city by a regular canal. This fort is a ſmall, but regular pentagon, compoſed of five baſtions, encompaſſed by a ditch, a covert-way, and glacis. The Lys divides the city into two unequal parts, which contain a collegiate church, with ſeveral convents, and had, till lately, a college of Jeſuits, with two hoſpitals, one of which is inſtituted for ſoldiers.

Notwithſtanding the ſtrength of this place, the French took it in 1641, and ſoon after it was retaken by the Spaniards. In 1676, it was again taken by the French, and was confirmed to them at the peace of Nimeguen. In November 1710, it ſurrendered to the allies, after a very vigorous ſiege, and the trenches had been open for ſix weeks; but by the treaty of Utrecht, it was reſtored again to the French.

Between Aire and St. Omer's, are the ruins of the once conſiderable city of Terouenne, which alſo ſtood on the river Lys. It was famous on account of its being inveſted by Henry VIII. king of England, in perſon, in the year 1503, aſſiſted by the emperor Maximilian, who on this occaſion wore a St. George's croſs. At this ſiege the French, attempting to throw proviſions into the town, were defeated by the Engliſh, with great ſlaughter, and from the hurry with which they fled, this was called the Battle of the Spurs, intimating that theſe were the principal weapons they made uſe of to eſcape in ſafety. A fortnight after this battle, the city was taken, but diſmantled and quitted. The French afterwards repaired it, but the emperor Charles V. taking it in 1553, levelled it with the ground, ſince which time it has never been rebuilt.

St. Omer's, the capital of a bailiwic, is called in Latin Andomaropolis, and was formerly called Sithin. It is a conſiderable city, ſeated on the Aa, eight miles north-weſt of Aire, partly on an eminence, and partly on a moraſs, and is one of the beſt fortifications in the Netherlands; it being defended not only by a caſtle, but by large baſtions, between which are half-moons, ſurrounded with large ditches, which are indeed too high to have any water in them; but are ſo deep, that it would be very difficult to mount from them to the walls of the ramparts. It is the ſee of a biſhop, ſuffragan to the archbiſhop of Cambray, and has a revenue of forty thouſand livres, and its taxation to the court of Rome is a thouſand florins.

In this city are ſeveral fine ſtreets, and a large ſquare, with many handſome houſes, among which is the town-houſe. The cathedral dedicated to St. Omer, is a noble ſtructure, chiefly remarkable for its chapels, which are embelliſhed with fine marble and beautiful paintings. Beſides the cathedral, are ſix pariſh churches, and a very rich abbey of the order of Benedictines. On each ſide of the portico belonging to it ſtands a large ſquare ſteeple of great height, where a conſtant watch is kept, to give notice whether there is an enemy in the neighbourhood of the city, the gates of which are never opened till it be day-light, and the watch has given notice, by a ſignal, that he has diſcovered no danger. Here are alſo ſeveral convents and nunneries, two hoſpitals for maidens, a general hoſpital for the ſick, an orphan houſe for poor boys, another for girls, and a houſe for twelve poor old men, in memory of the twelve apoſtles; beſides ſeveral other foundations, particularly one for annually giving a ſum of money to poor girls in marriage. Here is alſo an Engliſh ſeminary.

The city is populous and has ſome trade, a number of ſmall veſſels coming up here from the ſea by means of the river Aa. The government of St. Omer's is under a mayor, who is annually changed, and twelve echevins, and under its juriſdiction are above an hundred villages.

To the north-eaſt of St. Omer's are floating iſlands that move backwards and forwards, according to whatever motion is imparted to them. Upon theſe iſlands are ſeen graſs always growing, and the people draw them with ropes to the ſhore in order to drive their cattle into them: they have alſo ſome trees growing here, but theſe they keep very low, for fear the wind ſhould have too much hold of them, and drive the iſlands with too much violence.

SECT. XII.

Of the Province of Picardy; its Situation, Extent, Produce, Rivers, Commerce, and principal Cities, particularly Amiens, Abbeville, Calais, and Boulogne.

PICARDY is bounded on the north by Hainault, Artois, and the Streights of Calais; on the Eaſt by Champagne; on the ſouth by the Iſle of France; and on the weſt by Normandy and the Engliſh Channel. This province is long and narrow, it being uſually compared to a bent arm, and in this figure is nearly one hundred and fifty miles in length, but not above forty in breadth, and in many places not above twenty. It is generally a plain country, and produces wine, fruit of all kinds, plenty of corn, and great quantities of hay; but wood being ſcarce, moſt of the inhabitants burn turf; they have, however, ſome pit-coal, but it is not ſo good as that of England.

Its principal rivers are the Somme, the whole extent of which is confined to Picardy; it becomes navigable at Bray, and, after receiving ſeveral ſmall rivers, divides into twelve channels which are afterwards united, after which it falls into the Britiſh Channel. The Oiſe has its ſource in Picardy, on the confines of Hainault, and, after receiving ſeveral rivers, becomes navigable at La Fere, and falls into the Seine at Conflans. The Canche, which falls into the Britiſh Channel below Eſtaples. The Lanthie, which alſo falls into the Channel. The Lys, which falls into the Scheld. The Aa, which is made navigable at St. Omer's, by means of ſluices, and at laſt diſcharges itſelf into the Channel. The Scarpe, which falls into the Scheld, and the Deule, which was formerly no larger than a brook, but now by means of cannals and ſluices is become a conſiderable river.

The ſituation of this province on the ſea, its many navigable rivers and canals, with the induſtry of the inhabitants, render it the ſeat of a flouriſhing trade. In it are made beautiful ſilk ſtuffs, woollen ſtuffs, coarſe linen, lawn, and ſope; it alſo carries on a large trade in corn and pit-coal. In the government of Calais and Boulogne, are annually bought up five or ſix thouſand colts, which

which being afterwards turned looſe in the paſtures of Normandy, are ſold for Norman horſes. The fiſheries on this coaſt are alſo very advantageous.

In Picardy are four biſhoprics, two provincial courts, two governments, five courts of admiralty, four foreſt manors, and four lordſhips.

Picardy is divided into Upper, Middle, and Lower Picardy, and is again ſubdivided into four deputy governments, the principal places in which are the following:

Amiens, in Latin Ambianum, the capital of Picardy, and of the earldom of Amienois, is ſeated on the Somme, ſixty-five miles to the ſouth of Calais, and eighty to the north of Paris. It appears very delightful from the largeneſs of its ſtreets, the beauty of the houſes, and the extent of the ſquares, in two of which ſeven fine ſtreets meet. On the ramparts are planted two rows of trees, which form a very agreeable walk. The river Somme enters this city in three different channels, thro' the ſame number of bridges; ſo that after watering ſeveral parts of the town, theſe unite again at the other end near St. Michael's bridge.

The cathedral, dedicated to the Virgin Mary, is one of the fineſt and beſt embelliſhed in all France: the pillars, choir, chapels, tombs, and paintings, are particularly adorned; and more eſpecially the principal entrance, which is flanked with two lofty towers, on which are placed ſeveral ſtatues. Among other relics they pretend to have here the heart of St. John the Baptiſt. In this city is alſo a collegiate church, a chapter of St. Nicholas, fourteen pariſh churches, ſeveral abbies and convents, and an academy of the Arts and Sciences, with ſeveral hoſpitals. The biſhop is ſuffragan to the archbiſhop of Rheims, and within his dioceſe, beſides the above cathedral, are twelve collegiate churches, twenty-ſix abbies, fifty-five priories, ſeven hundred and fifty rectories, one hundred and three chapels of eaſe, and forty-eight communities. His annual revenue is thirty thouſand livres, and his taxation to the court of Rome is four thouſand nine hundred florins. Here is the ſeat of a preſidial court, an independent bailiwic and provoſtſhip, an office for the finances, and a mint. In this city and the neighbouring villages, the inhabitants carry on a manufacture of ferrets, and alſo make a conſiderable quantity of black and green ſoap.

Abbeville, that is, the Abbot's Town, is the capital of Ponthieu, a diſtrict of Picardy, and is ſeated twenty miles to the north-weſt of Amiens, and fifty-two to the ſouth of Calais, in a very delightful plain on the Somme, which divides itſelf into ſeveral branches, and parts the city into two main diviſions, the one towards the Low Countries, and the other towards Normandy. It is alſo watered by the rivulets of Scardon, Sottins, and Corneille, or Taniere. The tide here flows up the Somme, to the height of about ſix feet, by which means, and its ſituation, it is rendered a commodious port; it being but fifteen miles from the Engliſh Channel.

Abbeville was originally no more than a farm or manor belonging to the abbey of St. Requier, from which it had its name: it afterwards became a borough, from the concourſe of people who came and ſettled in it. It is now well fortified, and encompaſſed with walls, which are flanked with baſtions and large deep ditches. The houſes are moſtly of timber, old and meanly built; it is likewiſe extremely dirty, and next to Amiens is the moſt populous town in all Picardy. It contains a collegiate church dedicated to St. Ulfranc, which is a lofty ſtone building, fourteen pariſh churches, fifteen convents, a commandery of the order of Malta, and a college. It has a provincial court, with a bailiage, a foreſt court, a court of commerce, a court of admiralty, and a ſalt office. As it is conveniently ſituated for commerce, it carries on a great trade in corn, oil, hemp, flax, cordage, and ſoap. The woollen manufacture eſtabliſhed here in 1665, by Mr. Roberts; a Dutchman, has ſucceeded ſo well, that at preſent its cloths are little inferior in fineneſs and goodneſs to thoſe of England. In it are alſo made very beautiful barragons, together with mocades, a kind of carpets, dimity, pluſh, coarſe linen, ſpun wool, and fire arms.

Calais, a ſtrong ſea-port town, in the fifty-firſt degree two minutes north latitude, and in the third degree fifteen minutes weſt longitude, one hundred and forty-three miles to the north of Paris, in a marſhy plain, on the narroweſt part of the Britiſh Channel, which is here only about ſeven leagues broad; here the white chalky cliffs of Dover may be ſeen from the coaſt; and between Dover and Calais, go two packet-boats twice a week. The figure of this city, including the citadel, is an oblong ſquare, the two long ſides of which are each about two hundred and twenty perches in length; and the two ſhorteſt about ninety. One of the largeſt ſides is towards the ſea, and very well fortified; the other is towards the land, defended by baſtions lined with ſtone, and covered with half-moons and deep ditches, nine or ten perches broad, that can be filled either with ſalt or freſh water, as they pleaſe. The ſhort ſide that lies oppoſite to the fort of Nieulai, may be defended by being laid under water, and the other ſide, called the Attack of Gravelines, is ſtill better fortified. The whole is encompaſſed by a covert-way, and fort Nieulai, juſt mentioned, is ſaid to be a perfect piece of fortification in its kind: it has four baſtions, and from thence the whole country about Calais may be laid under water in leſs than twenty-four hours. The citadel has ſtill its ancient circuit and ditches, but the chevalier de Ville has ſurrounded it with a new encloſure with three regular baſtions; and it is ſo advantageouſly ſituated, that it not only commands the town and fort, but likewiſe all the neighbouring country. Ships enter the port by a long canal, made by order of Lewis XIV. between two moles; at the head of each is a horn-work, defended by a half-moon, and encompaſſed by a wall, a deep ditch, and covert-way.

This port is very happily ſituated, but has ſeveral inconveniencies, for no veſſel can enter it without running a great riſque; it being almoſt choaked up, and there is no road for ſhips to ride at anchor. The canal at Calais is, however, of great uſe to the inhabitants for inland navigation; for by means of this canal one may eaſily paſs by water from Calais to St. Omer's, Gravelines, Dunkirk, Bruges, and Ypres. However, notwithſtanding the convenient ſituation of Calais, with reſpect to England and Holland, it is leſs populous than might be expected, it being ſuppoſed to contain only five thouſand inhabitants.

The ſtreets of Calais are ſtraight, well paved, and adorned with ſeveral houſes in the modern taſte. In the city is only one pariſh church, which is a fine building, and has a very magnificent dome, and a very beautiful altar of marble; there is another church in the ſuburbs of St. Peter. It has four convents, two communities for the inſtruction of youth, and two alms-houſes.

The inhabitants carry on a good trade in wine, brandy, ſalt, flax, horſes, and butter. They are exempt from all taxes, but the aſſeſſments for the repairs of the fortifications and canals run high. The city has a particular governor, a deputy-governor, and a mayor; and to the government of Calais belong twenty-four pariſhes.

Edward III. king of England, took the city after a memorable ſiege in the year 1347; and after the Engliſh had it in their poſſeſſion about two hundred years, it was retaken by the duke of Guiſe in 1558. It was, however, agreed by the treaty of Chateau-Cambreſis, that Calais ſhould continue in the hands of the French during the ſpace of eight years, after the expiration of which term it was to be reſtored to the Engliſh. Queen Elizabeth accordingly demanded it, but the chancellor de L'Hopital refuſed to reſtore it, under pretence that during the firſt religious war in France, which began three years after the above treaty of peace, the Engliſh had ſeized Havre de Grace, and by this means had violated the treaty, and forfeited their right to Calais, which the French kept, though the Engliſh did not keep Havre de Grace, it being retaken by the French. Albert, archduke of Auſtria, and governor of the Low Countries, made himſelf maſter of Calais in the year 1596; but it was reſtored two years after to Henry IV. of France, by virtue of the treaty of Vervins. In ſhort, this city was bombarded by the Engliſh in the years 1694, 1695, and 1696.

Boulogne, the ancient Geſoriacum, or Giſoriacum, and ſince Bononia, is the capital of a diſtrict, called the Boulonois, a particular government entirely independent of the governor-general of Picardy. This city ſtands upon a hill, at the mouth of the little river Liane, ſixteen miles to the ſouth-weſt of Calais. The harbour is very incommodious, with a narrow entrance, into which merchant-ſhips can only enter at time of flood; and St. John's road before the city, for ſhips of war can come no farther, is extremely bad, no veſſels being able to weather it there, unleſs the wind blows from ſome point between the north and ſouth-eaſt; for with all other winds the ſea is extremely rough and boiſterous. Here formerly ſtood a watch-tower, called by the French *La Tour d'Ordre*, the Tower of Orders, and by the Engliſh the Old Man, ſaid to have been firſt built by Julius Cæſar, and repaired by the emperor Charlemagne; but having been neglected, it fell down, and in the room of it was erected a ſmall fort, which ſerves for the defence of the harbour.

The city is divided into the Upper and Lower Town, the former of which is well fortified with a ſtrong citadel, and in it are ſeveral public ſquares and beautiful fountains, together with a palace, where juſtice is adminiſtered. Here is alſo a cathedral dedicated to the Virgin Mary, more venerable for its antiquity than for any thing elſe; alſo the parochial church of St. Joſeph; an abbey of St. Vilemar; beſides ſome monaſteries, a ſeminary for the education of ſuch as deſign to take holy orders, and an hoſpital built at the expence of the family of Aumont. The Lower Town, which is not inhabited by ſo many perſons of quality as the other, is larger and more conſiderable for its trade, it being chiefly inhabited by merchants and tradeſmen, and extends along the little port at the mouth of the river. The biſhop of this place is ſuffragan to the archbiſhop of Rheims, and has under his juriſdiction two hundred and ſeventy-ſeven pariſhes, with one hundred and forty-ſeven chapels of eaſe, and a revenue of twelve thouſand livres, out of which he pays fifteen hundred florins to the court of Rome.

In the year 1478, Lewis XI. ſurrendered this country to the Virgin Mary, declaring that for the future he and his ſucceſſors ſhould hold it from her immediately as her vaſſals, paying her for homage a golden heart at their acceſſion to the crown; in purſuance of which Lewis XIV. paid twelve thouſand livres for himſelf and his father Lewis XIII.

Boulogne was taken by Henry VIII. king of England, in the year 1544, and afterwards reſtored to the French king Henry II. by a treaty of peace in 1550, in conſideration of his paying three hundred thouſand crowns.

SECT. XIII.

The Situation, Extent, Produce, Rivers, and Government of Champagne and Brie; with a Deſcription of the principal Cities, as Troyes, Chalons, Rheims, and Sens.

THE province of Champagne is bounded on the north by Hainault and part of the biſhopric of Liege; on the eaſt by Luxemburg and Lorrain; on the ſouth by Burgundy; and on the weſt by the Iſle of France and Picardy; it being one of the moſt conſiderable provinces in the whole kingdom. This province extends from the weſt to the ſouth-eaſt, or from Lagny to Bourbon, forty-ſix leagues in length, and from ſouth to north, or from Ravieres to Rocrois, about fifty-four. It derives its name from the large plains in its center, but its borders are full of foreſts, hills, and mountains.

This country produces plenty of grain, but is particularly famous for its wine, which is exported in great quantities; and the natural commodities in which the inhabitants trade, are corn, wine, iron, wood, and cattle, with hay, woollen and ſilk ſtuffs, linen, &c.

Its principal rivers are the Meuſe or Maeſe, which receives its ſource near the village of Meuſe; the Seine; the Maine, which riſes in Baſſigny; the Aube, which has its ſource on the frontiers; and the Aiſne or Aine.

In this country are two archbiſhoprics and four biſhoprics. It is governed by the parliament, the chamber of accounts, and exchequer of Paris, except the territory of Sedan, which belongs to the parliament of Metz. It has ten provincial and diſtrict courts, ſeveral foreſt-courts, two courts of mintage, and a generalité. The military government of this province is lodged in a governor, four general-lieutenants, under whom are four hereditary ſub-governors. The principal cities in this country are the following:

Troyes, the ancient Auguſtomana, or Auguſtobona, the capital of the province, is ſeated in Lower Champagne, on the river Seine, about ſeventy miles to the ſouth-eaſt of Paris, and is pretty large, but far from being ſo flouriſhing and populous as formerly. It has fourteen pariſh churches, including the cathedral, and two collegiate churches, with four abbies, ten convents, one college, one ſeminary, and one hoſpital. The cathedral, which is dedicated to St. Peter, is a very noble ſtructure; its portico is in a fine taſte, but the tower on the left-ſide of it has been left unfiniſhed.

The city is ſurrounded with walls, but they are not kept in good repair; and formerly it had three caſtles, from which it is ſuppoſed to have obtained its preſent name; but there are now few remains of them left. The biſhop of Troyes is ſuffragan to the archbiſhop of Sens; his dioceſe contains three hundred and ſeventy-two pariſhes, ninety-eight chapels of eaſe, with ſeventeen abbies; his yearly revenue is fourteen thouſand livres, and his taxation at the court of Rome is two thouſand florins. This city ſtill carries on a tolerable trade, eſpecially in linen, flax, hemp, and cotton fuſtians, canvas, wax and tallow-candles, needles, ſerges, and tapeſtry.

Chalons, a large city ſeated on the Maine, in the Chalonois, a ſmall territory, and ninety-five miles to the eaſt of Paris. In this city is a cathedral, two chapters, eleven pariſh-churches, three abbies, nine convents, and there was till lately a college of Jeſuits. The biſhop, who is alſo a count and peer, is ſuffragan to the archbiſhop of Rheims, and in his dioceſe are comprehended three hundred and four pariſhes, ninety-three chapels of eaſe, with nineteen abbies. His yearly revenue is twenty-four thouſand livres, and his taxation at Rome three thouſand florins. The inhabitants carry on a conſiderable trade in ſhalloons, which took their name from this place, and in other woollen ſtuffs.

Rheims, the antient Durocortorum, and Civitas Remorum, the capital of a diſtrict called the Rheimois, is ſituated ſixty-two miles to the north of Troyes, and eighty-five to the north-eaſt of Paris, and is one of the moſt antient and celebrated cities in the whole kingdom. It is about four miles in circumference, and contains ſeveral fine ſquares, large ſtreets, well built houſes, and magnificent churches. Among theſe is the cathedral of Our Lady, which is a fine ſtructure, though of Gothic architecture; the principal door is remarkable for its workmanſhip, and the great altar, at which the coronation of the kings of France is performed, is plated with gold. The treaſury of this cathedral muſt be very great, as every king at his coronation makes an offering here. The book of the Goſpel upon which the king takes the coronation oath, is ſaid to be written in the Sclavonic tongue, and the cover is of gold ſet with gems. The archbiſhop of this place is the firſt duke and peer of France, perpetual legate of the ſee of Rome, and primate of all Gallia Belgica. He alſo crowns the king; he has an annual revenue of fifty thouſand livres, and his taxation at the court of Rome is four thouſand ſeven hundred and fifty florins. Here are alſo three collegiate churches, five abbies, nine convents, a commandery belonging to the order of St. Anthony, a commandery of the knights of Malta, and, till the Jeſuits were expelled, they had here a large ſeminary, and a fine college.

The abbey of Benedictines of St. Remy in this city is one of the nobleſt belonging to that order in all France; and on the altar of its church is kept the holy phial, which at the baptiſm of Clovis, in 496, by biſhop Remigius, they pretend was brought from heaven by a dove, at the prayer of that ſaint, the crowd being ſo great that he was unable to get to the font with the uſual oil.

oil. This phial is of a dark red glaſs, about the length of one's little finger, and nearly reſembles in ſhape a ſmall Hungary-water bottle. It has a gold ſtopper, and is fixed in a perforated ſquare caſket faſtened on a ſilver ſalver, it being ſeen only through a cryſtal cover placed over the caſket. The oil is ſaid to be grown dry, but on every unction of a king of France a ſmall quantity of it is taken out, and mixed with the oil prepared for the unction. The univerſity here was founded in the years 1547 and 1549. Among the other public buildings are three ſpacious hoſpitals. The city carries on a conſiderable trade in wine, woollen and ſilk ſtuffs, and gingerbread. It has ſeveral remarkable remains of Roman antiquities, particularly three gates of the city, which to this day bear the names of ſo many pagan deities, namely, of Mars, of the Sun, and Ceres.

Sens, the Agendicum of the antients, the capital of a diſtrict called the Senonois, is ſeated on the Yonne, and is large but not very populous, though it is well ſituated for trade. This city is the ſee of an archbiſhop, whoſe revenue amounts to fifty thouſand livres, and its taxation to the court of Rome is ſix thouſand one hundred and ſixty-ſix florins. The cathedral, which is dedicated to St. Stephen, is admired for its ſtately front, it being adorned with various figures and lofty towers; as alſo on account of its rich chapels, antient tombs, and the magnificence of the high altar, where is a table of gold enriched with precious ſtones, and on which is repreſented in relievo the four Evangeliſts, together with St. Stephen. There are here alſo ſixteen pariſh-churches, five abbies, nine convents, and there was till lately a college of Jeſuits.

Several councils have been held in this city, one of the moſt famous of which is that in the year 1140. It contains a provincial diſtrict, and foreſt court, together with a ſalt-office.

Meaux, in Latin Meldi, the capital of a diſtrict called Brie Champenoiſe, is ſeated on the river Marne, twenty-five miles to the north-eaſt of Paris, and contains a provincial and diſtrict court, a ſalt-office, &c. It has alſo a general-lieutenant, and a particular governor. The biſhop is ſuffragan to the archbiſhop of Paris: his dioceſe is divided by the river Marne into two large archdeaconries, to each of which belong three rural deanries; under both theſe are nine abbies, ſeven chapters, and two hundred and twenty-ſeven pariſhes. The biſhop's annual revenue amounts to twenty-two thouſand livres, and his taxation at the court of Rome to two thouſand florins. Beſides the cathedral there are in this city one chapter, five abbies, ſeveral convents, one alms-houſe, and one hoſpital.

SECT. XIV.

Of the Government of Burgundy; its Name, Situation, Extent, Rivers, Government, and a Deſcription of the principal Cities; particularly Dijon, Autun, and Trevoux, the Capital of the ſmall Principality of Dombes.

BURGUNDY, called by the French Burgogne, derives its name from the Burgundians, who, towards the beginning of the fifth century, ſettled in Swiſſerland and Franche Comté, whence ſpreading themſelves towards the rivers Soane and Rhone, they erected a kingdom of their own, which was gradually reduced by the kings of the Franks. This country is bounded on the north by Champagne, on the eaſt by Franche Comté, on the ſouth by Lyonnois, and on the weſt by the Bourbonnois and Nivernois. It extends from eaſt to weſt above thirty French leagues, and from north to ſouth above forty-five.

It is very fertile in corn and fruit, producing in particular excellent wine.

The rivers here are the Seine; the Dehune, which runs into the Soane; the Brebince, or Bourbince, which iſſues out of the lake of Longpendu; with the Armançon, the Ouche, and Tille, with ſeveral mineral ſprings.

In this government are four biſhopricks. The diſtrict and provincial courts are ſubordinate to the parliament of Dijon, which was erected in 1476; except the provincial courts of Maçon and Auxerre, and the diſtrict of Bar-ſur-Seine, which are ſubject to the parliament of Paris. The ſtates of the country, conſiſting of the repreſentatives of the nobility, clergy, and commons, meet regularly every three years by writ from the king, in order to raiſe the ſums required of them.

Dijon, in Latin Divio, the capital of the country, and government of Burgundy, is ſituated in the Dijonois, about a hundred and forty miles to the ſouth-eaſt of Paris. It is fortified after the antient manner, and defended by a caſtle flanked with great round towers. It is a pretty large city; the ſtreets are well paved, broad, and ſtraight; the houſes are handſome, and the churches and ſquares beautiful. The neighbouring country is fruitful, pleaſant, and watered by the rivers Suſon and Ouche; the firſt of which is but a rivulet, and, after running through the city moat, paſſes through the city itſelf, where it falls into the Dijon.

In this city are ſeven pariſh-churches, four abbies, three large hoſpitals, or alms-houſes, ſeveral convents, with a chapel in which is kept a ſuppoſed miraculous hoſt; and the Jeſuits had here a magnificent houſe. There are in this city likewiſe an academy of ſciences, and in 1723 a college of law was alſo erected here.

The walks before the city are a quarter of a league in length, planted with three rows of linden-trees, and terminated by a delightful grove. This city is the reſidence of the governor, the parliament, an intendancy, a taillage-office, a provincial, ſupreme, and particular court, a ſalt-office, &c. The biſhop is ſuffragan to the archbiſhop of Lyons, and enjoys a revenue of eighteen thouſand livres a year, out of which he pays to the court of Rome twelve hundred and thirty-three florins.

Autun, the Auguſtodunum of the antients, ſtands on an eminence near three hills on the river Arux, and is about a mile in length and as much in breadth. It conſiſts of the Upper city, which is commanded by Mount Cenis, and the Lower city, in which is the citadel, and where are held the provincial tribunal, a foreſt court, a ſalt-office, and ſeveral other courts. The biſhop of this place is ſuffragan to the archbiſhop of Lyons, though he is preſident of the aſſembly of the ſtates of Burgundy, and has a dioceſe of ſix hundred and eleven pariſhes and fourteen abbies under him. His revenue amounts to ſeventeen thouſand livres, and his taxation at the court of Rome is four thouſand and eighty florins. In this city is one cathedral, five abbies, two ſeminaries, two priories, one collegiate and twelve pariſh-churches. There was here alſo a college of Jeſuits, and there are at preſent ſix convents, particularly a fine chartreuſe, ſituated in the ſuburbs, in the church of which lie the laſt dukes of Burgundy, and two hoſpitals. In the midſt of the city is an open place called The Field of Mars, and there are ſtill the remains of three pagan temples, one of them dedicated to Janus, and another to Diana. Here are likewiſe two antient gates of excellent workmanſhip, which ſome have taken for triumphal arches, with a circus and the remains of a pyramid; which laſt, to all appearance, has been a tomb.

Auxerre, in Latin Antiſſiodorum, the capital of the earldom of Auxerrois, is ſituated on a hill near the river Yonne, ninety-two miles to the ſouth of Paris. It has a provincial and foreſt court, a chamber of tythes, a ſalt-office, &c and is the ſee of a biſhop, ſuffragan to the archbiſhop of Sens; his dioceſe contains two hundred and thirty-eight pariſhes, and he has a yearly revenue of thirty-five thouſand livres, out of which he pays four thouſand four hundred florins to the court of Rome. His palace is a moſt noble ſtructure. In this city are alſo a collegiate and eight pariſh-churches, five abbies, ſix convents, one commandery of the knights of Malta; and, till the expulſion of the Jeſuits, they had a ſeminary and a college in this city; there are here likewiſe two hoſpitals. This place, by means of the Yonne, carries on a good trade.

Trevoux, the antient Tivurtium, the capital of the principality of Dombes and of the caſtellany of Trevoux, is ſeated on a hill by the Saone, a hundred and eighty-eight miles to the ſouth-by-weſt of Paris, and is the reſidence of a governor, a parliament, a diſtrict court, and a mint.

a mint. It is ſaid to have derived its name from its ſituation on one of the highways which Agrippa made into Gaul, and which here divides into three branches. It has one chapter, three convents, and an hoſpital.

This city, with the little principality of Dombes, belongs to the duke of Maine, and was declared by Lewis XIV. an abſolute principality. Hence the prince of Dombes has here the power of life and death, can confer nobility, coin money, and impoſe what taxes he pleaſes on his ſubjects, though he has his own parliament. His certain revenue is about a hundred and fifty thouſand livres, and this little principality is governed by a governor-general in the prince's name.

SECT. XV.

Of the Situation, Produce, Government, and principal Cities of the Government of Lionnois; with a particular Deſcription of the City of Lyons.

LYONNOIS is bounded on the north by Burgundy, on the eaſt it is ſeparated by the Soane and Rhone from Dauphiné, on the ſouth it is bounded by Vivarais and Velais, and on the weſt by Auvergne. It comprehends the three ſmall provinces of Lyonnois, Beaujolois, and Forez; and produces corn, wine, and fruit, particularly an excellent kind of large cheſnuts called marrons.

The principal rivers are the Rhone, Soane, and Loire; beſides ſeveral ſmall ones, as the Furan, Azerque, Rhin, Lignon, &c. Here is alſo a mine of copper and vitriol, with ſeveral mineral ſprings.

The courts of this government proceed according to the civil law, and appeals from them lie to the parliament of Paris. Beſides its governor and general-lieutenant, it has two ſub-governors, one over Lyonnois and Beaujolois, the other over Forez.

We ſhall begin with Lyonnois, which is about twelve French leagues in length, and ſeven in breadth.

Lyons, in Latin Lugdunum, the capital of the Lyonnois, and of the whole government, ſtands fifteen miles to the north of Vienne, in Dauphiné, at the conflux of the Soane and the Rhone; the former runs through a part of the city, and has two bridges of wood, and a narrow one of ſtone; but the ſtone bridge over the Rhone is a noble ſtructure. This city is about a fourth part as large as Paris, and is very populous; but moſt of the ſtreets are narrow. The houſes, which are ſaid to amount to four thouſand, are generally high and well built, but diſgraced by the raggedneſs and mean appearance of their paper windows; and they are ſaid to contain above ninety thouſand ſouls.

In Lyons are ſeveral fine ſquares, in one of which is the town-houſe, the moſt elegant in Europe, which was begun in 1647, and finiſhed in 1655. It is a large building in the form of an oblong ſquare, and on each ſide of the front is a wing four hundred and twenty feet in length. In the middle of the front is a tower, with a cupola on the top, and in the angles project two large pavilions. The great gate is adorned with two columns of the Ionic order, and leads into a large hall arched over, where are to be ſeen the buſts of Philip the Fair, Charles VIII. and Henry IV. with the pictures of all the kings of France of the name of Lewis: the roof is alſo finely painted. There are here alſo the conſular chamber, where the provoſt and the four echevins uſually ſit; the hall where the merchants hold their meetings; and in another hall are the pictures of the echevins. Before the houſe is a handſome ſquare, in which is a large fountain.

The cathedral of Lyons is dedicated to St. John, and the chapter conſiſts of gentlemen of the beſt families. They boaſt of their having formerly had ſeveral kings and princes, who were members of it; particularly in the thirteenth century, when at one time they had the ſon of an emperor, nine ſons of kings, fourteen ſons of dukes, thirty of counts, and twenty of barons. To this chapter belong not only the cathedral, but the churches of St. Stephen and the Holy Croſs. The cathedral is indeed a large ſtructure, particularly famous for its clock, which like that at Straſburg, is celebrated for the variety of its motions; for at every hour a cock at the top claps his wings thrice, and crows twice, after which an angel coming out of a door, ſalutes the Virgin Mary, and at the ſame time the Holy Ghoſt deſcends, and an image of God the Father gives the benediction. The minute motion has an oval circle, and yet the hand always touches the circumference. Beſides the cathedral, are three chapters or collegiate churches, thirteen pariſh churches, and till lately there were two colleges of Jeſuits, the largeſt of which was the moſt ſtately in all the kingdom. This ſtructure is a regular quadrangle, curiouſly painted in freſco, though ſomething defaced on the eaſt-ſide, where the winds from the mountains beat upon it. Over the front-door, and over part of the church of that college is an obſervatory, one of the boldeſt pieces of architecture in Europe. Their chapel has a fine altar-piece of lapis-lazuli, and an excellent piece of painting by Blanchard. Their library is a ſpacious and handſome apartment, in which were ſome manuſcripts of the Bible, but not very ancient; but one of the moſt valuable pieces was a manuſcript of Pliny's Natural Hiſtory, of conſiderable antiquity.

Without the gate of St. Juſtus, is a large ſuburb where the bare-footed Carmelites have a delightful convent, with ſpacious gardens, from which there is a fine proſpect of the city: in their church is an altar of agate and lapis-lazuli. The Capuchins have alſo the pretended miracles of their ſaint painted on the walls of their cloiſter, among which is one of his paying his apothecary with prayers, inſtead of money. The nunnery of St. Peter is a fine ſtructure, and the pariſh church of St. Niege is adorned with ſeveral fine pieces of painting by Le Brun.

In one of the ſquares ſtands an equeſtrian ſtatue of braſs of Lewis XIV. La Belle Cour is a ſpacious area, and near it are a mall and a delightful walk. The monument of the two Lovers ſtands on the other ſide of the Soane, and ſeems to have been ſome Roman building, conſtructed with very large ſtones. The Fryars in Lyons are very importunate beggars, coming into the chambers of ſtrangers.

The arſenal here is a fine building, well ſtored with military implements; here are alſo three forts, but one of them is only garriſoned, and that ſerves for the priſon of the city. In this city are here ſtill to be ſeen ſome remains of Roman antiquities, as baths, aqueducts, and part of an amphitheatre.

This place is an archbiſhopric, and has an intendancy, a mint, with a provincial and other courts. Its archbiſhop is primate over the archbiſhoprics of Rouen, Tours, Sens, and Paris; ſo that appeals lie from them to him. He has alſo ſix biſhops for his ſuffragans, with a dioceſe of ſeven hundred and ſixty-four pariſhes, and a revenue of forty-eight thouſand livres, out of which he is taxed by the court of Rome three thouſand florins, and beſides the title of archbiſhop, he has that of count of Lyons.

Round the city lie ſome mountains which being variegated with convents, ſeats, gardens, and vineyards, form a very delightful proſpect.

Moſt of the inhabitants are makers of ſilk, gold, and ſilver laces. Formerly the looms in and about this city amounted to eighteen thouſand; but in 1698, this number was found reduced to four thouſand. It is ſtill, however, in great repute for the above manufactures, particularly for its bombaſines, which are admired for their beautiful luſtre; and its trade extends not only over all France, but even to Spain, Italy, Swiſſerland, Germany, and the Netherlands.

Forez, the next diviſion of this province, is equal in extent to Lyonnois and Beaujolois put together, and has ſeveral ſmall towns. Its capital is Montbriſon, ſituated on the little river Veziza, ſeventeen miles to the ſouth-weſt of Lyons, and has ſeveral courts of juſtice and public offices: it has alſo a collegiate church, with ſome other churches and convents.

Beaujolois is a diſtrict ten French leagues in length, and eight in breadth. This is a very fruitful country. Its capital is Ville Franche, which is ſeated on the little river Morgon, near the Soane; and has a collegiate church, and an academy of the polite Arts, with ſeveral public offices.

SECT. XVI.

Of Languedoc; its Situation, Extent, Climate, remarkable Winds, Minerals, Mountains, and Produce; with a Deſcription of the Plant called Woad, and the Fork-Tree. The Springs and Rivers of this Province, with a Deſcription of the Canal which forms a Communication between the Ocean and the Mediterranean. The Trade and Government of this Province; with an Account of its principal Cities, Toulouſe, Narbonne, Montpellier, Niſmes, with its Antiquities, and a Deſcription of the Aqueduct called Pont du Guard, &c.

LANGUEDOC is bounded on the eaſt by the Rhone, which ſeparates it from Provence and Dauphiné; on the north by Lyonnois, Auvergne, and Guienne; on the weſt a part of it is divided by the Garonne from a part of Gaſcony; and on the ſouth it terminates on the countries of Rouſſillon and Foix, and alſo on the Mediterranean. The eaſtern coaſt from Agde as far as the Rhone is remarkably increaſed, the ſea having retired from it conſiderably, as evidently appears on conſulting the accounts of antient geographers with reſpect to the ſituation of ſeveral of its maritime places when compared with the preſent. The figure of this country is very irregular; its extent, however, from eaſt to weſt may be computed at about ſeventy leagues, but from north to ſouth in the narroweſt part it is between ten and twelve; but in the broadeſt weſtward it is almoſt thirty, and to the eaſtward near thirty-two.

The winds in this country are very remarkable. Along the ſouthern coaſt, which is properly a long valley, extending from Toulouſe to the ſea, generally blows a weſt wind, though it is ſometimes north and ſometimes ſouth-weſt. This wind gradually increaſes, and being cool refreſhes the country in ſummer. The inhabitants call it Cirs, in conformity to its antient name Circius. Oppoſite to this blows another from the eaſt or ſouth-eaſt, which is called Autun. This is firſt perceived near Narbonne, and at Caſtelnaudari is very violent. It is hot, cauſes head-achs, with loſs of appetite, and ſeems to ſwell the whole body. In the eaſtern part of Languedoc is frequently felt a cold and very ſtrong north wind, which follows the courſe of the Rhone in the valley through which it runs from north to ſouth, and is called Biſe, or Black. Sometimes, in direct oppoſition to the latter, blows a ſea-wind, which is uſually accompanied with a drizzling rain; but when dry, has the ſame morbid effects as the Autun in Upper Languedoc: beſides, in the heat of ſummer, from the coaſt of Leucate to the Rhone, ſea-breezes conſtantly ſet in, at nine or ten o'clock in the morning, and, to the great refreſhment of the air, laſt till about five in the evening. Laſtly, it is alſo obſervable, that at the foot of the Pyrenees, near the village of Blaud, in a narrow valley wholly environed with mountains, except towards the north-weſt, and through certain openings two or three hundred paces wide, blows a very cool weſt or north-weſt gale, which chiefly prevails in ſummer, and then only in the night. In clear and warm weather this gale is much ſtronger than in a thick and cold air. In ſummer it cools the whole valley, and in winter prevents white froſts; and, as it blows only in the night, the inhabitants of the village of Blaud can winnow their corn at no other time.

This province produces ſome very beautiful marble, and in ſeveral places in Lower Languedoc are found turquoiſes. There are here alſo lead and iron mines.

This country is very mountainous, particularly the Cevennes, which are of great height and very ſteep; yet theſe being, as it were, the head-quarters of the Proteſtants, abound in people. It produces plenty of corn, fruit, and fine wine; with large plantations of olives and mulberry-trees, the latter for ſilk-worms and the former for oil, though this laſt is inferior to that of Provence. They here tread out the corn in the manner practiſed in the Eaſt, by cauſing a number of mules and horſes to turn round a circle upon the grain, which is ſtrewed under them, and afterwards alſo tread the ſtraw into ſmall pieces to ſave the trouble of chopping it.

Among the products of the ſoil may be reckoned woad, which particularly grows in Upper Languedoc. This plant has its root uſually an inch thick, and a foot or a foot and a half in length, with five or ſix leaves growing from it, that are a foot long, and ſix inches broad. The flower repreſents a croſs, and bears an oblong ſeed, which is ſometimes of a violet, and ſometimes of a yellow colour; but the former is the beſt. It is uſually ſown in February, and requires a good ſoil, with great care after it begins to ſhoot. When the herb is ripe, it is cut off cloſe to the ground, and immediately pounded to a paſte, which is made up into cakes, or balls; and theſe, when thoroughly dried in the ſun, are reduced to a powder, which gives a very beautiful and laſting blue.

The fork-tree is alſo one of the curioſities of this country, though it is alſo found in Spain and Italy. The ſtem of this tree is from two to four feet high, when its farther growth is generally checked. At the top of its ſtem grow a conſiderable number of ſtraight ſhoots, which are ſuffered to riſe five or ſix feet, and about the third year are cut into the form of three-pronged forks; and in the ſixth, ſeventh, and frequently not till the ninth, when they have completed their growth, are carefully cut off cloſe to the ſtem, and undergo a ſecond formation in a hot oven.

There are here ſeveral periodical and medicinal ſprings. The principal rivers are the Rhone; the Garonne, which iſſues from the Pyrenean mountains; the Aude; the Tarne, which proceeds from the Gevaudan; the Allier, which riſes in the ſame country; and the Loire, which iſſues from the Vivarez, and falls into the Mediterranean.

The royal canal formed in order to make a communication between the ocean and the Mediterranean ſea, that veſſels might paſs from one ſea into the other without going round by Spain, is one of the nobleſt works that any country has ever produced, and therefore deſerves an ample deſcription. Under Lewis XIV. Riquet, after employing twenty years in a minute conſideration of every particular, during which he had no other counſeller than his gardener, completed his plan, which he executed between the years 1666 and 1680.

This canal begins at the harbour of Cette on the Mediterranean, and traverſes the lake of Thau, and a quarter of a mile below Toulouſe is conveyed by three ſluices into the Garonne. It is forty French leagues in length, and every where ſix feet deep; ſo that a cargo of eighteen hundred quintals may be forwarded to any place upon it, and its breadth, from one bank to the other, is a hundred and forty-four feet. In the whole canal are ſixty-four large ſluices, many of which conſiſt of two, three, and four ſmaller ones, by means of which the water is confined in the riſing grounds.

At St. Ferreol, a quarter of a mile below Revel, between two rocky hills, that are in the form of a half-moon, is a large reſervoir twelve hundred fathoms in length, five hundred in breadth, and twenty deep, the whole ſurface being ſix hundred and eighty-ſeven thouſand four hundred and thirty-eight feet. Into this baſon of water the rivulet of Laudot, which runs down the hills, is received, and encloſed by a wall two thouſand four hundred feet long, a hundred and thirty-two in height, and twenty-four feet thick, having a ſtrong dam defended by a ſtrong wall of free-ſtone. Under the dam runs an arched paſſage reaching to the main wall, where three large cocks, of caſt braſs, are turned and ſhut by means of iron bars; and theſe cocks diſcharge the water through mouths as large as a man's body into an arched aqueduct, where it runs through the outer wall, and when got beyond it goes on under the name of the river Laudot, continuing its courſe to the canal called Rigole de la Plaine. From thence it is conveyed to another fine reſervoir near Naurouſe, two hundred fathoms in length, a hundred and fifty in breadth, with the depth of ſeven feet; and out of this baſon it is conveyed by means of ſluices, as well to the Mediterranean ſea as to the ocean, according as the canal wants it. Though the above cocks remain open for ſome months ſucceſſively, yet there is no viſible diminution of the water in the great reſervoir. Near Bezieres are eight ſluices, which form a regular and

grand caſcade nine hundred and thirty-ſix feet long, and ſixty-ſix high, by means of which veſſels may paſs croſs the river Orb, and continue their voyage on the canal. Above it, between Bezieres and Gapeſtan, is the Mal Pas, where the canal is conveyed for the length of a hundred and twenty fathoms under a mountain cut into a very lofty arcade, the greateſt part of which is lined with free-ſtone, except towards the end, where it is only hewn through the rock, which is of a ſoft ſulphureous ſubſtance. At Agde is a round ſluice, with three openings, three different depths of the water meeting there; and the gates are ſo ingeniouſly contrived, that veſſels may paſs through by opening which the maſter pleaſes; an invention which ſtruck the great Vauban himſelf with admiration. The leſſer rivers and ſtreams that might have prejudiced the canal have been carried under it by watercourſes, of which there are forty-four, and eight bridges.

This canal coſt thirteen millions of livres, part of which money was furniſhed by the king, and part by the ſtates of Languedoc. The king generouſly granted to Riquet, the inventor, and his male heirs, all the juriſdiction and revenues belonging to it; ſo that the crown does not come into poſſeſſion till the extinction of that line. Ships paſſing on it for every hundred weight pay twenty ſous, and even the king himſelf pays the ſame toll for military ſtores, &c. ſent by way of this canal; ſo that the revenue, eſpecially in time of a briſk trade, is very conſiderable. However, the charges attending it are alſo very great; for the ſalaries of the ſeveral directors, receivers, comptrollers, lieutenants, clerks, and watchmen, annually amount to one hundred thouſand livres, beſides the great expence of repairs. The counts of Caraman, deſcendants of the above-mentioned Riquet, are alſo obliged to keep paſſage-boats, which are drawn by mules or horſes; and though there are no paſſengers, they muſt go and come at ſtated times.

The coaſt of Languedoc is dangerous, and alſo in want of good and ſecure harbours. With reſpect to its trade, the city of Montpellier, by means of the river Lez, and the lakes near it, carries on, at the harbour of Cette, the greateſt maritime trade in all the province; but the whole is not very conſiderable. The commerce of this province principally conſiſts of manufactures and other goods. Wine is exported hence to the coaſts of Italy; oil to Swiſſerland and Germany; and, when the harveſt is uncommonly good, corn to Italy and Spain; dried cheſnuts and raiſins are ſent to Tunis and Algiers; and cloth to Swiſſerland, Germany, and the Levant.

Towards the middle of the ſixteenth century the Reformation made an extraordinary progreſs in this country; but was ſoon attended with civil war, and all the rage of perſecution, which was carried on here with greater fury than in other parts of France; and Languedoc was the ſcene of continual troubles and cruelties for above an hundred years; but though more blood was ſhed here than in the whole kingdom beſides, there are ſtill in this province a great number of ſecret Proteſtants.

The Popiſh clergy are here extremely numerous and wealthy, there being in Languedoc three archbiſhops and twenty biſhops, and the whole eccleſiaſtical revenues amount to twenty-five millions forty-one thouſand eight hundred and fifty-two livres per annum. It has alſo a great number of inferior courts ſubject to the ſupreme ones, which are the parliament of Toulouſe, and the chamber of accompts and taxes at Montpellier. The governors of diſtricts here reſemble the bailiffs in the other provinces, and are eight in number. Every diſtrict has a court of juſtice, to which lie appeals from the Vigueries or royal courts. In it is alſo a ſuperior foreſt court, with ſeven dependent on it. The parliament conſiſts of the clergy, the nobility, and the commons, who are called together by the king every October. Under the governor of Languedoc are three general lieutenants, namely, one over Upper Languedoc, the ſecond over Lower Languedoc, and the third over the dioceſes of Niſmes, Alais, Mende, Puy, Viviers, and Uſez. It has alſo nine inferior governors, each of which has his reſpective department.

The principal places in this province are the following;

Toulouſe, or Thoulouſe, the capital of Languedoc, and one of the moſt ancient cities in the kingdom, is ſituated in latitude forty-three degrees thirty-five minutes forty ſeconds, and in one degree ten minutes eaſt longitude, in a diſtrict called the Toulouſain, in a moſt delightful plain on the Garonne, and, next to Paris, is ſaid to be the largeſt city in all France. The ſtreets are moſtly broad, and the houſes built of brick; it is not, however, very populous, and though ſo finely ſituated, its trade is inconſiderable, its principal article being Spaniſh wool. This is chiefly imputed to the vanity of the merchants, who no ſooner acquire a conſiderable fortune, than they make it their chief aim to obtain a ſeat in the city council, and to lay aſide all commerce.

This city is the ſeat of an intendency and receiver's office, of a governor, a provincial court, a royal tribunal, an admiralty, a foreſt court, a mint, and other public offices; it is alſo the reſidence of an archbiſhop, and the ſecond parliament of the kingdom. The dioceſe of the archbiſhop contains two hundred and fifty pariſhes, his revenue amounts to ſixty thouſand livres a year, and his taxation at the court of Rome is five thouſand florins.

The cathedral is an ancient handſome ſtructure, but contains nothing remarkable: in the ſpacious area before it is a fountain, over which is an obeliſk curiouſly wrought. In the church of St. Sernin, or St. Saturnin, are ſaid to lie thirty bodies of ſaints, and among them ſeven of the Apoſtles, one of whom they pretend to be St. James the Younger, though St. Jago de Compoſtella in Spain alſo boaſts of being poſſeſſed of the body of that apoſtle. Near this city ſtands a ſecularized abbey. The church of La Dorade is thus called from a gilded, but now a coal black image of the Virgin Mary, which ſtands on the great altar, and in any time of calamity is the conſtant refuge of the inhabitants. The name of the ſtatuary was Luke, which being marked on the baſe, has made the common people imagine that this image was carved by St. Luke. The church of the Carmelites has a large and magnificent chapel; that of the Dominicans is alſo large and ſplendid. Under the choir of the Franciſcan church is a vault, where bodies dry without mouldering or putrefaction; but become extremely light. The ſociety of the Blue Penitents in this city is one of the moſt renowned fraternities in the whole kingdom, having in its regiſters kings, princes of the blood, and eminent eccleſiaſtics.

The univerſity of Toulouſe is reputed the ſecond in France, and conſiſts of ſeveral colleges. The four faculties, namely, divinity, law, philoſophy, and phyſic, with the liberal arts, are taught here. Here is alſo an academy of polite literature, founded by royal patent in September 1694; it is compoſed of a chancellor, and forty-two members or fellows, who employ their talents chiefly in poetry. This is in the room of a ſociety called the Floral Games; and ſtill every year, on the third day of May, they give away four prizes, one gold and three ſilver flowers, to thoſe who diſtinguiſh themſelves by writing the beſt copy of verſes.

The above ſociety meet in the town-houſe, which is a ſpacious building called the Capitolium, in which there is a white marble ſtatue of Clementia, who is ſaid to have inſtituted the above-mentioned Floral prizes in the year 1540. The hall of this ſtructure is adorned with the buſts of the illuſtrious and celebrated natives of Toulouſe, as alſo of two Gothic kings, ſome counts of Toulouſe, and ſeveral diſtinguiſhed civilians. There are here preſerved five large parchment folios, finely written and illuminated, being the annals of the city from the year 1288 to the preſent time.

Here is alſo an academy of the ſciences and liberal arts. The ſtone bridge over the Garonne, which is a hundred and thirty-five fathoms long, and twelve broad, reſts on ſeven arches of different magnitudes; but, except the cantons, which are of ſtone, is wholly built of brick. In this city are made Bergamo carpets, but of little value, together with ſome ſlight ſilk and woollen ſtuffs.

Narbonne, the ancient Narbo, is a fortified city, ſixty-four miles to the weſt of Montpellier, ſeated on a canal which paſſes through it, and joins the river Aude. It is the reſidence of an archbiſhop, whoſe province contains a hundred

a hundred and forty-four pariſhes, and its revenue amounts to ninety thouſand livres per annum, out of which he pays at Rome nine thouſand florins. The cathedral, called St. Juſtus and St. Paſtor, is remarkable for its fine organs and curious painting, in which are repreſented the raiſing of Lazarus from the dead, the laſt judgment, and other pieces. There are alſo five other pariſh-churches, the principal of which is the collegiate church of St. Paul, with a college of the fathers of the Chriſtian doctrine, and ſeveral convents for perſons of both ſexes. The remains of Roman antiquities ſtill to be ſeen here conſiſt of ſtones and inſcriptions, chiefly placed in the walls of the court of the archbiſhop's palace, and in the garden is a beautiful Roman ſepulchre of white marble.

Montpellier, in Latin Mons Peſſalanus, is ſeated on a hill by the river Lez, fifty miles to the north-eaſt of Narbonne, and, next to Toulouſe, is the moſt conſiderable city in all Languedoc. It contains a chamber of taxes and accompts, with an intendancy, a treaſurer's office, a provincial court of juſtice, a ſheriff's court, an independant court, a foreſt court, a mint, &c. It has many fine houſes; but the ſtreets are very narrow, which is attended with this convenience, that in hot weather they have linen awnings drawn over them, under which a perſon may walk without being incommoded by the ſun. The air here is ſo pleaſant and healthy, that numbers of foreigners, and eſpecially of the Engliſh, reſort hither for the recovery of their health, particularly when labouring under hectic diſorders. The city is adorned with ſeveral ſtately edifices, as the hall of juſtice, the churches of St. Peter and the Virgin Mary, and a ſtrong citadel, flanked with four royal baſtions, which commands the town and the neighbouring country. In the ſquare of Lewis the Great, which is without the city, is the pleaſant walk of Peyron, in which ſtands an equeſtrian ſtatue of that monarch in bronze, upon a pedeſtal of a greyiſh white marble. This the ſtates of Languedoc erected in honour of him. The city gate leading to this ſquare is built in the form of a triumphal arch. The biſhop of this place is ſubject to the archbiſhop of Narbonne; his dioceſe contains a hundred and ſeven pariſhes; his revenue is thirty-two thouſand livres, and he is taxed at the court of Rome four thouſand florins.

The univerſity here is particularly famous for phyſic, it being founded by phyſicians who were expelled Spain in the year 1180. The celebrated ſcarlet gown of Rabelais, with which all doctors of phyſic are inveſted at taking their degrees, has long ſince ceaſed to be an original, the ſtudents having, from time to time, cut off little ſlips, ſo that the robe now uſed is ſaid to be at leaſt the third or fourth ſubſtitute. In 1706, a royal academy of ſciences was founded here, and they have an excellent phyſic garden, in which public lectures on botany are read. The inhabitants are principally employed in making verdigris, likewiſe in dimities, ſilks, and woollen ſtuffs; they have alſo a conſiderable trade in wool brought from the Mediterranean, in wine, aquavitæ, Hungary water, cinnamon-water, &c.

This city formerly belonged to the proteſtants, as one of their cautionary towns; and though Henry IV. made over to them this and other places, his ſon Lewis XIII. took it from them after a vigorous defence in 1622.

Frontigniac, or Frontignan, a ſmall town ſeated on the lake of Thau, ſeventeen miles to the ſouth-weſt of Montpellier, is remarkable for its excellent muſcadine wine, its jar-raiſins, and its handſome town-houſe. This wine is called by the Engliſh Frontiniac. The above lake, which is alſo called Maguleone, is twelve leagues in length, and ſeparated from the ſea only by a narrow tract of land; but in one place has a communication with the gulf of Lyons, which, according to Dr. Buſching, takes not its name from the city of Lyons, which is ſeated at a great diſtance from the ſea, but rather from the violent ſtorms ſo frequent in this ſhallow part of the Mediterranean, and which deſtroy the ſhips as a furious lion does its prey.

Niſmes, or Nimes, in Latin Nemauſus, a large city, thirty miles to the north of Montpellier, is very pleaſantly ſituated, it having on one ſide, hills covered with vines, and on the other, a very fertile plain. The ſtreets are in general narrow, but kept pretty clean, and the houſes of ſtone handſomely built. One-third of the inhabitants are ſecret proteſtants. Here is a collector's office, an intendency, and a provincial court of juſtice. Its biſhop is ſuffragan to the archbiſhop of Narbonne, and his dioceſe contains two hundred and fifteen pariſhes: he has an annual revenue of twenty-ſix thouſand livres, out of which his taxation at the court of Rome is twelve hundred florins. In this city are ſeveral convents, and it had a jeſuit's college; it has an academy of polite literature, founded in 1682; and is defended by a citadel conſiſting of four baſtions. There are here ſuch a multitude of manufacturers, that its cloth and ſilk trade alone exceeds that of the whole province.

In the city and its neighbourhood are ſeveral illuſtrious monuments of antiquity: one of the principal of theſe is an amphitheatre, ſaid to be the leaſt damaged of any in Europe. It is built of free-ſtone, the outſide of which is very entire, the ſtones are in many places of an amazing length and thickneſs: it is two ſtories high, and has ſixty arches and columns in each ſtory; on theſe and their cornices are to be ſeen the Roman eagles, with figures of Romulus and Remus ſucking a wolf. The ſteps or ſeats are ruined, and the arena filled with houſes. Over the large entrance are two half bulls cut in ſtone, alſo a triple and winged Priapus, and the figure of a woman holding by a bridle.

The other antiquities are an oblong ſtructure embelliſhed with thirty-two columns of the Corinthian order, ſuppoſed to be a temple erected by the emperor Adrian in honour of Plotina, conſort to Trajan. A temple conſiſting of moſt beautiful free-ſtone, above half of which is ſtill ſtanding, and is ſuppoſed to have been dedicated to Diana; and cloſe by it is the fountain of Diana mentioned by Auſonius, which firſt diffuſing itſelf into a deep and wide pond, furniſhes water enough to ſupply all the gardens of the city. From ſeveral remains, it appears that this was a public bath. Here is alſo an octangular tower fifteen fathoms high, the whole being a ſolid ſtructure from the bottom to the top. It is remarkable, that the heads of all the Roman eagles found here are ſtruck off; which is imputed to the Goths, who, on their reduction of this country, are ſuppoſed to have done this by way of inſult of the haughty enemy they had ſubdued. The eſplanade or walking-place without the city, is extremely delightful.

At no great diſtance from the city, and a mile and a half from the market-town of Remoulins, is a bridge called the Pont du Guard, a moſt valuable piece of Roman antiquity, it being part of the great aqueduct by which the ſpring of Eure was carried the length of nine hours diſtance to Niſmes, and there diſtributed in the amphitheatre, public fountains, and private houſes. The above bridge conſiſts of three ranges of arches, built one upon another, over the river Gardon, and thus connecting the high rocks on both ſides the river, ſo as to afford a free paſſage to the water of the ſpring abovementioned from one mountain to the other. The lower part conſiſts of ſix arches, four hundred and thirty-eight feet in length, and eighty-three in height. The ſecond conſiſts of eleven arches each, fifty-ſix feet in dameter, and ſixty-ſeven in height; and is of ſuch an extraordinary width, that, beſides the pillars on which the upper part or range of arches reſts, there is a horſe and footway leading through it, ſecured by a breaſt-work. The third range, which reſts on the ſecond, and is five hundred and eighty-five feet and a half in length, conſiſts of thirty-five arches, each of which is ſeventeen feet in diameter; and over this uppermoſt range runs the aqueduct, which is of ſuch a height and breadth, that with a little inclination of the body a perſon may walk in it. The whole is of a very hard and durable free-ſtone. From an eminence towards Uzez, a ſmall epiſcopal town near the ſpring of Eure, are here and there ſeen entire ranges of arches, all which belong to this vaſt aqueduct.

Quiſſac is a ſmall place ſeated on the Vidourle, between which and the town of Sauve, at the foot of a mountain near the river, is a periodical ſpring, which runs and intermits twice in twenty-four hours. The flow laſts ſeven hours twenty-five minutes, and the intermiſſion five hours. This is ſuppoſed to be occaſioned by a cave or reſervoir in the mountain, which being filled

every five hours, diſcharges itſelf through a canal in the form of a ſiphon. This water is drank as a mineral, and when heated is uſed for bathing. It contains a conſiderable quantity of ſulphur, and is reputed very good for all diſorders of the eyes.

In Languedoc is the diſtrict of Albigeois, from whence the Albigenſes take their name, they being a brave and upright people, who ſo early as the eleventh century oppoſed popery, and adhered to the doctrines of the Goſpel, amidſt the violent perſecutions which their integrity drew upon them. The country produces plenty of corn, wine, fruit, and ſaffron; but the people are poor.

The capital of this country is Alby, which ſtands on an eminence near the river Tarn; it is the reſidence of an archbiſhop, and has a royal tribunal, with ſeveral other courts. This dioceſe contains three hundred and twenty-ſeven pariſh churches, and the annual revenue of the archbiſhop amounts to ninety-five thouſand livres, out of which he pays two thouſand florins to the court of Rome. He is lord alſo of the city, though the high and low juriſdiction, and the high domains, are in the king's hands. The cathedral is one of the richeſt and fineſt buildings in the kingdom: the archiepiſcopal palace is alſo very noble. The walk called La Lice, a little above the city, is extremely pleaſant, and the little town of Chateauvieux forms a handſome ſuburb. At a council held here in 1176 the doctrines of the Albigenſes were anathematized.

Alais, or Alez, a pretty large populous city ſeated on the river Gardon, thirty-five miles to the north of Montpellier. It is the ſee of a biſhop ſuffragan to the archbiſhop of Narbonne, who has an annual revenue of ſixteen thouſand livres, out of which he pays to the court of Rome five hundred florins. This dioceſe conſiſts of eighty pariſhes, and the biſhopric was founded ſo lately as the year 1691, in order to bring over to the church of Rome the great number of Proteſtants in that part of the country, and a college of Jeſuits was added as auxiliaries to it. The quantity of unwrought ſilk annually carried out of this city, is ſaid to amount to at leaſt one million two hundred thouſand pounds weight.

SECT. XVII.

Of the Governments of Rouſſillon and Foix; their Situation, Extent, Mountains, Produce, Rivers, and Trade; with a Deſcription of the City of Perpignan.

THE county of Rouſſillon is ſeparated to the north from Languedoc by the Leſſer Pyrenees, to the eaſt it borders on the Mediterranean, and to the ſouth and weſt is divided by the large Pyrenean mountains from Catalonia and Cerdagne. Its length from eaſt to weſt is above fifty miles, and it is twenty-five in breadth. Its name of Rouſſillon is derived from its ancient capital Ruſcino.

Among the ſeveral mountains here, the higheſt are thoſe of Maſſane and Canigou; the latter of which is ſaid to be fourteen hundred fathoms in height. This country is on all ſides environed with mountains; and the ſummer-heats are ſo intenſe, that the inhabitants are almoſt univerſally ſwarthy and meagre.

The ſoil is very fruitful in corn, wine, and forage; and in ſome parts ſo uncommonly fertile, that, after the corn harveſt is got in, they ſow millet, and thus procure two, and ſometimes three harveſts in a year. Mules are here uſed for the plough. The great wealth of the country conſiſts in olives and oranges, which are almoſt as common here as apples and pears in Normandy. They have very little wood, and that only of ſhrubs; and from their want of navigable rivers, the only way of being ſupplied with goods from other countries is by means of mules.

The inhabitants have a conſiderable number of ſheep, which are much eſteemed for the uncommon delicacy of their fleſh. Oxen are alſo fattened here, for the gratification of the wealthy; but the breeding of cows is neglected, their milk being bad; however, the pigeons, quails, and partridges of Rouſſillon are excellent. The chief branch of trade in this province is oil, which they ſell to the annual amount of two hundred thouſand livres; they alſo export corn, millet, and wool.

The Tet, Tec, and Agly, its only rivers, are no more than rapid brooks, which diſcharge themſelves into the ſea. Here are alſo hot baths, and at Cannet and the lake of St. Nazaire the ſea-water is conveyed into canals, and there converted into ſalt by the heat of the ſun.

This county, which formerly belonged to the king of Arragon, was taken by Lewis XIII. and by the peace of the Pyrenees in 1669 was ceded to France. It contains but one biſhopric. At Perpignan is a ſuperior court, or council, to which lie appeals from all the inferior courts. In it is alſo a mint. The contributions payable by the inhabitants conſiſt of a poll-tax, which produces about forty thouſand livres. This country, beſides a governor, has a lieutenant-general, and deputy-governor.

Perpignan, in Latin Perpeniacum, the capital of the country, is ſeated on the river Tet, ſixty-five miles to the north-eaſt of Bourdeaux, partly in a plain, and partly on a hill. It is fortified with a high and thick wall, ſtrengthened with baſtions: it has alſo a citadel, which is a fine work, and the ſuburbs are likewiſe defended by a fort. It is, however, a place of no great extent; but is very populous, there being here a ſuperior royal council, or high court of juſtice, an intendency, a chancery, a ſalt-office, and a mint. Its biſhop is ſuffragan to the archbiſhop of Narbonne, and has a dioceſe of a hundred and eighty pariſhes. His revenue is about eighteen thouſand livres, out of which he is taxed by the court of Rome fifteen hundred florins. Beſides the cathedral it has four pariſh-churches, a ſeminary, twelve convents, and had two colleges of Jeſuits. It has likewiſe an univerſity founded in 1349, with ſeveral alms-houſes and hoſpitals. Among the other public buildings is a large cannon foundery. The greateſt diſadvantage of this city is the want of good water fit for drinking.

We now come to the government of Foix, which contains the diſtrict and county of Foix, with the territories of Andorre and Donezan. It is bounded on the north and eaſt by Languedoc, on the ſouth by the Pyrenean mountains and Rouſſillon, and on the weſt by Gaſcony. The principal rivers are the Auviege and the Rize. This country is a dependency of the parliament of Toulouſe, and conſtitutes part of the lands of the ſtates, who are annually called together by the king. Its trade conſiſts of cattle, raiſins, turpentine, pitch, cork, jaſper, and particularly iron; and, beſides, the governor has a lieutenant-general.

Upper Foix lies among the mountains, and all its products are wood, iron, and mineral waters, with ſome paſtures. In this country are ſeveral caverns, in which are very ſingular figures formed by the petrifying waters. Lower Foix produces ſome grain and wine. There are in this government four principal towns; but theſe are very ſmall, and too inconſiderable to require any deſcription.

The little diſtrict and ſovereignty of Donezan, juſt mentioned, is nine miles in length, and the ſame in breadth; it is ſeparated from the county of Foix by a chain of mountains, and contains nine market-towns and villages; and the territory or valley of Andorre has alſo ſeveral villages.

SECT. XVIII.

Of the Government of Lower Navarre and Bearn; their Situation, Extent, Hiſtory, Produce, and principal Cities.

WE have already deſcribed that part of Navarre which belongs to Spain, in treating of that kingdom, and now come to French or Lower Navarre, which is united under the ſame government with the principality of Bearn. Theſe two contiguous countries are bounded on the north and eaſt by Gaſcony, on the ſouth by the Pyrenean mountains, and on the weſt by another part of Gaſcony.

Lower Navarre is one of the ſix bailiwics which formerly compoſed the kingdom of Navarre; but in 1512 Ferdinand, king of Arragon and Caſtile, having, under

frivolous

frivolous pretences, poſſeſſed himſelf of the kingdom of Navarre, all that Catharine, the lawful heireſs, and her huſband John d'Albret, could procure to be reſtored to them was this little ſpot. They were alſo poſſeſſed of Bearne. John, their ſon, had no better ſucceſs; he poſſeſſed the ſame countries, but the title of ſovereign was confined to the ſcanty remnant of Navarre, which was called a kingdom. Johanna, his daughter, in 1584, married Anthony of Bourbon, to whom ſhe brought the above-mentioned countries as a dowry. Their ſon Henry IV. arrived to be king of France, and his ſon and ſucceſſor Lewis XIII. annexed Lower Navarre and Bearne to the crown of France.

The kingdom or province of Lower Navarre, ſeparately conſidered, is bounded on the north by Gaſcony; on the eaſt by a part of Gaſcony and Bearne; on the ſouth it is ſeparated from Upper Spaniſh Navarre by the Pyrenean mountains; and on the weſt borders on Labourd, a diſtrict of Gaſcony; it extending only twenty-four miles in length, and fifteen in breadth.

The country is mountainous, and produces little. The inhabitants ſpeak the Baſque dialect, which is the ſame with that of Biſcay. The principal rivers are ſmall; theſe are the Nive, which has its ſource in the Spaniſh mountains, and the Bidouſe, which has its ſource here, and both fall into the Adour.

In the whole country of Lower Navarrre there is neither abbey, collegiate church, nor convent; the only eccleſiaſtical buildings remaining here being four parochial priories. The Reformation took place here under the reign of Henry II. king of Navarre; but in 1694, there was, at leaſt in appearance, a general return to the Romiſh church. In Bearne are two biſhopricks. The whole government is ſubject to the juriſdiction of the parliament of Pau: yet both Lower Navarre and Bearn have ſtates of their own, each paying the king annually four thouſand eight hundred and ſixty livres, as an ordinary contingent, with two thouſand more to the maintenance of the troops. To the governor they allow ſeven thouſand ſeven hundred and forty, and to the deputy-governor two thouſand ſeven hundred and forty.

Lower Navarre is divided into five diſtricts, the principal place in which is the following:

St. Jean Pie de Port, or St. John at the Foot of the Gate, which is ſituated at the entrance of the paſs that leads through the Pyrenean mountains into Spain. It ſtands on the river Nive, twenty miles to the ſouth-eaſt of Bayonne, and has a citadel placed on an eminence that commands the above paſs.

In Lower Navarre are only three or four other ſmall towns, and ſome ſmall villages.

The principality of Bearn is of much greater extent, it being about forty-eight miles in length, and thirty-ſix in breadth; but is mountainous, and, except in the plains, generally barren. However, ſome of the mountains contain mines of copper, iron, and lead, and are covered with pines fit for maſts and planks; very little wheat or rye is produced in this country; but great quantities of mailloc, which is a kind of Indian corn, and alſo flax: but the very rocks are planted with vines, and in ſome places the inhabitants make excellent wine.

The principal cities in this principality are Pau, Oleron, and Navarreins.

Pau, in Latin Palum, the capital, ſtands on an eminence, at the foot of which runs the river Gave Bernois. It is ninety-ſeven miles to the ſouth of Bourdeaux, and is the ſeat of a parliament and a bailiwic. Is has a caſtle in which king Henry IV. of France was born. It has five convents, two hoſpitals, and at the late expulſion of the Jeſuits they had a college here. It is a ſmall but pretty town, and has manufactures of cloth.

Oleron, a ſmall but populous city, ſeated on the banks of the river Gave, which, from this city, is called the Gave of Oleron, ten miles to the weſt of Pau. It has a bailiwic court, and is the ſee of a biſhop, who is ſuffragan to the archbiſhop of Auch, and has a dioceſe containing two hundred and ſeventy-three pariſhes, with a yearly revenue of thirteen thouſand livres, out of which he pays ſix hundred florins to the court of Rome. Its trade was formerly much more conſiderable than it is at preſent.

Navarreins, a town built by Henry d'Albret, king of Navarre, and prince of Bearne, is alſo ſituated on the Gave of Oleron, ſixteen miles to the ſouth of Bayonne. It ſtands in the midſt of a fertile plain, and is a ſquare city pretty well built. It is the ſeat of a governor, and a king's lieutenant. It is ſurrounded with walls; but is not very ſtrong, it being commanded by the neighbouring hills.

SECT. XIX.

Of Guienne and Gaſcony; their Situation, Extent, Produce, Rivers, Hiſtory, Government, and principal Cities; particularly Bourdeaux, Perigord, Agen, Montauban, Auch, and Bayonne.

THE government of Guienne and Gaſcony is bounded on the north by Saintonge, Angoumois, Limoſin, and Auvergne; on the eaſt by Auvergne and Languedoc; on the ſouth by the Pyrenean mountains; and on the weſt by the bay of Biſcay. Its extent from ſouth to north is about eighty leagues, and from eaſt to weſt about ninety. This country was formerly a part of the ancient kingdom of Aquitain, and abounds in corn, wine, fruit, hemp, and tobacco. Its trade in wine in particular is ſo very conſiderable, that the city of Bourdeaux alone exports annually a hundred thouſand tons. It alſo produces brandy, prunes, and many other commodities. It has likewiſe mines of copper, and fine quarries of marble of all colours.

It has ſeveral ſprings of medicinal waters, and its principal rivers are the Garonne, which receives many ſmall ſtreams, and the Adour, which riſes in the mountains of Bigorre, and falls into the ocean.

Charlemagne created his ſon Lewis king of Aquitaine, but ſoon after this kingdom was divided into the duchies of Aquitaine and Gaſcony, which, by the marriage of William IV. duke of Aquitaine, with Briſce, heireſs to Gaſcony, were united, and continued in that family till the year 1150, when, by the marriage of Eleanor with Henry II. king of England, this duchy fell to that crown, and during almoſt three hundred years was ſubject to the Engliſh, who were diſpoſſeſſed of it by Charles VII. in 1453. Lewis XI. in 1469, conferred it on his brother Charles, who was the laſt duke of Guienne, it being on his deceaſe again annexed to the crown of France. However, in 1753 the title of duke of Aquitaine was revived in the perſon of the Dauphin's ſecond ſon.

In this government is an archbiſhop, with nine ſuffragans. It alſo contains two generalities, namely, that of Bourdeaux, which is under the parliament of that city, and that of Montauban under the parliament of Toulouſe. The former is compoſed of nine, and the latter of four large feneſchalſhips, or bailiwics. In each is alſo a court of aids, under the direction of the governor, whoſe ſalary amounts to about ten thouſand livres; with two lieutenant-generals, one for Guienne, and the other for Gaſcony and Bigorre. Beſides theſe, there are thirteen other deputy-governors.

Bourdeaux, in Latin Burdigala, the capital of Guienne, is ſeated on the Garonne, in the forty-fourth degree fifty minutes north latitude, and in forty minutes weſt longitude, two hundred and ſixty miles to the ſouth-weſt of Paris. It is pretty large and populous, it having a great number of ſtately houſes built of ſtone; but they are old, and the ſtreets very narrow. The inhabitants are ſaid to amount to forty thouſand. The neweſt and handſomeſt part of the city is the Royal ſquare, near the harbour, in which ſtands a grand magazine, with the exchange, and it is adorned with a ſtatue of Lewis XIV. in braſs. This city is a place of conſiderable traffic, it being reſorted to by merchants from moſt parts of Europe. Its haven, which is very capacious and ſafe, is called Le Port de la Lune, or the Port of the Moon, from its being in the form of a creſcent. The tide flows into it very high, and carries ſhips of large burthen up to the quay. The city itſelf is in the form of a triangle, the two ſhort ſides towards the ſea, and the largeſt towards the river Garonne. The palace, the town-houſe, the handſome markets, the public fountains, the quay, and

the cathedral dedicated to St. Andrew, are worthy the curioſity of a traveller; as is alſo the caſtle called the Chateau-Trompette, which ſtands at the entrance of the quay, and commands the whole harbour. There is alſo another caſtle at the other end of the quay, called Le Chateau de Haa, which is alſo very ſtrong: in both theſe fortreſſes there is a garriſon conſtantly kept. There is alſo a fort called St. Louis, or St. Croix; but it is of no great importance. During the reign of Lewis XIV. Bourdeaux was fortified in the modern taſte by Vauban; but the ramparts are now ſaid to be ruinous. At the mouth of the Garonne, ſix leagues below the city, ſtands on a ſmall iſland a ſtately watch-tower, where they light flambeaux every night for the direction and ſecurity of ſuch veſſels as ſail up or down that river; a precaution the more neceſſary, on account of the many rocks and ſhelves which lie in it.

This city is the ſee of an archbiſhop, the ſeat of a parliament, a court of aids, a ſeneſchalſhip, a provincial tribunal, an admiralty, and of a treaſurer's office. It has alſo an exchange and a mint. The archbiſhop has nine ſuffragans under him, with a province of four hundred and fifty pariſhes, beſides about fifty chapels of eaſe. His revenue is fifty-five thouſand livres per annum, and his taxation at the court of Rome four thouſand florins. The cathedral is a large Gothic ſtructure, which contains nothing remarkable but the ſilver ſhrine of relics on the great altar. The church and convent of the Dominicans are new and elegant ſtructures, but thoſe belonging to the Carthuſians have a ſplendor ſeldom ſeen in any convents of that order. In this city is likewiſe an abbey of Benedictines of the order of St. Maur. The Jeſuits had, till their expulſion, a fine college here. The univerſity was founded in 1441, and in 1712 the king erected here an academy of the ſciences and polite arts, the library to which does not contain a great number of books, but conſiſts entirely of ſelect pieces, placed in a moſt elegant hall.

There are ſtill here ſome viſible remains of Roman antiquities, particularly an amphitheatre built by the emperor Gallienus, whoſe palace it is called; only ſome parts of the ſide walls are ſtanding, with the two principal gates.

The trade of this city is very conſiderable, and for its improvement a kind of toleration is granted to the Engliſh, Dutch, Danes, Hamburghers, and Lubeckers, and even to the Portugueſe Jews; but theſe laſt have no ſynagogue, nor are any Proteſtants indulged in the public exerciſe of their religious worſhip, only the Engliſh are connived at and have a miniſter in a lay habit, and the other foreign Proteſtants are not prohibited reading a ſermon privately to their families. The Scots, on account of the ſervices they formerly performed for the French, have conſiderable privileges allowed them in this city, and a gate of Bourdeaux bears the enſigns of one of the name of Douglas; even to this day Scottiſh veſſels have peculiar immunities allowed them in trade, and from this port they generally ſhip their wines. In this city Edward the Black Prince reſided for ſome years, during which time his ſon, afterwards Richard II. king of England, was born.

Perigueux, the capital of a very large diſtrict named Perigord, the ſee of a biſhop and the ſeat of a bailiwic, and a court of juſtice, is ſeated on the river Iſle, in a fine country, ſixty-five miles to the north-eaſt of Bourdeaux; the biſhop is ſubordinate to the archbiſhop of Bourdeaux, and has a dioceſe containing four hundred and fifty pariſhes, with a revenue of twenty-four thouſand livres, out of which he is taxed two thouſand five hundred and ninety florins at the court of Rome. It has four convents, one hoſpital, and had a college of Jeſuits. The old town is called La Cité, and the new town, which is about a hundred paces diſtant, is named La Ville.

Agen, the capital of a diſtrict called the Agenois, is pretty large and well inhabited. It is ſeated on the river Garonne, ſeventy-five miles to the ſouth-eaſt of Bourdeaux. The biſhop ſtyles himſelf count of Agen, but this is only a titular honour; he is ſuffragan to the archbiſhop of Bourdeaux, under whom he has a dioceſe of three hundred and ſeventy-three pariſhes, and one hundred and ninety-one chapels of eaſe, with a yearly revenue of thirty-five thouſand livres, out of which he is taxed by the court of Rome, two thouſand four hundred and forty florins. There is here a cathedral and a collegiate church, two pariſh churches, with ſeveral convents; and there was here a college of Jeſuits. This city is finely ſituated for trade, but makes little advantage of it.

Montauban, in Latin Mons Albanus, a well-built handſome city, in the diſtrict of Lower Quercy, is ſeated on the river Tarn, twenty-ſeven miles to the north of Toulouſe, and is the ſee of a biſhop, with the ſeat of a court of aids, a provincial court, and a bailiwic. It properly conſiſts of three parts, the Old and New Towns, with the town of Bourbon, which lies on the other ſide of the river, and is a ſuburb. The biſhop is ſuffragan to the archbiſhop of Toulouſe, and has a dioceſe of ninety-ſix pariſhes, with a revenue of twenty-five thouſand livres per annum, out of which he pays a tax of two thouſand five hundred florins to the court of Rome. In this city are two collegiate churches, an academy of polite literature, one ſeminary, eight convents, and a general hoſpital; it had alſo till lately a college of Jeſuits. Its principal trade conſiſts in woollen ſtuffs.

In 1562, the inhabitants became Proteſtants, and fortified the city in ſo ſtrong a manner, that Lewis XIII. beſieged it in 1621 without ſucceſs, and was unable to reduce it till the year 1629, when he cauſed its fortifications to be razed.

Gaſcony, called by the French Gaſcogne, conſtitutes the ſouth part of the government of Guienne, and includes the country lying between the Garonne, the ocean, and the Pyrenean mountains. It receives its name from the Gaſcones and Vaſcones, by the moderns called Baſques or Vaſques, a people who lived on the Pyrenean mountains in Spain, and towards the cloſe of the ſixth century ſettled on the north-ſide of the Pyrenees, where they defended themſelves againſt the Franks; but were at laſt obliged to ſubmit. It is bounded on the north by Guienne; on the weſt by Languedoc and the county of Foix; on the ſouth by the Pyrenean mountains, which ſeparate it from Spain; and on the weſt by the ſea of Gaſcony. The inhabitants are ſaid to have quick parts, but are ſo addicted to boaſting, that the name of Gaſconade has been given to all bragging ſtories. The country is not very fertile, it producing little corn, tho' it has great plenty of fruit, and the mountains afford timber fit for building of ſhips. The principal places in this province are the following.

Auch, the ancient Eluſaberris, and afterwards Auguſta, is the capital of the diſtrict of Armagnac, and of all Gaſcony. It ſtands on the ſide and top of a hill, at the foot of which runs the river Gers, thirty-ſeven miles to the weſt of Toulouſe, and is divided into the Upper and Lower Town, between which there is a communication by means of two hundred ſtone ſteps. This place is the ſee of an archbiſhop, and has an intendency, a treaſurer's office, a bailiwic, a provincial and royal court. The lordſhip of the city is divided between the archbiſhop and the count of Armagnac. The dioceſe conſiſts of three hundred and ſeventy two pariſh churches, and two hundred and ſeventy-ſeven chapels of eaſe, and the revenue of the archbiſhop is ninety thouſand livres, out of which he pays to the court of Rome ten thouſand florins. The cathedral is one of the moſt magnificent in the kingdom; the chapter is compoſed of fifteen dignitaries, and twenty-five canons; and among the latter there are five who are only honorary. The king himſelf is the firſt of them, as count of Armagnac; the four others are the barons of Montſquieu, Montaut, Pardaillau, and L'Iſle.

Bayonne, in Latin Lapurdum, the capital of the diſtrict of Labourd, is ſeated in the forty-third degree thirty minutes north latitude, and in one degree twenty minutes weſt longitude, at the junction of the Adour and Nive, near the mouth of the former, and a little below the city they diſcharge themſelves into the bay of Biſcay. It is of pretty conſiderable extent, and is the ſee of a biſhop; it has alſo a bailiwic court, an admiralty, and a mint. The name of Bayonne is compounded of two Baſque words, Baia and Ona, ſignifying a good harbour,

and it well deſerves that title; it is accordingly much frequented, though the ſhallows render the entrance to it ſomewhat difficult.

This is the only place in France that has the advantage of being ſituated on two rivers, into which the tide flows; the Nive runs through it, and the Adour cloſe by its walls; ſoon after which they unite, and divide the city into three parts: that called the Great Town, lies on the ſide of the Nive; the Little Town is between the Nive and the Adour; and the ſuburb of St. Eſprit, in which great numbers of Jews reſide, lies on the other ſide of the river. The two firſt parts, beſides their other works, have each a ſmall fort; the ſuburb has good fortifications, and a regular ſquare citadel, which ſtanding on an eminence, commands the three ſeveral parts of the city, the harbour, and the adjacent country. Moſt of theſe works have been repaired and improved by Vauban; for though the city is not very large, it is of the utmoſt importance, from its being one of the keys of France on the ſide of Spain.

Beſides its cathedral and collegiate church, the ſuburb alſo has another collegiate church; in this city are likewiſe five convents, and one college. But neither the cathedral, which is dedicated to the Holy Virgin, nor any of the other public or private buildings, have any thing remarkable. Its biſhop is ſuffragan to the archbiſhop of Auch, and his dioceſe contains ſeventy-two pariſhes. He has a revenue of nineteen hundred livres, out of which he pays only a hundred florins to the court of Rome.

SECT. XX.

Of the Situation, Extent, Produce, and Rivers of the Government of Auvergne; with an Account of its principal Cities.

THE government of Auvergne, which takes its name from its ancient inhabitants the Arverni, is bounded on the north by Bourbonnois; on the eaſt by Forez, a large diſtrict in the government of Lionnois; on the ſouth by Guienne and the Cevennes; and on the weſt by Limoſin, the diſtrict of Quercy in Guienne, and La Marche; and is about a hundred miles in length, and ſeventy-five in breadth.

Lower Auvergne is a very pleaſant fertile country, abounding in corn, wine, fruit, forage, and hemp; it far excels Upper Auvergne, which is cold, and full of mountains, that are covered with ſnow ſeven or eight months in the year, though its paſtures are excellent, and the inhabitants deal largely in cattle. The ſituation of the mountains occaſions the winds blowing in ſuch eddies, that no wind-mills ſucceed there.

The principal rivers are the Allier, which riſes in the Gevaudan, and falls into the Loire; the Dordogne, which ſprings from Mont d'Or, the higheſt mountain in the country; the Allagnon, which riſes in Mount Cantal, and after a rapid courſe falls into the river Allier.

The higheſt mountains in this country are Le Pui de Dome, the perpendicular height of which is eight hundred and ten fathoms; the Cantal nine hundred and eighty-four; and Mont d'Or one hundred and thirty: the two latter are no leſs famous for the curious plants that grow on them. At Pontgibaud is a ſilver mine, but the produce not anſwering the expence, the working of it has been diſcontinued; however, the coal mines in the neighbourhood of Briſac are very profitable.

Beſides the corn, wine, cattle, cheeſe, coals, and other products of the earth, this country carries on many manufactures, as all kinds of ſilk ſtuffs, cloths, very beautiful laces, and paper, which is eſteemed the beſt in all Europe. Every year ſome thouſands of labourers go from hence to get in the harveſt in Spain, and return with the beſt part of their earnings.

The whole country is ſubject to the parliament of Paris, but is governed by different laws; Lower Auvergne having a particular code of its own, while in Upper Auvergne the civil law takes place. This country is divided into five large diſtricts, and two bailiwics. Under its governor are two lieutenants-general and two ſubgovernors.

St. Flour, the capital of Upper Auvergne, ſtands on a mountain of difficult acceſs. It is the ſee of a biſhop whoſe dioceſe conſiſts of two hundred and ſeventy pariſhes; he has a revenue of twelve thouſand livres, and pays nine hundred florins to the court of Rome. Beſides its cathedral, it has a collegiate church, and had a college of Jeſuits. The inhabitants carry on a good trade in grain, this city being, as it were, the general magazine of the neighbouring country, which produces a great deal of rye. Its cloth, carpets, and knives, are alſo greatly eſteemed.

Aurillac, a town which diſputes the title and rank of capital with St. Flour, is ſeated in a valley on the banks of the river Jordane, two hundred and fifty miles to the ſouth of Paris, and thirty to the ſouth-weſt of St. Flour. It is pretty well built and populous; it alſo confers the title of count. Here is a diſtrict and bailiwic court; it has likewiſe a caſtle ſeated on a high rock, and a collegiate church, which is properly a ſecularized abbey, the abbot of which is lord of the town, and holds immediately of the pope. Here is alſo an abbey, and four convents. The Jeſuits had alſo here a college. In this town are ſome manufactures of tapeſtry and lace.

Clermont, the ancient Auguſtonemetum, afterwards Auvergne, the capital of the whole country, ſtands on a ſmall eminence in Lower Auvergne, between the rivers Artier and Bedat. It is the capital of the whole country, and is populous; but has very narrow ſtreets, and the houſes are dark. It contains a tax chamber, a bailiwic, and a county-court, &c. This was formerly the principal place belonging to the counts of Auvergne, who therefore ſtyled themſelves counts of Clermont. The biſhop is firſt ſuffragan to the archbiſhop of Bourges; he is alſo lord of the ſmall towns of Billon and Croupieres, and enjoys a dioceſe of eight hundred pariſhes, with a revenue of fifteen thouſand livres, out of which he is taxed at the court of Rome four thouſand five hundred and fifty florins. Beſides its cathedral, it has three collegiate churches, and three abbies; in that of St. Allier the bodies of ſeveral ſaints are ſaid to be depoſited. In the chapel of St. Venerand, and in that of St. André, are the tombs of the old counts of Clermont, and the dauphines of Auvergne. It has likewiſe many convents, and had a college of Jeſuits.

In the neighbourhood of this city are wells where any ſubſtance laid in them ſoon contracts a ſtony cruſt. The moſt remarkable of theſe is that in the ſuburb of St. Allire, which has formed a famous ſtone bridge mentioned by many hiſtorians. This bridge is a ſolid rock, compoſed of ſeveral ſtrata formed during the courſe of many years, by the running of the petrifying waters of this ſpring. It has no cavity or arches, till after above ſixty paces in length, where the rivulet of Tiretaine forces its way through. This petrifying ſpring, which falls on a much higher ground than the bed of the rivulet, gradually leaves behind it ſome lapideous matter, and in proceſs of time has thus formed an arch, through which the Tiretaine has a free paſſage. The neceſſity which this petrifying matter ſeemed to be under of forming itſelf into an arch, could continue no longer than the breadth of the rivulet, after which the water of the ſpring ran regularly under it, and there formed a new petrifaction reſembling a pillar. The inhabitants of theſe parts, in order to lengthen this wonderful bridge, have diverted the brook out of its old channel, and made it paſs cloſe by the pillar, by which means they cauſed the ſpring to form a ſecond arch, and thus they might have produced as many arches and pillars as they pleaſed; but the great reſort of people to ſee this natural curioſity becoming troubleſome to the Benedictines of the abbey of St. Allire, within whoſe juriſdiction the ſpring lies; in order to leſſen its petrifying virtue, they divided the ſtream into ſeveral branches, which has ſo well anſwered their intent, that at preſent it only covers with a thin cruſt thoſe bodies on which it falls perpendicularly. But in thoſe over which it runs in its ordinary courſe, no traces of its petrifying qualities are any longer perceivable. It is the only water uſed for drinking in this ſuburb, and no bad effect is felt from it.

SECT. XXI.

Of the two Governments of Limoſin and La Marche; their Situation, Extent, Climate, Produce, Rivers, and principal Towns.

LIMOSIN, or Limouſin, derives its name from the ancient Lemovices, and is bounded on the eaſt by Auvergne; on the ſouth by Guienne; on the weſt by Perigord in Guienne, and Angoumois; and on the north by La Marche and Poitou. Its extent from north to ſouth is about twenty-five French leagues, and from eaſt to weſt ſomewhat leſs.

Upper Limoſin is very mountainous, and conſequently cold, but Lower Limoſin is more temperate. The former produces but little wine, and that too but very indifferent, but that of Lower Limoſin is extremely good. It produces ſuch numbers of cheſnut-trees, that the inhabitants derive their principal maintenance from them. The grain which grows here is rye, barley, and Turkiſh corn. They have alſo mines of copper, tin, iron, and lead, and in this country are ſome iron works.

Its chief rivers are the Vienne, the ſource of which lies in the borders of Lower Limoſin and La Marche; the Vezere, which riſes in the ſame country; the Coureze, which falls into the Vezere; and the Dordogne, which divides Limoſin from Auvergne, and the diſtrict of Quercy in Guienne.

The country is ſubject to the parliament of Bourdeaux, and beſides its governor, has one lieutenant-general, and two ſub-governors. The principal places it contains are;

Limoges, in Latin Lemovicæ, the capital of the country, which is ſituated on the river Vienne, partly on a hill and partly in a valley, thirty leagues to the weſt of Clermont. The town is about a league and a half in circumference, but ill built, the houſes being generally of wood, ſmall, and dark; but the cathedral is a magnificent ſtructure; beſides which it has a collegiate church, three abbies, one convent, and a college and ſeminary, which lately belonged to the Jeſuits. It contains a bailiwic, a country and royal court, with other public offices, and alſo a mint. Its biſhop is ſuffragan to the archbiſhop of Bourges, and his dioceſe, which extends over Upper and part of Lower Limoſin, La Marche, and a part alſo of Angoumois, contains nine hundred pariſhes; and his revenue amounts to twenty thouſand livres, out of which he pays ſixteen hundred florins to the court of Rome.

Tulle, properly Tuelle, is a town ſituated in Lower Limoſin, near the confluence of the little rivers Coureze and Solane, fifteen leagues to the ſouth of Limoges, and a mile and a half in circumference. It contains about twelve hundred houſes, and five thouſand people. Its biſhop, who is lord and viſcount of the town, is ſuffragan to the archbiſhop of Bourges; and his dioceſe, which conſiſts of ſeventy pariſhes, brings him in a revenue of twelve thouſand livres, out of which he pays to the court of Rome fourteen hundred florins. It has ſix convents and had a college of Jeſuits.

Brive la Gaillarde is ſeated near the confluence of the Coureze and Vegere, ſeventeen leagues to the ſouth of Limoges, and five to the weſt of Tulle, in a valley environed with little hills planted with vines and cheſnut-trees; the ſituation being extremely beautiful. It is the only fine town of the province: the houſes are elegantly built, and the walls about it extremely pleaſant. In this little town are found all the pleaſures and conveniences of life. It contains about a thouſand houſes and five thouſand perſons.

The government of La Marche is bounded on the north by Berry; on the eaſt by Auvergne; on the ſouth by Limoſin; and on the weſt by Poitou; it being about twenty-two French leagues in length from north to ſouth, and eight in breadth from eaſt to weſt.

It is, like Limoſin, divided into Upper and Lower, and the ſoil and climate are both the ſame. Its principal rivers are the Vienne; the great and little Creuſe, which diſcharge themſelves into the Vienne; the Cher, and the Gartempe, the latter of which falls into the Creuſe. The upper parts of the diſtrict are pretty fruitful in corn.

This province contains two bailiwics, and is governed by its own laws. Subordinate to its governor, is one lieutenant-general, and two ſub-governors.

Gueret, the capital of the Upper and Lower Marche, is ſeated on the river Gartempe, ten leagues to the north-eaſt of Limoges, and is the place where the courts of juſtice are held; but it has only one pariſh church, one college, one priory, two convents, and an hoſpital. The other places in this government are equally inconſiderable.

SECT. XXII.

Of the Government of Saintonge and Angoumois; their Situation, Extent, Produce, Rivers, and principal Cities.

SAINTONGE is bounded by Poitou and Aunis on the north; by Angoumois and Perigord on the eaſt; by Guienne and the river Gironde on the ſouth; and by the Bay of Biſcay on the weſt; extending twenty-five leagues in length, and twelve in breadth. It derives its name from the Santoni, the ancient inhabitants.

This country abounds in corn, wine, and all kinds of fruit; and the inhabitants, who are ſituated near the ſea, make great quantities of excellent ſalt. Its horſes are alſo much eſteemed. In it are ſome mineral ſprings. Its principal rivers are the Charente, which abounds in fiſh; it riſes near Charennac, and runs into the ſea; and the Butonne, which riſes in Poitou, and falls into the Charente.

This country is divided by the Charente into the ſouth, or Upper Saintonge, and into the north part, or Lower Saintonge. It is ſubject to the parliament of Bourdeaux, a few pariſhes excepted, which are within the juriſdiction of Angoumois. The governor-general is alſo deputy-governor of this country. The principal places in Upper Saintonge are,

Saintes, the capital, which is ſeated on the Charente, fifty-eight miles to the northward of Bourdeaux, and twenty to the eaſt of the Bay of Biſcay. It is a little ill-built city; but contains a provincial and a bailiwic court, with other public offices, and is the ſee of a biſhop, ſuffragan to the archbiſhop of Bourdeaux. His dioceſe contains five hundred and ſixty-five pariſhes and chapels, and his revenue amounts to twenty thouſand livres, out of which his Roman tax is two thouſand florins. The ſtreets are narrow and mean, but in the ſuburbs is an abbey, and the Jeſuits had here a college. Some ancient ruins diſcover its antiquity, as a triumphal arch ſuppoſed to be erected in the reign of Tiberius, the ruins of an amphitheatre, of ſeveral aqueducts, and a capitol.

Pons, a handſome town, ſtands high on the little river Seigne, over which it has ſeveral bridges, whence it probably received its name. It is divided into the Upper and Lower, and contains three pariſh-churches, three convents, three alms-houſes, and a commandery of the knights of Malta.

St. John d'Angeli, in Latin Angeliacum, ſtands on the river Butonne, five leagues to the north-eaſt of Saintes, and has a royal court of juſtice. While this place continued in the poſſeſſion of the Proteſtants, it was populous and well fortified; but being reduced in 1621 by Lewis XIII. the fortifications were razed, and the city deprived of its privileges. It has an abbey and three convents. Its brandy is much eſteemed, and the inhabitants alſo make woollen ſtuffs.

Angoumois is bounded by Poitou on the north, by Limoſin on the eaſt, by Perigord on the ſouth, and by Saintonge on the weſt; it being between fifteen and ſixteen French leagues in length, and about ſixteen in breadth.

The country is full of little hills, and has none of any conſiderable ſize. It produces wheat, rye, barley, Spaniſh corn, oats, ſaffron, wine, and fruit: it alſo yields ſome excellent mines of iron, and is particularly famous for making of paper. Its principal rivers are the Charente and Touvre, the latter of which riſes here, and runs into the former.

This country is ſubject to the parliament of Paris, and con-

contains a bailiwic and territorial jurisdiction. In it are the following places:

Angoulesme, the capital of Angoumois, is seated on the top of a hill surrounded with rocks, at the foot of which runs the river Charente, thirty miles to the eastward of Saintes. It confers the title of duke, is the see of a bishop, and has a bailiwic, a country and forest court, an office of the five great farms, &c. and is said to contain eight thousand persons. Its bishop is suffragan to the archbishop of Bourdeaux, and has a diocese of two hundred parishes, with a revenue of twenty thousand livres, out of which he is taxed by the court of Rome a thousand florins. Here are twelve parish-churches, and the abbey of St. Cibard, in which lie buried the old counts of Angoumois; together with ten convents, a college which lately belonged to the Jesuits, and a general hospital.

Coignac, or Cognac, the second town of the country, stands seven leagues to the westward of Angoulesme, in a most delightful situation on the Charente. It has a castle, in which Francis I. was born, and three convents; but it is better known to us by its excellent wine and brandy.

SECT. XXIII.

Of the two Governments of Nivernois and Bourbonnois; their Situation, Extent, Rivers, Produce, Government, and principal Towns.

THE government of Nivernois is bounded on the north by Burgundy and the Gatinois, on the east by Burgundy, on the south by Bourbonnois, and on the west by Berry. Its figure is pretty nearly circular, and it is about twenty leagues over either way.

It produces corn, wine, and fruit; except in the district of Morvant, which is a mountainous country, that produces scarce corn enough for the subsistence of the inhabitants. It has large woods, some pit-coal, and mines of iron. Among the many rivers which water Nivernois, three of them are navigable; these are the Loire, which runs from south to north along the western borders of this country; the Allier, which runs into the Loire; and the Yonne, which rises on the south-east part of this province, and running northward falls into the sea. The other streams serve to render the country fruitful and pleasant: there are here also some mineral springs.

This country is subject to the parliament of Paris, and has its own particular laws. Over it is a governor, a lieutenant-general, and a deputy-governor. It is divided into eight districts, the principal places in which are the following:

Nevers, the ancient Noviodunum, and afterwards Nivernum, is situated in the district called Le Vaux de Nevers, and is the capital of the country. It is built in the form of an amphitheatre on the banks of the Loire, which is here joined by the little river Nievre, thirty leagues to the south-east of Orleans. It has a handsome stone bridge of twenty arches; but the streets are narrow, and the ground uneven. The cathedral, dedicated to St. Cyr, is a fine structure; besides which there are eleven parish-churches, two abbies, several convents, and the Jesuits had here a college. It is computed that the inhabitants amount to about eight thousand. Among the other buildings is an old castle, which fronts a large square that consists of handsome houses uniformly built. There are here a forest and a bailiwic court, with a salt-office. The bishop is suffragan to the archbishop of Sens, and his diocese consists of two hundred and seventy-one parishes. His revenue amounts to twenty thousand livres, and he pays twelve hundred and fifty florins to the court of Rome. This place is celebrated for its porcelain and glass-houses, and for its works in enamel. The inhabitants also carry on a great trade in corn, hemp, wood, pit-coal, iron, and tin-wares. The fields about the town are extremely pleasant, particularly the public walks in the adjoining park.

Clamecy, a town seated in a district called the Vale of Yonne, and upon the banks of that river, which is here joned by the Buvron, and rendered navigable. In it is a castellany, and a salt-office. Pantenor, one of its suburbs, stands on the other side of the Yonne, and in the year 1180 was the residence of the bishop of Bethlehem, who had been compelled to leave Palestine. The bishop of the city, who still styles himself bishop of Bethlehem, is created by the count de Nevers, and enjoys all the privileges of the other French bishops, though his revenue amounts to no more than a thousand livres, and this town is his whole diocese.

The government of Bourbonnois is bounded on the north by Nivernois and Berry, on the east by the duchy of Burgundy, on the south by Auvergne, and on the west by Upper Marche. It is about thirty French leagues in length, and twenty in breath.

It is pretty fertile, particularly in corn, fruit, and forage: it also produces good wine, though not in a sufficient quantity for exportation. It has likewise a few coal-pits, and a great number of mineral springs and warm baths. Its rivers are the Loire, the Allire, the Cher, with some other smaller ones. In July, when the snow melts on the mountains of Auvergne, great damages are done by the inundations of the Allire.

This country is subject to the parliament of Paris; though the duke of Bourbon, to whom it belongs, has the nomination of all civil officers, yet their proper master is the king. Besides the governor and lieutenant-general, here are also two sub-governors; and in the whole country are twenty-two small towns, the principal of which are,

Moulins, in Latin Molinæ, the capital of the country, is seated on the Allire, in a pleasant fertile plain, almost in the middle of France, thirty miles to the south of Nevers, and fifty-five to the north of Clermont. It is well built, and one of the most agreeable places in the kingdom. It contains an intendency, a chamber of domains, a castellany, and several courts. It has likewise a collegiate church, five convents, an hospital, and a college, which lately belonged to the Jesuits.

Bourbon l'Archambaud, a small town fifteen miles to the west of Moulins, environed by four hills, on one of which stands an old castle that contains three chapels, among which that called the Holy is very splendid. In this town are a royal castellany, and a district court. There are here also one parish and one collegiate church, a priory, a convent, and two hospitals. This town is famous for its hot baths and cold mineral springs.

SECT. XXIV.

Of the Governments of Berri and Touraine; their Situation, Extent, Produce, Rivers, Government, and principal Towns.

THE country of Berri is bounded on the north by the Orleanois, on the east by the Nivernois, on the south by the Bourbonnois and La Marche, and on the west by La Marche and Touraine. Its extent from east to west is between twenty-seven and twenty-eight French leagues, and from north to south between thirty-five and thirty-six.

The air here is temperate, and the soil produces wheat, rye, and wine; and in some places it is equal to that of Burgundy. Its other products are also good, particularly its hemp and flax, in which it abounds; and its rich pastures feed great numbers of cattle, especially sheep, which are valued for the fineness of their wool. In one place in this country is found oker, which is seldom met with in France.

The principal rivers here are the Loire, the Creuse, and the Cher; the large and lesser Sandre, the Nerre, and the Indre; these two last have their sources in this country: the Orron, the Aurette, the Moulon, and the Evre. In this country is also the lake of Villiers, which is between seven and eight leagues in circuit.

Berry is under the jurisdiction of the parliament of Paris, and is governed by laws of its own. Subordinate to the governor are one lieutenant-general and two sub-governors, and it is divided into Upper and Lower Berry, the principal places in which are the following:

Bourges, the capital of Upper Berry, and of the whole country, is ſituated on a hill between the rivers Evre and Orron, to the banks of which it gradually deſcends, thirty-five leagues to the ſouth of Paris, and ſeventeen almoſt ſouth-eaſt of Orleans. Theſe two rivers encompaſs it on every ſide, except on that next the gate of Bourbonnoux. It is a large ſpacious city, containing a cathedral, four collegiate churches, beſides two annexed to the ſeminary, four abbies, and ſixteen pariſh-churches, with a beautiful and large college, which lately belonged to the Jeſuits. You meet here with many eccleſiaſtics, gentlemen, and ſcholars; and it is computed that there are in this city about fifteen thouſand ſouls; but not many of them are tradeſmen; the place having no other trade than what is neceſſary for the ſubſiſtence of the inhabitants. It is the ſee of an archbiſhop, and has an intendency, a ſalt-office, an independent royal tribunal, and ſeveral other offices and courts. The cathedral, which is dedicated to St. Stephen, is a fine Gothic ſtructure ſtanding on the higheſt part of the city: the archbiſhop, who is ſtiled patriarch and primate of Aquitaine, has five ſuffragans, with a dioceſe of nine hundred pariſhes, and a revenue of thirty thouſand livres, out of which he pays four thouſand and thirty-three florins to the court of Rome.

The palace built by prince John of France, duke of Berry, is a magnificent edifice, in one part of which, called the king's apartment, the governor reſides, and the other ſerves for the courts of juſtice; the great hall in the latter, which has no pillars to ſupport it, is eſteemed one of the fineſt and largeſt rooms in the kingdom. The town-houſe, erected by Jaques Coeur, is one of the moſt elegant buildings ever erected by a private man, and was purchaſed by Colbert, prime-miniſter of France, who gave it to the corporation of this city. The ſquare of Bourbon is the largeſt in Bourges, and here antiently ſtood a Roman amphitheatre. The public walks and the malls are much admired, and the great number of religious houſes are another conſiderable ornament to the city. The univerſity of Bourges was either founded or revived in the year 1463, and conſiſts of four faculties.

Cæſar took Bourges by ſtorm; and the inhabitants having exerciſed ſome cruelties on the Roman ſoldiers that had fallen into their hands, he glutted his revenge by deſtroying near forty thouſand of the natives. In the fifteenth century Charles VII. made this the place of his reſidence, while the Engliſh were maſters of almoſt all the reſt of the kingdom; on which occaſion the Engliſh called him, by way of deriſion, king of Berry.

Iſſoudun, in Latin Exolidunum, a large town, the ſecond in rank in the province, ſtands in a beautiful plain ſeventeen miles to the ſouth-weſt of Bourges, and is the principal place in Lower Berry. It contains a ſalt-office, a manor court, and other public courts and offices. It is divided into the Upper and Lower Town, and has a caſtle, which commands the place: it has alſo one abbey, two collegiate and four pariſh-churches, five convents, and two hoſpitals.

The province of Touraine, which derives its name from the Turones, is bounded on the north by the river Maine, on the eaſt by the Orleanois, on the ſouth by Berry and Poitou, and on the weſt by Anjou. Its greateſt extent from eaſt to weſt is twenty-two French leagues, and from north to ſouth twenty-four.

The air is temperate, and the country ſo delightful, that it is called the Garden of France; but it is not every where alike. The tract called the Varennes, which lies along the Loire, has a ſandy ſoil, which produces rye, barley, millet, garden plants, and an herb which makes a good yellow dye. That called the Verron is richer, and yields corn, wine, very fine fruit, and particularly large plums. La Champagne is a ſmall ſtrip of land between the rivers Cher and Indre, abounding in grain, and particularly wheat. La Brenne is a ſwampy country: but the eminences along the Loire and Cher are covered with vineyards. In ſhort, La Gaſtine is a ſtiff land very difficult to plough; and the country of Noyers is diſtinguiſhed by its having ſome mines of iron, and one of copper.

This country is governed by laws of its own; but the inhabitants have a right of appeal to the parliament of Paris. It has a governor, a lieutenant-general, and a ſub-governor. There are twenty-ſeven towns or boroughs in the country; the principal places of which are the following:

Tours, the Cæſarodunum, or Turoni, of the ancients, and the capital of the country, lies in a plain extending between the river Loire and the Cher, and is fifty-two miles to the north-eaſt of Poitiers, and a hundred and twenty-ſeven to the ſouth-weſt of Paris. The city is large and well built, and the ſtreets very clean, on account of ſeveral rivulets running through them from ſix public fountains. In this city is a very fine mall above a thouſand paces in length, and adorned on each ſide with two rows of fine elms. The inhabitants are ſo ſcrupulous, that after it has rained no perſon is ſuffered to play, nor even walk in it till it be dry, under a penalty of ten livres. This city has a mint, a receiver's office, and a ſalt-office, an intendency, a provincial, bailiwic, and foreſt court. The cathedral is a fine ſtructure, with two lofty towers, a curious clock, and a library, where are ſeen ſeveral antient manuſcripts faſtened by chains upon deſks. The two moſt valuable of theſe manuſcripts are, one of the Pentateuch, written in ſmall capitals, which is reckoned to be a thouſand years old; and another of the four Goſpels, in Saxon characters, which ſome think to be of the ſame age as the Pentateuch, and others twelve hundred years old. There are here alſo five collegiate churches, three abbies, twelve convents, and the Jeſuits had here a college. The city is the ſee of an archbiſhop, under whom are eleven ſuffragans, ſeventeen abbies, twelve collegiate churches, ninety-eight priories, three hundred pariſhes, and a hundred and ninety-one chapels. His revenue is forty thouſand livres, and he pays to the court of Rome nine thouſand five hundred florins. Here is alſo a royal palace, and an academy of polite literature.

While the manufactures of gold, ſilver, and ſilk brocades were in a flouriſhing condition, this city was computed to contain ſixty thouſand inhabitants, which number is reduced to thirty thouſand. The city is governed by a mayor and twelve echevins.

Amboiſe, in Latin Ambacia, or Ambaſia, is ſeated at the confluence of the Loire and the Amaſſe, twelve miles to the eaſtward of Tours, and contains a ſalt office, and a royal and foreſt court. In it are two pariſh-churches, four convents, and one hoſpital. Near the town is a large caſtle ſtanding on a high rock, in which are the ſtatues of Charles VIII. and his conſort Anne; as alſo a ſtag's head of very extraordinary dimenſions, it being ten feet high and eight feet broad, from the extremity of one horn to the other. This was ſuppoſed to be natural, till it was at laſt diſcovered to be factitious, and only made of wood. There are here alſo ſeveral other curioſities. In this town Charles VIII. was ſlain, either by running againſt a door, or, according to others, by being ſhot through the head. This was alſo the place where the civil war in 1561 firſt broke out, and where the name of Huguenot had its riſe.

SECT. XXV.

Of the two Governments of Poitou and Aunis; their Situation, Extent, Produce, Rivers, and principal Cities; with a more particular Deſcription of Poitiers and Rochelle.

THE province of Poitou is bounded on the north by Touraine and Anjou, on the eaſt by La Marche and part of Berri, on the ſouth by Angoumois and Aunis, and on the weſt by the Bay of Biſcay. It extends from north to ſouth twenty-two French leagues, and from eaſt to weſt forty-eight. It received its name from the antient Pictavi, or Pictoni.

The country is diverſified with champaign lands, woods, and paſture grounds, with a few foreſts. The ſoil is various, according to the different parts of the country; but it in general abounds in corn and cattle. The principal trade of the inhabitants conſiſts in oxen, mules, horſes, and woollen ſtuffs.

The largeſt rivers are the Vienne, which riſes on the borders of Limoſin, and being joined by the Creuſe falls into the Loire; the Sevre Niortoiſe, which riſes in this country,

country, and, after receiving the Venotee, diſcharges itſelf into the ſea; theſe are all navigable: here is alſo the Clain, which riſes in the frontiers of Angoumois and falls into the Vienne.

This province was erected into an earldom by Charlemagne. Eleanor, daughter to the laſt duke of Aquitaine, brought it to her ſpouſe Henry II. king of England, to which it continued ſubject, with ſome interruptions, till the unfortunate reign of Henry VI. when it was taken in 1436, ſince which time it has been perpetually annexed to the crown of France. It is ſubject to the parliament of Paris, and has but one provincial court. Under the governor is a lieutenant-general, and two deputy-governors.

This province is divided into two parts. Upper Poitou, which conſtitutes the eaſtern part of the country, is larger, more fruitful, pleaſant, and healthy, than the Lower; we ſhall begin with the former, the principal places in which are the following:

Poitiers, or Poictiers, in Latin Auguſtoritum, the capital of the country, is ſeated upon a hill on the left bank of the little river Clain, into which falls another rivulet. It lies about eighteen leagues to the eaſt of the ſea coaſt, and ſeventy miles to the north-eaſt of Rochelle, Were its circuit to be only conſidered, it would, perhaps, be eſteemed the firſt in the kingdom, next to Paris; but it is far from being peopled in proportion to its extent, there being corn-fields and meadows within the walls; for the city has been ſo reduced by the civil wars, that it is almoſt become a deſart, and is a mean ſmoky place. It is, however, a ſeat of a ſeneſchalſhip, a preſidial court, an office of the finances, and a country court. It is the ſee of a biſhop, who is ſuffragan to the archbiſhop of Bourdeaux, and has a dioceſe of ſeven hundred and twenty-two pariſhes, with a revenue of twenty-two thouſand livres, out of which he pays to the court of Rome two thouſand eight hundred florins. The cathedral is of an uncommon ſize, and built in the Gothic ſtyle. In this city are alſo four collegiate churches, ſeventeen other pariſh-churches, four abbies, twenty-one convents, and two ſeminaries; the Jeſuits had alſo a college here. An univerſity was founded in 1431, and there are likewiſe three hoſpitals. In 1687 the inhabitants erected in the Royal ſquare a pedeſtrian ſtatue of Lewis XIV. The inhabitants in this town are principally employed in making gloves and combs; they alſo export woollen caps and ſtockings.

There are here ſome remains of Roman antiquities; among theſe is an amphitheatre, which lies among gardens and ſmall houſes, a triumphal arch, or rather gate, erected at the beginning of a military way, of which nothing at preſent remains but the arch, with the two pillars which ſupport it. The palace and thick round tower cloſe by it are ſaid to be Roman works; but they carry evident traces of their being of Gothic ſtructure.

In the neighbourhood of this city Edward the Black Prince obtained a memorable victory over the French, in the year 1356, at which he took John their king, with his ſon Philip, priſoners.

Niort is the beſt trading town in the province; it is ſeated on the river Soure, and has a bailiwic, a royal juriſdiction, and a foreſt court. It contains a caſtle, two pariſh churches, and nine convents, a general hoſpital, and has ſome manufactures of wool.

Luçon, a city in Lower Poitou, is ſeated in a moraſs twenty-three leagues to the ſouth-weſt of Poitiers, and enjoys the title of a barony. It is the ſee of a biſhop, who is lord and baron of the town, and ſuffragan to the archbiſhop of Bourdeaux. His dioceſe conſiſts of two hundred and thirty pariſhes, and he has a revenue of twenty thouſand livres, out of which he pays to the court of Rome one thouſand florins. The air of this place is unwholeſome, and, beſides the cathedral, it contains only one pariſh church, one ſeminary, and two convents.

The government of Aunis is bounded on the north and weſt by Poitou; on the ſouth by Saintonge; and on the weſt by the Bay of Biſcay. It is watered by the Soure, which riſes in Poitou, and there are good harbours along the coaſt. The country is ſomewhat barren, but produces ſome corn, and a great deal of wine; the marſhes afford good paſturage.

This little province depends on the parliament of Paris, but is partly governed by its own common law, founded on cuſtom. Under the governor is a lieutenant-general and a deputy-governor.

Rochefort, a new regular built town, ſeated on the river Charente, twenty-three miles to the ſouth of Rochelle; it was formerly a ſmall village belonging to a private family, from whom Lewis XIV. bought it in 1664, in order to build a city here; for it having been obſerved, that from this place to the ſea, which is about four miles diſtant, the river was large enough to carry the biggeſt ſhips, the bottom excellent for anchorage, and the banks very even and ſolid; it was reſolved to erect this city, and this reſolution was accordingly executed. It has a very commodious harbour, and is one of the ſtations for the royal navy of France; ſo that here are all the neceſſary magazines for ſhipping, and a ſpacious and convenient dock. Here are alſo a victualling warehouſe, a foundery, a manufactory of ſail-cloth, the Hôtel called Cazernes, which was originally uſed for the education of three hundred gentlemen of noble families, deſigned to ſerve in the navy, and who are taught at the king's expence; but it now ſerves to lodge the marines, and is an hoſpital for ſick ſoldiers, &c.

The entrance of the river is well defended by ſeveral forts, particularly one in the Iſle of Aix, the redoubt facing it called Aiguille, fort Fourax, de la Pointe, and Vergeron; and about a league below Rochefort, is a long ſtoccado acroſs the river. On the twenty-firſt of Sept. 1757, the Iſle of Aix, with the fort upon it, was taken by the brave captain Howe, in the Magnanime, after about an hour's reſiſtance, when the whole garriſon, which conſiſted of near ſix hundred men, were made priſoners of war.

Rochelle, in Latin Rupelle, the capital of the province and government, in forty-ſix degrees ſixteen minutes north latitude, and one degree ten minutes weſt longitude, is ſeated on the ſea. It has a good harbour, but is rather handſome than large. The city has broad and ſtraight ſtreets, with neat houſes, ſupported by piazzas and porticos, which afford ſhelter both from the rain and ſun. It is the ſee of a biſhop, ſuffragan to the archbiſhop of Bourdeaux, with a dioceſe of one hundred and eighty pariſhes, and a revenue of ſeventeen thouſand livres, out of which he is taxed by the court of Rome ſeven hundred and forty-two florins. Here is alſo an intendency, a provincial and a bailiwic court, an admiralty, a chamber of commerce, and a mint. The Jeſuits had alſo a college here; and there is likewiſe a college of phyſic, anatomy, and botany, for the inſtruction of young ſurgeons and apothecaries.

Rochelle was the principal ſeat of the reformed in France, whoſe inhabitants embracing Calviniſm in the ſixteenth century, ſuffered extremely during the civil wars, and having been fortified by them, was frequently defended with the utmoſt bravery. It was long poſſeſſed by that body, till at length Lewis XIII. after a long and famous ſiege, made himſelf maſter of it in 1628, chiefly for want of the promiſed ſuccours from England, which did not arrive in time, and by means of an admirable bank of earth that cardinal Richelieu cauſed to be raiſed againſt it on the ſide of the ocean, to prevent their receiving ſuccours. Famine at length obliged them to capitulate, in conſequence of which their privileges were taken from them, and the fortifications demoliſhed, except only two towers that defend the port; but his ſon Lewis XIV. cauſed new and very ſtrong fortifications to be raiſed round it. The port is almoſt of a circular figure, and near fifteen hundred paces in circuit. One of the above-mentioned towers defending the port, is a priſon for ſtate criminals, and the other is called the Tower of the Chain. No veſſel can enter into the harbour without leave of the governor, or captain of this laſt tower.

The principal manufacture carried on here is the refining of ſugar; and they have lately ſet up a manufacture of earthen ware which ſucceeds very well. A conſiderable trade is carried on here to the iſlands of America, to which all the neceſſaries of life are ſent, and from thence the veſſels employed in it bring back the produce of thoſe countries. The Engliſh in time of peace, with the Dutch, Danes, and the Swedes, annually ſend to

Rochelle a great number of ships, in order to take wine, brandy, salt, paper, linen, cloth, and serges.

The isle of Ré, in Latin Radis, lies between two and three French leagues from the Continent, and is four miles in length, and two in breadth. It produces plenty of wine, of which is made a very fine sort of brandy, and is very populous. It has a little fortified town, named St. Martin, which has a harbour and citadel, and is likewise defended by three other forts.

The isle of Oleron, in Latin Uliarus, is about three French leagues distant from the main land; it is five in length, two in breadth, and extremely fruitful. The inhabitants here having been able and expert sailors for these six or seven hundred years past, have drawn up rules for the marine, called the Laws of Oleron, which have served as a model to other matitime powers with regard to sea affairs. These islanders have always enjoyed very considerable privileges, both under the dukes of Aquitaine, and the kings of France, and had a governor peculiar to themselves, who had a very extensive authority. This island, together with that of Ré, was taken in the sixteenth century by the citizens of Rochelle; and as these islanders were very well affected to them, on account of the reformed religion, which most of them professed, they continued masters of these islands till the year 1625, at which time Lewis XIII. took them again.

SECT. XXVI.

Of the two Governments of Anjou and Saumur; their Situation and Extent; with a Description of Angers and Saumur.

THE government of Anjou, which received its name from the ancient Andes, or Andegavi, is bounded on the north by the river Maine; on the east by Touraine; on the south by Poitou; and on the west by Brittany. Its greatest length from east to west is twenty-six French leagues, and from north to south twenty-four.

The country is a pleasant succession of hills and vallies, producing corn, wine, pease, beans, flax, hemp, and fruit-trees. Its fine pastures also furnish great herds of cattle. It has likewise mines of coal, iron, and salt-petre, together with quantities of marble, stone, and slate.

In this country are reckoned no less than forty-nine great and small rivers; but only six of these are navigable. These are the Loire, the Vienne, the Toue, the Magenne, the Loir, and the Sarte. This country is under the parliament of Paris, but has laws of its own. Subordinate to the governor, is one lieutenant-general, and two sub-governors. The principal city in this government is

Angers, anciently Juliomagus, and in Latin Andegavum, the capital of the country, lies a little above the place where the rivers Loire and Sarte fall into the Mayenne, which divides the city into two equal parts. The first walls were raised by John, surnamed Lackland, king of England and duke of Anjou; but prince Lewis, afterwards king Lewis VIII. son of Philip Augustus, caused those walls to be demolished; however, St. Lewis his son and successor rebuilt them as they now are. This is a large and populous city, containing nine thousand houses, and about thirty thousand inhabitants; it has sixteen parishes, twelve of which are within the town, and four in the suburbs. Here are likewise eight collegiate churches, and a great number of convents both of men and women. This city is the see of a bishop, who is suffragan to the archbishop of Tours. His diocese contains six hundred and sixty-eight parishes; his revenue amounts to twenty-six thousand livres, and his taxation at the court of Rome is seventeen hundred florins. The cathedral is remarkable for three very high steeples built on its portico, of which that in the middle rests upon the foundations of the two others. Its roof is very high, large, and bold; it is not supported by any pillars; and the whole structure is in general elegant. Part of the town stands very low; so that it is proverbially said in the neighbouring country, "that Angers is a low town, "has high steeples, rich strumpets, and poor scholars."

It has a strong castle built on a rock, and encompassed with ditches cut into it, though very steep on the side of the river which runs at its foot. This castle is flanked with several large towers, and has a half-moon at the gate which leads to the suburbs. It was built by St. Lewis during the wars with the English, and it now serves as a prison for state criminals.

The university, which is one of the most famous in France, was founded by St. Lewis. They teach here the civil and canon-law, divinity, physic, and the liberal arts. A chair for a professor of the mathematics has been lately erected here, in the college of the fathers of the Oratory. Lewis XIV. in 1615, established in this city a royal academy, with the same privileges as that of Paris: it consists of thirty-six members, who must all be natives or inhabitants of the province. Here is a great procession annually celebrated at a festival called la Fête du Dieu, which is on Corpus Christi day, when all the priests and monks, with the principal inhabitants, and numbers of strangers, carry lighted torches in their hands, and representations of Scripture histories engraved, to atone for the pretended crime of their archdeacon Berengarius, who opposed transubstantiation about the year 1019, when that doctrine was first preached here.

This city is under the government of a mayor and four aldermen, annually chosen; twelve counsellors, eight assessors, a city attorney, a commissary, and a recorder. Their jurisdiction extends over the manufactories set up in the town, suburbs, and liberty. These manufactures consist of fine woollen stuffs, striped with silk and gold. They also bleach wax and linen cloth. In the town are likewise some sugar-bakers.

The Saumurois, or government of Saumur, contains a part of Anjou and Upper Poitou: it is under the direction of a governor, a lieutenant-general, and a sub-governor. The principal place it contains is

Saumur, in Latin Salmurus, the capital, and the seat of the public courts and offices, stands twenty-two miles to the south-east of Angers, and a hundred and sixty to the south-west of Paris. It contains a fine castle, three parish-churches, nine convents, and one royal college. Here is an important passage over the Loir, upon which there is a famous bridge. This city was much more opulent while in the possession of the Protestants; but has still an university. Near it is the magnificent abbey of the Benedictines of the congregation of St. Maur.

SECT. XXVII.

Of the Government of Orleanois; its Situation, Extent, Divisions, Rivers, Canals, and principal Cities.

THE government of Orleanois consists of several small countries, and is bounded on the north by Normandy and the Isle of France; on the east by the Isle of France, Champagne, and Burgundy; on the south by Nivernois and Berry; and on the west by Touraine and Maine; including Orleanois Proper, Sologne, Beausse Proper, or Chartraine, Dunois, Vendomois, Blaisois, the greatest part of Gatinois, and Perche Gouet. The whole government extends about thirty-two leagues in length from east to west, and twenty-eight in breadth from north to south.

The rivers which run through this government, or have their source in it, are the Loire; the Loiret, which rises a league from Orleans, and falls into the Loire; the Cher, which also runs into the Loire; the Laconie, which rises in the wood of Orleans, and loses itself in the same river; the Aigle, which rises in this government, and also mingles with the Loire; the Hyere, which loses itself under ground, and, when it afterwards appears again near Montigny, is called le Ganelon, falls into the same river.

In this district are likewise some remarkable canals. That of Briare, which receives its name from a small town, joins the river Loire to the Loing, which falls into the Seine, and consequently opens a communication between the countries lying on the Loire and the city of Paris. The canal of Orleans also joins the above-men-

tioned rivers; this canal, which was begun in 1682, and finiſhed in 1692, is near eighteen leagues in length, and contains thirty ſluices.

The whole government is ſubject to the parliament of Paris, and contains four large and three ſmall juriſdictions. The trade carried on here by means of the Loire is the moſt extenſive in the whole kingdom, comprehending not only all that comes from the ſouthern and weſtern parts, but likewiſe from foreign countries. The principal ſtaple is at Orleans. Under the governor are three lieutenant-generals, and three ſub governors.

Orleanois Proper is one of the fineſt countries in France; it being fertile in corn, wine, and excellent fruit; and abounding in cattle, game, and fiſh. The principal places in this government are the following:

Orleans, antiently Genabum, or Cenabum, and afterwards Aurelianum and Aureliana, the capital of the government, is ſeated on the Loire, over which it has a fine ſtone bridge of ſixteen arches, leading to a ſuburb on the ſouth ſide of the river. On this bridge is to be ſeen a beautiful monument of caſt braſs ſtanding on a ſtone pedeſtal, that has ſome ornaments in the Gothic taſte. In the center of the monument is a crucifix, on the top of which ſtands a pelican with its brood pecking its own breaſt; before the crucifix is the Virgin Mary ſitting with the dead body of Chriſt reclined on her lap. On the right ſide is king Charles VII. kneeling and ſtretching out both his hands towards the croſs, and on the left ſide the famous maid of Orleans, alſo repreſented kneeling, both armed cap-a-pie with ſwords by their ſides; the king has the French coat of arms, and wears a crown on his helmet. But the helmet of the maid is placed by her: her hair is tied behind, and the reſt of it hangs looſe on her back. Theſe ſtatues are not ſo big as the life. A ſolemn proceſſion is annually obſerved here on the twelfth of May, in commemoration of the deliverance of the city. It ſtands in a moſt agreeable plain, and is built in the form of a bow; the ſtreets in general are narrow, but ſome of them are broad and ſtraight. This city, which is about four miles in circuit, is but meanly built, and, except a few of the tradeſmen, the inhabitants are poor. It is the ſee of a biſhop, and contains an intendancy, a caſtellany, a country court, a foreſt court, a ſalt-office, and other courts and offices. It has a fine cathedral built in the Gothic ſtyle, an abbey, three collegiate churches, twenty-two pariſh-churches, an univerſity conſiſting only of civilians, which was formerly very famous, though it is at preſent in no great repute, one ſeminary in which divinity is taught, and a public library. The Jeſuits had alſo a college here. Its biſhop, who is ſubordinate to the archbiſhop of Paris, has a dioceſe of two hundred and ſeventy-two pariſhes, and a revenue of twenty-four thouſand livres, out of which he pays two thouſand florins to the court of Rome. The public walk is properly a part of the city ramparts, levelled and planted with beautiful rows of trees. The ſuburb on the farther ſide of the river makes a tolerable appearance, and has a Carthuſian monaſtery. This city, on account of its ſituation in the middle of the Loire, is the magazine of the whole trade of the kingdom, eſpecially in corn, wine, brandy, and ſpices: it alſo carries on a conſiderable trade in ſheep-ſkins, and likewiſe in ſtockings, of which great quantities are made here.

In the year 1344 it was raiſed to a dukedom and peerage, and Lewis XIV. gave it his brother Philip, in which houſe it continues.

This city was beſieged by the Engliſh in 1428, and ſo ſtraitened, that the inhabitants reſolved to ſurrender to the duke of Burgundy, then in the Engliſh army, and their ally. But the Engliſh not being willing that the city ſhould be given up to him, he was diſguſted at it, and Joan of Arc heading the ſoldiers, raiſed the ſiege in 1429, from which ſhe obtained the name of the Maid of Orleans. The French language is ſpoken here in the greateſt purity.

The foreſt of Orleans lies to the north of the city and of the river Loire, and is the largeſt in the whole kingdom. It contains about fourteen thouſand acres planted with wood; but is interſperſed with ſeveral plains and villages. It is twenty leagues, or ſixty miles, in length, and in ſome places ſeven or eight leagues, and in others only two or three in breadth. It contains high and lofty trees, as oaks, elms, &c. In this foreſt they fell timber every year to the value of a hundred thouſand livres, the profits of which belong to the duke of Orleans.

Chartres, the Autricum of the antients, is the capital of the country of Chartrain; it is ſituated on the river Eure, about fourteen leagues to the ſouth-weſt of Paris, and is divided into two parts by the above river, the largeſt of which ſtands on an eminence. It is the ſee of a biſhop, and has a noble cathedral; but the city has little beauty to recommend it, the ſtreets being narrow, and the buildings old. It has three abbies, one priory, ſix pariſh-churches, without including thoſe in the ſuburbs, nine convents, one ſeminary, and two hoſpitals. In the city are alſo held a provincial and bailiwic court, together with a ſalt office. The biſhop, who is ſuffragan to the archbiſhop of Paris, has a dioceſe of eight hundred and ten pariſhes; his annual revenue amounts to twenty-five thouſand livres, out of which he pays four thouſand florins to the court of Rome.

Blois, in Latin Bleſæ, the capital of the diſtrict of Blaiſois, ſtands partly on an eminence, and partly in a plain on the river Loire, over which it has a well-built ſtone bridge. It is ſituated ten leagues to the ſouth-weſt of Orleans, in a pure air, and in the midſt of one of the fineſt countries in France. It is a large handſome city; but the greateſt beauty of it is the palace, or caſtle, the reſidence of ſeveral of their kings, with gardens adorned with fountains and other water-works, and a park ſuitable to the magnificence of the buildings. The ſtair-caſe of the palace is much admired, as well as the gallery, which is ſaid to be ſix hundred feet long; and over the great gate is a ſtatue of Lewis XII. In the grand court before the palace ſtands one of the largeſt collegiate churches in France. It is remarkable that there is an image of the Virgin over every gate of the city; theſe were ſet up in 1631, when, after having ſuffered much by the plague, they imagined, on its ceaſing, that they were miraculouſly delivered by the queen of heaven, as they ſtile her. The pariſh-church of St. Solenne, the largeſt in Blois, having been deſtroyed by a tempeſt, was magnificently rebuilt by Lewis XIV. and converted into a cathedral. The Jeſuits had alſo a beautiful college here, the front of which is adorned with the Doric, the Ionic, and the Corinthian orders of architecture. The other public edifices, as the town-houſe, and the building where the courts of juſtice are held, are well worth viewing. Their fountains are alſo large, and well ſupplied by a noble aqueduct, ſuppoſed to be the work of the ancient Romans.

The biſhop, who is ſuffragan to the archbiſhop of Paris, has in his dioceſe about two hundred pariſhes, and his revenue amounts annually to twenty thouſand livres, out of which he is taxed two thouſand five hundred and thirty-three florins at the court of Rome. There are here ſeveral churches beſides thoſe we have mentioned, and likewiſe a conſiderable number of convents.

The natives are repreſented as being remarkable for their good ſenſe and gentle behaviour, as well as their ſpeaking French in perfection, which is ſuppoſed to proceed from the frequent reſidence of the court in this city.

The principal trade here is in wine and brandy, which are ſent to Orleans, Paris, Tours, Laval, and even into Holland; and the city is alſo diſtinguiſhed for making the beſt watches in the kingdom.

Chambord, a royal palace ſeated in a wood on the river Coſſon, is a magnificent edifice of free-ſtone, built by Francis I. It is ſaid to exceed any Gothic edifice in France, and to have ſuch various beauties, that the greateſt maſters may learn ſomething from it. The body of the building is compoſed of four large pavilions, and the whole is ſurrounded with a wall of hewn-ſtone, flanked with towers, which at a diſtance give it a magnificent appearance. The tower over the center looks very grand, and the principal winding ſtair-caſe is much admired. The halls, anti-chamber, chambers, wardrobes, cabinets, and galleries, are of exquiſite architecture, and the garden and park anſwerable to the beauty of the building. In this palace Staniſlaus, the dethroned king of Poland, reſided nine years. It was afterwards con-

ferred on the celebrated general count Maurice of Saxe, who died here in the year 1750, when the king gave it his heir the count de Friſe, who died here in the year 1755.

Montargis, the capital of the Gatinois Orleanois, is ſituated on the river Loing, near the place where the canal of Orleans falls into it, twenty-five leagues to the ſouth of Paris. The town is not large; but having been burnt down, is handſomely rebuilt, and has a caſtle pleaſantly ſituated on a hill, that commands the town and the neighbouring country. Here is a bailiwic, a foreſt, a provincial court, and a ſalt-office. Beſides the pariſh-church, there are ten chapels founded by the inhabitants, with a college, and ſeveral convents.

SECT. XXVIII.

Of the Government of Maine and Perche; the Situation and Extent of thoſe Provinces; their Produce, Rivers, and principal Towns.

THE government we are now going to deſcribe comprehends the province of Maine, the earldom of Laval, and the greateſt part of the earldom of Perche.

The county of Maine is bounded on the north by Normandy, on the eaſt by Perche, on the ſouth by Touraine and Orleanois, and on the weſt by Anjou and Brittany, extending eighty-eight miles in length from eaſt to weſt, and fifty in breadth from north to ſouth.

It has mines of iron, quarries of marble, and, being very fruitful, abounds in corn, wine, flax, and cattle: their fowls are particularly admired, and are well known at Paris. Its principal rivers are the Mayenne, or Maine; the Huiſne, which riſes in Perche, and runs into the Sarte; the Sarte, which alſo riſes in Perche, and after receiving the Orne, the Huiſne, the Enferne, and the Little Loire in its paſſage, falls into the Mayenne.

This country was formerly an earldom, but has been united to the crown ever ſince the year 1584. It is governed by its own laws; but is ſubject to the parliament of Paris, and has a particular ſub-governor.

The principal places in this government are the following:

Mans, in Latin Cenomanum, the capital of the province of Maine, is ſituated on a hill, at the foot of which runs the river Sarte, which here unites its water with the river Huiſne, thirteen leagues to the north-weſt of Tours, and thirty-two to the ſouth-weſt of Paris. It is the ſee of a biſhop, and has a ſalt-office, a provincial and foreſt-court, &c. Its biſhop, who is ſuffragan to the archbiſhop of Tours, has a dioceſe of ſix hundred and ninety-ſix pariſhes, and a revenue of thirty-five thouſand livres, out of which he pays two thouſand two hundred and ſixteen florins to the court of Rome. In this city, beſides the cathedral and two collegiate churches, are four abbies, thirteen pariſh-churches, eight convents, one college, and one ſeminary.

Laval, the capital of an earldom, is ſeated on the Maine, eight leagues to the weſtward of Mans, and is encompaſſed by a wall and other fortifications in the antique taſte: it has alſo an ancient caſtle of the ſame kind; but incapable of making any great defence, ſince the improvement of the art of war. It has a ſalt-office, a country and foreſt court, &c. and contains two collegiate churches, two pariſh-churches, one priory, and eight convents. This town was taken by ſcalade in 1446, by the brave Talbot earl of Shrewſbury, general of the Engliſh.

Perche is bounded by Normandy on the north, by the Iſle of France and Orleanois on the eaſt, by the river Maine on the ſouth, and by Normandy on the weſt; it not being above fifteen leagues in length, and twelve in breadth.

It is a hilly country, and the eminences produce only graſs for cattle; but the valleys and plains bear all kinds of grain and hemp; they alſo abound in apples, of which they make cyder, the uſual drink of the country: they have indeed a few vineyards, but the wine is ſo poor, that cyder is generally preferred before it. They have here alſo ſome iron mines, and mineral waters.

This country enjoys its own laws; is ſubject to the parliament of Paris, and governed by a particular ſub-governor. The whole country does not belong to this government, Perche Gouet being ſubject to that of Orleanois, and Timerais to that of the Iſle of France. The principal places in this country are the following:

Mortagne, the capital of Perche, is ſituated eighty-five miles to the weſt of Paris, and is the ſeat of a ſalt-office, a viſcounty, a diſtrict court, a foreſt court, &c. It has one collegiate and three pariſh-churches, four convents, with one hoſpital, and has ſome conſiderable manufactures of coarſe linen.

Belleſme, a ſmall town ten miles to the ſouth of Mortagne, and ninety to the weſt-by-ſouth of Paris, diſputes the rank of capital with Mortagne, and is alſo the ſeat of a royal viſcount, a foreſt court, and a ſalt-office. In a neighbouring wood is the mineral ſpring of Herſe, the water of which is in many caſes very ſalutary.

SECT. XXIX.

Of the Government of Paris; with a particular Deſcription of that City, and the neighbouring Places.

THE boundaries of this government are not eaſily determined, the French geographers themſelves being not agreed about them. It, however, includes, beſides the city, a part of the neighbouring country; and, beſides the governor, here are two lieutenant-generals, one of which is appointed for the city, the other for the *prevoté* and *vicomté*, through its utmoſt extent. Within the boundaries of this juriſdiction are contained four others; theſe are the Louvre and the Tuilleries, as alſo thoſe of the Baſtile and the royal hoſpital of invalids, the four governors of which receive their orders immediately from the king.

Paris, in Latin Lutetia, Pariſii, and Lutetia Pariſiorum, the capital of France, is ſeated in a large plain on the river Seine, in the middle of the Iſle of France, in the forty-eighth degree fifty minutes north latitude, and in the ſecond degree twenty-five minutes eaſt longitude, two hundred and twenty-five miles to the ſouth-eaſt of London, ſeventy miles to the ſouth of Rouen, five hundred and fifty to the weſt of Vienna, ſeven hundred to the north-weſt of Rome, and ſix hundred and twenty-five to the north-eaſt of Madrid.

This city is of a circular form, about ſix or ſeven miles in diameter, and, including the ſuburbs, is eighteen or twenty in circumference. Its ſtreets have been computed to amount to nine hundred and twelve, in which are about twenty thouſand houſes, from four to ſeven ſtories high; beſides churches, convents, chapels, colleges, communities, and ware-houſes. "The number of its "inhabitants, ſays Dr. Buſching, cannot much exceed "four hundred thouſand; for from the year 1728 to "1736 the annual bills of mortality were at a medium "ſeventeen thouſand eight hundred; and it is calculat-"ed, upon very probable computations, that of twenty-"five perſons in this city, one dies yearly, whence the "above number of deaths make the number of living "inhabitants four hundred and forty-five thouſand."

This great city contains forty-ſeven pariſh-churches, beſides twenty others; three abbies and twelve priories for men, ſeven abbies and ſix priories for women; ſeventeen collegiate churches, thirteen of which have chapters; fifty convents and fraternities of eccleſiaſtics and laics, forty-three nunneries, and fourteen female communities; eleven ſeminaries, twenty-ſix hoſpitals, and forty chapels; an univerſity, ſix academies, beſides three others where young gentlemen are taught bodily exerciſes; five public libraries, four royal palaces, four caſtles, above a hundred hotels, ſome of which are ſtately ſtructures; ſeventy-three market-places, ſixty fountains, twelve bridges over the Seine, ten of which are of ſtone, and eleven gates.

Among the diſadvantages of this city it muſt be obſerved, that Paris affords no good water fit for drinking, the inhabitants being obliged to uſe that of the Seine, which is fetid, and occaſions dyſenteries; or another ſort of water that is ſtill worſe, it being productive of the

gravel and ſtone. The ſtreets are lighted at night ſix months in the year; but this is performed in a very inelegant manner, by hanging up lanterns in the middle of the ſtreets upon cords, which are put acroſs from one window to another.

The new regulations for keeping the ſtreets clean, formed by M. Turgot, provoſt of the merchants, conſiſt in a canal lined with free-ſtone, ſix feet broad, and about the ſame depth, which receives all the ſoil from thoſe parts of the city through which it runs. This canal is kept clean by means of a large reſervoir formed in a particular building erected for that purpoſe, which is ſupplied with water from all the ſprings in the neighbourhood. In it are ſix pumps worked by a machine kept going by four horſes, and theſe diſcharge the water into a large reſervoir likewiſe lined with free-ſtone, whence it runs under ground through two ranges of pipes of a conſiderable bore, diſcharging itſelf with great violence into the above canal, and thus carries off all the filth into the Seine.

Here are good regulations in caſe of fire, for the firſt preſident of the parliament, and the lieutenant of the police, the horſe and foot patrole, and ſome companies of the French and Swiſs foot guards, are obliged to repair to a fire with all the expedition the diſtance of the place will admit; but the actual extinguiſhing of it is committed to the care of the monks of the four Mendicant orders, who on ſuch occaſions are to expend, for the benefit of the public, part of the ſtock they have acquired by begging.

To give a more particular deſcription of this city: it conſiſts of three parts, namely, the Town, which lies on the north of the Seine, the City, which is environed by that river, and the Univerſity, which lies to the ſouth of it, with twelve ſuburbs. In 1702 it was alſo ſub-divided into twenty quarters, or wards.

The city is in the centre, and is the moſt cleanly and wealthy; it conſiſts of three iſlands formed by the Seine; theſe are the Iſle Du Palais, the Iſle of Notre Dame, and the Iſle Louviers. The laſt is ſmall, and contains only ſtore-houſes for wood; it fronts the arſenal, and has a communication with the quarter of St. Paul by means of a wooden bridge.

The Iſle of Notre Dame, or Our Lady, is ſo called from the cathedral of that name; the ſtreets of which are very ſtraight: by means of a ſtone bridge it has a communication with the quarter of St. Paul, by another with that of Maubert, and it is alſo joined by a wooden bridge to the Iſle Du Palais: it has alſo ſome fine hôtels, with the pariſh-church of St. Lewis.

The Iſle Du Palais, or the Iſland of the Palace, properly conſiſts of Old Paris, and is ſo called from the place in which the parliament meets, and which takes up a great part of it. The metropolitan church ſtands at one end of this iſland, where are alſo ſeveral little pariſh-churches, the hoſpital of Hotel Dieu, or the Houſe of God, which extends to the other ſide of the river towards the ſouth, and a vaſt number of ſmall crooked ſtreets or lanes, built with very high houſes, moſt of which are inhabited by ſeveral families.

Beſides the above wooden bridge, which joins this iſland to that of Notre Dame, it has a communication with other parts of the city by means of ſeven ſtone bridges. The principal of theſe is the Pont Neuf, or New Bridge, which is the fineſt bridge in Paris. It conſiſts of twelve arches, and is ſeventy-two feet broad, reckoning the parapets. The middle or carriage-way is thirty feet broad, and on each ſide is a foot-way raiſed. Over the piles on each ſide are alſo ſemicircular lodgements, in which are a hundred and ſeventy-eight ſmall ſhops belonging to the king's footmen, which only ſerve to obſtruct a moſt beautiful proſpect. In the center of the bridge is a fine equeſtrian ſtatue of Henry IV. in braſs, larger than the life, and ſtanding on a marble pedeſtal, on the ſides of which are baſſo relievos, with inſcriptions repreſenting the victories and principal actions of that hero. At the four corners are tied four ſlaves, alſo of braſs, who trample upon antique arms. This ſtately monument is incloſed within iron rails. Another ornament of the Pont Neuf is the Samaritaine, a building three ſtories high, in which is an engine that ſupplies ſome parts of the city with water. It is thus named from there being in the front a groupe of figures repreſenting the ſtory of Chriſt and the Samaritan woman.

Another bridge, called the Pont au Change, has a ſtatue of Lewis XIV. in braſs; and both this and the bridge of Notre Dame, on which are alſo water-works, have each two rows of houſes upon them; thoſe of the firſt being four, and of the laſt two ſtories high.

In the above iſland ſtands the cathedral of Notre Dame, which is a large and Gothic ſtructure, three hundred and ninety-ſix feet long, a hundred and forty broad, and a hundred and two in height: on the inſide are four rows of pillars, thirty in a row, with forty-five chapels, built between the outermoſt rows and the wall. The pillars in the nave of the church are adorned with large and beautiful pictures; and the choir was ſplendidly repaired and beautified by Lewis XIV. It has a ſmall ſpire in the middle, and at the weſt end two ſquare towers three hundred and eighty ſteps high; theſe are flat at the top, with a baluſtrade of free ſtone, whence you have a noble proſpect of the city and the neighbouring country. In one of theſe towers are two large bells, one of which weighs forty thouſand, and the other thirty-one thouſand pounds.

Near this ſtructure ſtands the palace of the archbiſhop, in one of the halls of which is the library of the advocates, founded for the public uſe. There are alſo in the iſland a great number of pariſh-churches.

To the north of theſe iſlands ſtands that diviſion called Le Ville, or the Town, which is daily beautified by rebuilding the old houſes. On the eaſt is the arſenal near the river, which conſiſts of ſeveral courts, and has beautiful walks in the garden near the city wall; and towards the north-eaſt is the Baſtile, a kind of fortreſs conſiſting of eight large round towers, joined together by other ſtrong buildings, and ſurrounded with ditches and baſtions. It is a priſon for ſtate criminals, and here the king keeps a governor, a lieutenant, and an independent company of ſoldiers.

Among the moſt conſiderable palaces in Paris, that of the Louvre is eſteemed the principal ornament of the city. It is commonly divided into the Old and New. The old part of this royal palace was begun to be built with ſtone by Francis I. in 1528, and was finiſhed by Henry II. in 1548. Succeeding kings improved and enlarged it, till Lewis XIV. ordered it to be rebuilt on a new plan, which, if completed, would have rendered it a moſt magnificent ſtructure. The plan of the whole building forms an equilateral quadrangle, containing a court in the center three hundred and ſeventy-ſix feet ſquare. The principal of the four main wings was built by Lewis XIV. as alſo the greateſt part of the two others, which form the ſides, together with a new front to that part which lies next the Seine. The four inner fronts, according to the plan, were to have conſiſted of eight pavilions, and eight *corps de logis*. The whole building is three ſtories high in the new part; the firſt of the Corinthian order, the ſecond of the Compoſite, and the third of the Attic.

In the hall of the hundred Swiſs is a kind of gallery ſupported by four gigantic figures. In this hall great entertainments were given, and queen Catharine of Medicis cauſed plays and interludes to be exhibited there for the amuſement of the court. Henry IV. built a gallery along the river ſide quite to the Tuilleries, which is reckoned the fineſt in Europe; and under it is the royal printing-houſe.

At ſome diſtance behind the Louvre ſtands the palace called the Tuilleries, built in 1564 by order of queen Catharine de Medicis, in a place where they formerly made tiles, in French *tuilles*, from which the palace takes its name; and this ſtructure was alſo improved by Lewis XIV. It is one range of building, with a dome in the middle, and a pavilion at each end. Before it is a handſome large ſpace divided into three courts; the whole adorned with columns, pilaſters, and other ornaments. Behind this palace are pleaſant gardens adorned with fine walks, planted with evergreens and other trees, with beautiful parterres, where may be ſeen all the year round every flower in ſeaſon. It has alſo three beautiful fountains, and a large octogonal canal. Towards the river is a fine terrace planted with three rows of trees, above a hundred perches long and eighty-four broad,

broad, and from this terrace is a moſt beautiful proſpect over the adjacent country. Theſe gardens are public, and great numbers of well dreſſed people in ſummer evenings reſort thither. All who wear a black bag and a ſword are permitted to walk here, though all their other cloaths are not worth a crown.

On the bank of the river beyond the Tuilleries, is the place called le Cours, compoſed of four rows of elms, eighteen hundred paces in length, forming three avenues that are all together a hundred and twenty feet in breadth; that in the middle is the broadeſt, and has room for ſix coaches to paſs a-breaſt. In the midſt of the Cours is a large ring, encompaſſed with trees at the ſame diſtance from each other as in the other parts of the walks.

The palace of Luxemburg was built by queen Mary de Medicis, on the ruins of the old hôtel of Luxemburg, which name it has retained. It is one of the moſt perfect and regular pieces of architecture in all France. Here is a gallery of fine paintings done by the celebrated Rubens, who ſpent two years in that work. It conſiſts of the hiſtory of the life of Mary de Medicis, repreſented allegorically in twenty-four large pictures, nine feet broad and ten feet high, placed in the piers between the windows. The other apartments are alſo richly furniſhed, and adorned with a fine collection of valuable paintings. The gardens of this palace are elegantly laid out, and ornamented with fountains. They are daily viſited in ſummer-time by the nobility and others, like thoſe of the Tuilleries; but more eſpecially on Sundays, when ſeveral thouſands of all ranks make their appearance there. It is here the cuſtom for the gentlemen and ladies of the firſt quality, though richly dreſſed, to ſit down to diſcourſe on the graſs.

The royal palace was built by cardinal Richelieu, who made a preſent of it to Lewis XIII. It conſiſts of ſeveral ſets of buildings ſeparated by large courts, and is adorned with fine gardens. Several new apartments have been added to it ſince the cardinal's time, and here queen Anne of Auſtria, mother to Lewis XIV. reſided during the minority of her ſon. In this ſtructure are now held the courts of juſtice, the moſt eminent of which is the parliament.

The royal obſervatory is a very ſtately edifice, built in 1667 upon the higheſt ground in Paris, and as neither iron nor timber has been employed in its conſtruction, except for the ſtaircaſe, it has coſt great ſums. Several aſtronomers, maintained by the king, have apartments in that houſe. The French make their firſt meridian paſs through this obſervatory, which is two degrees thirty minutes more eaſt than London, according to Street's obſervations; or, according to thoſe of Harris, two degrees twenty-five minutes fifty-one ſeconds.

The Gobelins at Paris is a houſe ſo called from one Gobelin, a celebrated dyer, who removing from Rheims to Paris in the reign of Francis I. bought that houſe. He had diſcovered the ſecret of dying the beautiful ſcarlet called from him the ſcarlet of the Gobelins. Lewis XIV. bought that and ſome of the neighbouring houſes, where he eſtabliſhed a manufactory of the fineſt tapeſtries, and alſo ſettled a great number of gold and ſilver-ſmiths, embroiderers, painters, carvers, and other artificers in every branch tending to ſplendor and magnificence. They are all under the direction of the ſuperintendant of the buildings, arts, and manufactures of France. There have been above eight hundred workmen employed here at a time; and though their number be ſince conſiderably decreaſed, yet there are ſtill to be ſeen many things of the moſt curious workmanſhip worthy the curioſity of a traveller.

With reſpect to the churches, the moſt remarkable, after that of Notre Dame, which has been already deſcribed, are the following:

The church and nunnery of Val de Grace was founded by queen Anne of Auſtria, upon the ſuppoſed miraculous birth of Lewis XIV. after ſhe had been married twenty-two years without having any offſpring. Her heart and that of Henrietta Maria of England, ducheſs of Orleans, lie entombed here. The altar and cupola are exceeding fine. The nuns of this convent muſt all be of noble extraction, and chooſe a lady abbeſs once in three years. Madam la Valiere, one of Lewis the XIVth's miſtreſſes, retired to this monaſtery ſoon after her leaving the court. To it is a handſome aſcent by ſeveral ſtone ſteps, which lead into a portico in the front of the church.

In the church which lately belonged to the Jeſuits, and which ſtands in St. Anthony's ſtreet, they have the heart of Lewis the thirteenth incloſed in a gold caſe, ſupported by two angels of ſilver. Here is alſo a fine altar with ſeveral braſs ſtatues, and the monuments of the princes of Condé. This church is a neat and elegant modern ſtructure.

St. Euſtace is a large and beautiful church.

The Theatines have a large church and cloiſter by the ſide of the river, ſome diſtance below the college of the Four Nations. Cardinal Mazarine left a legacy for building this convent.

Clermont college is a ſquare and lofty building, which, till lately, belonged to the Jeſuits, who taught here in ſeveral ſchools about two thouſand boys, many of whom were gentlemen's ſons: theſe boarded here, and had ſeveral halls to dine in. Many of the ſcholars wear coloured gowns, with large round velvet caps when they learn logic, and ſquare caps when they read philoſophy.

The univerſity of Paris is ſaid to be founded by Charlemagne in 791. In this univerſity are upwards of thirty colleges, the moſt conſiderable of which are the Sorbonne, the college of Navarre, the college of the Four Nations, and the faculty or college of phyſic.

The college of Sorbonne was founded in 1250; but was very poor when cardinal Richelieu cauſed it to be rebuilt in 1629. The preſent building is a very magnificent ſtructure, in which are apartments for thirty-ſix doctors, with a library and halls for public lectures and acts. To the three profeſſors chairs the cardinal added three others of a royal foundation. This is thought to be the ſtricteſt college in Europe, the degree of doctor being only given to thoſe who hold the Sorbonnic act, which is to anſwer all diſputants from ſun-riſe to ſun-ſet: on which account the title of doctor of the Sorbonne is of great repute. The doctors wear black gowns, and when exerciſes are performed have white fur hanging acroſs the breaſt.

The college of Navarre was founded by Jane, conſort of Philip the Fair, queen of Navarre, in 1305, for ſtudying divinity; and in 1683 three other chairs were added. Beſides the fellowſhips for ſtudents in divinity, queen Jane founded alſo twenty others for ſtudents in grammar; ſix other fellowſhips have been founded here, and in this college are kept the records of the univerſity.

The college of the Four Nations is the fineſt in the univerſity, and deſigned for the reception of the children of gentlemen, or eminent citizens of four different nations, namely, French, Italians, Spaniards, and Germans. There ſhould be ſixty fellows in this college, by virtue of its original foundation; but they have been reduced to half that number. It is alſo called the college of Mazarine, from the cardinal of that name, who left two millions of livres to it in his laſt will. The univerſity adopted this college upon condition that neither divinity, law, nor phyſic, ſhould be taught in it; nor any academy annexed to it in which ſtudents ſhould be taught to ride, fence, and dance. Beſides the ordinary profeſſors, here is one for mathematics. The doctors of the Sorbonne appoint the principal, who has the title of great maſter, and is always one of their own body. The fellowſhips are at the king's diſpoſal, who gives them to ſuch as are preſented to him by the ſecretary of ſtate of Paris. This college has a ſtately front, in the form of a theatre, facing the Louvre, which is on the oppoſite ſide of the Seine.

The faculty of phyſic has a college built in 1477, in which are five profeſſors, who are annually choſen. The morning profeſſors read lectures on phyſiology, botany, and pharmacy; and the evening profeſſors on pathology and ſurgery. In this college is an amphitheatre, in which are annually given complete courſes of anatomy, ſurgery, pharmacy, and chemiſtry. Every Saturday ſix doctors meet there in order to examine ſuch of the poor who are ſick, and come to conſult them; and the batchelors of

phyſic are obliged to attend, in order to write the preſcriptions of the phyſicians. The faculty is compoſed of all the doctors and licentiates who have taken their degrees in the univerſity of Paris: they have a dean at their head, and a cenſor. Theſe doctors and licentiates have the ſole right of practiſing phyſic at Paris, no phyſician of any other univerſity being ſuffered to practiſe here, unleſs he be phyſician to the king or the royal family. All the profeſſors in the univerſity have ſettled ſalaries, and in moſt of the colleges there are fellowſhips for the ſtudents.

The ſeveral academies deſerve to be particularly mentioned. Theſe are, I. The French academy, founded in 1633, by cardinal Richelieu, for the improvement of the French language, which conſiſts of forty members, who meet on Mondays, Thurſdays, and Saturdays, in a hall of the Old Louvre.

II. The royal academy of inſcriptions and belles lettres, inſtituted for the advancement of polite literature. In this academy ancient monuments are explained, and the tranſactions of the kingdom perpetuated by medals, inſcriptions, &c. It conſiſts of four ſorts of members: theſe are twelve honorary, and twenty penſioners, with twenty-ſix aſſociates and twelve ſtudents. Their meeting-days are on Wedneſdays and Saturdays.

III. The royal academy of ſciences, inſtituted in 1666, has alſo its honorary members, penſioners, aſſociates, and ſtudents.

IV. The royal academy of painting and ſculpture was founded in 1648. The maſter-pieces of the painters and ſculptors admitted into this academy are diſpoſed in three halls, and marked with the names of the ſeveral artiſts. Here are alſo the pictures of a great number of celebrated painters, and among the ſtatues ſeveral of Gyps taken from antiques.

V. The royal academy of architecture was founded in 1671, but was not authorized by letters patent before the year 1717. It is divided into two claſſes: the firſt is compoſed of ten architects, a profeſſor, and a ſecretary; and the ſecond of twelve other architects. The profeſſor, whoſe poſt, as well as that of the ſecretary, is for life, is obliged to read public lectures every Monday and Thurſday in the hall of the Louvre.

The moſt conſiderable of the hoſpitals in this city are, that for diſabled ſoldiers, the Hôtel Dieu, Trinity hoſpital, and the General hoſpital. The Royal hoſpital for diſabled ſoldiers may be conſidered as a large palace, it taking up above ſeventeen acres. Here are four large courts, all of the ſame form, ſurrounded with regular buildings four ſtories high. In the middle is a fifth court, larger than all the four taken together. It is encompaſſed with a double row of arches, one above the other, forming very narrow galleries. The chapel is very beautiful, and its altar adorned in the moſt ſplendid manner. This hoſpital is full of lame and ſuperannuated officers and ſoldiers. The great order and ſtrict diſcipline obſerved in it cannot be ſufficiently admired. It has a governor, a lieutenant of the king, and a major.

The Hôtel Dieu, or the Houſe of God, is the moſt ancient and largeſt hoſpital in Paris. As all poor ſick people are admitted into it, there have been ſometimes four thouſand perſons in it at once. They are attended with the greateſt care by the nuns of the order of St. Auguſtine, who diſcharge the office of nurſes. To the honour of this hoſpital, all manner of patients are admitted, without regard to their country, religion, or diſeaſe; and no ſecurity is required for their burial in caſe of death: nor are thoſe who labour under any incurable diſeaſe ever diſcharged, and ſuffered to periſh in the ſtreets.

In the ſuburbs of St. Victor is the General hoſpital, which alſo goes by the name of La Salpetreria; ſaltpetre having been formerly made here. In it is a noble foundation for the female ſex, near ſeven thouſand of whom are here provided for, and live under the inſpection of ſixty ſiſters, ſubordinate to whom are eighty governeſſes, and a conſiderable number of maid-ſervants. Into this place are received foundlings, who take up one ward: girls and young women, who ſew and knit: a great number of bad women, who are here compelled to ſpin woollen: ſome hundreds of female idiots, who live in little houſes built in the form of a ſtreet: many other poor women, ſome of whom are kept here gratis, and others pay a ſmall matter: delinquents who are confined, but not put to work.

To this admirable foundation alſo belongs the caſtle of Biceſtre, which is ſeated on an eminence at a ſmall diſtance from the above-mentioned houſes, and is on all ſides defended by a wall, which is of very conſiderable compaſs, containing within it many large buildings, and ſeveral open ſquares. In this caſtle are near four thouſand perſons of the other ſex, particularly poor men, who are entertained here gratis, and ſome who pay for their reception into the houſe. Perſons diſordered in their ſenſes, whoſe ward reſembles a village, it being built in regular ſtreets. Twenty-five men and as many women afflicted with the venereal diſeaſe. Common priſoners are kept here in a particular houſe, walled in, and every one in a cell by himſelf: but the moſt remarkable thing here is the large well, which is a modern work: it is of a circular form, and from top to bottom lined with free-ſtone. To the ſurface of the water it is a hundred and twenty-eight feet in depth, and twenty more to the bottom. Round the well, at the water's edge, is a gallery to which a perſon may, on occaſion, be let down. The water is drawn up by means of an engine worked by four horſes, who are relieved every three hours; it is received all day long into huge buckets, each of which contains twelve hundred pounds weight of water, which is diſcharged out of theſe into a leaden baſon, whence it runs into a reſervoir, and is conveyed by means of pipes to all the parts of this vaſt building.

The hoſpital de la Pietie, in St. Victor's ſtreet, conſtitutes alſo a part of the General hoſpital, and is the place where the governors uſually hold their meetings. Theſe three laſt foundations, together with the Hôtel Dieu, have one common fund, amounting to full two millions of livres per annum. Its preſent governors are twelve ſubſtantial citizens appointed by the provoſt of the merchants, and by the echevins; but approved by the parliament, before whom they muſt be ſworn. There are alſo ſeven honorary adminiſtrators, or governors: theſe are the archbiſhop of Paris, the firſt preſident of the parliament, chamber of accounts, and court of aids, the attorney-general, the lieutenant-general of the police, and the provoſt of the merchants.

Trinity hoſpital was founded about the year 1202 by two friars for the reception of poor travellers: but it is now uſed for the maintenance and education of poor children of both ſexes born at Paris in lawful wedlock. They wear blue gowns, and here are an hundred beds for boys, and thirty-ſix for girls, who have different apartments, in each of which there is an infirmary. The youngeſt are taught to read and write; and when they are ſix or ſeven years old, are inſtructed in ſome trade within the hoſpital. In order to encourage mechanics to come and exerciſe their trades here, and teach the children, the parliament has declared, that ſuch journeymen as have taught theſe children ſix years in this hoſpital, ſhall have the freedom of the city, without any expence; and that ſuch children as ſhould be arrived at the age of twenty-five, and ſhould have taught others during ſix years, after they were out of their apprenticeſhip, ſhould enjoy the ſame privilege. This wiſe eſtabliſhment has procured the city a vaſt number of ſkilful artificers. This hoſpital is adminiſtered by five eminent perſons choſen by the parliament, out of ten preſented to them by the attorney-general.

Among the ſquares in Paris the moſt famous is that called La Place de Victoires, or the Square of Victories. In it is a noble ſtatue of Lewis XIV. which is one of the beſt pieces of ſtatuary in Europe: it is of maſſy braſs thirty feet high, clad in his robes, with Victory behind him of the ſame magnitude and metal, putting a crown on his head, and poiſed with her foot on a globe. Under her is a three-headed Cerberus, to repreſent Lewis XIV. triumphing over the triple alliance, with theſe words under it, VIRO IMMORTALI, or the immortal man, alluding to his fame. The whole piece was caſt all at once, and weighs above thirty thouſand pounds. The pedeſtal is twenty-two feet high, and upon it are four ſlaves of braſs, with baſſo relievos of the king's battles and conqueſts.

queſts. Under the pedeſtal is a pavement of marble incloſed within handſome iron rails.

The triumphal arch at Paris is ſaid to exceed every thing of the kind in Europe, whether ancient or modern; this is at leaſt the opinion of the French. The ſtructure is indeed noble, it conſiſting of two faces of an extraordinary height, with three portals, after the manner of the ancient and modern Romans. The orders of the columns are finely deſigned, and the captives and trophies with which this ſtructure is adorned are executed in the moſt admirable manner. On this arch is placed the king's ſtatue on horſe-back. The whole was done from the deſign of the famous Perault.

The other gates of the city and triumphal arches are all pompous pieces of architecture: that of St. Denis, leading to the ſquare of the ſame name, is above ſeventy feet high, and as many over, adorned with columns, baſs reliefs, and trophies, with ſome inſcriptions relating to the paſſage of the French over the Rhine, and their taking of Maeſtricht. The gate of St. Martin is fifty feet high and as many wide, and has on each ſide an inſcription relating to the actions of Lewis XIV. The third gate is that of St. Anthony, erected in the reign of Henry II. but repaired and embelliſhed by the city, with ſome inſcriptions in honour of Lewis XIV.

Among the things worthy of obſervation at Paris is the fair of St. Germain, which begins on the third of February, and holds all Lent. The place where it is kept is a large ſquare building, which has ſix or ſeven rows of ſhops, wherein the cuſtomers play at dice when they come to buy goods; for they are firſt cheapened and bought, and then the people play who ſhall pay for them. The greateſt gaming is after candle-light, and ſometimes the king himſelf comes hither to play. Here is a celebrated picture of our Saviour's aſcenſion, with St. Peter, St. Paul, and two angels in the ſame piece, the work of Antonio Moro: the frame, which is curiouſly carved and richly gilt, is valued at two hundred piſtoles.

On the river Seine are a great number of pleaſure-boats belonging to the king and perſons of quality, in which they ſometimes take the amuſement of ſailing on the water, for the ſake of the air. The water of this river generally looks green and dirty, which is not to be wondered at, as it is commonly filled with covered barges full of waſher-women cleaning their linen: yet it is carried in pails through many of the ſtreets, and ſold as milk is in London. It is a common obſervation, that the French women are the worſt laundreſſes in Europe: they waſh their linen in cold water in the river, and as to ironing and plaiting, they have not the leaſt notion of it. There are here indeed ſome Engliſh women, who will finiſh them pretty neatly, but not ſo white as in England, which may in a good meaſure be owing to the water.

At Paris are ſeveral courts whoſe juriſdiction extends very far. The principal of theſe are the parliament, which is the laſt reſort in all cauſes where the crown does not interpoſe; a general court of the juſtices in eyre, a court of the conſtables and marſhals of France; a court of the admiralty; the bailiwic of the palace; the court of the chatelet, or the ordinary court of juſtice for the civil government of the city, of which the provoſt, or mayor, with the four echevins, or aldermen, and twenty-ſix counſellors, are judges; an election, a ſalt office; a court of the warren of the Louvre, eſtabliſhed for the preſervation of the game ſix leagues round Paris, and to prevent people from hunting in thoſe limits without leave; the court of the Hôtel de Ville, or town-houſe, which takes an account of the city rents, and of the taxes on all proviſions brought into Paris; and the court of the conſuls, which takes cognizance of every thing relating to commerce.

The French condemn malefactors to the gallies, to the gibbet, and to what is called being broke alive upon the wheel: the laſt is uſed only in caſe of murder; but if the evidence leaves only ſome room to doubt the guilt of the perſon accuſed, he is, as in many other countries, cruelly put to the torture to obtain a confeſſion: and here it muſt be obſerved, that malefactors in France receive their ſentence on their knees; which is no ſooner pronounced than the hangman ties a rope about their necks, and conveys them to priſon, whence, after confeſſion, they are generally dragged immediately to the gallows. The common place of execution is the Greve, the ſquare in which ſtands the town-houſe; and we ſhall now give the manner wretches are broke, as it is called, on the wheel, which we ſhall take from Mr. Stephens's Travels through France. "In the middle of the ſquare, ſays he, a ſcaffold was erected; and at half an hour after four the priſoner was brought to it in a cart, attended by the city guard, walking two and two, a prieſt accompanying the dying man. On the ſcaffold was erected a large croſs, exactly in the form of that commonly repreſented for St. Andrew's. The executioner and his aſſiſtants placed the priſoner on it, in ſuch a manner, that his arms and legs were extended agreeably to the form of the croſs, and ſtrongly tied down. Under each arm, leg, &c. was cut a notch in the wood, as a mark where the executioner might with the greater facility break the bone. He held in his hand an iron bar, not unlike an iron crow, and in the firſt place broke his arms, then in a moment after both his thighs. It was dreadful to ſee the poor wretch writhe his body with agony, and to obſerve the diſtortions of his face. It was a conſiderable time before he expired, and it would have been longer, had not the executioner given him what is called the *coup de grace*, or merciful ſtroke, on his ſtomach, which at once put an end to his miſery. They then took the dead body from the croſs, and put it on a wheel, fixed to a long pole, where he was expoſed for ſome time; and this part of the ceremony occaſions the common expreſſion of being broke upon the wheel, though it is performed on a croſs."

The trade of Paris with the other parts of the kingdom is very extenſive. Their commerce with foreigners is alſo conſiderable; for it is obſerved, that one ſingle branch, that of the gold, ſilver, and ſilk ſtuffs manufactured at Paris, is equal to the whole trade carried on at Lyons. They have here likewiſe manufactories of all other ſorts of ſtuffs, of looking-glaſſes, and almoſt every neceſſary for the ſupport and convenience of life.

There are in this city ſix principal companies of tradeſmen, out of which the conſuls, who have the regulation of trade, are choſen; theſe are the drapers, the grocers and apothecaries, the mercers and jewellers, the ſkinners, the hatters and goldſmiths: beſides which there are the bookſellers, the vintners and wine-merchants, the wool-merchants and timber-merchants: but though theſe are eſteemed inferior to the others, they have the ſame privileges, and are capable of being elected conſuls.

The land in the neighbourhood of this capital is in general flat and even, intermixed, however, with a few eminences. Towards the north of Paris the ſoil is fat, and produces a great quantity of very good corn. On the other ſide it is ſandy, marſhy, and wet. The whole is, however, cultivated with great care and induſtry; and the people have carried the art of gardening to ſuch perfection, that in the midſt of winter they raiſe all thoſe ſorts of kitchen ſtuff that ſeem to be the produce of ſummer only. Within the election of Paris they make one year with another about ſixteen thouſand hogſheads of wine, which is all drank at Paris, or in its neighbourhood.

This city has undergone the fate of moſt others; it has been ſeveral times beſieged, twice burnt, and once conſiderably damaged by an inundation of the Seine. Henry VI. king of England, was crowned here, and his court was kept with great ſtate and magnificence at the Louvre in 1422. On the twenty-firſt of Auguſt, 1572, it was in a moſt deteſtable manner ſtained with the blood of ſix thouſand proteſtants; the ſignal for this moſt horrible maſſacre being given by the tolling of the great bell, which is ſtill to be ſeen in the tower of the palace where the parliament ſits. In the civil war Paris took part with the leaguers, and was beſieged in the years 1589 and 1590 in vain by king Henry III. and IV. but in 1594 readily opened its gates to the latter, after his coronation.

In the neighbourhood of Paris are ſeveral palaces and little towns included under the ſame government, the principal of which are the following:

The wood of Vincennes reaches almoſt to the gates of Paris, and is incloſed round with a wall. Within this wood, at the diſtance of three miles to the eaſt of Paris, is a royal palace, or caſtle, which was conſiderably improved and beautified by Francis I. Henry II. Lewis XIII. and XIV. It is an oblong ſquare building, encompaſſed with dry ditches, which are lined and pretty deep. The caſtle is compoſed of ſeveral ſquare towers, the higheſt of which is called the Donjon, and is ſurrounded with a particular ditch, over which there is a draw-bridge. The chapel, though in the Gothic taſte, is not without beauty, it being adorned with ſeveral pyramids and other ornaments; and the pictures on the windows are highly valued. The rooms within the palace are beautiful and ſtately, and the cieling adorned with paintings.

The gate through which you enter the park is a fine piece of architecture, in the form of a triumphal arch, adorned with columns and ſtatues, and ſtands in the middle of a large court, on each ſide of which is a fine ſuite of buildings, and an open gallery ſupported by ruſtic arches.

At the entrance of the park is a place where they uſed formerly to keep wild beaſts, as lions, tygers, and leopards. This park takes up fourteen hundred and ſixty-ſeven acres. The avenue leading to the palace has four rows of elms planted on a ſpot which has been made level for that purpoſe, they having been obliged to ſupport it in ſeveral places by means of high and thick walls. This palace, or caſtle, has ſometimes ſerved as a priſon for perſons of the higheſt rank, and princes of the blood, when they have incurred the ſovereign's diſpleaſure.

About three miles to the weſt of Paris is the royal palace of Madrid, in the wood of Boulogne. This palace was built by Francis I. in 1529, after the model of the palace of Madrid in Spain. It conſiſts of a ſuite of buildings three ſtories high, beſides the ground-floor, and round it is a gallery reaching to the top of the firſt floor, ſupported by coupled columns. The arches have an ornament of a ſingular kind, they being incruſted with a ſort of tiles that gliſten very much when the ſun ſhines upon them. The principal building is flanked on each ſide by two large pavilions, at the angles of which there are ſmaller ones. In the middle of the fronts of each of the large pavilions is a round tower, the top of which is in the form of a dome. The whole is ſurrounded with a narrow ditch.

Ruel is a ſmall town on the Seine, five miles from Paris, where is a very handſome church, and ſome elegant gentlemen's houſes; but it is principally noted for a ſeat built by cardinal Richelieu, which, though not magnificent, is admired for its neatneſs, and its being adorned with very beautiful gardens in the Italian taſte, and curious water-works.

St. Maur de Foſſez, on the river Marne, over which is a ſtone bridge, is about two leagues to the eaſt of Paris. Here is an ancient abbey of St. Maur, which was ſecularized in 1535, and afterwards changed into a collegiate church of canons. Here is alſo a very fine ſeat, with beautiful gardens, belonging to the duke of Bourbon.

Conflans is a fine ſeat thus called, from its being near the confluence of the Seine and the Marne. It owes its beauty both to nature and the elegant taſte of Francis de Harlay, archbiſhop of Paris: it belongs to that metropolitan's ſee, and is the country ſeat of the archbiſhops. The rooms within are extremely magnificent, eſpecially the gallery, which is adorned with pictures done by the beſt maſters. The gardens are very beautifully laid out, and adorned with ſtatues, walks, water-works, groves, and other proper embelliſhments.

SECT. XXX.

Of the Government of the Iſle of France; its Situation, Extent, and Produce; with a particular Deſcription of the Palaces of Verſailles, Trianon, Marly, Fontainbleau, Mudon, St. Cloud, and the principal Cities.

THE government round the Iſle of France is bounded on the north by Picardy, on the weſt by Normandy, on the ſouth by the Orleanois, and on the eaſt by that of Champagne, extending about ninety miles in length, and as much in breadth.

The air is temperate, and the ſoil fertile; it therefore abounds in corn, wine, and fruit, and is divided into ſeveral ſmall diſtricts.

In deſcribing the places in this government we ſhall begin with the palaces, theſe having a nearer relation to the ſubject of the laſt ſection.

The palace of Verſailles, which lies four leagues to the ſouth-weſt of Paris, ſtands on a riſing ground in the midſt of a country fit for hunting, and abounding with game. Lewis XIII. built a caſtle here, to ſerve as a hunting-ſeat; but Lewis XIV. being much pleaſed with the ſituation, converted the village into a fine town, and the caſtle into the moſt noble palace in the world. The ſide fronting the ſtables is not anſwerable in magnificence to the reſt; but that facing the gardens is extremely beautiful. Its roof glittering with gold, affords a noble proſpect at a diſtance, and the gardens, ſtatues, canals, groves, grottos, fountains, and other water-works, far ſurpaſs any thing of the kind to be ſeen in Italy; and its riches and beauty within are altogether anſwerable to its outſide.

The avenue leading to the caſtle divides the town into two parts; that which ſtands on the left hand, in coming from Paris, is called Old Verſailles, and that on the right the New Town. The palace, which is ſeated on an eminence in the midſt of a valley, is encompaſſed with hills. On the ſide towards Paris is a fine avenue of elms, the viſta in the middle being ſixty feet wide, and thoſe on the ſides thirty each. The end of the great royal ſquare is encompaſſed with regular pavilions built by the princes and lords of the court; theſe, with other fine houſes, form the new town. This ſquare has a fountain in the middle of it, with walks like thoſe leading to it.

From thence you aſcend the great court of the palace, which is 480 feet long, with four large pavilions at the corners for officers lodgings. The great court is incloſed with an iron baluſtrade, and two large buildings, that form the wings on each ſide, having balconies ſupported by columns and adorned with fine ſtatues. Theſe wings, together with the pavilions, ſerve for offices to the palace, and have courts with other buildings behind them. There are other double apartments, which, joining thoſe wings, form a communication between the new and old caſtle, and contracting the upper part of the great court end gracefully at the ſmall one.

Out of this court is an aſcent of three marble ſteps into a large landing place, and from thence by five more, into the little court paved with black and white marble. In the middle is a marble fountain and baſon, with ſtatues of gilt copper. The front and wings are of brick and free-ſtone, adorned with marble buſts and brackets. Before this front is a balcony ſupported by eight marble columns of the Doric order, with red and white ſpots like jaſper, and their baſes and capitals of white marble. In the two angles of the wings in the front are hanging pedeſtals, which ſupport two cloſets encompaſſed with gilt iron caſes; and underneath are two baſons of white marble in the form of ſhells, where young Tritons ſpout water. The middle building has three gilt iron doors in the porch, with apartments on the right and left.

In coming out of the great court, and paſſing through an open porch, you aſcend by a large ſtair-caſe eighty-one feet long, and thirty broad. From this porch there is an entrance into two painted halls. The cieling of one of them is ſupported by eight marble columns of the Doric order, that have red and white veins; the capitals and baſes are of a greeniſh colour, and the columns, being four on a ſide, divide the hall into three parts. On the ſides oppoſite to each column are pilaſters of the ſame marble, that ſupport a cornice under the platform, and fronting the windows are niches with ſtatues.

Next to this is another hall ſupported by twelve columns of the Ionic order, with marble pilaſters behind them, that have red, black, violet, and yellow veins; and their capitals and baſes are of fine white marble. From this you enter another hall of the ſame dimenſions, whoſe cieling is an octogon, with twelve double pedeſtals by the windows and doors, of fine marble, on which

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are placed figures of the twelve months, repreſented by winged young men in gilt copper. The pieces over the doors and windows are of a white or flame-coloured marble. Upon one ſide of this hall is the chamber and cloſet of the baths. All the parts that are not hung with tapeſtry are lined with marble, and the nearer you come to the king's apartments, the more ſumptuous are the marbles, ſculptures, and paintings.

The like order is obſerved in the upper apartments, which are eight on a floor, adorned with different ſorts of marble and curious paintings. The guard hall is ornamented with marble that has black and yellow veins. In the other apartments is a marble with green veins, and others are lined with a fine marble called agate, brought from the Alps. On the ſide towards the green-houſe are other lodgings in the ſame order, with an apartment for the dauphine, under that of the queen, the cieling of which is curiouſly adorned. The queen's apartments are a ſuite of rooms that have the ſame dimenſions with the king's; but of different workmanſhip; the paintings on the cielings repreſent the actions of the ancient heroes.

Oppoſite to the front of the palace is a large plat in the garden, one hundred yards long, and twelve broad: the principal front looks towards a piece of water, and has three balconies, ſupported by four columns each, and a figure upon every column repreſenting a month of the year, and theſe balconies are richly adorned with ſtatues.

It would take up a volume to deſcribe the vaſt variety of paintings and ſtatues with which the apartments of this palace are adorned. The royal cabinet for medals, coins, paintings, and the like curioſities, had the choice of all that Italy could afford. The king's lodgings are enriched with utenſils of maſſy plate, even to the bedſteads, baluſtrades, and rails. The gallery towards the ſide of the garden is perhaps the nobleſt ever beheld, for its delightful proſpect; with the fine ſtatues and looking glaſſes placed between the pannels of the windows. The chapel, built in 1699, is a moſt finiſhed piece of architecture, ſculpture, and painting, performed by the moſt eminent maſters.

Every room has a particular name taken from the principal object painted on the cieling; for inſtance, the hall of Plenty, from Plenty and Liberality being painted on the cieling. Here are ſeveral pictures of the Holy Virgin; one on a column of jaſper, holding the infant Jeſus, and ſurrounded with ſeveral pilgrims, done by Pouſſin; the Virgin Mary and St. Joſeph flying into Egypt, by Guido, &c. The ſaloon of Venus has that goddeſs painted on the cieling, ſeated in a chariot drawn by doves, the gods and heroes adorning her triumph. Here are pictures of Nebuchadnezzar, who gives orders in relation to the gardens of Babylon; of Auguſtus exhibiting a chariot race in the circus; of Cyrus reviewing his army; and of Alexander marrying Roxana.

The hall of war has the cieling adorned with five pictures, the largeſt of which, in the middle, repreſents France holding a thunder-bolt in one hand, and a buckler in the other; the four others are on the ſides of it: the firſt is Bellona in a violent rage; the ſecond repreſents Germany in vain endeavouring to defend the Imperial crown; in the third Spain ſeems to threaten France; but her ſoldiers are put to flight: the fourth ſhews Holland thrown back upon her lion. This room is alſo adorned with ſix heads of the Roman emperors in porphyry; the drapery of the buſts is of gilt braſs, and they are placed on pedeſtals of oriental alabaſter.

The king's bed-chamber is more magnificent than any of the reſt; the carvings are all gilt, on a white ground. The bed is placed in an alcove, where two figures of Fame, who are repreſented ſitting, ſeem to watch for the preſervation of the king. The furniture of the bed is of crimſon velvet, embroidered with gold, and the chamber is adorned with ſeveral fine pictures.

The gardens are no leſs magnificent than the palace. In deſcending from the terrace you ſee two baſons which contain ſeveral water-ſpouts, and in the midſt of each, a collection of ſpouts in the form of a wheat-ſheaf, that riſes twenty-nine feet high. The borders of theſe baſons are each adorned with eight groups of brazen figures, repreſenting river gods and nymphs; and four others of the ſame metal repreſenting Cupids, little nymphs, and genii. In two angles of that parterre are two other baſons of marble, where the water is thrown into two ſheets, that have a fine effect, and on the borders of the baſons are groups of animals in braſs. From this parterre you ſee in a kind of creſcent which is below it, the baſon of Latona, round which are repreſented a groupe of three figuers, Latona, Apollo, and Diana. Latona here ſeems to complain to Jupiter of the cruelty of the peaſants of Lycia, who are repreſented as metamorphoſed into frogs, which throw a vaſt quantity of water upon the groupe.

There are ſeveral other baſons with jets, and other curious water-works, a particular deſcription of which would carry us too far; we ſhall therefore only mention the famous canal, at one end of which is a baſon of an octogonal figure, four hundred and twenty feet in diameter; four of its ſides are circular, three in ſtraight lines, and the other joins the canal. In two of the angles of this baſon is a ſea-horſe with a Triton on his back. The great canal is thirty-two fathoms broad, and eight hundred long, including the baſons at each end. In the middle it is croſſed by another canal about five hundred and twenty fathoms in length. Upon theſe canals the court ſometimes divert themſelves in yachts and galleys.

The orangery, or green-houſe, is a maſter-piece in its kind. It has a ſouthern expoſure, and contains firſt a large gallery, four hundred and eight feet long, with twelve arched windows in the front; and on each ſide are two others, each three hundred and ſixty feet long. Theſe galleries are adorned on the outſide with fine rows of columns. Before this green-houſe is a beautiful parterre, with a fine baſon in the middle, from which a ſpout of water riſes forty feet high. It is embelliſhed with four rows of columns, of the Tuſcan order, groupes of ſtone figures beautifully carved, vaſes, ſtatues of white marble, &c. In ſummer this parterre ſeems a foreſt of orange and lemon trees, myrtles, &c.

The labyrinth is a fine grove, the ſeveral walks of which are ſo interwoven with each other, that it is very difficult for a perſon who enters it without a guide, not to loſe himſelf. At the entrance are two ſtatues, the one of Æſop, the other of Cupid holding a clue of thread in his hand. At every turning of the alleys you meet with a beautiful fountain, in a baſon of fine ſhell-work, where one of Æſop's fables is very naturally repreſented; the ſubject of which is expreſſed in four lines, engraved in gold letters on a braſs plate with a black ground.

Here are a great number of other groves, all beautifully adorned, and at one end of the garden is the place where they breed a variety of foreign beaſts and birds.

In the park of Verſailles is another palace, called Trianon, ſituated at one end of the canal which croſſes the large one. This is both genteel and magnificent; the architecture and ornaments are in an exquiſite taſte, and the front about ſixty-four fathoms broad. The court before it is adorned with a fine periſtile, ſupported by marble columns and pilaſters. The two wings are terminated by two pavilions, and over the whole building is a baluſtrade adorned with ſtatues, urns, &c. In the apartments are fine pictures, and the furniture is very ſumptuous. The gardens are here alſo embelliſhed with fine baſons, caſcades, and groupes of figures, done by the beſt maſters.

In a park contiguous to Verſailles is another royal ſeat, called Marly, delightfully ſituated in a little valley, with a very fine proſpect of the caſtle of St. Germain, and of the neighbouring country. On coming from St. Germain to this palace, you enter firſt a round court, three hundred feet in diameter, where ſtands the guard room, and where terminate the ſeveral courts for ſtables, coach-houſes, &c. The palace conſiſts of a large pavillion, ſtanding detached from any other, as alſo of twelve ſmaller ones, ſix on each ſide: the outſide of the great one is adorned with paintings in freſco. The ſteps are embelliſhed with figures of ſphinxes, groups of children, vaſes, and the like.

In the great hall are ſixteen pilaſters, fine looking-glaſſes, and pictures; and in the king's apartments, and thoſe of the royal family, are beautiful pieces of painting, repreſenting the ſieges which Lewis XIV. carried on in perſon. The ſmall pavilions are joined to each other by arches, through each of which you enter a little arbour. In theſe ſmall pavilions are apartments for perſons of quality.

In the gardens is a large caſcade, which is properly a river falling from a very high place, and forming very beautiful ſheets of water. At the bottom are ſeveral baſons, adorned with groupes, ſtatues, &c. The ſide of the parterre, fronting the large pavilion, preſents a moſt extenſive and beautiful proſpect. From this parterre you deſcend to another, adorned with marble ſtatues, and a baſon in the middle, which has a number of water-ſpouts, forming a wheat-ſheaf. Beyond this is a large baſon ſurrounded with walks and graſs-plats. In going ſtill farther down, you meet with two other baſons, embelliſhed with ſhell-work and groupes of figures, in white marble. The water falling out of theſe baſons, forms ſeveral ſheets, and enters another below. Among the other pieces of water, is another caſcade, which falls from a ſteep hill into a large baſon, in the middle of which is a ſmall one of gilt braſs, ſupported by three Tritons of the ſame metal.

The hydraulic engine of Marly for raiſing of water, ſtands on the river Seine, and is compoſed of fourteen wheels turned by the current, which ſet two hundred and twenty-five pumps going at once, throwing up the water into a tower at the diſtance of ſix hundred and ten fathoms from the river. Thence the water runs into an aqueduct three hundred and thirty fathoms in length, and from thence is conveyed through iron pipes of eighteen inches bore into the reſervoirs of Marly, which are three hundred and fifty fathoms farther, and theſe again ſupply all the water-works of Marly and Verſailles.

Fontainebleau is but a mean town, though it has a particular ſub-governor, a royal prevoté, and a foreſt court. It is thirty-five miles to the ſouth-eaſt of Paris, and is ſolely remarkable for its royal palace, in which the French kings have taken great delight, it being well ſituated for a hunting ſeat. Though it conſiſts of ſeveral ſets of buildings added to one another at different times, without any order or ſymmetry, which conſtitute a confuſed maſs of various kinds of architecture, yet this very confuſion has an air of grandeur, which ſtrikes the eye. Its ſituation is in a bottom, and it is ſurrounded by a large foreſt; but the neighbouring hills are crowned with bare rocks. As the foreſt abounds with game, the court frequently takes the diverſion of hunting in it.

The largeſt room of this palace is that where plays are acted when the court is here. In this room is a large chimney built by Henry IV. twenty-three feet high, and twenty wide, adorned with four lofty Corinthian columns of ſpotted marble, with the baſes and capitals of white marble. In the midſt of the chimney-piece is a table of black marble, on which ſtands the equeſtrian ſtatue of the laſt-mentioned prince; underneath are two baſſo relievos, one repreſenting the battle of Ivry, and the other the ſurrender of the city of Mante. Two marble ſtatues, repreſenting Loyalty and Peace, ſtand on each ſide of this figure, and facing the chimney is a noble theatre for the acting of plays.

The room in which the king dines in public has a very fine cieling, and noble pictures repreſenting Fortitude, Temperance, Juſtice, and Prudence, with ſeveral other ſubjects. The other rooms are alſo adorned with paintings.

The galleries of this palace are likewiſe very fine. Among the reſt the ſtag-gallery, along the orangery, is particularly worthy of notice, it being adorned with paintings of all the royal palaces, between which are ſtags heads ſet off with branches of a very uncommon ſize. Under each ſtag's head is an inſcription, ſhewing in what wood, and by what king the ſtag was killed. Thus many of them are introduced ſpeaking, and very politely ſaying, king Charles, or Lewis, did me the honour of taking me. In the gallery of Diana is the picture of Henry the Great in a hunting-dreſs; and the different kinds of hunting in which he delighted, are repreſented in ſeveral paintings twelve feet high, and twenty broad.

Near this gallery is the aviary, which is extremely large and beautiful, it being ninety feet in length, and nine in breadth. In the middle is a large dome, under which is an artificial rock, made of ſhell-work, from which iſſue ſeveral ſprings, the water running through many little channels made in the ſtone pavement along the whole aviary.

The gardens are adorned with ſtatues and fountains, the largeſt of which ſtands in the middle of the garden, and is called the fountain of the Tiber, from that river being repreſented in braſs. Beyond it are a grotto and caſcades, and at the entrance of the park is a fine canal ſix hundred fathoms long, and twenty broad; it is all lined with ſtone, and has a fountain at each end. Nothing can be more rural and delightful than the alleys of this park, they being all of a vaſt length.

Mudon, in Latin Moldunum, a market town, five miles to the ſouth-eaſt of Paris, remarkable for the royal palace erected there, the favourite reſidence of the only ſon of Lewis XIV. It ſtands in the middle of a foreſt, and has a noble avenue leading to it, three quarters of a mile in length, on the right of which is a fine convent belonging to the Capuchins, and on the left the vineyards of Mudon. At the entrance of the court of the palace is a large pile of buildings on the right, and another on the left, which open in the form of a ſemicircle; but are disjoined from the body of the houſe. In the middle of the front is a lofty advanced building, entered by three doors. Above it runs an order of architecture, conſiſting of arches and columns finely deſigned. Above them is another order accompanied with pilaſters; over all is a fountain containing two ſtatues in a cumbent poſture, admirably well finiſhed. The wings are not ſo high as the principal building, and each of them is terminated by a ſquare pavilion.

The inſide of this palace was adorned with the richeſt furniture, and a fine collection of ſtatues, paintings, medals, and other antiquities. The front towards the garden alſo conſiſts of a lofty advanced building, with wings conſiderably lower, which terminate on the right and left in two pavilions of the ſame height as the body of the building. The gardens are much admired for their fine walks, parterres, and water-works, and adjoining to them is a ſpacious park encompaſſed with a brick wall, and adorned with woods, baſons, and reſervoirs of water; the woods being cut through, and divided by beautiful avenues, among which is one diſtinguiſhed by the name of the Dauphin, which leads to the gates of Paris.

Near Mudon are ſome excellent ſtone quarries.

St. Cloud, a borough, ſeated four miles from Paris, on an eminence near the Seine, and belonging to the archbiſhop of Paris. This place is a duchy and peerage, the archbiſhop bearing the title of duke and peer of St. Cloud. In it is a collegiate church, one convent, and a fine palace belonging to the duke of Orleans, adorned with very beautiful galleries, containing fine paintings and ſculptures, and the garden belonging to it abounds with fountains, caſcades, delightful parterres, with every thing that can pleaſe the eye. This place is much reſorted to by the inhabitants of Paris, on account of its extraordinary pleaſantneſs. It has a manufactory of porcelain, and a fine bridge of ſtone over the Seine. Here Henry III. was murdered in 1589.

Senlis, a city ſeated on an eminence on the little river Nonett, twenty miles to the north-weſt of Paris, in a diſtrict called Valois. It is the reſidence of a governor, a diſtrict court, and a ſalt office. In this city and its three ſuburbs are ſix pariſh churches; among which is the cathedral, which has a ſteeple that is one of the higheſt in France, and the figures which adorn the front of the right wing of this church are very curious. Here are alſo a collegiate church, and a royal chapel. Its biſhop is ſubject to the archbiſhop of Rheims, and has within his dioceſe one hundred and ſeventy-ſeven pariſhes, forty-four chapels of eaſe, three abbies, nine priories with nineteen infirmaries, and his annual revenue

amounts to eighteen thouſand livres, out of which he pays to the court of Rome one thouſand two hundred and fifty-four florins. The city has its own laws, and is defended by a wall, a dry moat, and baſtions.

Soiſſons, the capital of a diſtrict called the Soiſſonnois, and of the whole government, is ſeated in a pleaſant and fruitful valley, on the river Aiſne, ſixty miles to the north-eaſt of Paris. It is a pretty large well built town, and gives the title of Count. It is the reſidence of a governor-general, and the ſeat of a generalité, an intendance, a board of the finances, a ſalt-office, a court of juſtice, a foreſt-court, &c. In this city, beſides the cathedral, which has one of the moſt conſiderable chapters in the kingdom, are three collegiate churches, one college of the fathers of the Oratory, ſix abbies, ſeveral convents, a French academy, and an ancient caſtle. Its biſhop is ſubject to the archbiſhop of Rheims, in whoſe abſence he performs the ceremony of the king's coronation; he has three hundred and ninety-ſeven pariſhes, and twenty-three abbies within his dioceſe, which produces a revenue of eighteen thouſand livres, out of which he pays the court of Rome's taxation of two thouſand four hundred florins. Several councils have been held here.

St. Denis, a town ſeated in a fruitful level country, in the iſle of France Proper, five miles to the north-weſt of Paris, owes its origin to a celebrated abbey of Benedictines, founded there by king Clotaire, in honour of St. Denis, ſo early as the year 600, but greatly improved by his ſon Dagobert. The abbey is now rebuilt with the fineſt free-ſtone, and has a garden laid out in a moſt elegant taſte. The church, though Gothic, is a handſome ſtructure, and not only contains a very rich treaſury, in which are kept the crown jewels; but is likewiſe the place of interment for the kings of France and their families; but no tombs have been erected here, for Henry IV. or any of the ſucceeding kings. The famous marſhal de Turenne has a noble monument here erected by the king's order, in a marble chapel built on purpoſe, where his effigy lies at full length, ſurrounded with laurels and trophies, and a Roman eagle retreating backwards at the ſight of ſo formidable an enemy. Immortality, with a radiant crown on her head, holds in one hand a crown of laurel, while ſhe ſupports with the other the dying hero. Wiſdom and Valour are alſo repreſented in their proper attitudes: the former ſeems aſtoniſhed at the ſtroke which deprives France of that great man, and the latter appears in conſternation. On the altar in this abbey is a croſs, ſaid to be of maſſy gold, ſeven feet high, ſet with diamonds and rich pearls, and by it a table of gold; the altar is plated over with ſilver. The preſent income of the abbey is ſixty thouſand livres, together with the lordſhip of the town, and appeals from his court lie only to the parliament of Paris. Beſides this church here are thirteen others, among which is the collegiate church of St. Paul, and five convents.

Noyon, a very ancient, pretty large, and well built city, in the diſtrict called Noyonnois, on the little river Verſe, twenty-two miles to the north-weſt of Soiſſons. It is the reſidence of a governor, and has a ſalt-office, a foreſt-court, &c. Beſides its cathedral and a royal chapel, it has ten pariſh churches, two abbies, two convents, one community, one ſeminary, and two hoſpitals. Its biſhop, who is alſo ſuffragan to the archbiſhop of Rheims, is a count and a peer of France: his dioceſe conſiſts of four hundred and fifty pariſhes, and ſeventeen abbies; and his revenue amounts to twenty-five thouſand livres, out of which he pays three thouſand florins to the court of Rome. The principal trade of this city conſiſts in corn. Here the celebrated Calvin was born. This city has been ſeveral times deſtroyed by fire.

Laon, a city in the diſtrict called the Laonnois, ſtands on a ſteep eminence in the midſt of a large plain twenty miles to the north-eaſt of Soiſſons. It is well built, and has an old caſtle, and beautiful ſtreets. It has a governor, a ſalt-office, a foreſt-manor, and a court of juſtice. Beſides its cathedral, it has three collegiate churches, five abbies, two convents, a college maintained at the expence of the city, one general hoſpital, and an almshouſe. Its biſhop, who is ſubject to the archbiſhop of Rheims, is the ſecond duke and peer of France. Within his dioceſe are three hundred pariſhes, and twenty-four abbies. His revenue amounts to thirty thouſand livres, out of which he pays four thouſand florins to the court of Rome. The neighbouring country produces excellent wine.

Beauvais, a city in the diſtrict of Beauvaiſis, is ſeated on the river Teraine, ſixteen leagues to the north of Paris, and is almoſt ſurrounded with hills. Cæſar having beſieged and taken this town, is ſaid to have given it the name of Cæſaromagnus. It is fortified, but is of no great ſtrength, it being commanded by the neighbouring mountains. Its cathedral, dedicated to St. Peter, is a magnificent building; it has alſo ſix collegiate churches, thirteen pariſh-churches, three abbies, a general hoſpital, and an alms-houſe. It has likewiſe a manor-court, which, together with the foreſt-court, are dependent on the biſhop. It has likewiſe a province-court, and a ſalt-houſe. The biſhop, who is ſuffragan to the archbiſhop of Rheims, is a count and peer of France, and has a dioceſe conſiſting of twelve chapters, fourteen abbies, forty-eight priories, four hundred and forty-two pariſhes, and three hundred chapels, with an annual revenue amounting to fifty-five thouſand livres, out of which he pays a taxation of four thouſand ſix hundred florins to the court of Rome. In this city is a conſiderable manufacture of tapeſtry, and in it are alſo made great quantities of ſerge and woollen cloth.

The Engliſh beſieged this city in vain in 1443, and in 1472 it made a brave defence againſt Charles duke of Burgundy, when the women ſignalized their courage under the conduct of a brave heroine named Joan Hatchet, whoſe picture they preſerve in the town-houſe; and in memory of this action the women are allowed to march firſt in a proceſſion annually obſerved on the tenth of July. The adjacent country abounds in corn, paſture, and fruit, and affords ſome of the beſt mutton in France.

St. Germain's, or St. Germain en Laye, a well inhabited town, is ſeated on an eminence along the Seine, ten miles to the north-weſt of Paris, and has very good air and water. The Engliſh deſtroyed a palace which ſtood here in 1346; but a new building being raiſed by Francis I. it afterwards received the name of the Old Palace, to diſtinguiſh it from one built there by Henry IV. which was called the New. Lewis XIII. added ſome conſiderable embelliſhments to it, and Lewis XIV. enlarged it by the addition of five ſtately pavilions, whence, though it is no regular building, it makes a grand appearance. The New Palace, as it is called, fronts the Old, and ſtands on the brow of a hill, with a garden of ſix beds of earth ſupported by arches ſloping into the valley. This building is a true image of the tranſitorineſs of all ſublunary things, the galleries in it being turned into granaries, and the paintings ſcarce diſtinguiſhable for filth. The very alcove in which Lewis XIV. was born is now a duſt-hole, and the grand ſtair-caſe leading into the garden is wholly in ruins, while the arches for the beds in the garden are in many places ſunk into the ground. The Old Palace was the reſidence of James II. after his flight from England, and here too he died. The ſtreets of the town are well paved, the houſes are lofty and handſome, with ſome large ſquares and hôtels, though it has only one pariſh-church, three convents, and an hoſpital.

St. Cyr, a convent of nuns of the order of St. Auguſtine founded in 1686 by madame de Maintenon, miſtreſs, if not the ſecret conſort of Lewis XIV. of which ſhe herſelf was abbeſs till the fifteenth of April, 1719, when ſhe died. It contains fifty ladies of quality, thirty-ſix lay-ſiſters, and two hundred and fifty pupils, who muſt be between the age of ſeven and twelve; but muſt prove their nobility for four generations, and have no defect in body or mind. Here they continue till they are twenty years of age, when ſuch of them as are diſpoſed to be nuns are diſtributed among the royal abbies, where they are admitted gratis: the others are married to gentlemen, with a portion of four hundred piſtoles, beſides a certainty of preferment to the bridegroom; or elſe they are ſent back to their parents. On the death of any one of the fifty ladies, her place is filled up by election from among the young ladies. The thirty-ſix lay-ſiſters inſtruct them in every branch of education becoming their ſex. This

foundation

foundation has an annual revenue of a hundred and eighty thouſand livres, a hundred thouſand of which ariſe from the extinction of the abbey of St. Denis, excluſive of its lands and immoveables. The convent is a very ſpacious and ſplendid ſtructure.

SECT. XXXI.

Of the Government of Brittany; its Situation, Extent, Hiſtory, Produce, and principal Cities, namely Rennes, Nantz, St. Malo's, and Breſt; with a conciſe Deſcription of Belleiſle.

THE province of Brittany, called by the French Bretagne, is a kind of peninſula ſurrounded on the ſouth and weſt by the Atlantic ocean; on the north by the Britiſh channel; but towards the eaſt it joins Normandy, Maine, Anjou, and Poitou. Its greateſt length from eaſt to weſt is ſixty leagues, and its greateſt breadth forty-five, but in many places it is very narrow. It received its name from the old Britons, who being driven out of Britain about the middle of the fifth century, by the Angles and Saxons, croſſed the Channel into Gaul, and, after wandering about for ſome time, ſettled in this province, to which they at length gave their name. In ſucceeding times the Britons were obliged to ſubmit to the kings of the Franks. Charles the Great had a fleet here to act againſt the Normans, and under his ſucceſſors, Numenoius, a chief of the Britons, created himſelf king; but his ſecond ſucceſſor was taken off by ſome conſpirators, who made themſelves maſters of the country under the title of counts. The Normans afterwards reduced the country, but were unable to keep the quiet poſſeſſion of it; but at length Conan, count of Brittany, married his only daughter Conſtantia to Gottfried, count of Anjou, the ſon of Henry II. of England, and duke of Normandy; and the daughter and heireſs of this Conſtantia marrying Peter of Dreux, Brittany fell to the royal family of France, Peter being a prince of the blood. It was then governed by the dukes of Brittany, and at length, by marrying their daughters to the kings of France, it became united to that crown in the year 1532.

This province contains ſome very good harbours, but has few navigable rivers, except the Loire and Villaine. The country is in ſome parts level, and in others mountainous, particularly in Upper Brittany, through which runs a chain of mountains called Mont Acré. It produces little corn and wine, but its extenſive and fruitful paſtures enable the inhabitants to carry on a profitable trade in butter. It alſo produces hemp and flax, of which are made great quantities of linen and ſail cloth. At Carnot is a lead mine; but the lead found in it is not near ſo good as that of England. Some places in the dioceſe of Nantes alſo yield pit-coal; but that alſo is much inferior to the Engliſh. Horſes likewiſe are another branch of the trade of this country. On the coaſt are taken great numbers of ſardines and other fiſh.

The inhabitants on the ſea-ſhore are excellent mariners. In Upper Brittany they ſpeak French; but in Lower Brittany Welſh.

This country has its own parliament, which is held at Rennes; as alſo its own laws and particular ſtates, the latter of which conſiſt of the clergy, nobility, burghers, and peaſants, who are ſummoned by the king every two years. The governor is likewiſe admiral of Brittany, and under him are two lieutenant generals, one of whom has the ſuperintendency of eight dioceſes, and the other only of the earldom and biſhopric of Nantes. Beſides theſe there are three ſub-governors. In the meeting of the ſtates, and aſſeſſments of taxes, the country is divided according to its nine biſhoprics, five of which belong to Upper and four to Lower Brittany. We ſhall begin with the former, the principal places in which are the following:

Rennes, the ancient Condate, the capital of the province, is ſeated on the river Villaine, about fifty-five miles to the northward of Nantes, and forty-five to the ſouth of St. Malo's. It is divided by the river into two parts, which have a communication by three bridges. It is pretty large, populous, and the ſee of a biſhop: here is alſo held the parliament of the whole country, an intendancy, a country court, a foreſt court, and a conſulate. It contains many well-built houſes; but the ſtreets are narrow, dark, and dirty. Beſides the cathedral, it has eight pariſh-churches, and ſeventeen convents; the Jeſuits had here a fine college, and the ſtates of the province have erected in this city a noble ſtatue of Lewis XV. The biſhop, who is ſuffragan to the archbiſhop of Tours, has a dioceſe conſiſting of two hundred and thirty-ſix pariſhes, with an income of fourteen thouſand livres, out of which he pays a thouſand florins to the court of Rome.

The biſhopric of Nantes, or Nantz, includes the earldom of Nantois, which is divided by the Loire into two parts. This country is fruitful in wine, corn, good paſtures, and cattle: it likewiſe yields ſalt and pit-coal, and enjoys a flouriſhing trade.

Nantes, or Nantz, the ancient Condivionum, is in rank the ſecond city in Brittany. It is ſeated on the Loire, in the forty-ſeventh degree twenty minutes north latitude, and in the firſt degree thirty-two minutes weſt longitude, thirty-two miles to the eaſt of the ſea, and is one of the greateſt trading cities in the kingdom, it being pretty large, populous, well ſituated, and containing four ſuburbs. It is ſurrounded with ramparts and very deep ditches. Among its other fortifications is an old caſtle, flanked with large round towers towards the city, and with ſome half-moons towards the ſuburbs of St. Clement. This was formerly the ſeat of the dukes of Brittany, to whoſe eldeſt ſon it gave the title of count. It is the ſee of a biſhop, who is ſuffragan to the archbiſhop of Tours, and by virtue of his dignity is a counſellor in the parliament of Rennes. Here is alſo a chamber of accounts, a board of finances, a mint-office, a country court, an admiralty, and a foreſt court. The dioceſe of the biſhop conſiſts of two hundred and twelve pariſhes, beſides chapels of eaſe, and he enjoys a revenue of thirty thouſand livres, out of which he pays two thouſand florins to the court of Rome. The cathedral dedicated to St. Peter is a large antique ſtructure, adorned with high towers. In it are the tombs of ſeveral dukes of Brittany: here is alſo a collegiate church of the Virgin Mary, with eleven pariſh-churches, fourteen convents, a college, an univerſity founded about the year 1460, and two hoſpitals. The town-houſe is built in the modern taſte.

Near the city of Nantz is a famous hermitage, in which the hermits have hewn a handſome chapel out of the rock with their own hands, with cells for their lodging, and other conveniences, to which they have with great labour added a pretty garden; from this retreat they have a fine proſpect of the city, the Loire, and the adjacent country.

The trade of this city to the French colonies in America, and alſo to Spain and Portugal, is conſiderable, without mentioning other European ſhipping which frequent its port; though ſhips of burthen can come no farther up the Loire than to Paimboeuf, a market-town, where the cargoes are put into ſmaller veſſels, and carried up to Nantes. An excellent ſort of brandy, commonly diſtinguiſhed by the name of this city, is exported from thence into foreign countries. One of the ſuburbs called the Foſſe lies near the harbour, and is inhabited by rich merchants. Here is a large quay, along which ſtand very fine houſes, and ſpacious ware-houſes.

In this city is a very particular kind of ſociety, which has been eſtabliſhed above a hundred years between the merchants of Nantes and thoſe of Bilboa in Spain. This ſociety is called the Contractation, and has in each of theſe cities a reciprocal tribunal in the manner of a conſular juriſdiction: ſo that a merchant of Nantes, who happens to be at Bilboa, has a right to ſit and vote in that tribunal; and the merchants of Bilboa have the ſame privilege when they are at Nantes. It is on account of this ſociety that Spaniſh wool pays only a ſmall duty at Nantes; and that, in return, the linens of Brittany are upon the ſame footing at Bilboa. Theſe two cities had even formerly ſhips in common, which traded for the profit of the partnerſhip. They have eſtabliſhed at Nantes a manufacture of cottons, which ſucceeds as well as that which has been long ſince ſet up at Rouen, and

may in time even exceed it, ſince cotton and indigo are much cheaper here than in the latter city.

Here Henry IV. ſurnamed the Great, by the famous edict in 1598, commonly known by the edict of Nantz, granted the Huguenots, or reformed of France, the public exerciſe of their religion throughout the whole kingdom; and though it had been regiſtered in the parliament of Paris, and alſo confirmed and ſworn to by his ſucceſſors Lewis XIII. and XIV. the latter moſt perfidiouſly revoked it in 1685, cruelly perſecuting his Proteſtant ſubjects, and driving them out of the kingdom. But, notwithſtanding this cruel and impolitic ſtep, there are ſtill many Proteſtants, as hath been already ſaid, though they keep themſelves as much concealed as poſſible.

St. Malo, or St. Malo's, in Latin Maclovium, and Maclopolis, is a ſmall but populous city, ſeated on a little rocky iſland, formerly called St. Aaron in the Engliſh Channel, in forty-eight degrees thirty minutes north latitude, and in the ſecond degree fifteen minutes weſt longitude; but is joined to the continent by a long mole, not above thirty fathoms broad, at the head of which is a ſtrong caſtle flanked with large towers. The harbour is ſpacious, and one of the beſt on the coaſt, but of difficult entrance, it being ſurrounded with ſeveral rocks, and at tide of ebb left almoſt dry, ſo that it will not admit large veſſels, though it is very eaſy to build or refit ſuch ſhips as can enter it. On the neighbouring rocks are ten different forts, and the town is ſurrounded with walls, deep ditches, and always guarded by a ſufficient garriſon. As ſoon as the gates are ſhut, they let looſe upon the ramparts twelve or thirteen very fierce bulldogs, which would infallibly tear in pieces any perſon that ventured to come near them, whence it is commonly ſaid that St. Malo is guarded by dogs, though theſe are only deſigned to prevent the garriſon from being ſurprized. This city is alſo ſecured towards the ſea by a ſhoal of ſand that encompaſſes it, and, beſides the rocks, by ſmall iſlands; ſo that the harbour is eſteemed one of the keys of France.

This city is very conſiderable, not only for its ſtrength, but alſo for its trade. The inhabitants, who are ſea-faring people, are famous for their ſkill in maritime affairs, on which account a great number of privateers are fitted out from hence in time of war, which very much diſturb the trade of the Channel, and accordingly made many Engliſh captures during the reign of king William, which brought a bombardment upon the town, though it received but little damage.

But in 1758 a ſelect body of above twenty thouſand Britiſh troops under the command of the late duke of Marlborough, and a powerful ſquadron under commodore Howe, having landed at Cancalle bay between the ſixth and ſeventh of June, they burnt all the ſhips in the harbour to the number of a hundred, great and ſmall; after which, finding the town impracticable, they re-embarked, and arrived ſoon after at Spithead, with little or no loſs.

This city is the ſee of a biſhop ſuffragan to the archbiſhop of Tours; his dioceſe conſiſts of a hundred and ſixty pariſhes; he is lord of the city, and his income amounts to thirty-five thouſand livres per annum, out of which he pays a thouſand florins to the court of Rome. The cathedral of St. Vincent is one of the moſt ancient in all France; here are alſo ſeveral fine monaſteries, and other conſiderable public buildings.

Breſt, in Latin Breſcia, a famous ſea-port in the biſhopric of St. Pol de Leon, ſituated on the north ſide of a large and commodious harbour, which opens to the ocean in the moſt weſtern part of the continent of France, about fifty miles to the north-weſt of Belleiſle, in the forty-eighth degree twenty-five minutes north latitude, and in the fourth degree thirty minutes weſt longitude. It is a ſmall fortified city; the ſtreets are narrow, and it is defended by a ſtrong caſtle which ſtands on a rock, very ſteep towards the ſea; and likewiſe by a tower oppoſite to the caſtle, which guards the entrance into the port on that ſide. 'Tis encompaſſed on the land-ſide with a broad ditch, and ſome other works. It has a ſpacious fine road and harbour, the latter being ſurrounded with very good quays, upon which are built ware-houſes filled with naval-ſtores of all kinds. The harbour lies between the city and the ſuburb of Recouvrance, which is half as big as the city. The road is extremely ſpacious, and might contain five hundred men of war; but the entrance to it on account of its narrowneſs is exceeding difficult, and particularly from the blind rocks which lie under water at high tide. This port is the moſt ſecure retreat for the French ſhips of war, and is the beſt poſſeſſed by this nation on this ſide the Mediterranean; whence this city is one of the grand magazines of the admiralty of France, the other being at Toulon, in the Mediterranean; and therefore in this harbour the greateſt number of the French navy are fitted out. It is ſaid that naval-ſtores and neceſſary proviſions for ſeventy ſail of men of war are conſtantly laid up at Breſt, and ſhips of eighty or ninety guns are built here, which renders the place rich and populous. Here is always a ſtrong garriſon in the caſtle, commanded by ſtaff-officers. Lewis XIV. cauſed an arſenal to be built here, and erected an academy for the marine. There is here a court of admiralty and bailiwic, with only two pariſh-churches, and a convent. The Jeſuits, before their being expelled from France, had alſo a ſeminary here.

In the year 1694 the Engliſh made an attempt upon Breſt, but the deſign perſpired; ſo that the avenues being defended by a numerous train of artillery, and an army ſuperior to that of the invaders, general Talmaſh, who commanded the Engliſh, was mortally wounded in making the deſcent, and the forces were obliged to retire with loſs.

Belleiſle is an iſland about ſix leagues from the coaſt of Brittany, in the forty-fifth degree twenty minutes north latitude, and in the third degree five minutes weſt longitude. The ancients called it Coloneſus, or the Beautiful Iſland, which is the ſignification of its preſent name. It is about ſix leagues long, two broad, and confers the title of marquis. It is ſurrounded on all ſides with rocks, and has only three landing-places, Palais, Sauzon, and Goulſard; every one of which labours under ſome capital defect, either in being expoſed, ſhallow, or dangerous at the entrance. It contains only one little city, called Palais, three country towns, a hundred and three villages, and about five thouſand inhabitants. Palais, the capital, takes its name from a caſtle in its neighbourhood belonging to the duke of Belleiſle, afterwards converted into a citadel. This fortification is ſtrong and regular; it fronts the ſea, and is compoſed principally of horn-works, and provided with two dry ditches, the one next the counterſcarp, and the other ſo contrived as to ſecure the interior fortifications. The citadel is divided from the largeſt part of the town by an inlet of the ſea, over which is a bridge of communication.

In the year 1759 admiral Hawke, with a ſquadron of Engliſh ſhips, off the ſouth coaſt of this iſland, burnt, ſunk, and deſtroyed moſt of the French fleet from Breſt under Conflans, who was himſelf either mortally wounded, or loſt in making his eſcape in his boat to ſhore. Two of the enemy's ſhips ſunk to the bottom with all the men, and the ſhattered remains of his fleet, to the number of ſeven ſail, ran up for ſhelter, after throwing their guns over-board into the river Villaine, in Brittany, and there continued diſabled on account of the ſhallowneſs of the water. The Engliſh indeed loſt two of their men of war by too eager a purſuit of the enemy; but though they run aground, all the crew were ſaved, and their loſs was otherwiſe inconſiderable.

In April 1761, this iſland was attacked by an Engliſh fleet under the command of commodore Keppel, and the land forces under general Hodgſon. The Engliſh fleet after landing their troops and their cannon, which was accompliſhed with the greateſt difficulty, by dragging them up the rocks, laid ſiege to the city; and the garriſon, commanded by the chevalier de St. Croix, a brave and experienced officer, threatened a long and obſtinate defence. The enemy made ſome ſallies, which only animated the Engliſh troops by the difficulties with which they had to contend; but at length, a furious attack being made upon the enemy's lines which covered the town, they were carried with no great loſs; this was principally owing to the uncommon intrepidity of a body of new-raiſed marines. No action of greater ſpirit

and gallantry had been performed during the whole war. However, the garriſon held out till the ſeventh of June, when they capitulated, and marched out with the honours of war. This iſland was kept by the Engliſh till the late peace, when it was reſtored to France.

SECT. XXXII.

Of the Government of Normandy; its Situation, Extent, Produce, and Rivers. A conciſe Hiſtory of the Country, and of the principal Towns, as Caudebec, Dieppe, Rouen, Bayeux, Cherburg, and Havre de Grace.

NOrmandy, which derives its name from the ancient Normans, is bounded on the eaſt by Picardy and the iſle of France; on the ſouth by Beauſſe, Perche, and Maine; on the weſt by Brittany; and on the north by the Britiſh Channel; extending from eaſt to weſt upwards of ſixty leagues, and from north to ſouth thirty.

This is one of the moſt fruitful provinces in the whole kingdom, and one of the moſt profitable to the king. It abounds in corn, flax, hemp, and vegetables for dyeing, but the little wine it produces is very indifferent; it however yields great quantities of apples and pears, of which the natives make cyder and perry for their uſual drink. It is alſo a fine country for cattle, it being full of excellent paſtures. The ſea ſupplies it with plenty of fiſh, and from its water are extracted great quantities of ſalt. The many iron works here are of no ſmall advantage to the country; it has likewiſe ſome mines of copper, and is not without mineral waters.

The principal rivers in this province are the Eure, the Andelle, which riſes in this province, and falling into the Seine, is of great advantage in conveying to Paris wood for firing; the Rille or Riſle, which riſes here, and alſo falls into the Seine; the Dive, which riſes here, and after receiving the Vie, becomes navigable, and diſcharges itſelf into the Britiſh Channel; the Lezon which riſes here, and being joined by the Orbiquet is afterwards called the Tonques, and becoming navigable, loſes itſelf in the Channel; the Carentone, which has alſo its ſource in this province, falls into the Rille; and the Orne, which riſes here, and after receiving ſeveral ſmaller rivers, falls into the Britiſh Channel.

The ancient dukes of this province roſe to great power, both here and in foreign countries, and William, in the year 1066, became king of England. In 1135 the male line of this king became extinct in the perſon of Henry I. and his daughter Matilda marrying Godfrey, count of Anjou, the fruit of this marriage was Henry II. king of England, duke of Normandy, lord of Guienne, Poitou, and Saintonge. He leaving three ſons, Richard, Godfrey, and John; the laſt of them ſeized on the dominions of both his brothers, and even cauſed Arthur, the ſon of Godfrey, to be taken off; for which he was deprived of moſt of his territories in France, and in 1203 Normandy was annexed to that crown. Henry III. of England ceded to Lewis the Pious and his ſucceſſors all his claim to this province; which afterwards, to the end of the fourteenth century, ſome kings beſtowed on their eldeſt ſons, with the title of duke of Normandy, till that of Dauphiné was inſtituted. At length the animoſities between the houſes of Orleans and Burgundy afforded the Engliſh an opportunity of conquering not only Normandy, but a great part of France. This province was ſubject to England about thirty years, till at laſt the Engliſh were driven out by Charles VII. during the minority of that unhappy prince Henry VI.

This country is governed by its own law, which is called the Wiſe, and on this account Normandy is ſtyled *La Païs de la Sapience*, that is, The Land of Wiſdom. Rouen has a parliament, on which all the other courts of the province are dependent. With reſpect to its finances, it has three generalities, namely, at Rouen, Caen, and Alençon, from which the king is ſaid to have drawn twenty millions of livres a year. Hence the government of Normandy is one of the moſt conſiderable in the whole kingdom. Under the governor are two lieutenant-generals, one for Upper and the other for Lower Normandy; and each of the ſeven great diſtricts into which the country is divided has a deputy-governor of its own. Under the archbiſhop of Rouen are the ſix biſhoprics of Normandy, and theſe ſeven dioceſes contain eighty abbies and four thouſand two hundred and ninety-nine pariſhes. The principal places in this province are the following, beginning with Upper Normandy.

Caudebec, in Latin Calidum Beccum, that is, the Hot Bee, is a ſmall but populous town, ſeated on the river Seine, into which, near this place, falls a rivulet which runs through the town, and gives name to it. It is cloſely built, and has walls flanked with towers, and ſurrounded with deep ditches. It has three ſuburbs, and the ſmall river Caudebec being divided into ſeveral canals in the town, turns a conſiderable number of mills, that are very ſerviceable to the tanners and leather-dreſſers ſettled here. In this town is a ſalt and treaſurer's office, with a provincial, an admiralty, and a foreſt court. It contains two convents, one pariſh-church, and an hoſpital. Among other manufactures, the inhabitants make hats, which were formerly in great repute, on account of their not letting in the rain; but this branch of trade has greatly declined. This place is a conſiderable thorough-fare for ſuch as go from Rouen to Havre de Grace, and other parts of the country of Caux, of which it is the capital.

Dieppe, a ſea-port town on the ſhore of the Britiſh Channel, oppoſite to Rye, in England, and much reſorted to, particularly with veſſels from Scotland. It ſtands thirty miles to the north of Rouen, on a level ſpot, between two rocks, or mountains, and the mouth of the river Betune, called at this town the river of Arques, which falling into the ſea forms the harbour. It is fortified with bulwarks next the ſea, with a fortreſs at the ſuburb called Pollet, and a caſtle, which, together with the craggy rocks that lie on the ſouth, render it a place of conſiderable ſtrength, though its fortifications are very irregular. Its natural ſtrength induced Henry the Great to chooſe it for his head-quarters, when oppoſed by the League at his acceſſion to the throne. It has a good harbour, which is long, but narrow, and on this account of difficult acceſs. In time of war it is generally a ſtation for privateers; but has not a ſufficient quantity of water for large ſhips. The town is pretty large and well built; and the pariſh-church of St. James is a very fine ſtructure, and has a tower from which, in fine weather, the coaſt of England may be ſeen. It contains two ſuburbs, and has both a ſalt office and a court of admiralty. It is chiefly inhabited by ſea-faring men, who are eſteemed very expert in maritime affairs, as alſo by mechanics who make curious works in ivory, and by merchants who carry on a conſiderable trade to foreign parts. The inhabitants were moſtly Proteſtants till the perſecution which enſued upon the revocation of the edict of Nantes.

This town has been frequently taken and retaken in the wars betweeen England and France. In 1694 it was almoſt totally deſtroyed by bombs fired into it from the Engliſh fleet commanded by lord Berkeley; and in the wars of queen Anne it was alſo roughly treated, after which the court ſent thither an architect and engineer who rebuilt it in a regular manner: this indeed gives the town an external air of beauty, but is attended with very great inconvenience to the inhabitants.

The chief trade of Dieppe conſiſts in herrings, with which they furniſh Paris and the province of Normandy; they alſo fiſh for whitings, mackerel, and oyſters, which they ſell in the neighbouring provinces; together with their ivory works and laces made here. The ſea-compaſſes made in this town were formerly much eſteemed: but its trade is not ſo conſiderable as it was formerly.

Rouen, the Rothomagus of the antients, afterwards called Rothomum, the capital of Normandy, is ſeated in a diſtrict called Le Vexin Normand, and is environed on three ſides by high hills covered with trees, and on the fourth is ſeated on the north bank of the Seine, in the forty-ninth degree thirty-ſix minutes north latitude, and in the firſt degree ten minutes eaſt longitude. It is alſo watered by two little rivers called Aubette and Robec. The tide flows ſo high up the Seine, that veſſels of above

two hundred tons burthen can come up hither, and load and unload at a large quay, which is built along the city. Its ſituation is ſo very commodious for trade, that Rouen is conſidered as the center of it in the north of France. It had formerly a ſtately ſtone bridge over the Seine, of thirteen arches, but it is now ruined; and there is another of boats of a very artificial ſtructure built near it, and extending two hundred and ſeventy paces in length; it riſes and falls with the tide, and is paved like the ſtreets. This bridge, however, coſts a great deal of money to keep it in repair; and they are obliged in winter to take it in pieces, leſt the ice ſhould damage or carry ſome part of it away. The city has no other fortifications but a wall, with round towers in the antique taſte, and irregular baſtions to defend the gates on the land-ſide, except an old caſtle which was begun in the year 1419, as ſoon as king Henry V. of England had made himſelf maſter of Rouen, and finiſhed in the reign of Henry VI. in 1443. It is an antique building of little ſtrength, flanked with five large round towers, and having a draw-bridge, the whole being encompaſſed with a wet ditch. In this city there is, however, no garriſon, though it has a particular governor.

Rouen is very populous, for it contains ſeven thouſand two hundred houſes, in which are ſixty thouſand perſons; but is not very ſpacious. The ſtreets in general are very cloſe and narrow, and the houſes moſtly of wood and plaſter; it has, however, ſix large ſuburbs, in which are five pariſhes, and thirty in the city: it has alſo fifty convents, and four abbies; the Jeſuits had alſo a college here. Its archbiſhop has ſix ſuffragans, and a province of thirteen hundred and eighty-eight pariſh churches, beſides chapels, and his annual revenue amounts to eighty thouſand livres, out of which he pays twelve thouſand florins to the court of Rome. He ſtyles himſelf primate of Normandy, though he has no archbiſhop in his province ſuffragan to him; but from this title he has no ſuperior in France, and he depends immediately on the holy ſee. The city is adorned with many ſtately piles of building, among which is the cathedral dedicated to the Virgin Mary, the choir of which is lined round with copper. It has three very lofty towers, particularly that of the pyramid, the ſpire of which is only made of wood and covered with lead gilt. It has two hundred ſteps, and the whole edifice upwards of ſix hundred to the top. In this cathedral are to be ſeen the monuments of ſeveral kings, lords, and prelates; and likewiſe the monument of John duke of Bedford, who was regent of France under our Henry VI. In the butter tower, as it is called, which is that juſt mentioned, is a great bell ten feet in height, the ſame in diameter, and weighs thirty-ſix thouſand pounds. On the great gate is a triumphal arch in honour of king Henry the Great, with emblems of his conqueſt over the holy league. The body of the church is ſupported by twenty pillars, and, upon the whole, this church exceeds in beauty and regularity that of Notre Dame at Paris. The other remarkable ſtructures are the church of St. Toin, a very loſty building, chiefly famous for its great bell; the convent of the Cordeliers; the church which lately belonged to the Jeſuits; the church and abbey of St. Owen; and the parliament-houſe; which are all beautiful ſtructures. The archbiſhop's palace is alſo a fine building, adorned with elegant paintings and pleaſant gardens. In the veal market ſtands the image of the celebrated maid of Orleans, whom the Engliſh had the cruelty to burn as a witch, and is repreſented kneeling before Charles VII. And in the New-market is the ſtatue of Lewis XV. erected in 1721; but this is a very ordinary piece of workmanſhip.

The trade carried on in the city and diſtrict of Rouen is very extenſive, conſiſting of woollen and linen cloths, leather, hats, paper, and many other merchandizes. The woollen manufactures, which employ ſeveral thouſand workmen, are particularly advantageous to the whole province; but they are only ſo far profitable to the nation in general, as they prevent the money from being ſent abroad; but the linen manufactures of various ſorts exported to Spain are highly beneficial, and the returns generally made in caſh.

Rouen has undergone various calamities and viciſſitudes of fortune: it has been almoſt entirely burnt thirteen or fourteen different times. In 841 it was taken by the Normans; the Engliſh made themſelves maſters of it in 1418, and in 1449 it was ſurrendered to Charles VII. the French king. It was afterwards ſtormed and taken by the French Proteſtants, and re-taken and plundered in 1562 under Charles IX. Anthony of Bourbon, king of Navarre, received a mortal wound before it; but his ſon Henry IV. took it in 1592. In this city died William I. king of England, commonly ſurnamed the Conqueror.

Caen, in Latin Cadomus, is ſituated in a diſtrict of the ſame name, thirty miles to the ſouth of Havre de Grace, ſixty-five to the weſt-by-ſouth of Rouen, and a hundred and twenty-five to the weſt of Paris. It ſtands in a valley between two large meadows, at the confluence of the rivers Orne and Odon, by the united ſtream of which it is divided into the Upper and Lower Towns, that have a communication by means of the bridges of St. James and St. Peter, on the latter of which is erected a ſtately town-houſe, adorned with four large towers. The Upper Town is defended by a caſtle built upon a rock and very well fortified, and the Lower is entirely ſurrounded with water. It is a place of good trade, veſſels of ſome burthen being able to come up from the ſea to St. James's bridge, and its inhabitants are ſuppoſed to amount to forty thouſand ſouls. It is the ſecond town in Normandy, and contains an intendancy, an admiralty, a provincial and foreſt court, with a ſalt-office. It has twelve pariſh-churches, one collegiate church, two abbies, fourteen convents, with a houſe which till lately belonged to the Jeſuits, and two hoſpitals. King Charles VII. founded an univerſity here about the year 1430, and likewiſe a mint. An academy of ſciences and belles lettres was alſo eſtabliſhed in this city by Lewis XIV. and in the Royal ſquare, which is both ſpacious and regular, with fine houſes on three ſides of it, ſtands a marble equeſtrian ſtatue of that prince, ſurrounded with an iron baluſtrade. The principal trade of this town and its diſtrict conſiſts in cloth and fine linen.

Bayeux, the capital of the country of Beſſin, is ſeated on the river Aure, fifteen miles to the north-weſt of Caen, and contains an admiralty, a ſalt-office, a foreſt and diſtrict court, &c. It has ſeventeen pariſh-churches, nine convents, two hoſpitals, and a college and ſeminary, which lately belonged to the Jeſuits. The biſhop, who is ſuffragan to the archbiſhop of Rouen, has a dioceſe of ſix hundred and fifteen pariſhes, with a revenue of ſixty thouſand livres, out of which he pays four thouſand four hundred and thirty-three florins to the court of Rome. The cathedral, dedicated to the Virgin Mary, is a very ſtately ſtructure, beautified with a tower and two loſty ſpires. The city is divided into Upper and Lower, and manufactures of cloths, ſerges, and ſtockings, were ſet up here, which ſucceeded very well; but the nigh taxes impoſed on them, which the merchants were forced to pay, obliged them not only to abandon thoſe manufactures, but likewiſe to quit the city.

Cherburg, in Latin Cæſaris Burgus, a ſea-port town in the Engliſh Channel oppoſite to Hampſhire, is ſituated fifty miles to the north-weſt of Caen, in a diſtrict called the Coutantin, and lies between Cape La Hogue and Barfleur. It contains an admiralty, a bailiwic, and a viſcounty court: it has alſo one abbey, and a general hoſpital. Here they formerly made very fine glaſs, which, for clearneſs and beauty, even excelled that of Venice; but, for certain political reaſons, the work has been removed to Auxerre, in Burgundy. It was a very ſtrong place, from the fortifications that have been lately erected there, before they were deſtroyed, together with the famous baſon, by the Engliſh in the year 1758. The port is ſmall but pretty good, for veſſels of three hundred tons can come into it, and ſome merchant ſhips are built here.

Off this place the confederate fleet, under admiral Ruſſel, obtained a ſignal victory over that of the French, commanded by M. de Tourville, in 1692, and afterwards burnt, took, or ſunk about twenty of their ſhips of war, near Cape La Hogue; among which was le Soleil Royal, or the Royal Sun, the French admiral's ſhip.

In the laſt war the Britiſh forces, under the command of the late duke of Marlborough and lord George Sackville,

landed

A New MAP of
ENGLAND and WALES
Diuided into
COUNTIES
Drawn from the best
Authorities.

ENGLISH CHANNEL

ST GEORGE'S CHANNEL

IRISH SEA

GERMAN OCEAN

IRELAND

PART OF SCOTLAND

PROVINCES UNITED

FLANDERS

Zuyder Zee

Dover

Calais

London

Dublin

Bristol

Exeter

Plymouth

Portsmouth

Norwich

Yarmouth

Hull

York

Lincoln

Chester

Liverpool

Manchester

Leeds

Sheffield

Nottingham

Derby

Coventry

Birmingham

Oxford

Cambridge

Ipswich

Canterbury

Salisbury

Gloucester

Worcester

Shrewsbury

Lancaster

Carlisle

Durham

Newcastle

Berwick

Edinburgh

Glasgow

Aberdeen

Inverness

Stirling

Perth

Dundee

Cork

Limerick

Galway

Waterford

Kilkenny

Wexford

Belfast

Londonderry

Armagh

Tuam

Sligo

Donegal

Enniskillen

Athlone

Drogheda

Kildare

Tralee

Kinsale

Bantry

Isle of Wight

Scilly Islands

Lundy I.

Anglesey

Man

Orkney Islands

Shetland Islands

Farn Islands

Holy I.

Coquet I.

Cape Clear

Tuskar Rock

Smalls

Land's End

Lizard Point

Start Point

Beachy Head

North Foreland

Dungeness

Orford Ness

Flamborough Head

Spurn Head

Scarborough

Whitby

Tynemouth

Berwick

Holyhead

Bardsey I.

Aberystwith

Cardigan

Milford

Pembroke

Swansea

Cardiff

Bristol Channel

Severn R.

Thames R.

Humber R.

Mersey R.

Trent R.

Ouse R.

Tweed R.

Forth R.

Clyde R.

Shannon R.

Liffey R.

Boyne R.

Lough Neagh

Lough Erne

Lough Ree

Lough Derg

Lough Corrib

Lough Foyle

Carlingford Lough

Strangford Lough

Dublin Bay

Galway Bay

Bantry Bay

Cork Harbour

Waterford Harbour

Milford Haven

Plymouth Sound

Portland Bill

Spithead

Torbay

Falmouth

Penzance

Mount's Bay

Scilly Islands

Isle of Wight

Isle of Man

Anglesey

landed here and took the town, which they entered without the leaſt oppoſition in Auguſt, 1758, together with the ſhips in the baſon; demoliſhed the fortifications, and ruined the other works, particularly the baſon and harbour, with the ſluice, and all the forts, carring away twenty-one fine pieces of braſs cannon and two mortars, which were brought to England.

The diſtrict of Havre de Grace conſtitutes the weſtern part of the country of the Caux, in Upper Normandy, and, though a particular military government, is ſubject to the civil and eccleſiaſtical government of this province. The principal places it contains are the following:

Havre de Grace, a ſtrong ſea-port at the mouth of the river Seine, forty-five miles to the weſt of Rouen, was built by Francis I. who alſo called it, after his own name, Ville François, whence it has been alſo called Franciſcopolis; but this name is now ſuperſeded by the other. This is the capital and ſeat of its little government, and contains a naval intendant, a viſcounty, an admiralty, a royal court of juſtice, and a ſalt-office; with one pariſh-church, one ſeminary, and two convents. It has a good harbour between the town and citadel, which is ſmall but regularly fortified, and an arſenal. It is a pleaſant well built town, and a place of good trade, ſeveral merchants reſiding here. In the reign of Charles IX. it was ſeized by the Proteſtants, who in 1562 delivered it to queen Elizabeth, in conſideration of the aſſiſtance that princeſs had given them; but the following year it was vigorouſly beſieged by the French, and with equal courage defended by the Engliſh, under the earl of Warwick; but a peſtilence, which raged in the town, forced them to ſurrender in July, 1563. Afterwards, in 1694, this city was almoſt entirely deſtroyed by a bombardment from an Engliſh fleet.

Harfleur, a ſea-port town, forty miles to the north-weſt of Rouen, and about five to the weſt of Havre de Grace, between two hills, the one on the eaſt, and the other on the weſt. It contains an admiralty court, and a ſalt-office: it is alſo the ſeat of a royal juſtice, and has a ſmall magazine; but has only one pariſh-church, and one convent. It was formerly a conſiderable port; but that of Havre being found more convenient, it has been neglected, and is now only capable of receiving ſmall veſſels. It was twice taken by the Engliſh, namely, in the years 1415 and 1440.

We ſhall treat of the iſlands on the coaſt of Normandy, as Alderney, Guernſey, and Jerſey, in deſcribing the oppoſite coaſt of England.

CHAP. XXIX.

Of GREAT BRITAIN.

SECT. I.

Of GREAT BRITAIN *in general.*

Its Situation, Extent, Climate, and Face of the Country; the Plants, Fruits, Beaſts, Birds, and Minerals.

GREAT Britain is the largeſt iſland in Europe, and one of the moſt populous, rich, and fruitful. It includes England and Scotland, which were united in 1707; only the latter reſerved their peculiar laws. The whole iſland is of a triangular form, the Lands-end, the Dover-head, and Caithneſs ſhooting out into ſo many promontories, and forming the three corners. The ſea its boundary has ſeveral names adapted to the ſeveral coaſts; on the north it is called the Northern ſea; on the eaſt the German ocean; on the ſouth the Britiſh Channel; and on the weſt the Iriſh ſea, or St. George's Channel. Its latitude at the Lizard-point, in Cornwall, is, according to Moll, in the fiftieth degree north, and at the Headland at Caithneſs, or Dungſbyhead, in Scotland, in the fifty-eighth degree thirty minutes; ſo that, according to the geometrical meaſure of Engliſh ſtatute miles, which is ſixty-nine miles and eight hundred and ſixty-four feet to a degree, the true length of the iſland, meaſured in a ſtraight line, without attending to the hills and winding of the roads, is five hundred and eighty-ſeven miles; and the longitude, placing the firſt meridian at Teneriffe, is nine degrees forty-five minutes, at the Land's-end, in Cornwall, and at the South Foreland, in Kent, ſeventeen degrees fifteen minutes, in all ſeven degrees thirty minutes: the parallel there giving thirty-eight miles to a degree of longitude, the true diſtance from eaſt to weſt in a ſtraight line is two hundred and eighty-five miles.

The ſea, which ſurrounds it, is not only a ſecurity againſt an enemy, but againſt the violent cold to which the climate would otherwiſe be expoſed; for the tides and conſtant motion of the ſea ſend us a kindly vapour, which qualifies the natural ſharpneſs of the air, even to ſuch a degree, that in ſome parts of France and Italy more ſevere weather is felt in winter than in England. The climate is indeed infinitely preferable to that of any part of the continent in the ſame latitude, the ſummers being neither ſo hot, nor the winters ſo cold. The harbours in Holland, Germany, and Denmark, are blocked up with ice, while ours which lie in the ſame latitude are open. If we purſue this obſervation ſtill farther, and conſider the ſame latitudes in America, we ſhall find there that in winter the very ſeas are conſtantly frozen, and that even brandy itſelf will freeze.

The air is generally very good and wholeſome, except in the hundreds of Eſſex and Kent, the fens in Lincolnſhire and Cambridgeſhire, and ſome other low marſhes near the ſea. Though the winters are rainy and ſubject to thick fogs, and the weather to great variations, theſe do not impair the health of the inhabitants, who are accuſtomed to them; for they generally live as long as thoſe of any other countries, and ſome die every year at above a hundred years of age. We have inſtances of ſome living even to a much longer period; thus Thomas Parr, of Shropſhire, was a hundred and fifty-two years of age when he died, and Henry Jenkins, a Yorkſhireman, a hundred and ſixty eight. Though the frequent rains ſometimes damage the hay and corn, yet even theſe have their advantages, as they generally occaſion our having good paſtures throughout the year.

The ſoil, indeed, in a great meaſure owes its fertility to the mild vapours juſt mentioned, which, by mollifying the air, nouriſh the vegetable world, and furniſh us with gentle ſhowers in their proper ſeaſon. We have, indeed, as well as other countries, ſtorms of thunder, lightning, and tempeſts; but they are leſs frequent and much leſs violent than in hotter climates.

That part of Great Britain which lies towards the Weſtern ocean is mountainous, as Cornwall, Wales, and many large tracts of Scotland; but the inner parts are generally a plain champaign country, intermixed with hills of eaſy aſcent and gentle acclivities. The moſt remarkable mountain, or rather chain of mountains, as it may be termed, is a continued ridge which extends from north to ſouth, dividing as it were the whole iſland into the eaſt and weſt parts, and is by writers called the Engliſh Appennines. The ſouthern and eaſtern parts of the country chiefly conſiſt of little fruitful hills and vallies, champaign fields, incloſed grounds of arable, paſture, and meadow lands, agreeably intermixed with woods, foreſts, parks, and chaces. The higheſt mountains in England are the Wrekin in Shropſhire, the Plinlimmon

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and Snowden in Wales, the Cheviot hills on the borders of Scotland, thoſe of the Peak in Derbyſhire, the Pendle, &c. in Lancaſhire, the Wolds in Yorkſhire, Cotſwold in Glouceſterſhire, the Chiltern in Bucks, and Malvern in Worceſterſhire.

This great iſland is ſurrounded by many ſmaller ones, as the Iſle of Wight, the Iſle of Man, the cluſter of iſlands called the Caſſiterides, or Scilly iſlands of Cornwall, the Orcades, the Shetland iſlands, and Æbrides iſlands in Scotland.

Great Britain has on all ſides very convenient harbours, and abundance of navigable rivers that convey the riches of all the nations in the known world into the very heart of the kingdom: the moſt conſiderable of theſe are the Thames, the Severn, and the Trent, in England; the Clyde, the Forth, the Tay, &c. in Scotland.

The country is for the moſt part level, and uncommonly fertile. One favourable year for corn is ſufficient to ſupply three years of plenty to the inhabitants; and even at ſuch times when the ſeaſons prove unfavourable, there is generally a ſufficiency, for after immoderate rains the corn ſown on the hills produce great abundance, and in a time of the greateſt drought the low and fenny parts produce moſt plentiful crops. Hence nothing can prevent that plenty which Providence has been graciouſly diſpoſed to pour out on this happy country, but that immoderate thirſt of gain which excites the avaricious to export ſo great a quantity of corn as to diſtreſs the inhabitants.

This country likewiſe abounds in eſculent vegetables and fruits, both of which are excellent. Our kitchen gardens abound with colly-flowers, artichokes, aſparagus, lettuces of various ſorts, cabbages, peas and beans of different kinds, broccoli, kidney-beans, cucumbers, ſpinage, and pot-herbs of all ſorts; muſhrooms, carrots, potatoes, turnips, onions, beets, &c.

Kent is famous for its orchards of cherries and apples; but none of the countries afford ſuch plenty of apples for cyder as Herefordſhire and Devonſhire. Beſides apples, pears, and cherries, we have a great variety of excellent fruit, as quinces, peaches, apricots, nectarines, plums, grapes, ſtrawberries, raſberries, currants, gooſeberries, barberries, cranberries, bilberries, walnuts, hazle-nuts, &c. but it muſt be acknowledged, that ſome of our fruits have not that delicious flavour which is only to be found in warmer climates. Great quantities of cyder and perry are made from the apples and pears of England. Among its products are excellent ſaffron, ſaid to be ſuperior to any in the world, liquorice, woad, and great plantations of hops; but it produces little flax and hemp.

This country was formerly plentifully provided with timber, and particularly with large oaks fit for ſhip-building; but timber now has become ſcarce, and for want of planting in time we are obliged to be ſupplied with great quantities from abroad. The timber growing in this iſland, beſides oak, are aſh, elm, and beech; we have alſo poplar, maple, walnut-tree, ſycomores, hornbeam, arbeles, hazle, willow, ſallow, and other ſpecies of wood not diſtinguiſhed with the name of timber, but ornamental and exceeding uſeful.

The paſtures of England are excellent, and conſequently the grazing of this country very conſiderable. Here are bred excellent horned cattle; the oxen are the largeſt and beſt that are any where to be met with, and the ſmaller ſort bred in Wales and the north are good for preſent ſpending. The breeding of ſheep is a very principal article; it is computed that there are no leſs than twelve millions of fleeces ſhorn annually; and that the fine Engliſh wool, next to that of Spain and Portugal, is the beſt in the known world; which, with the working of it, amounts to near one-fifth of the revenues of the whole country. King Edward IV. received a preſent of three thouſand ſheep from the king of Spain, ſome of the breed of which are ſtill in being. Our ſheep are indeed valued both for their fleeces and their fleſh; thoſe of Lincolnſhire are remarkably large; but the fleſh of the ſmall down mutton is no leſs admired.

The horſes for the chace and ſaddle are very beautiful, and generally about fifteen hands high, ſwift, and extremely well proportioned. Thoſe of our cavalry are remarkable for their ſize, ſtrength, and ſpirit; and thoſe for draught, either for coaches or waggons, can ſcarcely be paralleled.

This kingdom alſo produces aſſes, ſome mules, but theſe laſt are greatly inferior to thoſe of Spain and Portugal, goats, red and fallow deer, hares, rabbits, dogs, foxes, ſquirrels, ferrets, otters, badgers, weazels, cats, pole-cats, moles, rats, mice, &c.

Our tame-fowl are ſwans, geeſe, turkies, peacocks, common poultry, ducks, and tame pigeons. The wild are woodcocks, pheaſants, partridges, plover, wigeon, teal, wild-geeſe, wild-ducks, buſtards, ſnipes, wood-pigeons, grouſe, quails, eagles, hawks of various kinds, blackbirds, ſtarlings, thruſhes, nightingales, goldfinches, bullfinches, linnets, larks, &c.

We have a great variety of river-fiſh, as ſalmon, carp, tench, pike, trouts, perch, bream, haddock, dace, eels, roach, barbels, flounders, plaice, ſmelts, gudgeons, &c. The ſeas produce cod, mackarel, herrings, pilchards, lobſters, crabs, oyſters, muſcles, cockles, ſhrimps, prawns, &c.

With reſpect to minerals, the copper-mines in Cumberland and Somerſetſhire, and thoſe of iron in Suſſex and Surry, are of no great importance; but this is made up by the vaſt tin and lead-mines in Cornwall, Derbyſhire, and Wales, &c. whoſe metals are ſo far from being ſurpaſſed, that they have not their equal in any other country. The mountains are found to contain marble, and near Plymouth there is marble that nearly reſembles the Egyptian granite; we have alſo alabaſter, fire-ſtone, cryſtal, allum, and vitriol. Our fullers-earth is of ſingular uſe in the cloathing trade. Among other minerals coals ought not to be omitted, ſince the quantity produced in this iſland is greater than in any other country in Europe, and the coals much better. Great Britain alſo produces very conſiderable quantities of ſalt, both from ſalt-ſprings and ſea-water.

SECT. II.

Of the Manners and Diſpoſitions of the Engliſh. Of the Engliſh Tongue, and the Manner in which it received its various Changes, till it arrived at its preſent Degree of Perfection. Of the Religions of the Inhabitants; with a particular Account of the Church of England; the Convocation and the Eccleſiaſtical Courts.

THE number of inhabitants in Great Britain was a conſiderable time ago computed at nine millions; and if the great increaſe of many of the cities and towns in this kingdom be conſidered, it can ſcarcely be doubted that the number at preſent exceeds ten millions, of which it is ſaid there are near ten thouſand Jews. With reſpect to the character of the Engliſh, they have always been allowed to be brave and naturally jealous of their liberties; they are induſtrious, fitted for labour, lovers of the liberal arts, and capable of carrying them to the greateſt perfection. They are alſo generally humane and friendly; but at the ſame time blunt, artleſs, and not fond of compliment; and particularly averſe to ſervility and cringing. Their generoſity and humanity has been frequently ſhewn even to their enemies, in ſuch a manner as to do honour even to human nature: the greateſt fault obſervable amongſt them is, that the lower ſort of people particularly have too contemptible an idea of foreign nations, and are apt to treat the ſtrangers who viſit this country with rudeneſs. As the Engliſh are a mixture of various nations, there is not here that dull uniformity of character that is to be found in other countries; but, on the contrary, the greateſt diverſity appears in their diſpoſitions and manners, which ſerves to enliven converſation, and to render it more agreeable.

The inhabitants of the ſeveral parts are of a different original. Thoſe of Cornwall and Wales are in general the poſterity of the ancient Britons, who, upon the invaſion of the Picts and Saxons, retired to thoſe mountainous borders in the weſt of England, which they have ever ſince retained. The Scots are not without a mixture of the Picts, particularly in the Lowlands, which they poſſeſſed before the former had totally ſubdued them.

But the Highlands, particularly the weſtern, are ſaid by ſome authors to be peopled from Ireland.

The ancient language of Great Britain is generally allowed to have been the ſame with the Gaulic, the iſland being probably firſt peopled from Gallia, as both Cæſar and Tacitus affirm, and prove by their religion, manners, cuſtoms, and the nearneſs of their ſituation; but we have now very ſmall remains of the ancient Britiſh tongue, except in Wales, Cornwall, the iſlands and highlands of Scotland. Some time before the birth of our Saviour Julius Cæſar made a deſcent upon Britain, though he may be ſaid rather to have diſcovered than conquered it; but about the year of Chriſt 45, in the reign of Claudius, Aulus Plautius was ſent over with ſome Roman forces, by whom Codigunus and the brave Caractacus, two Britiſh kings, being overcome in battle, a Roman colony was planted at Malden, in Eſſex, and the ſouthern parts of the iſland reduced to the form of a Roman province; afterwards the iſland was conquered as far north as the firths of Dumbarton and Edinburgh, by Agricola, in the time of Domitian; upon which a great number of the Britons retiring from the conquered countries to the mountains of Wales, carried their language with them.

Thus the greateſt part of Britain becoming a Roman province, the Roman legions who reſided here for above two hundred years undoubtedly diſſeminated the Latin tongue; and the people being governed by laws written in Latin, muſt neceſſarily introduce a mixture of languages. The Britiſh tongue thus continued mingled only with the provincial Latin, till the Roman legions being called home, the Scots and Picts ſeized that opportunity to attack and harraſs England; upon which king Vortigern, about the year 440, called the Saxons to his aſſiſtance, who coming over, repulſed the Scots and Picts, and were rewarded with the iſle of Thanet, and the whole country of Kent; but growing too powerful, they diſpoſſeſſed the inhabitants of all the country to the ſouth of the Severn, and thus the Britiſh tongue was in a great meaſure deſtroyed, and the Saxon introduced in its ſtead.

In the beginning of the ninth century the Danes invading England, got a footing in the northern and eaſtern parts of the country, their power gradually increaſed, and, in about two hundred years, they became ſole maſters of it. By this means the ancient Britiſh obtained alſo a tincture of the Daniſh language; but their government was of no long continuance; for they being driven out, and the Saxons again poſſeſſing the throne, did not make ſo great an alteration in the Anglo-Saxon as the next revolution, when the whole iſland, in the year 1067, was ſubdued by William the Conqueror, duke of Normandy; for the Normans endeavoured to make their language generally received. Thus was the ancient Britiſh tongue in a manner extirpated by the Romans, Saxons, Danes, and after that blended with the Norman French.

But a change in the language has alſo been effected by two other cauſes: the firſt is that of commerce; for as the inhabitants of Great Britain have long applied themſelves to trade, the names of offices, dignities, wares, and terms of traffic, have been introduced and formed according to the genius of our own tongue. The ſecond is that of learning, from which it has received no ſmall improvement; for as to the Greek and Latin, the learned have, together with the arts and ſciences, introduced almoſt all the terms of art in the mathematics, philoſophy, phyſic, and anatomy; and we have entertained many more from the French, &c. ſo that at this day our language, which about eighteen hundred years ago was the antient Britiſh, is now a mixture of Saxon, Teutonic, Dutch, Daniſh, Norman, and modern French, embelliſhed with the Greek and Latin: yet this is undoubtedly ſo far from being a diſadvantage to the Engliſh tongue, as it is now ſpoke, for all languages have undergone changes, that it has ſo enriched it, that it is now become, perhaps, the moſt copious, ſignificant, fluent, and maſculine language in Europe.

The Reformation in England, begun in the reign of Henry VIII. was greatly promoted under his ſon Edward VI. It was, however, checked by queen Mary, but completed by queen Elizabeth, her ſiſter. This Reformation being conducted by the biſhops, the eſtabliſhed church of England became epiſcopal. Calvin indeed uſed many endeavours to obtain a ſhare in the advancement and direction of this eccleſiaſtical reformation; but being deſirous of depriving the biſhops of their temporal grandeur, of baniſhing all external ornaments and pomp from divine worſhip, and introducing the Geneva conſtitution, the biſhops declined his offers of aſſiſtance. Many, however, approving of Calvin's doctrine, formed an eccleſiaſtical government on his plan. Theſe were afterwards termed Puritans, from their avowed deſire of freeing the church from the impurities ſtill retained in it, and Nonconformiſts, from their not conforming to the rules of the eſtabliſhed church. Many of theſe inſtituted preſbyters without biſhops, from whence they obtained the name of Preſbyterians, inſtituting alſo church laws among themſelves, and being governed by ſynods compoſed of the miniſters of ſeveral different churches. Others maintaining, that every Chriſtian congregation ought to be free, and ſubject neither to biſhops nor ſynods; theſe were termed Independents.

The Epiſcopalians and Preſbyterians are the two principal parties, and differ the leaſt from each other; the firſt form the eſtabliſhed religion of England and Ireland, and the latter of Scotland. The moſt numerous of the other religious ſects are the Baptiſts, who do not believe that infants are the proper ſubjects of baptiſm, and in the baptiſm of adults practiſe immerſion. It is here proper to obſerve, that the Engliſh Preſbyterians differ almoſt as much from the church of Scotland, as from the church of England; ſynods growing gradually out of uſe, each ſeparate congregation is become in a manner independent of the reſt. They have moſt of them forſaken the opinions of Calvin, and believing univerſal redemption, maintain that the Univerſal Parent has excluded none of his offſpring from a poſſibility of ſalvation; while the Independents, and many congregations of the Baptiſts, agree with the church of Scotland in the doctrines of particular election and reprobation. It muſt alſo be added, that the Preſbyterians, with the church of England, receive the Sacrament of the Lord's Supper at noon, while the Independents and Baptiſts receive it after the concluſion of the afternoon ſervice.

One of the principal of the other ſects is the Quakers, who profeſs to be guided by an internal revelation dictated by the Spirit of God; they have no regular miniſters, and neither practiſe baptiſm, nor commemorate the death of Chriſt in the Lord's Supper.

The Methodiſts have lately ariſen, and now form a very numerous body; moſt of them are alſo members of the church of England, and profeſs to adhere more cloſely than the other members of that church to the thirty-nine articles, and the greateſt part of them are rigid Calviniſts.

The number of Papiſts here is alſo very conſiderable, and in Ireland it even greatly exceeds that of the Proteſtants.

Many authors have exclaimed with great heat of the many ſects in England; but let it be conſidered, that civil and religious liberty are cloſely connected, and that it does not become any church who makes no pretenſions to infallibility to ſet up the ſtandard of perſecution. May the minds of Britons ever be free, and in affairs which ſolely relate to another life, may they be accountable only to their conſcience and their God! May candor and charity, a love of truth and of liberty, unite thoſe who differ in ſentiment, and then nothing will reſult from diverſity of opinion but peace, order, and harmony.

But to return: the church of England is under the government of two archbiſhops and twenty-five biſhops, who are ſubject to the king as ſupreme temporal head of the church. The archbiſhop of Canterbury is ſtyled the firſt peer and metropolitan of the kingdom; he takes place immediately after the royal family, and conſequently precedes not only all dukes, but likewiſe the great officers of ſtate. In addreſſes to him he enjoys the title of Your Grace, in common with dukes, and alſo that of Moſt Reverend father in God. He has the power of holding juridical courts in church affairs, with many other privileges relating to the granting of licenſes and diſpenſations,

ſations, in all caſes formerly ſued for at the court of Rome, where they are not repugnant to the law of God, or the king's prerogative. He has alſo within his province, by common law, the probate of all wills, where the party dying is worth upwards of five pounds. He has under him twenty-one biſhops, beſides his own particular dioceſe; theſe are the biſhops of London, Winchester, Ely, Lincoln, Rocheſter, Litchfield and Coventry, Hereford, Worceſter, Bath and Wells, Saliſbury, Exeter, Chicheſter, Norwich, Glouceſter, Oxford, Peterborough, Briſtol; and in Wales, St. David's, Landaff, St. Aſaph, and Bangor.

The archbiſhop of York likewiſe takes the precedence of all dukes who are not of the blood royal; as alſo of all the great officers of ſtate, except the lord chancellor, who is immediately next in rank to the archbiſhop of Canterbury. In his dioceſe he is ſtyled Primate of England and Metropolitan; he alſo enjoys the title of his Grace, and Moſt Reverend father in God. Excluſive of his own dioceſe, in his province are Durham, Carliſle, Cheſter, and Sodor and Man; but the laſt biſhop has no ſeat in the houſe of peers. In Northumberland he has the power of a palatine, and juriſdiction in all criminal proceedings.

The twenty-five biſhops are ſtyled Right Reverend and Your Lordſhip; all theſe, except the biſhop of Sodor and Man, walk next after the viſcounts, and precede the barons. In parliament they ſit in a double capacity as biſhops and barons; they alſo enjoy many other privileges, as freedom from arreſts, out-lawries, &c. The principal of theſe biſhops is that of London, next to him is Durham, who being inveſted with a temporal juriſdiction, and the power of hunting, may be eſteemed a temporal prince. The third is the biſhop of Winchester, and the reſt take place according to ſeniority of conſecration. Theſe ſeveral biſhops are ſubordinate to their metropolitan, and in ſpiritual affairs ſubject only to his juriſdiction. Each has alſo a kind of juriſdiction in his own dioceſe, but from their courts lies an appeal to their metropolitan; but criminal cauſes do not fall under their cognizance. They live in great ſtate; their revenues are alſo conſiderable; but where the income is not very large, ſome other lucrative preferment, as a deanery, is generally annexed to it.

The buſineſs of a biſhop is to examine and ordain prieſts and deacons, to conſecrate churches and burying-places, and to adminiſter the rite of confirmation. The juriſdiction of a biſhop relates to the probation of wills; he is to grant adminiſtration of goods to ſuch as die inteſtate; to take care of periſhable goods, when no one will adminiſter; to collate to benefices; to grant inſtitutions to livings; to defend the liberties of the church; and to viſit his own dioceſe once in three years.

Next to the biſhops are the deans and prebends of cathedrals, out of whom the biſhops are choſen. After theſe are the archdeacons, of which every dioceſe has one or more, the whole number in the kingdom of England amounting to ſixty. Their office is to viſit the churches twice or thrice every year. The archdeacons are followed by the rural deans, who were formerly ſtyled archipreſbyters, and ſignify the biſhop's pleaſure to his clergy, the lower claſs of which conſiſts of prieſts and deacons.

Scotland is divided into thirteen provincial ſynods, which conſiſt of ſixty-eight preſbyteries, and theſe again of a number of pariſhes.

With reſpect to the eccleſiaſtical government and courts, it is proper to obſerve, that the principal part of the eccleſiaſtical government was formerly lodged in the convocation, which is a national ſynod of the clergy, aſſembled to conſider of the ſtate of the church, and to call thoſe to an account who have advanced new opinions inconſiſtent with the doctrines of the church of England; but in the reign of his late majeſty they being thought to proceed with too much heat and ſeverity againſt ſome learned divines, and to be too great a check upon free enquiry, they have not been permitted to ſit for any long time ſince. However, they are aſſembled at the ſame time with the parliament by the authority of the king, who directs his writs to the archbiſhop of each province to ſummon all biſhops, deans, archdeacons, &c. to meet at a certain time and place.

The convocation conſiſts of one proctor, ſent from each cathedral and collegiate church, and two from the body of the inferior clergy of each dioceſe. The upper-houſe in the province of Canterbury conſiſts of the archbiſhop, who is preſident, and twenty-two biſhops; and the lower houſe of all the deans, archdeacons, and proctors, in all a hundred and ſixty-ſix. They uſually meet in king Henry the ſeventh's chapel in Weſtminſter. The archbiſhop of York holds his convocation at the ſame time in the city of York. The firſt buſineſs of the lower houſe is to chooſe a prolocutor, who is preſented to the upper houſe by two of the members; one of whom makes a ſpeech in Latin, and the prolocutor they have choſen another, to which the archbiſhop returns an anſwer in the ſame language.

The court of arches is the moſt ancient conſiſtory of the province of Canterbury, and all appeals in church matters from the judgment of the inferior courts are directed to this. The proceſſes run in the name of the judge, who is called dean of the arches, and the advocates who plead in this court muſt be doctors of the civil law. The court of audience has the ſame authority with this, to which the archbiſhop's chancery was formerly joined.

The prerogative court is that wherein wills are proved and adminiſtrations taken out.

The court of peculiars relating to certain pariſhes have a juriſdiction among themſelves for the probate of wills, and are therefore exempt from the biſhops courts. The ſee of Canterbury has no leſs than fifteen of theſe peculiars.

The court of delegates receives its name from its conſiſting of commoners delegated or appointed by the royal commiſſion; but it is no ſtanding court.

Every biſhop has alſo a court of his own called the conſiſtory court. Every archdeacon has likewiſe his court, as well as the dean and chapter of every cathedral.

SECT. III.

Of the Learning, Arts, Sciences, Manufactures, Trades, Commerce, and Coin of the Engliſh.

IN the beginning of the laſt ſection we gave a conciſe account of the manners and diſpoſitions of the Engliſh; and we ſhall here conſider their learning and ſkill in the arts. Great Britain has produced a number of perſons eminent for their learning and their improvement in the ſciences; and among theſe England will ever boaſt a Friar Bacon, a Lord Verulam, a Sir Iſaac Newton, and a Locke. The ſciences are here highly eſteemed, encouraged, and cultivated. With reſpect to ſeminaries of learning, we have indeed only two univerſities in England; but theſe are noble ones: in that of Oxford there are generally two thouſand ſtudents, and in Cambridge fifteen thouſand. As theſe univerſities are entirely of the eſtabliſhed church, the Diſſenters have inſtituted ſeveral academies, where the ſtudents go through a courſe of ſtudies, to prepare them for the miniſtry. In Scotland there are four univerſities, thoſe of Edinburgh, Glaſgow, St. Andrew, and Aberdeen; and there is ſcarce a great town in England where there is not a free-ſchool founded for the inſtruction of the ſons of the citizens, or burgeſſes, in the learned languages.

With reſpect to the polite arts, the Engliſh have long been famous for their ſkill in portrait painting; but we have not yet equalled the Italians in hiſtory painting, or the French in engraving: we have, however, at preſent ſome admirable ſculptors that would do honour to any nation; and both engraving and painting in all its branches are making ſpeedy advances towards perfection. The Engliſh have a good genius for civil architecture, and in ſhip-building are inferior to no nation upon earth. In other elegant and uſeful arts England has alſo produced many able maſters. As this country has produced the greateſt philoſophers, ſo the ſeveral arts dependent on the ſciences have here been greatly improved; the orrery, the air-pump, the wonderful machine for raiſing a perfect river of water from the bottom of coal-pits by means of fire, the vaſt improvement made in the engines formed

for extinguiſhing of fires, were all invented by the Engliſh; and, to the honour of England, the ingenious Mr. Harriſon has lately invented an eaſy method of diſcovering the longitude at ſea.

The Engliſh, ſays Dr. Buſching, were the firſt who ſet on foot that noble manufacture of ſilk and woollen tapeſtry, in which life and nature are imitated with admirable ſkill. Our broad-cloths are the fineſt and moſt beautiful in the world, and are admired and purchaſed in every quarter of the globe; indeed the woollen manufacture is in ſo flouriſhing a condition, that the value of cloths and ſtuffs annually exported amounts to two millions ſterling. The manufactures of flowered ſilk have been greatly improved, and in the beauty of the patterns they excel thoſe of France or any other country. We have lately invented a method of printing on plain ſilk figures in gold. Our printers of linen too greatly excel thoſe of other nations, from the ſuperior ſkill of the pattern-drawers.

In ſhort, there is ſcarce a manufacture in Europe but what is brought to great perfection in England; our locks, edge-tools, guns, ſwords, and other arms, are ſaid to exceed any thing of the kind; houſhold utenſils of braſs, iron, and pewter, are very great articles; and our clocks and watches of price are very much eſteemed; though the miſerable cheap work bought up and ſent abroad has diſhonoured the nation. There are but few manufactures in which we are defective; but in thoſe of bone lace and paper we do not excel. With reſpect to the laſt, an aſtoniſhing improvement has been made in England in writing and printing paper; but the French paper for copper-plate prints is ſtill ſuperior to ours.

Great Britain enjoys a fine ſituation with reſpect to commerce, and is ſurrounded with excellent harbours. Its trade and navigation is greatly ſuperior to what they were formerly, and the inhabitants at preſent carry on an extenſive trade to every part of the globe.

In time of peace we export to France tin, lead, horn plates, great quantities of tobacco, with ſome flannel, and in time of ſcarcity we ſend them corn; and from thence we import brandy, wine, laces, linen, cambrics, lawn. This trade is of very great diſadvantage to England. Our ſmugglers alſo, to the great detriment of Great Britain, convey thither gold, ſilver, and wool.

To Holland we ſend almoſt all ſorts of commodities and manufactured goods, either of our own produce or imported from abroad, and receive from thence ſpices, drugs for dying, vaſt quantities of fine linen, tapes, whale fins, and toys.

To Flanders we ſend tin, lead, hard-ware, ſugar, flannels, a few ſtuffs, ſerges, and tobacco; for which we receive fine laces, linen, cambrics, tapes, and other goods.

To Germany we ſend woollen manufactories of every kind, all ſorts of Eaſt India goods, tin, lead, ginger, ſugar, and tobacco. In return we have from thence linen, thread, goat ſkins, and many other commodities. In many places, however, ſeveral of our manufactories are prohibited; and yet it is thought that the balance of trade is conſiderably in our favour.

We have very little trade with Denmark and Norway, except for a few coarſe woollen goods and tobacco; but we receive from them timber, planks, firs, deer ſkins, and many other articles of commerce, for the greateſt part of which we are obliged to pay ready money. The Swedes alſo buy little of us, and we purchaſe of them copper, iron, deals, timber, and naval ſtores; but not ſo much iron as formerly, ſince its being allowed to be imported from our own plantations in America.

To Ruſſia we ſend tin, lead, worſted ſtuffs, long ells, coarſe cloths, cottons, fuſtians, perpetuanas, lace, thread, allum, copper, and a great quantity of tobacco. From thence we import pot-aſhes, hemp, flax, linen, cable-yarn, bees-wax, iſinglaſs, hides of ſeveral ſorts, and leather; with linſeed, train-oil, flax, hemp, hogs briſtles, caviare, &c. This trade is carried on by a particular company.

We ſend to Italy various kinds of Eaſt India goods, broad-cloth, long ells, bays, druggets, camblets, leather, tin, lead, pilchards, herrings, ſalmon, cod, and various other articles. From thence we import wine, oil, ſope, olives, dying drugs, anchovies, and raw, thrown, and wrought ſilk. From the king of Sardinia's dominions we have the fine ſilk called organzine, which is thrown here by an engine, of which a very curious one has been many years at Derby, and for ſome time in two or three towns in Cheſhire.

To Spain we ſend nearly the ſame commodities as to Italy, many of which are exported from thence to their American dominions. In return we have wine, oil, fruit, wool, indigo, cochineal, and other drugs, with gold and ſilver in ſpecie or bullion.

Portugal takes from us almoſt all kinds of our commodities, and from thence we receive wine, oil, fruit, and ſalt. Though the balance of trade with Portugal is ſuppoſed to be greatly in our favour, yet it is of no little advantage to them, as they would be unable to ſell what we take from them at other markets; and as they ſend great quantities of our goods to Brazil, they are enabled to draw from thence immenſe treaſures.

The African trade is of very great advantage, as we not only ſend many of our own and the Eaſt India manufactures for the purchaſe of ſlaves; but with theſe laſt ſupply our plantations in America, and have alſo from Africa gold duſt, gum ſeneca, malagueta, ivory, red wood, and many other valuable commodities.

To the Eaſt Indies we export ſome woollen cloths, lead, and other Engliſh manufactures, with a very great quantity of ſilver; and import from thence great quantities of tea, china ware, raw and wrought ſilks, calicoe, chintz, cabinets, &c. all the wrought ſilks, calicoes, and chintz, being exported again.

The Hudſon's bay company export woollen goods, haberdaſhery wares, hatchets, arms, and other hard-ware, and import great quantities of ſkins and furs of different kinds.

To the ſugar iſlands in America we export all manner of clothing, both linen and woollen, furniture for their horſes, and hard-ware; and take the produce of thoſe iſlands in return, which beſide ſugar, yield ginger, indigo, rum, molaſſes, coffee, cacao, or the chocolate nut, and pimento, or Jamaica pepper.

To the tobacco plantations on the continent of America, we alſo export clothing, tools, hard-ware, and furniture, receiving tobacco in return, a great part of which is re-exported.

We export the ſame ſpecies of goods to Carolina, and receive from thence vaſt quantities of rice and ſkins, pitch and tar.

To Penſylvania, the Jerſeys, New-York, and New-England, we ſend the ſame articles, and receive in return log-wood, and the produce of Spaniſh America, with which they frequently carry on a clandeſtine trade, and alſo ſhips ready built, mahogany, cedar, drugs, and furs.

In ſhort, to Ireland the merchants export fine broad-cloth, ſilk, ribbons, gold and ſilver lace, hard-ware, pewter, hops, coals, tobacco, ſugar, Eaſt-India goods, and from thence import great quantities of linen, linen yarn, and wool, together with beef, butter, pork, and tallow.

The annual exports of Engliſh and foreign goods amount to between ſix and ſeven millions ſterling, and our imports do not exceed five millions. As a conſiderable part of this is again exported, the annual iſſues from England for foreign merchandize, has been eſtimated at four millions. Yet our foreign trade does not amount to one ſixth part of the inland; the annual produce of the natural products and manufactures of England amounting to above forty-two millions. The gold and ſilver of England is received from Portugal, Spain, Jamaica, the American colonies, and Africa; but great part of this gold and ſilver we again export to Holland, and the Eaſt-Indies; and it is ſuppoſed that two-thirds of all the foreign traffic of England is carried on in the port of London.

In Great Britain money is computed by pounds, ſhillings, and pence, twelve pence making a ſhilling, and twenty ſhillings one pound, which is only an imaginary coin. The gold pieces conſiſt only of guineas, halves, and

and quarters; the silver of crowns, half-crowns, shillings, six-pences, groats, and even down to a silver penny; and the copper money only of half-pence and farthings.

SECT. IV.

A concise View of the History of England; the Titles of the King, his Arms, and Forces by Sea and Land.

THE Britons, the ancient inhabitants of this island, were first invaded, as hath been already observed, by Julius Cæsar, and afterwards subdued by the Romans. In the reign of Valentinian III. they quitted the island, and taking with them all the Roman and British forces, left the kingdom exposed to the excursions of the Picts and Scots. The Britons successively elected several monarchs, who were deposed almost as soon as they were advanced to the throne, till they made choice of Vortigern, who finding it difficult to contend with the Picts and Scots who invaded his dominions, solicited succours from abroad, and accordingly in 449, a large body of Anglo-Saxons arrived, under the conduct of two leaders, Hengist and Horsa, who having obtained a victory over the enemy, settled here; and other bodies of Saxons coming over, extended their dominions, and at length conquered England, which received its name from the Angles. They erected seven monarchies, those of Kent, Sussex, the East-Angles, the West-Saxons, the East Saxons, Northumberland, and Mercia. Egbert, king of the West-Saxons, at length united all the other kings under him. In the ninth century the Danes passed over to England, and proved so troublesome to the Saxon princes, that they were at length obliged to share the kingdom with them. This division lasted till the year 1041, when the Saxons again recovered the whole country. Upon the death of this prince, he was succeeded by Harold; but William duke of Normandy invaded the kingdom, and coming to a battle with Harold near Hastings in Sussex, defeated his rival, who was slain in the engagement, and agreeing to observe the Saxon laws was proclaimed king.

After his decease, and that of his two sons, his descendants of the female line contended for the throne, which Henry II. surnamed Plantagenet, at last ascended in 1154, and transmitted it to his descendants. This prince was by inheritance earl of Anjou, Maine, and Touraine; by marriage, duke of Guienne; and by the success of his arms, lord of Ireland. John, the youngest son of Henry II. was obliged to grant the Magna Charta. Edward I. subdued the principality of Wales, and endeavoured to maintain his superiority in Scotland. Edward III. the eldest son of Edward II. succeeded to the crown in the life-time of his father; the queen and Mortimer during his minority, usurping the administration, governed in his name, and murdered Edward II. But Edward III. afterwards caused Mortimer to be seized in the queen's apartment, and executed. This prince invaded France, and in 1346 obtained the glorious victory of Cressy, and about the same time David king of the Scots was made prisoner. John the French king, and his son Philip were taken prisoners at the battle of Poictiers, by Edward the Black Prince. Richard II. the son of Edward the Black Prince, and grandson of Edward III. succeeded to the throne. He suppressed a rebellion raised by Wat Tyler; but the parliament, disgusted at his administration, raised an army against him and made him prisoner. The duke of Lancaster, the king's uncle, claimed the crown of Castile in right of his wife, and invaded Spain. His son the duke of Lancaster dethroned Richard II. and usurping the crown was styled Henry IV. and being confirmed in the throne by the parliament, Richard was soon after murdered.

Henry V. gained several victories over the French, took many of their towns, and having married Catharine, daughter to Charles VI. king of France, by the convention of Troyes, obtained the reversion of that crown, but died in the midst of all his expectations. His infant son, Henry VI. who was crowned at Paris, inherited both kingdoms; but under him the English arms in France met with a sad reverse, by his losing that kingdom. At this time disputes arose concerning the crown between the houses of York and Lancaster, both which were of the royal blood, and were commonly called, in allusion to their arms, the White and Red Rose; and these disputes soon broke out into a bloody civil war, which was frequently renewed. Edward IV. the eldest son of Richard duke of York, was at length established on the throne, while Henry VI. was confined in the Tower, and at last murdered. Edward V. the eldest son of Edward IV. with his brother Richard duke of York, were also murdered in the Tower, by their uncle Richard duke of Glocester, who ascended the throne by the name of Richard III. but Henry earl of Richmond defeating that unnatural monster at Bosworth, and that murderer, who was the last male of the house of York, being killed in the battle, Henry in 1485, obtained the crown. This was Henry VII. who being of the house of Lancaster, and marrying Elizabeth of the house of York, in him both roses were united. Henry VIII. the son of Henry VII. was remarkable for his numerous marriages, his manner of living, government, and power. On account of his book on the seven sacraments, which was written against Luther, he was dignified by the pope with the title of Defender of the Faith, a title which the kings of England had long before assumed, as appears from several charters granted to the university of Oxford. This king soon quarrelled with the pontiff, and under him the happy reformation of religion began in England; and the parliament enacted an oath of supremacy, by which all ecclesiastics were compelled to acknowlege the king as supreme in all causes both ecclesiastical and civil. Under Edward VI. the Reformation was promoted; but his sister and successor Mary again introduced popery, lighted the fire of persecution, and lost Calais, the only place in France belonging to the crown of England. Under her sister Elizabeth the Reformation was completed, and very considerable improvements made in trade and navigation. She appointed for her successor James I. king of Scotland, who endeavoured to unite both kingdoms, under the name of Great Britain. This weak and pusillanimous prince paid little regard to the constitution of England. His example was followed by his son Charles I. The people rose in defence of their liberties, and that unhappy prince lost his head on the block. The Scots proclaimed his son Charles II. but were defeated therein by Oliver Cromwell, who governed these kingdoms under the title of protector of England, Scotland, and Ireland. In his time the English made themselves masters of Jamaica and Dunkirk. His son Richard was afterwards chosen protector; but being averse to the cares of government, he made little or no opposition to the return of Charles II. who was restored to his throne by his ancestors.

This last prince sold Dunkirk to the French; under his reign a dreadful pestilence ravaged England, and London was destroyed by fire. James, duke of York, married his eldest daughter Mary to William prince of Orange, and Anne his second daughter to prince George of Denmark, and on Charles's decease ascended the throne; he then openly declared himself a Papist, and strenuously endeavoured to bring this kingdom again into subjection to the see of Rome. In the year 1688 was born James the present pretender, whom some affirm to be the lawful son of king James II. by his second spouse, while others deny it. Against this prince the church of England united with the Dissenters, and both applying to his son-in-law the prince of Orange, invited him to assist in the defence of their liberties: on which he landed in England, and the king fled to France; whence the crown, which he had thus abdicated, was in a national convention offered, with certain restrictions, to the prince of Orange and his consort Mary. This prince, who assumed the title of William III. was succeeded by Anne, king James's youngest daughter, and under her, in 1706, was accomplished the union of the kingdoms of England and Scotland, under the general name of Great Britain. On her decease, in 1714, the crown devolved to George Lewis, elector of Hanover, and duke of Brunswic Lunenburg. His reign began with a rebellion, which

was ſoon ſuppreſſed. That prince was peaceably ſucceeded by his ſon George II. in whoſe reign another rebellion broke out, and was quelled by the bravery of his ſon William, duke of Cumberland. His reign was diſtinguiſhed by a number of victories that will do honour to the Britiſh annals, and on the twenty-fifth of October, 1760, he was ſucceeded by his grandſon George III. his preſent majeſty.

The titles of this prince are, George III. by the grace of God king of Great Britain, France, and Ireland, defender of the faith, arch-treaſurer and elector of the holy Roman empire, &c. In addreſſing him he is ſtiled Your Majeſty, or Sir: the eldeſt ſon is from his birth ſtiled duke of Cornwall; but receives the title of prince of Wales by creation, and in both thoſe provinces certain revenues are annexed to theſe titles. All the king's children are ſtyled their royal highneſſes.

The arms of Great Britain are, in the firſt grand quarter gules, three lions paſſant guardant in pale or; the imperial enſigns of England, impaled with the royal arms of Scotland, which are or, a lion rampant with a double treſſure flowered and counter-flowered, with fleurs-de-lis gules. The ſecond quarter is the royal arms of France, azure three fleur-de-lis or. The third, the enſign of Ireland, which is azure, a harp or, ſtringed argent. The fourth grand quarter is his preſent majeſty's own coat gules, two lions paſſant guardant or, for Brunſwic, impaled with Lunenburg, which is or, ſemee of hearts, proper, a lion rampant azure, having ancient Saxony, viz. gules, a horſe current argent, grafted in baſe, and in a ſhield ſur tout gules, the diadem or crown of Charlemagne. The whole within a garter, as ſovereign of that moſt noble order of knighthood, inſcribed with the motto HONI SOIT QUI MAL Y PENSE, that is, "Evil be to him that evil thinks," given by Edward III. the founder of the order. The creſt is a helmet full faced and grated, mantled with cloth of gold, double ermine, and ſurmounted by an imperial crown, on the top of which is a lion paſſant guardant or, crowned. The ſupporter on the dexter ſide is a lion guardant or, crowned, the proper ſupporter of the Engliſh enſign; on the ſiniſter a unicorn argent horned and hoofed or, gorged with a collar of croſſes, pattee, and fleur-de-lis, a gold chain fixed to it; both ſtanding on a compartment, from whence iſſue from one ſtem the two royal badges of his majeſty's chief dominions, namely, on the right a roſe party per pale, argent, and gules, ſtalked and leafed vert, for England; and on the left a thiſtle for Scotland, being ſo adorned by James I. whoſe ſupporters, as king of Scotland, were two unicorns; and England being under him united to that nation, gave occaſion to our carrying one of them on the ſiniſter ſide; and in 1614, as king of Ireland, he cauſed the harp to be marſhalled with the arms of Great Britain.

The land-forces of theſe kingdoms in time of peace amount to about forty thouſand national men, including troops and garriſons in Ireland, Gibraltar, Minorca, and in America; but in time of war there have been in Britiſh pay, natives and foreigners, above a hundred and fifty thouſand. We have alſo a regiſtered militia, conſiſting of near two hundred thouſand men.

The complement of ſeamen in time of peace uſually amounts to twelve or fifteen thouſand. In time of war they have amounted to no leſs than ſixty thouſand men.

The men of war of the line of battle, from a hundred down to fifty guns, amount to no leſs than a hundred and fifty ſail; and the total of the royal navy, including fifth and ſixth rates, with ſloops of war, amount to three hundred and ten; beſides bomb-veſſels, fire-ſhips, and royal yachts.

This navy is commonly divided into three ſquadrons, namely, the red, white, and blue, which are ſo termed from the difference of their colours. Each ſquadron has its admiral; but the admiral of the red ſquadron has the principal command of the whole, and is ſtiled vice-admiral of Great Britain. Subject to each admiral is alſo a vice and a rear-admiral. But the ſupreme command of our naval force is, next to the king, in the lords commiſſioners of the admiralty.

SECT. V.

Of the Civil Government of the King's Court; the great Officers of State; and the Orders of Knighthood.

THE civil government of the court is committed to the lord ſteward of the houſhold, who has authority over all the officers and ſervants of the palace, except thoſe of the king's chapel, chambers, and ſtables. He alſo attends the king at the meeting of parliaments, adminiſters the oaths of allegiance and ſupremacy to all the members of the houſe of commons, and, at the end of the parliament, adjuſts the parliamentary expences, &c. In the king's preſence he carries a white wand; but at other times it is carried by a footman bare-headed.

The next is the lord chamberlain, who preſides over all the affairs belonging to the king's chamber, and all above ſtairs, except the precinct of the king's bed-chamber, which is wholly under the groom of the ſtole. He has alſo the overſight of the ſerjeant at arms; of the chaplains, though he himſelf is a layman; of the phyſicians, ſurgeons, barbers, &c. of the wardrobe, the beds, muſic, comedians, hunting, meſſengers, handicrafts, and artizans, retained in the king's ſervice.

The maſter of the great wardrobe is an officer of conſiderable dignity; he has therefore a ſalary of ſixteen hundred pounds a year, and a deputy under him of four hundred pounds, with other officers. To his office alſo belong ſeveral tradeſmen and artificers, who furniſh ſuch things as are neceſſary for the coronations, marriages, and funerals of the royal family; provide robes for the knights and officers of the garter; coats for the king's heralds and purſuivants at arms.

And laſtly, the maſter of the horſe, who has the management of the king's ſtables and breed of horſes, and preſides over the equerries, pages, footmen, grooms, farriers, ſmiths, coachmen, ſaddlers, and other trades working for the king's ſtables. He has alſo the care of the lands and revenues appointed for the king's breed of horſes, litters, coaches, chairs, &c. The maſter of the horſe has the peculiar privilege of making uſe of the king's coaches, horſes, pages, and footmen, when he goes abroad; and upon any ſolemn cavalcade he rides next the king, leading a horſe of ſtate.

There are alſo ſixteen lords of the king's bed-chamber, including the groom of the ſtole.

Moſt of the other officers and ſervants are under the above four principal officers of his majeſty's houſhold.

The great officers of the crown were originally nine, namely, the lord high ſteward, lord chancellor, lord high treaſurer, lord preſident, lord privy-ſeal, lord great chamberlain, lord high conſtable, and lord high admiral. But theſe have been greatly mutilated and changed, as will appear from the following account:

I. The lord high ſteward is appointed by the king as judge, when a peer is to be tried for high treaſon. This office was anciently the higheſt in the government, and its power ſo extenſive, that it was thought unſafe to truſt it any longer in the hands of a ſubject. The laſt who enjoyed this office by inheritance was Henry of Bolingbroke, afterwards king of England. Since his time it has been revived only upon particular occaſions; as at the king's coronation, or the arraignment of a peer; after which he publicly breaks the white ſtaff, which he bears in his hand as a badge of his office, to ſhew that it is expired.

II. The lord high chancellor, or keeper of the great ſeal, is eſteemed the firſt miniſter of ſtate, and takes place immediately after the archbiſhop of Canterbury; and, by virtue of his office, he is a member of the privy-council. He keeps the great ſeal, and cauſes are referred to him from the other courts, he having the power of judging according to equity, and of moderating the rigour of the common law. His decrees can only be reverſed by the houſe of Lords. Out of this office the lord high ſteward is uſually choſen.

III. The lord high treaſurer was formerly an officer of great power and authority; but ever ſince the Revolution

it has been under the direction of ſeveral commiſſioners, ſtiled lords of the treaſury.

IV. The lord preſident of the privy-council lays before that body ſuch buſineſs as is to be tranſacted there, and, if the king be abſent, makes a report to his majeſty of what has paſſed in council.

V. The lord privy-ſeal, through whoſe hands paſs all grants, charters, and pardons ſigned by the king, before they come to the great ſeal; together with bounties and ſuch other things as do not require the great ſeal. He is, by virtue of his office, a privy counſellor.

VI. The lord high chamberlain of England, whoſe office is to carry the king's coif and gloves at his coronation, with the ſword, ſcabbard, &c. to dreſs the king that day in his royal robes, to ſerve him with water, to waſh his hands, and to undreſs him. To him belongs the care of providing every thing neceſſary in the houſe of Lords during the ſeſſion of parliament. When the king goes to the houſe, he gives the ſword of ſtate to whatever lord he pleaſes, walks on the right hand of it, next the king's perſon; has under his direction the gentleman uſher of the black rod, with the yeoman uſher and door-keeper; and upon ſolemn occaſions, when he enters Weſtminſter-hall, has the keys of that hall and the ſeveral courts in it delivered to him.

VII. The lord high conſtable had ſuch an extenſive power, that it has been long aboliſhed, except at coronations, when an officer is created to aſſiſt at the ceremony, and his power ends with it.

VIII. The earl marſhal on particular occaſions takes cognizance of affairs relative to war, regulates ceremonies, and preſides over the herald's office. This poſt has long been hereditary in the family of the dukes of Norfolk.

IX. The lord high admiral had formerly the ſuperintendance of all maritime affairs; but the office is at preſent, as we have already obſerved, executed by commiſſion, the directors of which are ſtiled the lords of the admiralty.

The orders of knighthood in Great Britain are three, two Engliſh and one Scots, and of all theſe the king is grand maſter. The order of the Garter, or St. George, was inſtituted in 1350, by Edward III. and contains twenty-ſix knights, including the king. Its inſignia or badge is St. George on horſe-back, with a dragon of enamelled gold, bearing the motto, HONI SOIT QUI MAL Y PENSE. This George is worn at a blue ribbon, and this motto is likewiſe embroidered with gold on a blue garter worn on the left leg.

The order of the Bath was conſtituted by Henry IV. and revived with ſome improvements in 1725, by George I. It derives its name from a very ancient cuſtom of inſtituting knights by bathing. This order conſiſts of thirty-five knights, excluſive of the ſovereign. Its enſigns are three crowns in a field or, with this inſcription, TRIA JUNCTA IN UNO, that is, three joined in one; and is worn pendant at a red ribbon.

The order of the Thiſtle, inſtituted in Scotland, was revived in 1703 by queen Anne, and its ſtatutes were enlarged in 1725 by George I. The knights of this order are but twelve in number, beſides the ſovereign, who preſides as grand maſter. Its enſigns are the image of St. Andrew worn pendant to a green ribbon, and the motto NEMO ME IMPUNE LACESSET. The collar is compoſed of thiſtles interwoven with ſprigs and leaves of rue, which are all of gold.

SECT. VI.

Of both Houſes of Parliament; the civil Liberties of the People, the Courts of Juſtice, and the Manner in which the Laws are executed.

THAT auguſt body the parliament of Great Britain conſiſts of two houſes, one of which is called the houſe of Lords, and the other that of the Commons. Before the Union the houſe of Lords conſiſted only of the ſpiritual and temporal peers of England, and the houſe of Commons of five hundred and thirteen knights, burgeſſes, and citizens: but at the Union ſixteen peers of Scotland were added to the houſe of Lords, and forty-five Scots commoners to the houſe of Commons. The firſt of theſe are choſen before the ſitting of every new parliament by the peers of Scotland out of their own body.

The uſe of parliaments is to maintain the conſtitution, and keep inviolable the privileges of the people; they alſo raiſe ſubſidies, make laws, and redreſs all the public grievances. The power of calling a parliament, and of adjourning and proroguing it, is entirely lodged in the ſovereign.

The ſitting of the parliament is appointed by the king's proclamation, with the advice of the privy council, and in chooſing a new one writs are iſſued out by the Lord Chancellor to the Lords, to appear at the time and place appointed. Writs are alſo ſent to the ſheriffs of every county, commanding them to ſummon the electors to chooſe as many knights, citizens, and burgeſſes in their reſpective counties as are to ſit in the houſe of Commons. The writs for Scotland are directed to the Privy Council for ſummoning the ſixteen peers, and for electing the forty-five members. No judge, ſheriff, or clergyman, can be elected; and no gentleman, except he has ſix hundred a year. They always aſſemble in St. Stephen's chapel by Weſtminſter-hall.

The houſe of Lords is alſo ſituated near Weſtminſter-hall, by the painted chamber and court of requeſts. It is a ſpacious and lofty room, hung with tapeſtry, repreſenting the defeat of the Spaniſh armada. At the upper end of the room is the throne, upon which on ſolemn occaſions the king is ſeated in his robes, with the crown on his head, and adorned with all the enſigns of majeſty. On the right hand of the throne is a ſeat for the prince of Wales, and on the left another for the next perſon of the royal family. Behind the throne are places for the young peers who have no votes in the houſe. At a ſmall diſtance below the throne on the king's right hand, are the ſeats of the two archbiſhops, and a little below them the bench of biſhops. On the oppoſite ſide of the houſe ſit thoſe peers who rank above barons. Juſt before the throne are the wool-packs a-croſs the room, on which are ſeated the dignitaries of the law. The lord high chancellor, who is ſpeaker of the houſe of Lords, ſits on that neareſt the throne, with the great ſeal and mace by him. On the other two wool-packs placed parallel to this, ſit the lord chief juſtice, the maſter of the Rolls, and the other judges, who have no vote in the houſe; and are only adviſed with in points of law. They are ſuppoſed to be placed on wool-packs to remind them of the great importance of the woollen manufacture to this nation. When the king is preſent with the crown on his head the lords ſit uncovered, and the judges ſtand till his majeſty gives them leave to ſit. A ſtranger cannot form a more juſt notion of the dignity of this nation, than by attending this auguſt aſſembly when the king is preſent with the crown upon his head, and not only his majeſty, but the Lords are in their robes, and the Commons attending without the bar.

The Commons, as we have already obſerved, meet in a ſpacious room called St. Stephen's chapel. It is wainſcoted up to the cieling, and accommodated with galleries ſupported by ſlender iron columns, adorned with Corinthian capitals and ſconces. At the upper end the ſpeaker is placed on a raiſed ſeat ornamented with Corinthian columns, and the king's arms carved and placed on a pediment; before him is a table, at which the clerk and his aſſiſtant ſit near him at each hand juſt below the chair; and on each ſide, as well below as in the galleries, the members are placed promiſcuouſly. The ſpeaker and clerks always wear gowns in the houſe, but no other of the members, except the four repreſentatives for the city of London, who the firſt day of every new parliament are dreſſed in ſcarlet gowns, and ſit all together on the right hand of the chair next the ſpeaker.

No act is valid without the concurrence of both houſes, and the king's approbation. Any bill for making a new law, or altering an old one, may be brought firſt into the houſe of Peers, except a money bill; but no bill relating to the revenues or public taxes can be brought into the houſe of Peers firſt, or altered when it comes up from the Commons, though it may be totally rejected

by the Lords. Thus, where the Lords might be tempted to purſue their own intereſt to the prejudice of the public, and might receive the greateſt pecuniary advantages from being corrupt, in granting ſupplies, they have only the power of refuſing, while the Commons alone have that of enacting.

It will be proper here to give in one view a ſketch of the conſtitution of Great Britain. The king has all the honours, and all the ſplendor of majeſty; he has the power of doing good in its fulleſt extent, and it is ſurely no diminution to his glory, that he is confined from doing what would render him hated and deſpiſed by his cotemporaries, and infamous to poſterity. Though he has not the power of making laws, yet no law can be enacted without his conſent; and though the execution of them is always entruſted to his care, he cannot ſeize the property of the moſt inconſiderable man in his dominions, except it be forfeited by law: the ſubject may without the leaſt danger ſue his ſovereign, or thoſe who act in his name, and under his authority; he may do this in open court, where the king may be caſt, and obliged to pay damages to his ſubject. He cannot take away the liberty of the leaſt individual, unleſs he has by ſome illegal act forfeited his right to liberty, or except when the ſtate is in danger, and the repreſentatives of the people think the public ſafety makes it neceſſary that he ſhould have the power of confining perſons and ſeizing their papers on a ſuſpicion of guilt; and this power is never given but for a limited time.

The king may pardon, but neither he nor the judges to whom he delegates his authority, can condemn a man as a criminal, except he be firſt found guilty by twelve men, who muſt be his peers or equals. That the judges may not be influenced by the king, or his miniſters, they have their ſalaries for life, and not during the ſovereign's pleaſure. No perſon can be deprived of his liberty even for the higheſt crime, till ſome preſumptive proof be given upon oath before a magiſtrate. If a perſon be charged with a capital offence, he muſt not undergo the ignominy of being tried for his life, till the evidences of his guilt are laid before the grand jury of the town or county in which the fact is alledged to be committed, and not without twelve of them agreeing to find a bill of indictment againſt him. If they do this, he is to ſtand a ſecond trial before twelve other men; he is therefore furniſhed with a pannel or liſt of the jury, who are his true and proper judges, that he may learn their characters, and diſcover whether they want abilities, are bribed, or are prejudiced againſt him. He may in open court object to twenty of the number, and to as many more as he can ſhew any cauſe why they ſhould not be admitted as his judges, till at laſt twelve unexceptionable men are ſworn to give a true verdict according to the evidence produced in court. Theſe only are the judges from whoſe ſentence the priſoner is to expect life or death; and as from their judgment there lies no appeal, they are to be all of one mind, and after they have fully heard the evidence, are confined without meat, drink, or candle, till they are unanimous in acquitting or condemning the priſoner. Our freedom conſiſts in its being out of the power of the judge on the bench to injure us. Indeed juries have always been conſidered as giving the moſt effectual check to tyranny; for in a nation like this, where a king can do nothing againſt law, they are a ſecurity that he ſhall never make the laws, by a bad adminiſtration, the inſtruments of cruelty and oppreſſion. Nothing is here wanting to clear up the cauſe of innocence, and to prevent the ſufferers ſinking under the power of corrupt judges, and the oppreſſion of the great. The racks and tortures that are cruelly uſed in other parts of Europe to make a man accuſe himſelf, are here unknown, and none puniſhed without conviction, but he who refuſes to plead in his own defence.

But as the nobility are always expoſed to popular envy, were they to be judged by the people, they might be in the greateſt danger from their judges, and would want the privilege of being tryed by their peers, a privilege enjoyed by the meaneſt ſubject; they are therefore not to be tried by the ordinary courts of judicature, but by that part of the legiſlature of which each is a member.

On the other hand, the houſe of Commons can ſearch into the conduct of the higheſt peer in the realm, and in the name of the people impeach the favourite or miniſter of the king. They can call the judges to an account for the mal-adminiſtration of their office. Thus the Commons are the grand jury of the nation; but as it would be improper that thoſe who are impeached in ſo high a court ſhould be tried by a lower, which might be overawed by the power of the houſe of Commons, therefore, to preſerve the dignity of the peers, and the ſecurity of the ſubject, thoſe whom they impeach are tried by the Lords, whoſe ſuperior dignity ought to ſet them above all influence, and who are influenced neither by the ſame intereſts nor moved by the ſame paſſions.

The courts of juſtice ſitting at Weſtminſter are open four times a year; that is, at Eaſter, Trinity, Michaelmas, and Hillary terms. There are four courts, the court of chancery, the king's bench, common pleas, and the court of exchequer; beſides that of the duchy of Lancaſter, which takes cognizance of all the cauſes relating to the revenue of that duchy, which has been long annexed to the crown; the chief judge of that court is called the chancellor of the duchy of Lancaſter.

The court of chancery, which is a court of equity, is next in dignity to the high court of parliament, and is deſigned to relieve the ſubject againſt frauds, breaches of truſt, and other oppreſſions; and to moderate the rigour of the law. The chief judge is the lord chan ellor, or lord keeper; and the form of proceeding is by bills, anſwers, and decrees, the witneſſes being examined in private: however, the decrees of this court are only binding to the perſons of thoſe concerned in them, for they do not affect their lands and goods; and conſequently, if a man refuſes to comply with the terms, they can do nothing more than ſend him to the priſon of the Fleet. This court is not like the others, which have no power except in term-time, this being always open; and if a man be ſent to priſon, the lord chancellor, in any vacation, can, if he ſees reaſon for it, grant a habeas corpus. At theſe times he may alſo grant prohibitions.

The lord chancellor has twelve aſſiſtants, called maſters in chancery, who take depoſitions upon oath, for which they have an office in Chancery-lane: they alſo examine accompts depending in that court, and decide diſputes referred to them by the lord chancellor in their ſeparate offices. Beſides theſe there are ſeveral maſters extraordinary to take affidavits in the country.

The principal of the twelve is the maſter of the rolls, who has the cuſtody of all charters, cuſtoms, commiſſions, deeds, and recognizances; which being made on rolls of parchment, gave occaſion to his name. In his office are kept all the rolls ſince the beginning of the reign of Richard III. This officer uſually hears cauſes in chancery in the abſence of the chancellor, and in his court hears and determines the cauſes brought before him; he has the gift of the offices of the ſix clerks, who enrol all patents, commiſſions, licences, pardons, and other inſtruments that paſs the great ſeal. Under the ſix clerks there were formerly ſixty, but now there are ninety, and theſe, with their under clerks, perform the buſineſs of their office.

The court of king's bench is the higheſt court in England at common law, except the houſe of Lords; it takes cognizance of treaſon, felony, breaches of the peace, oppreſſion, &c. and can examine and correct the judgments and proceedings of all the inferior courts, except that of the exchequer, not only in pleas of the crown, but in thoſe that are perſonal; errors committed by juſtices of the peace come alſo under its cognizance. In this court are four judges, who hold their places for life; the principal of whom is ſtiled the lord chief juſtice of the king's bench. His juriſdiction is very extenſive, and his warrant is of force in any part of the kingdom. This court grants prohibitions to other courts, both eccleſiaſtical and civil, when they exceed the bounds of their juriſdiction.

The court of common-pleas is ſo called becauſe the pleas uſually here debated are between ſubject and ſubject. Here all civil cauſes are tried, and real actions are pleadable in no other court. There are four judges belonging

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ing to it, the firſt of whom is called lord chief juſtice of the common-pleas. None but ſerjeants at law can plead in this court, and all facts are tried by a jury.

The court of exchequer formerly received its name from a ſtriped or checquered cloth ſpread over the table; it conſiſts of two courts, one of which tries cauſes according to law, and the other according to equity. The court of equity is held in the exchequer-chamber before the lord treaſurer, the chancellor of the exchequer, the lord chief baron, and the three barons of the exchequer; beſides a curſitor baron: but the two firſt ſit very ſeldom, and the five laſt almoſt always. Here are tried all cauſes relating to the king's revenue. All judicial proceedings, according to law are tried only before the barons.

In the different counties in England aſſizes and ſeſſions are held twice a year for the more regular diſtribution of juſtice; and for this purpoſe the twelve judges are commiſſioned by the king to go the circuits. At theſe aſſizes all civil and criminal cauſes are determined. The firſt is called Lent aſſizes, and begins ſoon after Hillary term; and the other, called the ſummer aſſizes, after Trinity term. There are ſix of theſe circuits, beſides thoſe in Wales, in which principality two diſtinct judges are appointed; and both in England and Wales all cauſes are determined by a jury.

The commitment of malefactors is made by a juſtice of the peace, who examines witneſſes to the fact upon oath; and if the evidence appears plain, he makes a mittimus, and ſends the malefactor to priſon, where he continues till the next aſſizes.

There are juſtices of the peace in every county, and ſuch in whom the king is ſuppoſed to have a greater confidence are ſtiled juſtices of the quorum, becauſe in their dedimus there are theſe words, *quorum* A. B. *unum eſſe volumus*; which ſignifies, that no buſineſs of conſequence muſt be tranſacted unleſs with the concurrence of one of theſe. Their office is to call before them, examine, and commit to priſon all murderers, thieves, vagabonds, and all diſturbers of the peace.

Every city and corporation in England chooſe their own magiſtrates, who regulate all affairs belonging to their reſpective corporations, and try perſons ſuppoſed guilty of ſmall crimes, but cannot exerciſe their power out of their own liberties.

Beſides the above courts, there are court leets and court barons, which properly belong to the lords of the manors, who appoints ſtewards to hold them in their name. The firſt is a court of record; it being reputed the king's court, becauſe its authority is derived from the crown. It is kept twice a year, and in it enquiry may be made of riots and other criminal matters; but all great offences muſt be certified to the juſtices of aſſize.

A court baron is held in every manor, though the other is not, and is thus called from the lord of the manor, who was anciently ſtiled baron. All tenants belonging to the manor are ſummoned to this court, part of whom are ſworn for a jury, and the ſteward ſits as judge. The jury is directed to enquire after the deceaſe of copy-holders and free-holders, and to bring in their next heir, and alſo of the encroachments of any tenant. They likewiſe make orders and laws among themſelves, with a penalty for tranſgreſſions, payable to the lord of the manor.

There are alſo ſheriff-courts, and hundred courts, held every month in all parts of England, where ſmall cauſes are determined.

The laws of England are eſteemed more merciful with reſpect to offenders, than thoſe which at preſent ſubſiſt in any other part of the known world. However, the puniſhment of ſuch who at their trial refuſe to plead guilty or not guilty, is very cruel. In this caſe the priſoner is laid upon his back, and his arms and legs being extended with cords, and a conſiderable weight laid upon his breaſt, he is allowed only three morſels of barley-bread, which is given him the next day without drink, after which he is allowed nothing but foul water till he expires. This puniſhment is however ſeldom inflicted; but ſome offenders have choſe it, in order to preſerve their eſtates for their children. Thoſe guilty of this crime are not now ſuffered to undergo ſuch a length of torture; but have ſo great a weight placed on them, that they ſoon expire. In caſe of high treaſon, though the criminal ſtands mute, judgment is given againſt him, as if he had been convicted, and his eſtate is confiſcated.

All capital crimes are in England included under high treaſon, petty treaſon, and felony; the firſt conſiſts in plotting, conſpiring, or riſing up in arms againſt the ſovereign; or in counterfeiting the coin. The traitor is puniſhed by being drawn on a ſledge to the place of execution, when after being hanged on the gallows for ſome minutes, the body is cut down alive, the heart taken out and expoſed to public view, and the entrails burnt: the head is then cut off, and the body quartered, after which the head is uſually fixed on ſome conſpicuous place. All the criminal's lands and goods are forfeited, his wife loſes her dowry, and his children both their eſtates and nobility. But though the ſentence paſſed upon all traitors is the ſame, yet with reſpect to perſons of quality, it is generally changed into beheading. Though coining of money is adjudged high treaſon, the criminal is only drawn upon a ſledge to the place of execution, and there hanged.

The puniſhment for miſpriſion of treaſon, that is, for neglecting, or concealing it, is impriſonment for life, the forfeiture of all the offender's goods, and the profits ariſing from his lands.

Petty treaſon, which includes a child's killing his father, a wife her huſband, a clergyman his biſhop, or a ſervant his maſter or miſtreſs, is puniſhed by being drawn on a ſledge to the place of execution, and there hanged. Women guilty either of this crime or high treaſon, are ſentenced to be burnt alive; but inſtead of ſuffering the full rigour of the law, they are ſtrangled at the ſtake, before the fire takes hold of them.

Felony, which includes murders, robberies, forging notes, bonds, &c. is puniſhed by hanging, only murderers are to be executed ſoon after the ſentence is paſſed, and then delivered to the ſurgeons, in order to be publicly diſſected, or their body hung up in chains. Perſons guilty of robbery, when there are ſome alleviating circumſtances, are frequently tranſported for a term of years to his majeſty's plantations; and in ſuch caſes where the benefit of the clergy is allowed, the criminal is burnt in the hand with a hot iron.

Manſlaughter is the unlawful killing a perſon without premeditated malice, but with a preſent intent to kill; as when two perſons quarrelling, one kills the other; in this caſe the criminal is allowed the benefit of the clergy for the firſt time, and only burnt in the hand.

Chance-medley is the accidental killing of a man, without an evil intent, for which the offender is alſo to be burnt in the hand, unleſs he was doing an unlawful act, which laſt circumſtance makes the puniſhment death.

Shop-lifting and receiving goods knowing them to be ſtolen, are puniſhed with tranſportation, or burning in the hand.

Perjury and keeping diſorderly houſes are puniſhed with the pillory and impriſonment.

Petty-larceny, or ſmall theft, under the value of twelve-pence, is puniſhed with whipping.

Striking, ſo as to draw blood, in the king's court, ſubjects the criminal to the loſs of his right hand.

Striking in Weſtminſter hall while the courts of juſtice are ſitting, is impriſonment for life, and the forfeiture of all the offender's eſtate.

Drunkards, vagabonds, and looſe, idle, diſorderly perſons, are puniſhed by being ſet in the ſtocks, or by paying a ſmall fine.

Formerly in ſeveral parts of England ſcolding women were ſet in a vehicle called a ducking-ſtool, where they were placed on high, and drawn through the town to ſome deep water, into which they were three times plunged, and then again carried about and expoſed to the deriſion and contempt of the populace.

With reſpect to the courts of juſtice and the puniſhments of Scotland, we ſhall give an account of them when we come to give a more particular deſcription of

that country; and ſhall conclude this ſection with the diviſions of the whole iſland, and the repreſentatives they ſend to parliament.

In England there are forty counties, which ſend up to parliament eighty knights.

Twenty-five cities, of which London ſends four and Ely none, fifty citizens.

A hundred and ſixty-ſeven boroughs, who ſend two each, three hundred and thirty-four burgeſſes.

Five boroughs, which are Abingdon, Banbury, Bewdley, Higham Ferrars, and Monmouth, one each, five burgeſſes.

Two Univerſities, who ſend four repreſentatives.

Eight Cinque ports, as Haſtings, Dover, Sandwich, Romney, Hythe, and their three dependents, Rye, Winchelſea, and Seaford, two each, ſixteen barons.

In Wales are twelve counties, which ſend twelve knights.

Twelve boroughs, which ſend twelve burgeſſes.

In Scotland, thirty ſhires, which ſend thirty knights.

And fifteen boroughs, who ſend fifteen burgeſſes.

In all five hundred and fifty-eight repreſentatives.

We ſhall now proceed to give a particular deſcription of the counties of England, beginning at the ſouth-eaſt.

SECT. VII.

Of ENGLAND.

Of the County of Kent; its Name, Situation, Extent, Air, Produce, and principal Rivers. The Inhabitants have particular Privileges. A Deſcription of Canterbury, Rocheſter, Chatham, Maidſtone, Dover, Tunbridge, Deal, Iſle of Thanet, Graveſend, Woolwich, Greenwich, and Deptford.

AS this part of the iſland lies neareſt the continent, it was firſt invaded by the Romans from thence, when it was called by Cæſar Cantium, which it is thought they derived from the Britiſh word Caine, a green leaf, to expreſs the verdure of the woods, or to ſhew the ſituation of the country, which projects into a point eaſtward. The county of Kent is bounded on the north by the river Thames, which divides it from Eſſex and Middleſex; on the eaſt by the Downs; on the ſouth-eaſt by the Engliſh Channel; on the ſouth by Suſſex; and on the weſt by Surry. Its extent from the utmoſt point in the eaſt to its weſtern extremity is ſixty miles, its breadth from Rye in Suſſex to the mouth of the Thames is thirty-ſix, and it is a hundred and ſixty-ſix miles in circumference.

The air of this county is ſubject to be unhealthy; however, the higher parts enjoy a very healthful air, but are not ſo rich as the lower. As the county lies much upon the ſea, the air, though generally thick and foggy, is pretty warm, and often purified by ſouth and ſouth-weſt winds. The whole ſhore, from Woolwich to Graveſend, is low, and ſpread with marſhes and unhealthy grounds, except ſome places where the chalk-hills almoſt join the river.

The county in general abounds with plantations of hops, fields of corn, paſtures, fine orchards of cherries, and pippins; woods of oak, beech, and cheſnuts; and in ſeveral places are woods of birch, from whence the broom-makers in Kent-ſtreet, Southwark, are ſupplied. Here are mines of iron, pits of marl and chalk, and the cattle here are larger than in the neighbouring counties. Here are ſeveral parks of fallow deer, and warrens of grey rabbits. The chief commodities are corn, fruit, particularly pippins and cherries, woad and madder for dying, hops, flax, ſaintfoin, ſamphire, cattle, fowl, and fiſh, eſpecially trout, for which the town of Fordwich on the river Medway is famous.

The chief river of Kent is the Medway, which riſes in the weald of Suſſex, and enters Kent near Penſhurſt, running chiefly to the north-eaſt by Tunbridge, Maidſtone, and Rocheſter, below which, being of proper breadth and depth, it forms the noble dock of Chatham, where it is navigable for the largeſt men of war, and then falls into the mouth of the Thames. In this county is alſo the famous medicinal ſprings of Tunbridge.

The inhabitants juſtly value themſelves on their courage and reſolution in defending their liberties againſt the ſeveral invaders of Britain; they in particular ſurpriſed William the Conqueror, and with the utmoſt bravery offered him battle, unleſs he conſented to confirm their ancient privileges, on which he prudently choſe the latter. The principal of theſe privileges is, that of gavelkind, which conſiſts in the following particulars: 1. The heirs-male ſhare all the lands equally. 2. The heir at fifteen is at full age to ſell or alienate. 3. When a man is convicted of treaſon, his ſon cannot on that account be deprived of his birth-right. and 4. The lands of a brother, if he has no iſſue, ſhall be ſhared by all the ſurviving brethren.

This county contains a hundred and ſixty-three vicarages, four hundred and eight pariſhes, and above eleven hundred and ſeventy villages. It is divided into five lathes, under each of which are ſeveral hundreds, in which are ſaid to be about forty thouſand houſes, and two hundred thouſand inhabitants. It ſends ſixteen members to parliament, two knights for the ſhire, and two for each of the following cities and boroughs, Canterbury, Rocheſter, Maidſtone, Queenborough, Dover, Romney, and Sandwich. The principal places in this county are the following:

Canterbury, the metropolitan ſee of all England, ſituated fifty-ſix miles to the ſouth-eaſt of London, and fifteen to the north-weſt-by-weſt of Dover. It is ſaid, with little appearance of truth, to have been built nine hundred years before the birth of our Saviour: however, it is probable that it was a place of ſome note at the landing of Julius Cæſar, as it has ſeveral marks of antiquity of about that time. After the Romans left Britain, Vortigern, king of the Britons, reſided here, till he ſurrendered it up to the Saxons, who made it the capital of the kingdom of Kent, in the Saxon heptarchy. In this condition it was when St. Auguſtine, the monk, being ſent from Rome, firſt preached the Chriſtian faith to the Engliſh. It was then made an archiepiſcopal ſee, and flouriſhed greatly, from its being the ſource from whence the doctrines of the church of Rome were ſpread to the reſt of the Saxon kingdoms.

This city is a county of itſelf, and the corporation conſiſts of a mayor, a recorder, twelve aldermen, a ſheriff, twenty-four common-council-men, a mace-bearer, a ſword-bearer, and four ſerjeants at mace. A court is held every Monday in the guild-hall for civil and criminal cauſes, and every other Tueſday for the government of this city.

The cathedral has been twice burnt down; the preſent ſtructure, which was begun in the reign of king Stephen, and finiſhed in that of Henry V. is a noble Gothic pile, five hundred and fourteen feet in length, ſeventy-four in breadth, and eighty in height, from the nave to the roof; its middle tower, which may be ſeen at a great diſtance, is two hundred and thirty-five feet in height. In this church are interred the bodies of ſeven kings and ſeven archbiſhops of Canterbury, including Auguſtine, whom they immediately ſucceeded, and who lie buried in one vault. The immenſe wealth offered by votaries and pilgrims from all parts for ſeveral ages to Becket's ſhrine was ſo great, that, according to Eraſmus, his chapel ſhone with the richeſt jewels, and gold was one of the meaneſt things that adorned his ſhrine. King Henry VIII. ſeized all this wealth, with the lands and revenues both of the monaſtery and church, except thoſe he annexed for the maintenance of a dean, an archdeacon, twelve prebendaries, and ſix preachers, whom he placed in it on his turning out the monks.

Under the cathedral is a large church of foreign Proteſtants, given by queen Elizabeth to the Walloons who fled hither from the Netherlands on the perſecution raiſed againſt them by the duke of Alva, and their congregation has been ſince much increaſed by the Proteſtants who fled from France in the reign of Lewis XIV. ſo that it is computed that here are no leſs than two or three thouſand French Proteſtants. The houſes of the prebendaries, with many other good buildings, ſtand in a very ſpacious cloſe, where are ſeveral ruins of religious houſes.

This city has undergone many changes, both by war and fire: it had ſtrong walls, built chiefly of flint, with many towers, a deep ditch, and a great rampart. The caſtle, whoſe decayed bulwarks appear on the ſouth ſide of the city, is ſuppoſed to have been built by the Saxons. The two gates of St. Auguſtine's monaſtery that were next the town are remaining, and are both very ſtately. The ſite of this monaſtery, which took up a great compaſs of ground, is encompaſſed with a very high wall.

The city has ſix wards, denominated from its ſix gates, and, beſides the cathedral, has fifteen pariſh churches, two charity-ſchools, and ſeven hoſpitals, with a jail for criminals. Here is alſo a ſumptuous conduit, that is of great benefit to the inhabitants. Though this city appears round at a diſtance, it is an exact croſs, and conſiſts of four ſtreets, which center at St. Andrew's church in the middle, and is about three miles in circumference, including the gardens and cathedral. Its buildings are not very grand; but there is a good market-houſe, over which are rooms where the mayor, aldermen, &c. tranſact the affairs of the corporation. What has added moſt to the advantage of the city are the hop-grounds round it, which cover ſeveral thouſand acres; ſo that till it was equalled by Farnham, it was eſteemed the only great plantation of hops in the whole iſland. This city and Shrewſbury are the two moſt noted places in England for collars of brawn.

Rocheſter, an ancient city, ſtands in a valley on the banks of the river Medway, which waſhes its weſt ſide, twenty-ſeven miles to the north-weſt-by-weſt of Canterbury, and thirty to the ſouth-eaſt-by-eaſt of London. It is the ſee of the moſt ancient biſhopric of England, next to Canterbury; and to its cathedral belong a dean and ſix prebendaries. The city is governed by a mayor, recorder, and eleven aldermen, twelve-common councilmen, a town-clerk, three ſerjeants at mace, and a water-bailiff. The ſtone bridge of twenty-one arches over the river is a very fine one, and has ſtrong iron-work on the copings; it being built by Sir John Cobham and Sir Robert Knowles, who employed the rich ſpoils they had acquired by their valour in France in this noble work. It has only three pariſh-churches, beſides the cathedral; the town-houſe and charity-ſchool are two of the beſt buildings: in the town here is alſo a mathematical ſchool, founded by Sir Joſeph Williamſon, and an alms-houſe founded by Sir Richard Watts, for the relief of ſix poor travellers, who are ſupplied with a ſupper, a bed, and breakfaſt, with four-pence to carry them forward on their journey. The town, which chiefly conſiſts of one broad, but ill-built ſtreet, is encompaſſed on ſome of its ſides with walls, but they are not very ſtrong. The ancient military-way called the Watling-ſtreet, runs directly through it to Dover.

In ſeveral of the creeks and branches of the Medway, within the juriſdiction of this city, there is an oyſter-fiſhery, which is free to every one who has ſerved ſeven years apprenticeſhip to any fiſherman, or dredger, that is free of that fiſhery. The mayor and citizens hold what is called an admiralty-court once a year, or oftener, for regulating the fiſhery, at which courts they appoint when oyſters ſhall and ſhall not be dredged and taken, which they term *opening and ſhutting the grounds*. Perſons who dredge for oyſters without being free of the fiſhery are called cablehangers, and are tried and puniſhed by that court.

Chatham may be conſidered as a ſuburb to Rocheſter, it lying on the other ſide of the river, and is famous for its being a ſtation of the royal navy. The dock was begun by queen Elizabeth, and improved by her ſucceſſors, who have added new docks, maſt-houſes, boat-houſes, and ſeveral ſtore-houſes, one of which is ſix hundred and ſixty feet in length, boat-yards, anchor-yards, forges, founderies, canals, and ditches for preſerving the maſts and yards in the water; ſo that there is not a more complete arſenal; and the ware-houſes and ſtore-houſes are formed into ſtreets of great length. Here are two commiſſioners, with other officers, to take care of the navy, the ſtore-houſes, rope-yards, &c. and all the places ſet apart for the works belonging to the ſhipping reſemble a well ordered city; ſo that with all the appearance of hurry there is not the leaſt confuſion. The private buildings, as the houſes of the ſea-officers, directors, inſpectors, and workmen of the royal navy, are well built, and ſome of them very ſtately. This place gives the title of baron to his grace the duke of Argyle and Greenwich. The cheſt of Chatham is ſupplied by a portion of each man's pay in the navy, which furniſhes a fund, out of which ſuch diſabled ſeamen as receive no benefit from Greenwich hoſpital have a ſmall annual annuity. An hoſpital has been alſo erected here for the relief of ten or more aged and maimed mariners or ſhipwrights.

It ought not to be omitted that the entrance into the river Medway is defended by Sheerneſs and other forts, and that in the year 1757, by the late duke of Cumberland's direction, ſeveral additional fortifications were begun at Chatham; ſo that now the ſhips are in no danger of an inſult either by land or water. This town has a church, a chapel of eaſe, and a ſhip uſed as a church for the ſailors. The houſes, which are moſtly low, amount to only about five hundred. The ſtreets are narrow and paved, and it contains about three thouſand inhabitants.

Maidſtone received its name from the river Medway, which is navigable hither by large barges and hoys of about fifty or ſixty tons burthen, and is a large, populous, and neat town, twenty-four miles to the weſt of Canterbury, and thirty-ſix ſouth-eaſt-by-eaſt of London. From its ſituation in the center of Kent, it is very proper for the county buſineſs, which is all tranſacted here. It ſends two members to parliament, and is governed by a mayor, twelve aſſiſtants called jurats, and twenty-four commoners. Its chief trade is in linen-thread, and in hops, of which there are large plantations about the town, as well as orchards of cherries. It gives the title of viſcount to the earl of Winchelſea and Nottingham, who is lord of the manor. It has a fine ſtone bridge, and four charity-ſchools. The town and the adjacent country enjoys ſuch plenty of proviſions, that London is ſupplied from hence with more commodities than from any ſingle market-town in England, particularly with large Kentiſh bullocks, wheat, great quantities of hops, apples, and cherries, timber, a ſort of paving-ſtone about eight or ten inches ſquare, and the fine white ſand for glaſs-houſes and ſtationers.

Dover, which is ſituated fifteen miles to the ſouth eaſt of Canterbury, and ſeventy-one from London, has for many ages been a famous paſſage between this iſland and France, and ſtill ſubſiſts chiefly on that account. It was anciently rendered a place of great importance by a ſtrong caſtle built on the high cliff, ſaid to be begun by Julius Cæſar, and completed by Arviragus, a Britiſh king, in the reign of the emperor Claudius. The additions made to this fortreſs were ſo remarkable, and its ſituation ſo ſecure by nature, that before the Conqueſt it was eſteemed the bulwark and key to the whole iſland. When this place was at the height of its magnificence it had ſeven churches, which are now reduced to two, and twenty-one wards, each of which furniſhed a ſhip of war, and maintained it forty days at its own expence. In conſideration of this ſervice each ward had a licence packet-boat, and the fare, according to the Tower records, was ſettled in the reign of Edward II. for a ſingle perſon in ſummer ſix-pence, in winter one ſhilling: for a horſe in ſummer eighteen pence, and in winter two ſhillings. Dover is likewiſe famous as a cinque-port, in which the buſineſs of the other four, and their dependencies, is tranſacted: their privileges are very extenſive, and were granted them in conſideration of the ſhips of war they were obliged to furniſh. The other cinque-ports are Haſtings, Hythe, Romney, and Sandwich. Among other privileges the burgeſſes of the cinque-ports are ſtiled barons; they carry the canopy at the coronation, which they have afterwards for their fee; and at the feaſt have a table at the king's right hand. This town conſiſts of one ſtreet a mile long, very ill paved. One of the other ſtreets is called Snare-gate, from the dreadful rocks of chalk which hang over it. A well in the caſtle is ſixty fathoms deep, and is round, large, and lined to the bottom with free-ſtone. The remains of the royal palace, the chapel, ſtables, and offices, ſhew the whole

whole to have been very magnificent. Here is a braſs gun of excellent workmanſhip, ſaid to be the longeſt in the world, it being no leſs than twenty-two feet in length. It was preſented by the ſtates of Utrecht to queen Elizabeth, and is called her pocket-piſtol; it requires fifteen pounds of powder, and the people here ſay will carry a ball ſeven miles.

Tunbridge received its name from the ſtone bridges over the five branches of the Medway, of which the Tun is one, and is ſeated twenty-nine miles ſouth-eaſt-by ſouth of London. This place is remarkable for its wells, which are four or five miles ſouth of the town, but in the ſame pariſh, and are reſorted to by the nobility and gentry in June, July, and Auguſt; and which are ſituated for the moſt part in the pariſh of Tunbridge, between two hills, named Mount Sinai and Mount Ephraim, both covered with good houſes, and gardens abounding in fruit. The principal well is walled in, and neatly paved like a ciſtern. From it run two paved walks, one of which forms a long gallery covered over, in which the band of muſic play, and here the company walk in bad weather. Here is alſo a row of ſhops and coffee-rooms, where is card-playing and the like, and alſo a dancing-room. On the other ſide is a good market, and behind the wells is a large chapel, where divine ſervice is performed twice a day, during the ſeaſon of drinking the water. When the company have taken their draught at the wells they go home about nine o'clock to dreſs, and at ten ſome of the company reſort to the chapel, and others to the coffee-houſes; but after prayers they all appear on the walks in the greateſt gaiety and ſplendor, the muſic playing all the time, while the gentlemen and ladies divert themſelves with raffling, hazard, drinking of tea, and walking till dinner-time: in the afternoon the bowlers divert themſelves on the green. At night the company return to the ſhops on the walks, where many play till midnight: there are alſo balls four times a week, and any gentleman that pleaſes may dance. In the chapel juſt mentioned ſeventy poor children are taught and maintained by the contributions of the company at the wells. The water is a chalybeate, which operates by urine and perſpiration, and is of great efficacy in cold, chronical diſeaſes, weak nerves, and bad digeſtion. The air is here excellent, and proviſions of all ſorts very reaſonable. There is plenty of wild-fowl, as pheaſants, partridges, woodcocks, ſnipes, quails, and particularly the little delicious bird called the wheat-ear; and as for fiſh they have excellent of almoſt every kind.

Deal, called Dola by Julius Cæſar, who landed here in his ſecond deſcent upon Britain, is a handſome large town, ſeated near the ſea, and a member of the cinque-port of Sandwich, from which it is ſeven miles diſtant, and ſeventy five to the eaſt-by-ſouth of London. Here almoſt all ſhips bound from foreign parts to London, or from thence to foreign parts, by way of the Channel, generally ſtop. The town carries on ſome foreign trade, and is defended by two caſtles; that of Sandown on the north is compoſed of four lunettes of very thick arched work of ſtone, with many port-holes for great guns. In the middle is a great round tower, with a ciſtern at the top, and underneath it an arched cavern bomb-proof. It has a church, a chapel, and about a thouſand houſes, which are moſtly low and built with brick; theſe form three long but narrow ſtreets, and the inhabitants amount to about four thouſand five hundred. Here is a charity-ſchool for twenty-ſeven boys and girls, who are taught and clothed at the expence of the inhabitants.

As no manufacture is carried on here, the trades-people chiefly depend on the ſea-faring men who reſort thither.

The Iſle of Thanet is on the north and eaſt bounded by the ſea, and on the ſouth and weſt by a branch of the Stour. It is eight miles in length, and four in breadth. The ſoil is chalk, and is very fruitful in co[illegible] and graſs; it is therefore a fine country, and has t[illegible] title of an earldom. It contains ſeveral villages, wit[illegible]he ſea-port towns of Margate and Ramſgate; but th[illegible]gh it has fifteen or ſixteen hundred families, it has hard[illegible] any gentlemen's houſes. On the north-eaſt point of this iſland is the promontory of the North Foreland, which, by a line drawn due north to the Naſe in Eſſex, makes the mouth of the river Thames, and all the towns and harbours from hence, whether on the Kentiſh or Eſſex ſhore, are called members of the port of London.

Graveſend, a town twenty-two miles to the eaſt of London, is ſituated on the Thames oppoſite to Tilbury-fort, about ſix miles to the eaſt of Dartford, and about the ſame diſtance from Rocheſter. In the reign of Richard II. the French and Spaniards ſailed up the Thames to this town, and having plundered and burnt it, carried away moſt of the inhabitants. To remedy this loſs the natives of Graveſend and Milton were allowed the ſole privilege of carrying paſſengers by water from hence to London at two-pence per head, or four ſhillings the whole fare; but the fare is now raiſed to nine-pence per head in the tilt-boat, and one ſhilling in the wherry. The former muſt not take in above forty paſſengers, and the latter no more than ten. The watermen's company of London are obliged to provide officers at Billingſgate and Graveſend, who at every time of high water, by night and day, are, at their reſpective places, to ring publicly a bell ſet up for that purpoſe, during fifteen minutes, to give notice to the tilt-boats and wherries to put off; and coaches ply at Graveſend at the landing of people from London to carry them to Rocheſter. King Henry VIII. raiſed a platform here, and at Milton, and theſe towns were incorporated by queen Elizabeth by the name of the portreve, the jurats, and inhabitants of Graveſend and Milton; but the name of portreve has been changed to that of mayor. The whole town being burnt down in 1727, the parliament granted five thouſand pounds for rebuilding its church. This pariſh, with that of Milton, contains about ſeven hundred houſes, which are moſtly ſmall and built with brick; the ſtreets are alſo narrow, but paved with flints, and it has a great number of houſes of entertainment. Here is a handſome charitable foundation, Mr. Henry Pinnock having, in 1624, given twenty-one dwelling-houſes, and a houſe for a maſter weaver to employ the poor, and a good eſtate is alſo ſettled for the repairs.

Great improvements have been made in the lands near this town, by turning them into kitchen-gardens, with the produce of which Graveſend not only ſupplies the neighbouring places for ſeveral miles round, but alſo ſends great quantities to the London markets, particularly of aſparagus, that of Graveſend being preferred to that of Batterſea. As all outward-bound ſhips are obliged to anchor in this road till they have been viſited by the cuſtom-houſe officers, and as they generally ſtay here to take in proviſions, the town is full of ſeamen, and in a conſtant hurry.

Woolwich, a town ſituated on the Thames, nine miles to the eaſt of London, is famous for its fine docks and yards, where men of war are built, as alſo for its vaſt magazines of great guns, mortars, bombs, cannon-balls, powder, and other warlike ſtores. The docks are encompaſſed with a high wall, and there is a long rope-walk, where the largeſt cables are made for the men of war. On the lower part of the town is the warren, where between ſeven and eight thouſand pieces of ordnance have been laid up at one time for ſhips and batteries; beſides innumerable mortars and bomb-ſhells. Here is alſo the houſe where the fire-men and engineers prepare their fire-works, charge bombs, carcaſſes, and grenades for the public ſervice. The town has been of late years much beautified and enlarged with fine docks, rope-yards, and ſpacious magazines. It has an academy where the mathematics are taught, and young officers inſtructed in the art of navigation. The pariſh-church has been rebuilt in a handſome manner, as one of the fifty new churches erected in purſuance of the bounty of queen Anne for that purpoſe.

Greenwich, a very pleaſant town, is ſituated on the Thames, five miles from London, and has been the birth-place of ſeveral of our monarchs, particularly queen Mary and queen Elizabeth, and here king Edward VI. died. Their palace was firſt erected by Humphrey duke of Glouceſter, who named it Placentia: this palace was enlarged by Henry VII. and completed by Henry VIII. but was afterwards pulled down by king Charles II. who began another, a moſt magnificent edifice, and lived to ſee the firſt wing of it finiſhed. Of this palace

we ſhall ſoon give a particular deſcription in treating of the hoſpital, of which it is a part. The ſame prince alſo enlarged the park, walled it round, planted it, and cauſed a royal obſervatory to be erected on the top of a ſteep hill. This ſtructure was erected for the uſe of the celebrated Mr. Flamſtead, and it ſtill retains the name of that great aſtronomer. King Charles alſo furniſhed it with mathematical inſtruments for aſtronomical obſervations, and a deep dry well for obſerving the ſtars in the day-time. That which is at preſent called the palace, is an edifice of no great extent, and is now converted into apartments for the governor of the royal hoſpital, and the ranger of the park. The park is well ſtocked with deer, and affords a noble and delightful view of the fine hoſpital, the river Thames, and the city of London.

Greenwich is ſaid to contain one thouſand three hundred and fifty houſes, and its pariſh church, which was rebuilt by the commiſſioners for erecting the fifty new churches, is a very handſome ſtructure dedicated to St. Alphage: at the end of the town is a college fronting the Thames, for the maintenance of twenty decayed houſe-keepers, twelve out of Greenwich, and eight who are to be alternately choſen from Snottiſham and Caſtle-Riſing in Norfolk. It is called the duke of Norfolk's college, though founded and endowed by Henry earl of Northampton, the duke of Norfolk's brother, and by him committed to the care of the Mercers company. The penſioners, beſides meat, drink, and lodging, are allowed eighteen-pence a week, with a gown every year, linen every two year, and hats once in four. Here is alſo an hoſpital called queen Elizabeth's college, which was built and founded by Mr. Lambard; and in this pariſh are two charity ſchools, one founded by Sir William Boreman, knt. for twenty boys, who are clothed, boarded, and taught; they wear green coats and caps; and the other by Mr. John Roan, who left his eſtate for teaching alſo twenty boys reading, writing, and arithmetic, and allowed two pounds per annum for each of the boy's cloaths. Theſe wear grey coats.

The firſt wing of the noble and ſuperb edifice called Greenwich hoſpital was, as hath been obſerved, erected by king Charles II. for a palace, and indeed the whole can ſcarcely be taken for any thing leſs than the palace of a great monarch. King William III. however, being very deſirous of promoting the trade, navigation, and naval ſtrength of this kingdom, by inviting great numbers of his ſubjects to betake themſelves to the ſea, gave this noble ſtructure, and ſeveral others, with a conſiderable ſpot of ground, for the uſe of thoſe Engliſh ſeamen and their children, who by age, wounds, or other accidents, ſhould be diſabled for farther ſervice at ſea, and for the widows and children of ſuch as were ſlain in fighting at ſea againſt the enemies of their country. The ſame prince alſo appointed commiſſioners for carrying on his noble views, and deſired the aſſiſtance of his good ſubjects to enable him to carry them on. In conformity to this requeſt, many benefactions were made to this noble charity, which, according to the tables hung up at the entrance of the hall, amount to fifty-eight thouſand two hundred and nine pounds, and afterwards the eſtates of the earl of Derwentwater, who bore a principal part in the rebellion in 1715, amounting to ſix thouſand pound per annum, were given by parliament to this hoſpital. The firſt range had coſt king Charles II. thirty-ſix thouſand pounds, and another was ordered to be built on the ſame model oppoſite to it: this has been completed with equal magnificence.

The front facing the Thames conſiſts of theſe two ranges of ſtone buildings, with the governor's houſe in the back part in the center, behind which the park, well planted with trees, riſes with a noble aſcent. Theſe buildings, between which is a large area, perfectly correſpond with each other, and each range is terminated by a very noble dome. In each front to the Thames two ranges of coupled Corinthian columns finely wrought, ſupport their pediments, and the ſame order is continued in pilaſters along the building. In the center of each part between theſe ranges of columns is the door, which is of the Doric order, and adorned above with a tablet and pediment. Within the height of theſe lofty columns are two ſeries of windows enlightning two floors. The undermoſt, which are the ſmalleſt, have ruſtic caſes, crowned with pediments; while the upper ſeries, which are larger and more lofty, are adorned with the orders, and with upright pointed pediments. Over theſe is an Attic ſtory; for the entablature of the Corinthian columns and pilaſters ſupports a regular Attic courſe, in which the windows are regularly diſpoſed, and the top is crowned with a handſome baluſtrade. The buildings continued from theſe, and facing the area, correſpond with them, though in a finer and more elegant manner. In the center of both is a range of columns ſupporting a pediment, and at each corner a range of Corinthian pilaſters, the front is ruſticated, and there are two ſeries of windows. The domes at the end, which are one hundred and twenty feet high, are ſupported on coupled columns, as are the porticos below, and under one of theſe is the chapel, which is adorned on the inſide with the greateſt elegance and beauty. In the center of the area is a ſtatue of his late majeſty fixed on a pedeſtal; and on the ſides of the gate which opens to theſe buildings from the park, are placed a large celeſtial and terreſtrial globe, in which the ſtars are gilt.

The hall of this hoſpital is finely painted by Sir James Thornhill, particularly the cieling and upper end; on the latter are repreſented in an alcove, the late princeſs Sophia, king George I. king George II. queen Caroline, the queen dowager of Pruſſia, Frederic prince of Wales, the duke of Cumberland, and the five daughters of his late majeſty. On the cieling of the alcove are king William and queen Mary, with ſeveral fine emblematical figures. All ſtrangers who ſee this fine hall pay twopence each, and this income is applied to the ſupport of the mathematical ſchool for the ſons of ſailors.

For the better ſupport of this hoſpital, every ſeaman, both in the royal navy and in the merchants ſervice, pays ſix-pence per month, which is ſtopped out of the pay of all ſailors, and delivered in at the ſix-penny receiver's office on Tower-hill; whence any ſeaman who can produce an authentic certificate of his being diſabled by defending any ſhip belonging to his majeſty's Britiſh ſubjects, or in taking any ſhip from the enemy, has a right of being admitted into this hoſpital, and receive the ſame benefit from it, as if he had been in the king's immediate ſervice. There are at preſent near two thouſand old or diſabled ſeamen, and an hundred boys, the ſons of ſeamen, inſtructed in navigation, and bred up for the ſervice of the royal navy; but there are no out-penſioners as at Chelſea. Each of the mariners has a weekly allowance of ſeven loaves, weighing ſixteen ounces each, three pounds of beef, two of mutton; a pint of peaſe, twenty ounces of cheeſe, two ounces of butter, fourteen quarts of beer, and one ſhilling a week tobacco money; the tobacco money of the boatſwains is two ſhillings and ſix-pence a week each; that of their mates eighteen-pence, and that of other officers in proportion to their rank. Beſides which, each common penſioner receives once in two years a ſuit of blue clothes, a hat, three pair of ſtockings, two pair of ſhoes, five neck-cloths, three ſhirts, and two night caps. The hoſpital has about one hundred governors, compoſed of the nobility and great officers of ſtate.

Deptford, anciently called Weſt-Greenwich, is ſaid to have derived its name from its having a deep ford over the little river Ravenſborne, near its influx into the Thames, where it has now a bridge. It is a large and populous town four miles eaſt of London, and is divided into Upper and Lower Deptford, which together contain two churches, ſeveral meeting-houſes, and about one thouſand nine hundred dwelling houſes. It is moſtly remarkable for its noble dock, where moſt of the royal navy were formerly built and repaired, till it was found more conv[illegible] at to build the larger ſhips at Woolwich, Chatham, a[illegible] of Portſmouth; there is a greater depth of water: yet [illegible] yard is enlarged to more than double its former dim[illegible]ions, and a great number of men are conſtantly em[illegible]yed. It has a wet dock of two acres for ſhips, and [illegible]nother of an acre and an half; with vaſt quantiti[illegible] of timber and other ſtores, There are alſo extenſi[illegible] buildings, as ſtore-houſes and offices, beſides dwelling

dwelling houſes, for thoſe officers who are obliged to live upon the ſpot, in order to ſuperintend the works. It had a victualling houſe built in 1745, which in 1749 was burnt down, with great quantities of proviſions and naval ſtores. The royal yachts are generally kept here, and near the dock is the ſeat of Sir John Evelyn, called Say's Court, where Peter the Great, Czar of Muſcovy, reſided for ſome time, and in this yard completed his knowledge in the practical part of naval architecture.

In this town are two hoſpitals, one of which was incorporated by king Henry VIII. for the uſe of ſeamen, and is called Trinity-Houſe. This contains twenty-one houſes, and is ſeated near the church. The other, called Trinity Hoſpital, has thirty-eight houſes fronting the ſtreet. This is a very handſome edifice, and has large gardens belonging to it. Though this laſt is the fineſt ſtructure, yet the other has the preference on account of its antiquity; and as the brethren of the Trinity hold their corporation by that houſe, they are obliged at certain times to meet there for buſineſs. Both theſe houſes are for decayed pilots, or maſters of ſhips, or their widows, the men being allowed twenty ſhillings, and the women ſixteen ſhillings per month.

SECT. VIII.

Of the County of Suſſex; its Situation, Extent, Air, Soil, and face of the Country. Its produce, with a Deſcription of the little Bird called a Wheatear; its Rivers, and principal Towns, as Chicheſter, Lewes, and Arundel.

SUSSEX received its proper name from the Saxons; for this being the moſt ſouthern part of the iſland, they called it and Surry the kingdom of the South Saxons, whence this county has by abbreviation been called Suſſex. It is bounded on the north by Surry, on the north-eaſt and eaſt by Kent, on the ſouth by the Engliſh channel, and on the weſt by Hampſhire. It is about fifty-three miles in length, ſixteen in breadth, and one hundred and ſeventy-two in circumference.

The air in this county is very various: along the ſeaſhore it is thought agueiſh; but it has a much greater effect on ſtrangers than on the natives, who are generally very healthful. In the Weald, which is a rich deep ſoil, it is apt to be foggy, yet not unwholeſome; but upon the Downs the air is extremely ſweet and healthy. The ſoil is likewiſe various; that of the Downs, and from them to the ſea, is very fertile, both in corn and graſs, the latter feeding ſheep whoſe wool is remarkably fine; the middle of the county abounds with meadows and rich arable ground, and the north ſide is ſhaded with extenſive woods, that ſupply fuel for the iron works. This plentiful county therefore ſupplies numerous commodities, the chief of which are corn, malt, cattle, wool, wood, iron, chalk, glaſs, fiſh, and fowl. It is particularly famous for its wheatear, a ſmall delicious bird, of the ſize of a lark, not much inferior to an ortolane, and is taken on the ſouth-eaſt downs in the following manner: a turf is cut up about a foot long and half a foot broad; in the cavity is placed a ſnare of horſe hair, and the turf turned with the graſs downwards to cover the greateſt part of the hole. Theſe birds are naturally ſo timorous, that the ſhadow of a cloud, or any thing that moves on the ground, makes them fly into theſe little pits for ſhelter, where they are taken. The ſeaſon for them is when the wheat ripens; but they are ſo very fat that they cannot be carried many miles without being tainted, and even in plucking them great care muſt be taken to handle them as little as poſſible.

The chief manufactures of this county are great guns, and ſeveral ſorts of work made in caſt or wrought iron; the beſt gunpowder in the world is ſaid to be made at Battle.

This county has few ports on account of its rocky ſhore, and its ſhelves and ſand-banks, which the ſouth-weſt winds, ſo common upon our coaſt in the winter, are continually augmenting.

It is divided into ſix rapes, each of which has its particular caſtle, river, and foreſt, and is ſub-divided into ſixty-five hundreds, in which are computed one city, eighteen market-towns, one hundred and twenty-three vicarages, three hundred and twelve pariſhes, one thouſand and ſixty villages, hamlets, and chapelries, twenty one thouſand five hundred and thirty-ſeven houſes, and about one hundred twenty-nine thouſand ſouls.

The principal rivers are the Arun, the Adur, the Ouſe, and the Rother. The Arun riſes in St. Leonard's foreſt, not far from Horſham, in the north-edge of the county, and after running a little way to the weſtward, turns due ſouth, paſſing by Arundel, about three miles below which it falls into the ſea. This river has lately had a new outlet cut for it in order to improve its navigation, which carries barges above Pulborough, and ſhips of a hundred tons as high as Arundel. Here are caught the mullets ſo much eſteemed; they come from the ſea in the ſummer ſeaſon in vaſt ſhoals, and feeding upon a particular weed in this river, acquire that high luſcious taſte which renders them ſo great a dainty. The Adur, alſo called the Beeding, has likewiſe its ſource in St. Leonard's foreſt, forming its courſe on the ſame points of the compaſs as the Arun; but on its approaching the ſea, turns four or five miles to the eaſt, and then forms the harbour of New Shoreham. The Ouſe riſes from two branches, one of which has its ſpring in St. Leonard's foreſt, near the ſource of the Arun, the other in the foreſt of Worth, but they ſoon unite to the ſouthward by Lewes, and run to the ſea, forming the harbour called New-Haven. The Rother riſes near Rotherfield, and runs moſtly eaſtward; but about ſix miles to the north of Rye, makes an angle to the ſouthward, and falling into the ſea, forms Rye-Haven. From ſo many rivers one good harbour at leaſt might be expected for the largeſt ſhips; but none of them will admit of a veſſel of five hundred tons. The principal places in this county are the following:

Chicheſter, by the ancient Britons called Caercei, and by the Saxons Ciſſanceaſter, is ſeated in a plain on a little rivulet called Lavant, ſixty-three miles to the ſouth-weſt of London. It is a compact neat town, encompaſſed by a ſtone wall, the four gates anſwering to the four cardinal points, from whence the ſtreets have their names, and meet in the center of the city, where is the market-place, which affords a view of the four gates. The cathedral is adorned on one ſide with pictures of all the kings and queens from Ciſſa, the ſon of Ella, the firſt king of the South Saxons, to the preſent time; and on the other are placed the portraits of all the biſhops. The ſpire is deſervedly admired for its workmanſhip, and ſome years ago afforded a convincing proof of the ſkill of the architect; for a flaſh of lightning ſtriking upon it, about forty-five feet from the top, made a very large breach, by driving out the ſtones, and carrying ſeveral of them, which were even of a ton weight, to a conſiderable diſtance; but notwithſtanding this ſhock the ſpire ſtood firm, which ſaved the body of the church, and it is now well repaired. Beſides the cathedral there are ſeven ſmall churches, built with flint ſtone. What is now called the Friars, was formerly a convent of Franciſcans, but was originally a caſtle and ſeat belonging to the earls of Arundel. The ſtreets are generally pretty broad, the houſes uniform, and tolerably well built. Chicheſter is a city and county of itſelf, and the corporation conſiſts of a mayor, recorder, fourteen aldermen, ſix bailiffs, twenty-ſeven common-council men, and a portreve; four juſtices of the peace are choſen out of the aldermen, and the mayor is annually elected by ballot of the aldermen and common-council, who put up two perſons, and is attended by four ſerjeants at mace and a cryer. The market-place is adorned with a ſtately croſs, and on Saturdays furniſhed with plenty of all proviſions, eſpecially fiſh, and great quantities of corn. Every Wedneſday fortnight here is alſo one of the greateſt cattle markets in England. This city, as well as Southampton, gives title of earl to the duke of Cleveland, and has two charity ſchools, one for forty-two boys, and the other for twenty girls, who are taught and clothed. There are ſeveral houſes of the nobility near this city, which have a delightful proſpect of the ſea.

Lewes, a town ſaid to receive its name from the Saxon word Leſwa, or Paſture, is a place of great antiquity,

as appears from king Athelſtan's having appointed his royal mint to be kept here. It is pleaſantly ſituated, fifty miles to the ſouth of London, on the edge of the ſouth Downs, on one of the moſt delightful ſpots that England affords, and contains ſix pariſh churches, built with flint ſtone, and about ſix thouſand two hundred inhabitants. It is adorned with the ſeats of the Pelhams, the Gages, the Shellys, and other perſons of rank and fortune, whoſe gardens join to each other, though for the moſt part up and down hill. Near it are the remains of its ancient caſtle. The ſtreets are handſome, and it has two ſuburbs, the one called Southover, which is the largeſt, and the other on the eaſt ſide of the river called Cliff, from its lying under a chalky hill. A little river runs through the midſt of the town, bringing goods in boats and barges from a port at eight miles diſtance. On this river are ſeveral iron works, where cannon are founded for merchant ſhips. Public horſe races are run here almoſt every ſummer; but the road from hence to Tunbridge is ſo deep and dirty, that it is ſaid the ladies are ſometimes drawn to church in their coaches by ſix oxen. Lewes is governed by two conſtables; it ſends two members to parliament, and has a good market on Saturdays.

Here, in 1264, a bloody battle was fought between king Henry III. and his barons, when the latter entered and plundered the town.

From a windmill near the town is a proſpect of the ſea for thirty miles weſt, and an uninterrupted view of Banſted Downs, which is full forty miles. Between this town and the ſea is good winter game for a gun, and ſeveral gentlemen here keep packs of hounds; but the hills are ſo ſteep, that it is dangerous following them.

Arundel, a town eight miles to the eaſt of Chicheſter, and fifty-five ſouth-weſt-by-ſouth of London, ſeems to derive its name from the river Arun, on which it is ſeated, and from whence it is ſupplied with the excellent mullets already mentioned. It is pleaſantly ſituated on the ſide of a hill, and has a ſtately wooden bridge over the river, at a convenient diſtance from the ſea. It gives title of earl to the duke of Norfolk, and is governed by a mayor, twelve burgeſſes, a ſteward and other officers, and ſends two members to parliament. The ancient caſtle is ſeated on the river Tame, and is ſaid to be a mile in compaſs. The town has two ſtreets paved with ſtone, in which are about two hundred houſes alſo built of ſtone, and about 800 inhabitants.

Horſham is a town about three miles out of the main road to Arundel, and has its name from Horſa, brother to Hengiſt the Saxon, and is one of the largeſt towns in the county: it has ſent members to parliament ever ſince the thirtieth of king Edward I. and is the place where the county jail is held, and ſometimes the aſſizes. It has a handſome pariſh-church, and a free-ſchool well endowed. A great number of poultry are brought up to its weekly market on Saturdays, and bought up for London. Here is a quarry of very good ſtone fit for flooring.

Rye, a pretty populous ſea-port town ſeated on the ſide of a hill, ſixty-four miles to the ſouth-eaſt-by-ſouth of London, and has a delightful proſpect of the ſea. It was walled in the reign of Edward III. and was well fortified by William d'Ypres, earl of Kent; a tower called by his name is the priſon of the town. It has one of the largeſt pariſh-churches in England, and enjoys the ſame privileges as the other cinque-ports; but the port is ſo choaked up with ſand, that it hardly affords entrance for the ſmalleſt veſſels. The corporation conſiſts of a mayor and jurats, and ſends two members to parliament. It has a town-hall, and three ſtreets paved with ſtone. One ſide of the town is walled in, and the other guarded by the ſea. It has two gates, and is a place of conſiderable trade, particularly in hops, wool, timber, kettles, cannon, chimney-backs, &c. The houſes are pretty well built, tho' generally old faſhioned; but there are ſome very neat ones of the modern taſte. In the reign of king Richard II. the French landed and burnt this town; but the people of Rye ſoon fitted out ſome ſhips, and, in conjunction with thoſe from other ports, took ſeven of their veſſels richly laden.

Winchelſea was once a conſiderable town, built in the time of king Edward I. after a more ancient town of the ſame name, that ſtood at two or three miles diſtance, and had eighteen pariſhes, but was ſwallowed up by the ſea in a terrible tempeſt. New Winchelſea was never equal to the Old; it was encompaſſed with a rampart, and afterwards with a wall; but no ſooner began to flouriſh, than it was ſacked by the French and Spaniards, and being abandoned by the ſea, which retired a mile diſtant, ſuddenly fell to decay. Though the ſtreets are paved, the graſs which grows in them is ſome years let for four pounds, and little more at preſent remains than the ſkeleton of a very handſome town: the ſtreets ſtanding all at right angles, were divided into thirty-two ſquares, or quarters. Some of the ſtone-work of three gates is ſtill to be ſeen, though they are three miles aſunder over the fields, and in many places of the town are vaults arched with ſtone. Near the town are large marſhes, which the inhabitants are at great expence in defending from the encroachments of the ſea, by great banks of earth and walls. Here were formerly three pariſh-churches; but only the chancel of one of them is now ſtanding, which is more than large enough for the inhabitants. This borough is incorporated by the name of the mayor, jurats, and commonalty; and though there are only a few houſes remaining in the upper part of the town, it ſends two members to parliament, and gives the title of earl to the noble family of the Finches.

SECT. IX.

Of the County of Surry; its Name, Situation, Extent, Air, Soil, Produce, and Rivers; with a Deſcription of its principal Towns and Seats, and particularly of the Palace and Gardens of Richmond.

THIS county obtained its name from its ſituation on the ſouth ſide of the Thames, and is bounded on the eaſt by Kent; on the ſouth by Suſſex; on the weſt by Hampſhire and Berkſhire; and on the north by the river Thames, which divides it from Middleſex. The country, which is almoſt ſquare, is thirty-four miles in length, twenty-one in breadth, and a hundred and twelve in circumference, containing about thirty-five thouſand houſes, a hundred and forty pariſhes, eleven market-towns, including Southwark, thirty-five vicarages, four hundred and fifty villages and hamlets, and a hundred and ſeventy-one thouſand inhabitants.

It is a healthy pleaſant country, on which account there are many of the nobility and gentry who have their ſeats there. The ſoil is very different in the extreme parts from that in the middle, whence it has been compared to a coarſe cloth with a fine liſt: for the edge of the county on all ſides has a rich ſoil, extremely fruitful in corn and graſs, particularly in Holmeſdale, and on the north towards the Thames; but it is far otherwiſe in the heart of the country, where are wide tracts of ſandy ground and barren heath, and in ſome places are long ridges of hills, with warrens of rabbets and parks for deer. However, we meet here and there with ſome delightful ſpots interſperſed in the middle of Surry, and it is not to be doubted that a great deal of the waſte ground might, by proper management, be greatly improved. This country produces corn, box-wood, walnuts, hops, and fullers-earth; and near Darking grows a wild black cherry, of which a very pleaſant wine is made, little inferior to French claret. It has been obſerved of this part of Surry, that the natives are generally of a pale complexion, reſembling the people of Picardy in France; and that even the cattle are of a lighter colour than is uſual in other parts of England.

The rivers in this county, beſides the Thames, are the Molſey, the Wey, and the Wandle. The Molſey, or Mole, riſes in the ſouthern border of Surry, and forms a courſe moſtly ſouth-eaſt and ſouth, till it reaches the Thames at Molſey. It is remarkable of this river, that at the foot of Box-hill, near a village called Mickleham, it works its way under ground like a mole, riſing again at or near the town of Leatherhead, where its ſtreams are united, and form a pretty large river running under Leatherhead bridge; and thus purſues its courſe to the

Thames,

Thames, which it joins at Molſey, and from this circumſtance it obtained the name of the Mole. The Wey riſes in Hampſhire, and enters this county near Farnham, winding very much till it has paſſed Godalming, when it begins to run moſtly ſouthward. This river has been made navigable to Guilford, by which means all the neighbouring parts are plentifully ſupplied with commodities from London, particularly coals, which have been much wanted here. The Wandle is a ſmall clear ſtream famous for its trouts; it riſes near Carſhalton, and runs ſouthward to the Thames, into which it diſcharges itſelf at Wandſworth. The principal places in this county are the following:

Guilford, or Guildford, is a conſiderable market-town thirty miles to the ſouth-weſt of London, where the aſſizes are ſometimes held, and always the elections for members of parliament for the county, the town itſelf returning two. The river Wey being made navigable to this town, as hath already been obſerved, adds greatly to its trade; and a conſiderable quantity of timber being brought from the woody parts of Suſſex and Hampſhire to this town by land-carriage, is conveyed from thence by this river to London. It has three pariſh-churches: that which is called the Upper Church, by the fall of the ſteeple, had its roof beat in, on the twenty-third of April, 1740; the ſteeple had been repaired not long before; but a farther decay being diſcovered, the workmen had begun to take it down, but luckily for them it was a fair-day, and they had leave to divert themſelves that afternoon; the roof was ſtruck in with ſuch impetuoſity, that by the ſudden preſſure of the air all the glaſs-windows were blown out, as if it had been done by a blaſt of gun-powder. Here is a ſchool founded by Edward VI. and an alms-houſe by George Abbot, archbiſhop of Canterbury, for the maintenance of a maſter, twelve brethren, and eight ſiſters, who have each half a crown a week. There are here alſo two charity-ſchools for thirty boys, and twenty girls. Here are likewiſe the ruins of an old caſtle, and ſome of the remains of a palace of great extent, which appears by the beſt authorities to have been the reſidence of Ethelwald, one of the Saxon kings. Here were formerly two or three convents, one of which was not long ago the ſeat of Daniel Coſwell, Eſq; and had a delightful park adjoining to it. Here is a fine circular courſe for horſe-races, which begin when the Newmarket races are ended. Guilford had formerly a conſiderable manufacture of cloth, of which there are ſtill ſome remains. The great road from Chicheſter and Portſmouth lies through the town, which has always been famous for good inns, clean linen, and other excellent accommodations.

The road from hence to Farnham is very remarkable, it running along the ridge of a high chalky hill no wider than the road itſelf, and the declivity begins on either hand at the edge that bounds the highway, and is very ſteep and high. From this hill is a ſurpriſing proſpect to the north and north-weſt over Bagſhot-heath; to the ſouth-eaſt into Suſſex; and to the weſt it is ſo unbounded, that the view is only terminated by the horizon. On this hill, which is called St. Catharines, ſtands the gallows in ſuch a poſition, that the inhabitants of Guilford may, from the High-ſtreet, ſit at their ſhop-doors and ſee the criminals executed.

In the road from Guilford to Epſom, which is fifteen miles, you meet with a town almoſt at every two miles diſtance, in or near which is a handſome ſeat. The road is always good, it being a very hard gravel. On the right hand of the road lie the Downs, which have conſtantly a great number of ſheep feeding on them; and on the left the parks, gardens, and cultivated fields belonging to the ſeveral gentlemen who inhabit thoſe ſeats, all which render the road extremely agreeable.

Cobham is a ſmall town ſituated on the river Mole, ſix miles from Epſom, and eight to the ſouth-weſt of Kingſton, in the road from Guilford to London. Near this town are ſeveral fine ſeats, particularly one belonging to the lord Ligonier; and another the ſeat of Mr. Bridges, which is built in a ſingular taſte, ſomewhat after the manner of an Italian villa, though very plain on the outſide. The principal rooms are richly ornamented; the cielings are gilt; and the offices below are not only convenient, but contrived with great judgment, ſo as to anſwer the purpoſes for which they were deſigned. As the houſe is ſituated on an eminence, it commands a view of the adjacent fields, which are kept in good order. The river Mole paſſes along by the ſides of the gardens, and being made here four times broader than it was naturally, has a happy effect, eſpecially as the banks are diſpoſed into a ſlope, with a broad graſs walk planted on each ſide with ſweet ſhrubs. At one end of this walk is an elegant room, which is a delightful retreat in hot weather, it being ſhaded with large elms on the ſouth ſide, and having the water on the north and eaſt ſides, is extremely cool and pleaſant.

Darking, a town twelve miles to the eaſt of Guilford, and twenty-four to the ſouth-weſt of London, is famous for its meal-trade and its market for poultry, particularly for the fatteſt geeſe and largeſt capons, which are brought hither from as far as Horſham in Suſſex, it being the buſineſs of all the country on that ſide, for many miles, to breed and fatten them; and ſome are ſo large as to be little inferior to turkies. The town ſtands on a rock of ſoft ſandy ſtone, in which are dug convenient cellars. The great Roman highway called Stony-ſtreet paſſes through the church-yard, and is plainly traced two miles to the ſouth of Okeley, and appears to be made of flint and pebbles. This is a prodigious work, it being from ſeven to ten yards broad, and near a yard and a half deep, which is the more remarkable, as in ſome places there is not a flint ſtone to be ſeen within a great diſtance.

In the neighbourhood is a hill which affords a moſt enchanting proſpect, and is much reſorted to by the gentry from Epſom: it is called Box-hill from the abundence of trees, arbours, and labyrinths of box upon it, eſpecially to the ſouth, though on the north ſide it is almoſt covered with yew trees; it was firſt planted with box trees by that famous antiquary Thomas earl of Arundel.

About ſix miles from Box-hill and five miles to the ſouth of Darking, is Leith-hill, which projects about two miles beyond a range of hills that terminates the North Downs to the South. "When I ſaw, ſays a late writer, "from one of thoſe hills, at about two miles diſtance, that "ſide of Leith-hill which faces the Northern Downs, "it appeared the beautifulleſt proſpect I had ever ſeen; "but after we conquered the hill itſelf, I ſaw a ſight "that would tranſport a ſtoic: a ſight that looked like "inchantment and viſion. Beneath us lay open to our "view all the wilds of Surrey and Suſſex, and a great "part of that of Kent, admirably diverſified with woods "and fields of corn and paſture, being every where a-"dorned with ſtately rows of trees. This beautiful vale "is about thirty miles in breadth, and about ſixty in "length, and is terminated to the ſouth by the majeſtic "range of the ſouthern hills: and it is no eaſy matter to "decide, whether theſe hills, which appear at thirty, "forty, and fifty miles diſtance, appear more awful and "venerable, or the delicious vale between you and them "more inviting. About noon in a ſerene day you may, "at thirty miles diſtance, ſee the very water of the ſea "through a chaſm of the mountains. And that which "above all makes it a noble proſpect, is, that at the ſame "time you behold to the ſouth the moſt delightful rural "landſcape in the world; and by a little turn of your "head towards the north you look full over Box-hill, "and ſee the country beyond it; and between that "and London, and over the very ſtomacher of it, ſee "St. Paul's at twenty five miles diſtance, and London "beneath it, with Highgate and Hampſtead beyond it."

The vale beneath Box-hill is for many miles to the eaſt and weſt called Holmeſdale, which is now chiefly overgrown with furze; but was famous for producing ſuch quantities of ſtrawberries, that they were carried by horſe-loads to market.

Kingſton, alſo called Kingſton upon Thames, to diſtinguiſh it from ſeveral other towns of the ſame name, is thus called from its having been the reſidence of ſeveral of our Saxon kings, ſome of whom were crowned on a ſtage in the market-place. It is a populous and well-built town, and in the reigns of Edward II. and III. ſent members to parliament. It has a ſpacious church with eight bells, and in it are the pictures of the Saxon kings

who were crowned here, and alſo that of king John, who gave the inhabitants of this town their firſt charter. Here is alſo a wooden bridge of twenty-two arches over the Thames; a free ſchool erected and endowed by queen Elizabeth; an alms-houſe built in 1670 by alderman Clive for ſix men and as many women, and endowed with land to the value of eighty pounds a year; and a charity-ſchool for thirty boys, who are all cloathed. The ſummer aſſizes for this county are generally held here. Beſides the above bridge, is another of brick over a ſtream that flows from a ſpring, which riſes four miles above the town, and within the diſtance of a bow-ſhot from its ſource forms a brook, that turns two mills. On the top of a hill is a gallery that overlooks the town. A houſe in this town, called Kircomb's Place, was the ſeat of the famous earl of Warwick, ſtiled The Setter up and Puller down of Kings. Here is a good market for corn, and the town carries on a conſiderable trade.

Eſher, a village ſituated near Walton upon Thames, and affording a fine proſpect of Hampton-court and other parts of Middleſex, is famous for the noble ſeats in and near it, particularly Eſher-Place, which was the ſeat of the late Henry Pelham, Eſq; The houſe is a Gothic ſtructure of a browniſh red brick, with ſtone facings to the doors and windows. This houſe was originally one of thoſe built by cardinal Wolſey, but the late Mr Pelham rebuilt the whole, except the two towers in the body of the houſe, which are the ſame that belonged to the old building; and the whole is rebuilt in the ſame ſtile of architecture. There is a fine ſummer-houſe erected upon a hill on the left hand as you enter, which commands a view of the houſe, park, and country round, on both ſides the Thames, for many miles. The park, in which the houſe is ſituated, appears plain and unadorned; but in one part of it is a little wilderneſs laid out in walks, and planted with a variety of evergreen trees and plants, with a grotto in it, and ſeats in different places. The wood in the park is well diſpoſed, and conſiſts of fine oaks, elms, and other trees; and the whole country round appears finely ſhaded with woods.

Richmond, which ſtands twelve miles from London, is eſteemed the fineſt village in the Britiſh dominions, and hence has been termed the Freſcati of England. It was anciently the ſeat of our monarchs, and the palace, for its ſplendor, was called Shene, which in the Saxon tongue ſignifies reſplendent. Here king Edward III. died of grief for the loſs of his brave ſon Edward the Black Prince; and here died Anne the wife of Richard II. who firſt taught the Engliſh ladies the uſe of the ſide-ſaddle; for before her time they rode aſtride. Her dying here gave Richard ſuch a diſlike to the place, that he defaced it; but it was repaired and beautified by king Henry V. In 1497 this palace was deſtroyed by fire, when king Henry VII. was there; but in 1501 that prince cauſed it to be rebuilt, and commanded that the village ſhould from thence forward be called Richmond, from his having borne the title of earl of Richmond, before he obtained the crown. That prince died there, as did alſo his grand-daughter, queen Elizabeth.

The preſent palace, which is finely ſituated, is a plain edifice, erected by the duke of Ormond, who obtained a grant of a conſiderable ſpace of land about Richmond from king William III. as a reward for his military ſervices; but it devolved to the crown on that duke's attainder, in the beginning of the reign of king George I. His late majeſty took great delight here, and made ſeveral improvements in the palace; while queen Caroline amuſed herſelf at her royal dairy, Merlin's cave, the hermitage, and other improvements which ſhe made in the park and gardens of this delightful retreat. Though the palace is unſuitable to the dignity of a king of England, the gardens are extremely fine, without offering a violence to nature, and almoſt every thing here has an agreeable wildneſs, and a pleaſing irregularity, which affords a much higher and more laſting ſatisfaction than the ſtiff decorations of art, where the artiſt loſes ſight of nature, which alone ought to direct his hand.

On entering theſe rural walks you are conducted to the dairy, a neat but low brick building, to which there is an aſcent by a flight of ſteps, and in the front is a handſome pediment. The walls on the inſide are covered with ſtucco: the houſe is furniſhed ſuitably to a royal dairy, and the utenſils for the milk are of the moſt beautiful china. On paſſing by the ſide of a canal, and through a grove, the temple preſents itſelf to view, ſituated on a mount. It is a circular dome, crowned with a ball, and ſupported by Tuſcan columns, with a circular altar in the middle, and to it is an aſcent by very ſteep ſlopes.

Returning by the dairy, and croſſing the gravel walk which leads from the palace towards the river Thames, you come to a wood which you enter by a walk terminated by the queen's pavilion, a neat elegant ſtructure. In another part of the wood is the duke's ſummer-houſe, which has a lofty arched entrance. On leaving the wood you come to the ſummer-houſe on the terrace, a light ſmall building, with very large and lofty windows, to give a better view of the country, and particularly of the noble ſeat called Sion-houſe. In this edifice are two good pictures repreſenting the taking of Vigo by the duke of Ormond.

On paſſing through a labyrinth you ſee near a pond Merlin's cave, a thatched Gothic ſtructure, within which are the following figures in wax; Merlin, an ancient Britiſh enchanter; the learned queen Elizabeth, and a queen of the Amazons. Here is alſo a library, conſiſting of a choice collection of the works of modern authors, neatly bound in vellum. On leaving this ſtructure, which has an antique and venerable appearance, you come to a large oval five hundred feet in diameter, and turning from hence have a view of the hermitage, a groteſque building, which appears to have ſtood many hundred years, though it was built by order of her late majeſty. It has three arched doors, and the middle part, which projects forward, is adorned with a kind of ruinous angular pediment; the ſtones of the whole edifice appear as if rudely laid together, and the venerable look of the whole is improved by the thickneſs of the ſolemn grove behind, and the little turret on the top, with a bell, to which you may aſcend by a winding walk. The inſide is in the form of an octogon, in which are the buſts of the following great men, who by their writings were an honour not only to their country, but to human nature. The firſt on the right hand is the incomparable Sir Iſaac Newton, and next to him the juſtly celebrated Mr. Locke. The firſt on the left hand is Mr. Woolaſton, the author of The Religion of Nature diſplayed; next to him is the Rev. Dr. Samuel Clarke, and in a kind of alcove the honourable Mr. Robert Boyle.

Upon leaving this ſeat of contemplation, you paſs through fields clothed with graſs, corn fields, and a wild ground interſperſed with broom and furze, which afford excellent ſhelter for hares and pheaſants, and here there are great numbers of the latter very tame. From this pleaſing variety, in which nature appears in all her forms of cultivation and barren wildneſs, you come to an amphitheatre compoſed of young elms, through which you paſs to the foreſt walk, which extends about half a mile, and then paſſing through a ſmall wilderneſs you leave the gardens.

At the extremity of the garden on the north-eaſt, is another houſe that belonged to her late majeſty, and near it the houſe of his late royal highneſs Frederic prince of Wales, which is on the inſide adorned with ſtucco. Oppoſite the prince's houſe is the princeſs Amelia's, built by a Dutch architect, the outſide of which is painted. To the weſt of the gardens is ſeen the fine houſes of ſeveral of the nobility and gentry, particularly the lady Buckworth's, and Mr. Geoffrey's, and on the other ſide of the Thames appears Iſleworth.

To return to the village of Richmond. The green is extremely pleaſant, it being ſurrounded with lofty elms, and adorned on each ſide with the houſes of perſons of diſtinction. Among theſe is a handſome edifice that formerly belonged to Sir Charles Hedges, and ſince to Sir Matthew Decker, in the gardens of which is ſaid to be the longeſt and higheſt hedge of holly ever ſeen, with other hedges of evergreens, viſtas cut through woods, grottos, fountains, a fine canal, a decoy, ſummer-houſe, and ſtove-houſes, in which the anana or pine-apple, ſo often mentioned in our treating of Aſia, was firſt brought to maturity in this kingdom. On the north-eaſt ſide of the green is a fine houſe, which belonged to the late Mr.

Heydigger,

Heydigger, and a little beyond it that of the late duke of Cumberland, on paſſing which you come to a ſmall park belonging to his majeſty, well ſtocked with deer, and oppoſite to it is the entrance into the gardens. On the ſide of this green has alſo been erected a theatre, in which plays are acted during the ſummer ſeaſon.

The village runs up the hill to the New-Park, and with the royal gardens ſlopes towards the Thames. There is here an alms-houſe, built by Dr. Duppa, biſhop of Wincheſter, in the reign of king Charles II. in purſuance of a vow made by that prelate, during that prince's exile, for ten poor widows. There is another alms-houſe endowed with above 100l. a year, which, ſince its foundation, has been conſiderably encreaſed by John Mitchell, eſq. Here are alſo two charity ſchools, one for fifty boys, and the other for fifty girls.

On the aſcent of the hill are wells of a purging mineral water, frequented during the ſummer by a great deal of good company. On the top is a moſt extenſive and beautiful proſpect of the country, interſperſed with villages and incloſures; the Thames is ſeen running beneath, and the landſcape is improved by the many fine ſeats ſcattered along its banks.

New-Park is ſituated between Kingſton and Richmond, and was made in the reign of king Charles I. It is the largeſt of any within the environs of London, except that of Windſor, for it is ſaid to be eleven miles in compaſs, and encloſed with a brick wall. In this park is a ſmall hill caſt up, called king Henry's Mount, from which is a proſpect of ſix counties, with a diſtant view of the city of London and of Windſor caſtle. The new lodge, built by the late earl of Orford, is an elegant ſtructure built of ſtone, in a ſquare form, with wings on each ſide of brick. It ſtands on a riſing ground, and affords a good proſpect of the park, eſpecially of a fine piece of water that is in it. Though this park has little more than a wild variety of natural beauties, yet theſe are ſuch as cannot fail of pleaſing thoſe who are as much delighted with views in their rudeſt appearance, as in all the elegance of art and deſign.

Walton, a village ſituated on the Thames, eight miles to the weſt of Kingſton, and oppoſite to Shepperton in Middleſex. It is ſaid that the laſt mentioned county was joined to this town, till about three hundred years ago, when the old current of the Thames was changed by an inundation, and a church deſtroyed by the waves. There is here a curious bridge over the Thames, erected by that public-ſpirited gentleman Samuel Decker, eſq. and completed in the year one thouſand ſeven hundred and fifty. It conſiſts of only four ſtone piers, between which are three large arches of beams and joiſts of wood, ſtrongly bound together with mortiſes, iron pins, and cramps; under theſe three arches the water conſtantly runs; beſides which are five other arches of brick-work on each ſide, to render the aſcent and deſcent the more eaſy; but there is ſeldom water under any of them, except in great floods; and four on the Middleſex ſide are ſtopped up, they being on high ground, above the reach of the floods. The middle arch, when viewed from the river, affords an agreeable proſpect of the country, beautifully diverſified with wood and water, which is ſeen through it to a conſiderable diſtance. The prodigious compaſs of this great arch fills a perſon below with an uncommon ſenſation of awe and ſurpriſe; and his aſtoniſhment and attention are increaſed on his obſerving, that all the timbers are in a falling poſition, for there is not one upright piece to be diſcovered; and at the ſame time conſiders the very ſmall dimenſions of the piers by which the whole is ſupported. In paſſing over the bridge, when you have proceeded paſt the brick-work, the vacant interſtices between the timbers, yield at every ſtep a variety of proſpects, which at the center are ſeen to a ſtill greater advantage. But though each ſide is well ſecured with braces, and rails eight feet high, yet as it affords only a parapet of wide lattice-work, and the apertures ſeem large enough to admit the paſſage of any perſon to go through, provided he climbs or is lifted up, and as the water is ſeen through every opening at a great depth below, thoſe unuſed to ſuch views can hardly approach the ſide without ſome apprehenſions. Theſe openings are purpoſely left to admit a free paſſage for the air, in order to keep the timbers the more ſound, and that the leaſt decay may be the more eaſily perceived, and repaired.

Epſom, a handſome well built town, ſixteen miles from London, abounds with genteel houſes, which are principally the retreats of the merchants and citizens of London, and is a delightful place, open to Banſtead Downs. The town extends about a mile and a half in a ſemicircle, from the church to lord Guilford's fine ſeat at Durdan's; and as Mr. Whatley obſerves, there are ſo many fine fields, meadows, orchards, and gardens, that a ſtranger would be at a loſs to know, whether this was a town in a wood, or a wood in a town. Its mineral waters, which iſſue from a riſing ground nearer Aſhſted than Epſom, were diſcovered in 1618, and ſoon became very famous; but though they have not loſt their virtue, they are far from being in the ſame repute as formerly; however, the ſalt made of them is valued all over Europe. The hall, galleries, and other public apartments, are now run to decay, and there remains only one houſe on the ſpot, which is inhabited by a countryman and his wife, who carry the water in bottles to the adjacent places. Horſe-races are annually held on the neighbouring downs, and there are many fine ſeats in this neighbourhood, beſides Durdan's already mentioned, as the earl of Berkſhire's, lord Baltimore's, the lady Fielding's, &c.

Croydon, a pleaſant town on the edge of Banſtead Downs, ten miles to the ſouth of London, is pretty large, and inhabited by many citizens from London. Among the other buildings is the ancient palace of the archbiſhops of Canterbury, ſeveral of whom have been interred in the church, particularly archbiſhop Whitgift, who built and endowed an hoſpital for a warden and twenty-eight men and women, and a ſchool for ten boys, and as many girls, who are clothed and taught. This town has a great corn-market on Saturdays, chiefly for oats and oatmeal, for the ſervice of London.

Southwark, a borough of conſiderable extent, contains nine pariſhes, and ſends two members to parliament; but as it may rather be conſidered as a ſuburb to London, we ſhall therefore defer any farther deſcription of it till we come to that city.

Dulwich, a very pleaſant village in Surry, five miles from London, where is a ſpring of medicinal water. The fine walk oppoſite to the Green Man, through the woods, affords from the top of that houſe a very noble proſpect; but it is much exceeded by that from a hill behind the houſe, where under a tree, diſtinguiſhed by the name of The Oak of Honour, you have a view of the houſes, churches, and other edifices, from Chelſea to Putney, with all the adjacent villages, together with Weſtminſter, London, Deptford, Greenwich, and over the metropolis as far as Highgate and Hamſtead.

Dulwich is moſt famous for its college, founded and endowed in 1619, by Mr. William Alleyn, who named it The College of God's Gift. This gentleman being a comedian and principal actor in many of Shakeſpeare's plays, it is ſaid, he once perſonating the devil, was ſo frighted at his imagining that he ſaw a real devil on the ſtage, that he from that moment quitted the theatre, devoted the remainder of his life to religious exerciſes, and founded this college for a maſter and warden, who were always to be of the name of Alleyn, or Allen; with four fellows, three of whom were to be divines, and the fourth an organiſt; and for ſix poor men, as many poor women, and twelve poor boys, to be educated in the college by one of the fellows as ſchoolmaſter, and by another as uſher. To this college belongs a chapel, in which the founder himſelf, who was ſeveral years maſter, lies interred. The maſter of this college is lord of the manor for a conſiderable extent of ground, and enjoys all the luxurious affluence and eaſe of the prior of a monaſtery. Both he and the warden muſt be unmarried, and are for ever debarred the privilege of entering that ſtate, on pain of being excluded the college; but as the warden always ſucceeds upon the death of the maſter, great intereſt is conſtantly made by the unmarried men of the name of Allen, to obtain the poſt of warden.

The original edifice is in the old ſtyle of building;

but part of it has been lately rebuilt with greater elegance, out of what has been ſaved from the produce of the eſtate. The maſter's apartments are very richly adorned with noble old furniture, which he is obliged to purchaſe on his entering into that ſtation; and for his uſe there is a library, to which every maſter generally adds a number of books. The college is alſo accommodated with a very pleaſant garden, adorned with walks, and a great profuſion of fruit trees and flowers.

Lambeth, a village ſeated on the Thames, near the ſouth-end of Weſtminſter-bridge, is particularly famous for its containing for ſeveral ages, the palace of the archbiſhop of Canterbury. This ſtructure was firſt erected by Baldwin, archbiſhop of that ſee in 1188, and was rebuilt by archbiſhop Boniface in 1250; but ſeveral of the ſucceeding prelates have added additional buildings. Hence, as the preſent ſtructure has been erected at different periods, it is not at all ſurpriſing, that it has but little appearance of uniformity. However, the edifice, though old, is in moſt parts ſtrong; the corners are faced with ruſtic, and the top ſurrounded with battlements: the principal apartments are well proportioned, and well enlightened. As it is ſituated on the bank of the Thames, it affords a fine view up and down the river, and from the higher apartments, a proſpect of the country each way. This palace has a fine library, and a ſpacious garden abounding in fruit trees.

Vauxhall, a hamlet in the pariſh of Lambeth, is particularly famous for the beauty of the gardens, that have for many years been converted, during the ſpring and ſummer ſeaſons, into a place of genteel entertainment. In the midſt of the garden is a ſuperb orcheſtra, containing a fine organ and band of muſic, with ſome of the beſt voices, and the ſeats or boxes are diſpoſed to the beſt advantage with reſpect to hearing the muſic. In moſt of the boxes are paintings from the deſigns of Mr. Hayman; and in a large and ſuperb pavilion, are ſeveral paintings by the hand of that ingenious artiſt. The trees are ſcattered here with a pleaſing confuſion. At ſome diſtance are ſeveral noble viſtas, where the ſpaces between each are filled up with neat hedges, and on the inſide are planted flowers and ſweet ſmelling ſhrubs. Some of theſe viſtas terminate in a view of ruins; others in a proſpect of the adjacent country, and others are adorned with a painted repreſentation of triumphal arches. There are here ſeveral ſtatues, particularly a good one in marble by Mr. Roubiliac, of the late Mr. Handel, in the character of Orpheus, playing on a lyre. When it grows dark, the garden is inſtantly illuminated with about fifteen hundred glaſs lamps, which glitter among the trees, and render it extremely light and brilliant. Soon after a very extraordinary piece of machinery is exhibited on the inſide of one of the hedges, near the entrance into a viſta; by removing a curtain is ſhewn a fine landſcape, illuminated by concealed lights, in which the principal objects that ſtrike the eye are a caſcade and a miller's houſe. The exact appearance of water is ſeen flowing down a declivity, and turning the wheel of a mill; it riſes up in foam at the bottom, and then glides away. This moving picture attended with the noiſe of the water, has at once a ſurpriſing and pleaſing effect; but the author of London and its Environs, a very uſeful and entertaining work, juſtly obſerves, that "here people being obliged to wait till the curtain is "drawn, and after beholding it for a few minutes, having it again ſuddenly concealed from the view, "when the exhibition is ended for that night, has too "much the air of a raree-ſhew. He adds, that if it "could be contrived to make its appearance gradually "with the riſing of the moon in the ſame picture, which "might ſeem to enlighten the proſpect, and at length "by degrees become obſcured by the paſſing of a cloud "before that luminary, the effect would perhaps be "much more agreeable."

Farnham, a large populous market town, ſeated on the river Wye, on the eaſtern extremity of Surry, and forty-one miles to the weſt-ſouth-weſt of London, was once the greateſt corn-market in England, except Hempſtead and London, particularly for wheat, of which vaſt quantities uſed to be brought here every market-day; but though its corn-market is dwindled, its plantation of hops are ſo much improved, that its trade in that article is ſuperior to that of Canterbury, Maidſtone, and many of the places in Kent; and the hops here being of ſuperior goodneſs, yield a better price than any other in England: indeed all the country about Farnham may be conſidered as one general hop-ground. At this town is a caſtle built by a biſhop of Wincheſter, which is ſaid to have been poſſeſſed in a conſtant ſucceſſion by the biſhops of that dioceſe, ever ſince the reign of king Stephen. This palace is a magnificent ſtructure in the Gothic taſte, deeply moated, and ſtrongly walled in, with towers at proper diſtances. It ſtands upon the edge of a hill, and has a fine park ſtocked with about ſeven hundred head of deer, the property of the biſhop, who has them ſent, together with fruit from the gardens, to ſupply his table at Chelſea. One large and broad ſtreet of the town at the bottom of the hill, fronts the caſtle, in which is an elegant muſic room. The reſt of the town principally conſiſts of a long ſtrait ſtreet, which croſſes it at right angles.

About two miles from Farnham, is More-Park, formerly the ſeat of Sir William Temple, who in his laſt will ordered his heart to be put into a china baſon, and buried under a ſun-dial in the garden, which was accordingly performed. This houſe is ſituated in a valley, ſurrounded on every ſide with hills, and having a running ſtream through the gardens. Going from this ſeat on the left-hand under a high cliff, is a famous natural grotto, which they call Mother Ludloe's Hole, through which runs a ſtrong rill of water. The grotto is large; but diminiſhes and winds away as the ſpring ſeems to have directed. The owner has paved the bottom with a kind of Moſaic tile, and has ſeparated the wider part from the narrower behind, by a little parapet, through which iſſues the ſtream of water, which glides through marble troughs one below another, till it is conveyed out of the grotto, and there murmuring down a conſiderable declivity over many artificial ſteps, falls into the river on the right-hand. From this grotto you command a fine proſpect of the meadows and woods, which lie below and over againſt it, and theſe are again bounded by hills, which render the whole one of the moſt romantic ſituations imaginable.

SECT. X.

Of Hampſhire or Hants; its Situation, Extent, Diviſions, Climate, Produce, Rivers, and principal Places.

THIS county, though called Hampſhire, or Hants, is properly the county of Southampton, and is bounded on the eaſt by Surry and Suſſex, on the ſouth by the Britiſh channel, on the weſt by Wiltſhire and Dorſetſhire, and on the north by Berkſhire. It extends ſixty-four miles in length from north to ſouth, thirty-ſix from eaſt to weſt, and is about one hundred and fifty miles in circumference. It is divided into thirty-nine hundreds, and contains nine foreſts, twenty-nine parks, one city, eighteen market-towns, 253 pariſhes, above thirty-ſix thouſand houſes, and by the moſt modeſt computation a hundred and eighty thouſand inhabitants, who elect twenty ſix members of parliament, two for the county, two for the city of Wincheſter, and two for each of the following towns, Southampton, Portſmouth, Petersfield, Yarmouth, Newport, Stockbridge, Andover, Whitchurch, Lymington, Chriſtchurch, and Newtown.

The air is mild and wholeſome; but a ſmall part, which conſiſts of the low grounds next the ſea, is ſubject to the ſea vapours; but without the bad effects uſually experienced in other countries. The ſoil is generally rich, and the county affords plenty of corn, cattle, wool, bacon, wood, iron, and honey. The ſheep are remarkably good, but ſmall, and valued both for their fleſh and wool. The bacon of this county is eſteemed the beſt in England, and its honey, except that gathered on the heaths, bears a high price; and of this the inhabitants make moſt excellent mead and metheglin. The excellency of the Hampſhire bacon is attributed to the ſwine being ſupplied with plenty of acorns from the New Foreſt and other woods, in which they are ſuffered to run at large. The ſea coaſt here furniſhes oyſters, lobſters, and

other

other ſea-fiſh, and its rivers abound in freſh fiſh, eſpecially trouts. There is no county in England ſo well wooded as this; and though the vaſt conſumption of timber at Portſmouth, Southampton, Redbridge, and other places, ſince the Revolution, in building men of war and ſmaller veſſels, has conſumed great quantities, yet there is no want of timber, a great deal being ſtill left growing; and in New Foreſt there are oaks of ſeveral hundred years growth.

The rivers of this county are the Avon, which enters it at Charford, and running ſouthward diſcharges itſelf into the ſea below Chriſtchurch: the Teſe, which riſes in the northern part of Hampſhire, and running alſo ſouthward forms ſeveral iſlands at Stokebridge, and falls into an arm of the ſea called Southampton-water: the other rivers are the Stowre, and the Itching.

The gentry here delight much in fox-hunting, the woods and downs being proper for breeding and hunting theſe animals; and the beſt fox-hounds are ſaid to be bred in this county. Kerſeys and cloth are made here, though not in ſuch plenty as in the neighbouring counties of Wiltſhire, Somerſetſhire, and Glouceſterſhire; yet enough is made not only for home conſumption, but to ſpare ſome for exportation. The convenient ports and harbours in this county have brought a good foreign trade to it. The principal places in it are the following:

Wincheſter, or Winton, a very ancient city, called by the Britons Caer-Gwent, which ſignifies the White Town, from the chalky hills near it; and by the Saxons Wintanceſter. It is pleaſantly ſituated in a valley between hills on the river Itching, ſixty-ſeven miles to the weſt-by-north of London. This city at a diſtance has a venerable appearance, and yet has many modern buildings, ſome of them very handſome ſtructures, as the college-ſchools, with the epiſcopal palace, built by biſhop Morley. It has one ſpacious ſtreet; but the reſt are moſtly narrow, and the walls greatly decayed. The town-hall is built like an old chapel, ſupported by pillars, and in it are two ailes. Over the court of Niſi Prius, above the judge's ſeat, is fixed againſt the wall the pretended round table of king Arthur, with the names of the knights upon it, in ſuch Saxon characters as no man can read. This is ſaid to be a piece of antiquity of twelve hundred years ſtanding; but Camden, and other authors, imagine it to be of a much later date. In former times there were in this city no leſs than thirty-two pariſh-churches, which are at preſent reduced to five, excluſive of the cathedral; and even theſe are more than are wanted. This laſt church is very plain on the outſide, there not being, except one at the weſt end, either a ſtatue, or a niche for a ſtatue, to be ſeen on the outſide. The tower is carried up but a very little height above the roof, and has no proper finiſhing, but is covered in, as if the building had been left off, which was probably the caſe, it being ſtrong enough to ſupport a very high ſpire. On entering at the weſt door, the church makes a venerable and majeſtic appearance; the vaulting of the roof is beautiful; but the pillars on each ſide are much too thick for the ſpaces of the arches. The entrance into the choir is by a noble flight of ſteps the whole breadth of the middle aile; and the ſcreen, which was deſigned by Inigo Jones, is a fine piece of architecture of the Compoſite order. But his thus joining the Roman to the Gothic ſtile is certainly a ſoleciſm in architecture. The ſtalls in the choir are of fine Gothic workmanſhip, to which the biſhop's throne, erected at the expence of biſhop Mew, would have been a great additional ornament, had it been Gothic and of a piece with the reſt. The ſtone ſcreen, where the high altar is placed, is a fine piece of Gothic work; but the angles of the niches, where formerly were images, being chipped away in order to make room for a number of urns, diſgrace this fine piece.

Within this cathedral are many things worthy of obſervation. It was for ſome ages the burying-place of the Saxon, Norman, and Engliſh kings: the relics of ſome of theſe were collected by biſhop Fox, and being put together into ſix large wooden cheſts, lined with lead, were placed on the great wall in the choir, three on one ſide, and three on the other, with an account whoſe bones are in each cheſt, namely, thoſe of Egbert, Adulphus, Edredus, Edmundus, Canutus, and queen Emma. The tomb-ſtone of William Rufus is in the midſt of the choir, and his bones in a wooden cheſt that ſtands on the top of the ſeptum, which parts the choir and the ſide ailes. The tomb of William of Wickham, who built this cathedral, is very ſpacious, lofty, and magnificent; as is alſo the tomb of cardinal Beaufort, brother to king Henry IV. with ſeveral others.

In the ſouth ſuburb ſtands the college, erected by William of Wickham, which is a noble foundation. The building conſiſts of two large courts, in which are lodgings for the maſters and ſeventy ſcholars, and in the center is a very elegant chapel. In the ſecond court are the ſchools, with a large cloiſter beyond them, and ſome incloſures laid open for the diverſion of the ſcholars. There is alſo a great hall, where the ſcholars dine, and in the middle of the cloiſters is a library, which is a ſtrong ſtone building, well contrived to prevent fire. The ſcholars, after ſtaying here a certain time, may remove to New College, Oxford, which was built by the ſame prelate. Not far from hence is St. Croſſes, an hoſpital for thirteen brothers, with a daily allowance of bread and beer for poor travellers. There is here an infirmary for the reception of ſick and lame, which is a very handſome modern ſtructure, built of red brick, and ſupported by voluntary ſubſcription.

In the place where the antient caſtle ſtood, which was at the ſouth ſide of the weſt gate, upon an eminence commanding the town, king Charles II. began a ſtately palace, upon which he had expended twenty-five thouſand pounds, when his death put a ſtop to the deſign. The ſouth ſide extends two hundred and ſixteen feet, and the weſt three hundred and twenty-ſix; and this ſtructure was ſo far proſecuted, that it was carried up to the roof, and covered. The principal floor of this edifice is a noble range of apartments twenty feet high, and the whole building contains no leſs than a hundred and ſixty rooms. His late majeſty king George I. made a preſent to the duke of Bolton of the fine columns of Italian marble, which were to have ſupported the grand ſtair-caſe, and were ſaid to have been a preſent from the great duke of Tuſcany. This ſtructure was fitted up for the French priſoners taken during the late war.

Wincheſter is about a mile and a half within the walls; but it has no trade, except what is naturally occaſioned by the inhabitants of the city and the neighbouring villages one with another. Here is a great deal of good company, and the many gentry in the neighbourhood add to the ſociableneſs of the place: the clergy are alſo generally very rich and numerous.

The city is governed by a mayor, a recorder, ſeveral aldermen, ſix of whom are always juſtices, with a ſheriff, two bailiffs, and four conſtables. On St. Giles's-hill, near this city, is held, on the 12th of September, one of the greateſt fairs in England for horſes, cheeſe, and leather; and another on Magdalen-hill, Auguſt the ſecond, for the ſame.

Southampton, the county town, is ſituated ſeventy-eight miles to the weſt-ſouth-weſt of London, between two rivers, the Itching on the eaſt, and the Teſe, or Anton, on the weſt, which falls into an arm of the ſea called the Southampton-water, that is very deep, ſo that ſhips of five hundred tons have been built in it. The town has quays for the loading and unloading of merchandize, which renders it a place of good trade, and it is well inhabited by merchants and ſhop-keepers. It is ſurrounded with ſtrong walls and a double ditch, with ſeven gates, and ſeveral watch-towers: it had alſo a ſtrong caſtle to defend the harbour, placed on a high mount; but it is now in ruins. The walls of this old caſtle conſiſted of little white ſtones like the honey-comb on the back of oyſter-ſhells, extremely hard, and gathered from the beach of the ſea, which encompaſſes near half the town. At the ſouth-eaſt corner near the quay is a fort called the Tower, defended by ſome guns. Here is ſaid to be one of the broadeſt ſtreets in England, three quarters of a mile long, well paved and flagged on each ſide, terminating in the fine quay. It contains five pariſh-churches, with one for the French refugees; and an hoſpital called God's-houſe; alſo a free-ſchool founded by king Edward VI. and a charity-ſchool ſupported by ſubſcription for thirty boys, who are cloathed and

taught reading, writing, arithmetic, &c. In the town are four public conduits, to which water is conveyed from the neighbourhood by leaden pipes. Formerly all the Canary brought into the kingdom was obliged to be firſt landed here, till the London merchants, finding this an inconvenience, purchaſed that privilege of the corporation, and had their wines afterwards brought directly to London. Some merchants trade in Port and French wines; but their greateſt dealings are with Jerſey and Guernſey, and to Newfoundland for fiſh. The town is governed by a mayor, and the aſſizes are uſually kept in the town-hall. This place is memorable for the expedient taken by king Canute to ſilence the flattery of his courtiers: for this purpoſe he ſeated himſelf on the bank of the river, dreſſed in all his regal ornaments, and commanded the tide not to approach his footſtool; but it ſoon wetting his feet, he cenſured their impiety and ſervility in ridiculouſly pretending that his power was boundleſs.

About a mile from the town, on the bank of the Itching, is a vaſt pile of earth riſing in the form of a cone from a wide foundation, and called Bevis Mount. This is ſuppoſed to have been an ancient fortification thrown up by the Saxons under the command of Bevis, a Saxon lord, to oppoſe the paſſage of the Danes over the river, who lay encamped on the other ſide. The river is not very large, but the tide forms a kind of bay juſt under the mount, which being contiguous to an eſtate belonging to the late earl of Peterborough, his lordſhip purchaſed it, and converted it into a kind of wilderneſs; and, as it was full of trees and brambles, cut through them ſeveral circular intricate walks and labyrinths. The mount terminates above like Parnaſſus in a kind of fork, and between the two peaks is a bowling-green, or paſture, adorned with fine Italian marble ſtatues. On one ſide of this parterre, declining from the top of one of the peaks to the green, is planted a little vineyard expoſed to the ſouth; and on the very ſummit of the other ſtands a ſummer-houſe elegantly built, with a good cellar under it. There are as many things here fabled of Bevis, as there are in Wales and Cornwall of king Arthur; but both of them have ſuffered much from legendary writers.

Portſmouth, a ſtrong ſea-port town, ſeventy-two miles to the ſouth-weſt of London, in the fiftieth degree forty-eight minutes north latitude, and in the firſt degree ſix minutes weſt longitude. It is the key of England on that ſide, and a regular fortification, at the entrance of a creek of Portſey iſland, which is about fourteen miles in circuit, and ſurrounded at high tides by the ſea-water, of which ſalt is here made: it is alſo joined to the continent by a draw-bridge, where was anciently a ſmall caſtle and town called Port Perus, or Port Cheſter, at which Veſpaſian landed: this town and caſtle ſtood at the upper end of the creek; but upon the retiring of the ſea, the inhabitants followed it, and this gave riſe to the building of the preſent town. Portſmouth is one of the principal places for building and laying up the royal navy, it being furniſhed with wet and dry docks, and vaſt magazines of naval and military ſtores: the rope-houſe in particular is one continued room eight hundred and ſeventy feet, or almoſt a quarter of a mile in length. The yard is defended by a good counterſcarp, double moat, with ravelins in the ditch, double paliſadoes, and works for covering the place where moſt acceſſible.

In Portſmouth haven a thouſand ſail of the largeſt ſhips may ride at anchor. The mouth, which is not much broader than the Thames at Weſtminſter-bridge, is ſecured on the Goſport ſide by Charles's fort, James's fort, Borough fort, and Block-houſe fort, which has a platform of twenty great guns level with the water; on the other ſide by Portſmouth ſtands South Sea caſtle, and a number of additional works have been lately raiſed, ſo as to render the place impregnable. The harbour is ſo ſecured from winds, that they cannot blow from any point of the compaſs to the detriment of the ſhips at anchor in it; and is ſo deep, that a firſt rate man of war can ride at the loweſt ebb without touching the ground; on the other hand, there is a boom, or chain, at its entrance, that in caſe of danger can be raiſed and faſtened immediately on both ſides, ſo as to ſtop any naval force; and if attacked by ſea the enemies ſhips muſt come directly under South Sea caſtle, and afterwards be expoſed to a long train of cannon from the town and the block-houſe, which muſt rake them fore and aft, for a mile together, before they reach the haven's mouth.

A capital convenience to the harbour of Portſmouth is the ſafe and ſpacious road of Spithead, which lies between the continent of Hampſhire and the Iſle of Wight, and is about twenty miles in length, and in ſome places no leſs than three in breadth. It is defended from all winds blowing from the weſt to the ſouth-eaſt by the high lands of the Iſle of Wight, and from the winds of the oppoſite quarter by the main land of Hampſhire, the town of Portſmouth fronting the middle of the road. The very ſands in its neighbourhood contribute to its ſafety; as for inſtance, the Spit lying to the north breaks the ſea on that ſide, as the Horſe's Bank does on the eaſt, and No Man's Land and the Mother Bank on the ſouth. As to the bottom, it is perfectly ſound and good, and the flux and reflux of the ſea repairs all the injuries done by the anchors. The limits of this road are alſo exactly diſtinguiſhed by buoys properly placed.

The town is ſtrong on the land-ſide, it being encompaſſed by a wall, and the many additional works that have been lately made. The men continually employed in the yard amount to at leaſt a thouſand, and their number is greatly increaſed in time of war. The docks and yards are, in ſhort, a kind of marine corporation within themſelves.

The ſituation of Portſmouth is low, and ſo full of water and ditches, as to be eſteemed aguiſh. The ſtreets are dirty, and have conſequently a diſagreeable ſmell; but the continual reſort of ſeamen and ſoldiers render it always full of people, eſpecially in time of war, when the inns and taverns are perpetually crowded; but the landlords bills are generally not the moſt moderate. The place is in want of freſh-water; and, though ſeated in a plentiful country, the great conſumption makes all ſorts of proviſions dear; as are alſo lodgings and fuel. Here is a garriſon and deputy-governor; the church is a large and handſome ſtructure, and from the watch-houſe on the top of the ſteeple is a fine proſpect of the harbour, as well as of Spithead, where ſhips ride before they come in, lying between Portſmouth and the Iſle of Wight. Here is a fine new quay for laying up cannon; and alſo a ſchool, founded by the government, for the inſtruction of youth in mathematics and navigation, to qualify them for the ſea-ſervice.

On the adjoining heath a ſuburb has been built, which, for number of inhabitants, and beauty of the houſes, is like to exceed the town itſelf. It has a church, a chapel, and ſeveral meeting-houſes.

The government of Portſmouth is by a mayor and aldermen, and the civil government is no more interrupted by the military than if there were no garriſon; ſo that there are ſeldom any complaints, either for want of diſcipline among the ſoldiers, or want of prudence in the magiſtrates.

It ought not to be omitted, that on the third of July, 1760, a dreadful fire broke out at twelve in the morning in the dock-yard, in a fine pile of building; in the lower part of which were pitch, tar, oil, and turpentine; in the upper, cables, ſails, and canvas: the next ſtore-houſe was the ſpinning-houſe, and above it hemp: the next, where the bell hung, was a long lane piled up with decayed ſtores: the next to that were the rope-makers laying walk and tarring-walk, over which were ſails, canvas, and ropes. The flames raged with ſuch fury, that all theſe buildings were deſtroyed. It rained very hard all that night, and it is thought the ſtores caught fire by the lightning, which was very terrible, the element appearing all on a blaze. In the ware-houſes that were conſumed were depoſited a thouſand and fifty tons of hemp, five hundred tons of cordage, and about ſeven hundred ſails, beſides many hundred barrels of tar and oil; yet with all this devaſtation, ſuch was the diligence exerted, and ſuch the quantity of ſtores at Chatham, and in other magazines, that the loſs was ſoon ſupplied without much affecting our public concerns, though in the midſt of a heavy, glorious, and expenſive war.

Goſport

Goſport is parted from Portſmouth by a narrow arm of the ſea, and is a pretty large town that has a good trade in time of war; and has lately been improved by an hoſpital and ſome ſtrong fortifications added to thoſe already mentioned.

Andover, a large borough, ſixty-two miles to the weſt-by-ſouth of London, is a great thorough-fare on the direct weſtern road, as well from Newbury to Saliſbury, as from London to Taunton, and all the manufacturing towns in Somerſetſhire, by which means it is greatly enriched. It is very healthy, and pleaſantly ſituated on the borders of the downs commonly called Saliſbury-plain, and is a thriving, handſome, well-built, and populous town. Here is an hoſpital for ſix men, and a free-ſchool.

Near this town is the village called Wey-hill, where the open down-country begins, and where is held the greateſt fair for ſheep in this nation, principally of ewes, for ſtore-ſheep; for the farmers of many of the neighbouring counties come here to buy: at the ſame time are ſold great quantities of leather, hops, and cheeſe. This fair is held on the tenth of October.

We ſhall now deſcribe the Iſle of Wight, which is generally included under Hampſhire. This iſland extends from eaſt to weſt, in ſomewhat of an oval form: it is twenty-one miles in length, twelve in the middle where broadeſt, and ſixty in circumference; but the ſea breaks in ſo far on the north ſide, as almoſt to divide it into two parts. The moſt eaſterly point of the iſland lies oppoſite to Portſmouth, and the moſt weſterly oppoſite the little borough of Chriſtchurch. It is encompaſſed with rocks, eſpecially towards France, of which the moſt noted are the Shingles and the Needles in the weſtern point. Theſe rocks render it in moſt places inacceſſible; and where the ſhore is almoſt level and lies expoſed, as it does towards the ſouth-eaſt, it is fortified by caſtles, forts, and block-houſes.

The air is very healthy, and the ſoil fruitful, it producing corn enough in one year to ſerve the inhabitants ſeven; and this enables them to export great quantities to England and elſewhere. There is every where plenty of hares, rabbets, partridges, pheaſants, lapwings, and variety of wild-fowl; it has two parks ſtocked with deer; but only one ſmall foreſt, ſo that the inhabitants are obliged to fetch their wood from the neighbouring coaſts. Through the middle of the iſland runs a long ridge of hills, which afford paſture for ſheep, whoſe wool being very fine, is in great repute among the clothiers. In the north part is very good paſturage and meadow ground. The ſouthern is in a manner all a corn country, incloſed with hedges and ditches. Here is found the beſt tobacco-pipe clay, and fine white ſand, of which drinking-glaſſes are made. The inhabitants have alſo abundance of fiſh from the ſea.

The natives are generally long lived, vigorous, and able to undergo much labour. The iſland contains four market-towns, of which three ſend members to parliament; four caſtles, fifty-two pariſhes, above three thouſand houſes, and near twenty-ſeven thouſand ſouls, of which it is ſaid five thouſand are fit to bear arms. The militia are ſo well diſciplined by their officers, that they are reckoned as good ſoldiers as any in the kingdom. They are divided into eleven bands, over each of which is a centurion, and the inferior officers are called vintons. There are ſeveral beacons in the iſland, at which continual watch is kept to give notice of the approach of an enemy.

The government of the iſland, which is a poſt of great truſt, is always lodged in a general of the army, an admiral of the fleet, or ſome other perſon of high rank; and under him are all the governors of the forts and caſtles in the iſland, where a regiment, and ſometimes more, are commonly kept in garriſon. In eccleſiaſtical affairs it is ſubject to the biſhop of Wincheſter, and in civil affairs to the county of Southampton. The parliamentary boroughs, which all lie on the north ſide of the iſland, are the following:

Newport, which is the principal town, and is ſeated in the middle of the iſland, eighty-five miles to the ſouth-weſt of London. It was formerly called Medena, and Meden, from whence the whole adjacent country, to the eaſt and weſt of the bay, is called Eaſt and Weſt Meden. It is a very ancient borough by preſcription, but did not ſend members to parliament till the reign of queen Elizabeth; and its charter, by which it is now governed, was granted by king James I. It has a mayor, twelve aldermen, a recorder, and twelve burgeſſes. The town is large and populous, yet its church is only a chapel of eaſe to Cariſbrooke. It is ſeated on the river Cowes, which falls into the ſea near the town and caſtle of Cowes. Veſſels of ſmall burthen come up to the quays, but the larger ſhips are unloaded, and the merchandize brought up hither in barges. The houſes are built of ſtone, the ſtreets are clean, and it has a charity-ſchool well endowed.

Yarmouth is ſeated upon a creek about a mile from its entrance, eight miles to the weſt of Newport, and is governed by a mayor, recorder, aldermen, bailiffs, and common-council. It is defended by a caſtle which has a garriſon, and the houſes, which are handſome, are generally built of ſtone.

Newtown, or Newton, is a little borough at the end of another ſmall creek on the ſame ſide of the iſland, and is governed by a mayor and burgeſſes; but though it has a convenient haven, it is the moſt inconſiderable of all the three boroughs.

The other places of moſt importance are two pretty towns, both named Cowes, one on the eaſt and the other on the weſt ſide of the river of the ſame name. Weſt Cowes is the moſt flouriſhing town in the iſland; it is ſituated in fifty degrees forty-two minutes latitude, and in one degree twenty-ſix minutes weſt longitude, and has a caſtle built by Henry VIII. Here maſters of ſhips, and merchants homeward or outward bound, are furniſhed with money for bills, and the ſhips ſupplied with ſtores of freſh proviſions. Several merchants live here, and have handſome houſes; but the town lying low is not eſteemed very healthy. The caſtle of Eaſt Cowes has been neglected; but in that of Weſt Cowes is conſtantly kept a garriſon, under the command of the deputy-governor of the iſland. This is a place of general rendezvous for merchant ſhips that wait for convoys.

In the Engliſh Channel are four other iſlands oppoſite this county and ſubject to England; theſe are Jerſey, Guernſey, Alderney, and Sark, which, though they lie much nearer to the coaſt of Normandy than to that of England, are within the dioceſe of Wincheſter. They lie in a cluſter in Mount St. Michael's bay, between Cape La Hogue in Normandy and Cape Frebelle in Brittany. The computed diſtance between Jerſey and Sark is four leagues, between that and Guernſey ſeven leagues, and between the ſame and Alderney nine leagues.

Jerſey, the largeſt of theſe iſlands, lies fartheſt within the bay, in forty-nine degrees ſeven minutes north latitude, and in the ſecond degree twenty-ſix minutes weſt longitude, eighteen miles to the weſt of Normandy, and eighty-four to the ſouth of Portland in Dorſetſhire, and in the time of the Romans was called Cæſarea. It is not above twelve miles in length, nor much above ſix where broadeſt, which is at the two extremities. It is defended by rocks and dangerous quickſands. On the north ſide the cliffs riſe forty or fifty fathoms high, which render it inacceſſible on that ſide; but on the ſouth the ſhore is almoſt level with the water. In the weſt part of the iſland is a large tract of land once cultivated and very fertile, but now a barren deſart, cauſed by the weſt winds throwing up ſand from the bottom to the top of the higheſt cliffs. The higher lands are diverſified by gritty, gravelly, ſtoney, and fine mold; the lower by a deep, rich, and heavy ſoil. The middle part of the iſland is ſomewhat mountainous, and ſo thick planted with trees, that at a diſtance it reſembles one entire foreſt, though in walking through it there is hardly a thicket or any thing to be ſeen but hedge-rows and orchards of apple-trees. The valleys under the hills are finely watered with brooks, and have plenty of cattle and ſmall ſheep, with very fine wool, and very ſweet meat, which is aſcribed to the ſhortneſs of the graſs. The horſes are good for draught; but few fit for the ſaddle. The iſland produces variety of trees, roots, and herbs; but not corn enough for the inhabitants, who therefore ſend for it to England and France, and ſometimes to Dantzic. The fields are in-

incloſed by great mounds of earth, raiſed from ſix to eight or ten feet high, proportionably thick and ſolid, planted with quickſets and trees.

There is no place in the world of the ſame extent that produces ſo much cyder, it being computed that in ſome years they have made twenty-four thouſand hogſheads, on which account, and from the cheapneſs of French wine and brandy, it is not worth their while to ſet up malting and brewing. Though the whole iſland is in a manner one entire rock, there is ſcarce a houſe, even on the higheſt hill, but has ſome ſpring near it.

Here are abundance of hares and rabbets; the country alſo abounds with ſea-fowl, and the common ſorts of land-fowl, both tame and wild, eſpecially barnacles, or Soland geeſe, which come only in very cold weather. The partridges of this iſland have red feet and eyes, like a pheaſant, and feathers of various colours. This is indeed a beautiful bird; but the fleſh is not more delicate than that of the grey partridges in England. They have alſo a great variety of ſea fiſh, ſome of which are ſeldom ſeen on our coaſts.

As the air of this iſland is very healthy, thoſe of the inhabitants who are temperate live to a great age; but the coaſt is very ſubject to ſtorms by weſterly winds, from which they have no land to ſhelter them nearer than North America; and there is a vaſt chain of rocks about the iſland, among which the tides and currents are ſo ſtrong and rapid, that the navigation is extremely dangerous to thoſe who are not perfectly acquainted with the coaſt.

The inhabitants, who are computed to amount to above twenty thouſand, have a mixture of Engliſh and French; but French is moſt generally the language both of the pulpit and the bar.

The buildings of this iſland are generally of rag-ſtone; but ſome of the wealthy inhabitants have their houſes fronted with a reddiſh white ſtone, capable of being poliſhed like marble, and of which there is a rich quarry on a hill called Montmado. Their churches and ſome of their edifices are covered with blue ſlate; but the ordinary dwellings are thatched.

The ſtaple manufacture is knit ſtockings and caps, many thouſand pair of which are weekly ſold at St. Helier to the merchants. Their principal foreign trade is to Newfoundland, whither, particularly in 1732, they ſent twenty-four ſhips; theſe proceed from thence to the Mediterranean to diſpoſe of their fiſh.

The chief officer is the governor, who has the cuſtody of his majeſty's caſtles, with the command of the garriſons and the militia of the country, which conſiſts of two troops of horſe-guards, and five regiments of foot, in which are included all the men in the iſland. The civil government is adminiſtered by a bailey, aſſiſted by twelve jurats. They have here alſo what they call an aſſembly of the ſtates, which reſembles in miniature the parliament of Great Britain.

The iſland is divided into twelve pariſhes, which are ſo laid out that each has a communication with the ſea; theſe are ſubdivided into fifty-two vintaines, ſo called from the number of twenty houſes, which each is ſuppoſed to have formerly contained, juſt as in England ten houſes anciently made a tything. The principal places in the iſland are,

St. Helier, the capital, is ſeated in the bay of St. Aubin, where it has an harbour and a ſtone pier. Its ſituation is both commodious and pleaſant, having the ſea on the ſouth-weſt, with a full proſpect of the road for ſhips, and hills on the north that ſhelter it from the cold; on the bottom of theſe hills are meadows refreſhed by a rivulet, that enters the ſtreets and the very houſes, ſo that the water is eaſily brought up by buckets let down through a trap-door, or by pumps. Another large hill projects in a manner over the town, and has an agreeable walk and an extenſive proſpect. The town conſiſts of above four hundred houſes, and the ſtreets are wide and well paved. The ſeat of juſtice ſtands in a large ſquare, with handſome ſtructures on each ſide. Its market, which is on Saturday, reſembles a fair, it being reſorted to by people from all parts of the iſland. The town is chiefly inhabited by ſhop-keepers, artificers, and retailers of liquor, it wanting ſcarce any thing that is either neceſſary or convenient. The corn-market is within a piazza, and the ſhambles in a ſpacious room. The number of the inhabitants is computed to amount to at leaſt two thouſand. In the church, prayers are read alternately in Engliſh and French.

St. Aubin is chiefly inhabited by merchants and maſters of ſhips, who ſettled here for the ſake of its port, which is the beſt and moſt frequented in the iſland; but is too much ſtraitened between hills and the ſea, on which account it is not half ſo large as St. Helier; but the houſes are as neat. Its market is rather an exchange for the merchants. Its pariſh-church, dedicated to St. Brelande, is at ſuch a diſtance, and there is ſuch a bleak hill to paſs over to it, that the better ſort of inhabitants have by contribution erected a handſome chapel in the town. There is a fort here with cannon planted on its baſtions, and a ſtrong pier has been run out into the ſea, which joining that fort, renders the harbour very ſafe, for no ſhips can paſs within the pier without permiſſion. Into this port a veſſel of a hundred and thirty tons may enter at half flood; but larger ſhips and men of war muſt keep without in the road, where is good anchorage.

Guernſey extends from eaſt to weſt in the form of a harp, and is thirteen miles and a half from the ſouth-weſt to north-eaſt, and twelve and a half, where broadeſt, from eaſt to weſt. The air is very healthful, and the ſoil naturally more rich and fertile than that of Jerſey; but the inhabitants neglect the the cultivation of the land, for the ſake of commerce: they are, however, ſufficiently ſupplied with corn and cattle, both for their own uſe, and that of their ſhips.

The iſland is well fortified by nature with a ridge of rocks, one of which abounds with emery, uſed by lapidaries in the poliſhing of ſtones, and by various other artificers. Here is a better harbour than any in Jerſey, which occaſions its being more reſorted to by merchants; and on the ſouth ſide the ſhore bends in the form of a creſcent, encloſing a bay capable of receiving very large ſhips. The iſland is famous for a beautiful flower called *lilium ſarnienſe*, the leaves of which are covered with ſpangles reſembling gold duſt. It is full of gardens and orchards, whence cyder is ſo plentiful, that the common people uſe it inſtead of ſmall-beer, and the more wealthy drink French wine.

The only harbour is at St. Peter le Port, a little market-town on the ſouth-eaſt ſide of the iſland, which has only one long and narrow ſtreet. The mouth of the harbour is well ſet with rocks, and on each ſide defended with a caſtle, one called the Old Caſtle, and the other Caſtle Cornet. This is generally the reſidence of the governor of the iſland, who has the command of the garriſon in this and all the other caſtles. The harbour has a good road, from whence ſhips may ſail with any wind, and from the road paſs under the guns of the caſtle to the pier, cloſe up to the town. This pier is a noble work formed of vaſt ſtones, joined together with great art and regularity: it is not only a ſecurity to the ſhips, but being contiguous to the town is handſomely paved at the top with large ſmooth flag-ſtones, guarded with parapets, and being of a great length and breadth, forms a pleaſant walk, it affording a free proſpect of the ſea and the neighbouring iſlands. Cornet caſtle, which commands both the town and the harbour, ſtands on a rock, is ſeparated from the land by an arm of the ſea, no leſs than ſix hundred yards wide, and not fordable but at low-water in great ſpring tides.

Alderney is about eight miles in compaſs, and is by much the neareſt of all theſe iſlands to Normandy, from which it is ſeparated by a narrow ſtreight called the Race of Alderney, which is a dangerous paſſage in ſtormy weather, when the two currents meet, otherwiſe it is ſafe, and has depth of water for the largeſt ſhips.

The iſland is healthy, and fruitful both in corn and paſture; but has only one church and one town, in which are about two hundred houſes, and a thouſand inhabitants. The iſland is a dependence of Guernſey, and has but one harbour to the ſouth, called Crabbie, which is at a conſiderable diſtance from the town, and capable of receiving only ſmall veſſels. From hence to the weſt is a range of rocks extending three leagues, which having ſeveral eddies are dreadful to mariners, who call them all by

by the name of the Caſquets, from the principal rock at the head of the reſt.

Sarke, or Serke, is another ſmall iſland dependant on Guernſey, and in the middle of all the reſt. The air is ſerene, and generally free from fogs and clouds; and though they have no phyſicians in the iſland, it is common to meet men of upwards of four-ſcore years of age. It contains ſix fine ſprings, and the ſoil, though for the moſt part hot and ſandy, is ſo fruitful as to afford all neceſſaries for its inhabitants, and particularly bears all kinds of roots, as turneps, carrots, &c. and is well ſtocked with apple-trees, of which is made excellent cyder: it alſo produces moſt kinds of grain; but not in any extraordinary quantity. Their paſture is ſhort, though exceeding ſweet, and therefore they have fine mutton; but no more cows than are ſufficient to ſupply them with milk and butter; for they have generally their cheeſe from England. The iſland alſo abounds in ducks, mallard, woodcocks, teal, and other wild fowl; and the cliff-pigeons, at ſome ſeaſons, almoſt cover the whole iſland. Of rabbets they have great plenty, and alſo of a variety of ſea-fiſh.

The trade here extends no farther than to Briſtol and ſome of the weſtern ports, and the chief if not the only manufacture in the iſland is knitting of ſtockings, gloves, and waiſtcoats, in which the men, women, and children are employed. Theſe they trade with to the ports of England, and return with neceſſaries; for which purpoſe they have ſeveral ſmall veſſels.

SECT. XI.

Of Berkſhire; its Situation, Extent, Diviſions, Air, Soil, Produce, Rivers, and principal Towns; with a particular Deſcription of Windſor Caſtle.

BERKSHIRE is bounded on the north by the Thames, which divides it from Buckinghamſhire and Oxfordſhire; on the eaſt by Middleſex and Surry; on the ſouth by Hampſhire; and on the weſt by Wiltſhire and Glouceſterſhire. It is thirty-nine miles in length, twenty-nine in breadth, and a hundred and twenty in circumference, containing about ſeventeen thouſand houſes, eighty-five thouſand inhabitants, ſixty-two vicarages, a hundred and forty pariſhes, ſix hundred and ſeventy-one villages, and twelve market-towns.

The whole county is divided into twenty hundreds, and ſends nine members to parliament, namely, two for the county, two for New Windſor, two for Reading, two for Wallingford, and one for Abingdon.

The air is generally exceeding healthy, the ſoil fertile enough, where cultivated, and the whole county, which is one of the moſt pleaſant in England, is well ſtocked with cattle and timber, particularly with oak and beech in the weſtern parts, and in Windſor foreſt, which alſo abounds with wild-fowl and other game. The weſtern part is the moſt fruitful, eſpecially what is called the Vale of White-horſe, ſo named from the bare ſide of a chalky hill, made to repreſent that animal, which, leſt it ſhould loſe its ſhape, the neighbouring inhabitants once a year take ſome pains in trimming, and then conclude the day with merriment.

The chief produce of the country is corn of all kinds, particularly barley, they having great crops in the above vale, of which they make conſiderable quantities of malt. The rivers Thames and Kennet, the one on the north and the other on the ſouth ſides of the county, ſupply it with fiſh, eſpecially fine large trouts and cray-fiſh. It is ſaid that land in this county bears a better price than in any other at the ſame diſtance from London. Its principal manufactures conſiſt of woollen cloth and ſail cloth.

The rivers of Berkſhire are the Iſis, which here falls into the Thames, and is of great ſervice in conveying its produce to London. The Kennet, which at Reading receives barges of a hundred and ten tons burthen, and is navigable as high as Newbury; and the Lamburn, which indeed is very ſmall, but, contrary to the other rivers of this iſland, is always higheſt in ſummer, and gradually decreaſes as the winter approaches, till at laſt it is entirely dry. The principal places in this county are the following:

Windſor, whoſe delightful ſituation on the winding ſhore of the Thames occaſions its name, is a well inhabited borough twenty-four miles to the weſt of London, ſeated on the ſouth bank of that river, in the midſt of delightful valleys. Its church is a ſpacious ancient building, which ſtands in the high ſtreet of the town, in which is alſo the town-houſe, a neat regular edifice ſupported with columns and arches of Portland ſtone, having at the north end a niche in which is the ſtatue of queen Anne, and on the ſouth the ſtatue of prince George of Denmark, her majeſty's conſort. In the area underneath the town-hall the market is kept every Saturday, and is plentifully ſupplied with corn, meat, fiſh, and all other proviſions.

Many gentlemen of fortune and family conſtantly reſide in the town and its neighbourhood. The duke of St. Alban's has a handſome large houſe on the eaſt part of the town, with pleaſant gardens that extend to the park; and at the ſouth ſide of the town is the houſe of Sir Edward Walpole, a neat regular ſtructure, with large gardens beautifully laid out and deſigned, where marſhal Belleiſle reſided while priſoner in England.

This town is moſt celebrated for its caſtle, the delightful palace of the Engliſh monarchs. It was firſt built for a hunting-ſeat by William the Conqueror, ſoon after his being eſtabliſhed on the throne. It was greatly improved by Henry I. who added many additional buildings. Our ſucceeding ſovereigns reſided in this ſtructure till king Edward III. employed William of Wickham, afterwards biſhop of Wincheſter, to rebuild the whole, which he accompliſhed, and encloſed it with a ſtrong wall. Great additions were, however, made to the caſtle by ſeveral of our monarchs, particularly by Edward IV. Henry VII. and VIII. Elizabeth, and Charles II. This laſt prince entirely repaired the caſtle, and as he kept his court there during the ſummer ſeaſon, he ſpared no expence in rendering it worthy the royal reſidence.

This venerable caſtle is divided into two courts, or wards, with a large round tower between them. The whole contains above twelve acres of ground, and has many towers and batteries for its defence. It is ſituated upon a high hill, which riſes by a gentle aſcent, and enjoys a moſt delightful proſpect: in the front is a wide and extenſive vale, adorned with meadows and corn-fields, with groves on each ſide, and the Thames winding through it; and behind are every where hills covered with woods, as if deſigned by nature for game and hunting. On the declivity of the hill is a fine terras faced with a rampart of free-ſtone eighteen hundred and ſeventy feet in length, which is one of the nobleſt walks in Europe, both with reſpect to its ſtrength, its grandeur, and the fine and extenſive proſpect over the Thames of the adjacent country on every ſide, where, from the variety of fine villas ſcattered about, nature and art ſeem to vie with each other in beauty. From this terras you enter a fine park, which ſurrounds the palace, and is called the little park, to diſtinguiſh it from another much larger. This little park is four miles in circumference, and ſurrounded by a brick wall. The turf is of the moſt beautiful green, and it is adorned with many ſhady walks, eſpecially that called Queen Elizabeth's, which on ſummer evenings is frequented by the beſt company. This park is well ſtocked with deer and other game, and the lodge at the farther end is a delightful habitation.

To return to the caſtle. In the upper court is a ſpacious and regular ſquare, containing on the north ſide the royal apartments and St. George's hall; on the ſouth and eaſt ſides are the royal apartments, thoſe of the prince of Wales, and the great officers of ſtate; and in the center of the area is an equeſtrian ſtatue in copper of king Charles II. in the habit of one of the Cæſars, ſtanding on a marble pedeſtal. The round tower, which forms the weſt ſide of this upper court, contains the governor's apartments: it is built on the higheſt part of the mount, and there is an aſcent to it by a large flight of ſtone ſteps: theſe apartments are ſpacious and noble, and among the reſt is a guard-room or magazine of arms.

The lower court is larger than the other, and is in a manner divided into two parts by St. George's chapel, which

which ſtands in the center. On the north or inner ſide are the houſes and apartments of the dean and canons of that chapel, with thoſe of the minor canons, clerks, and other officers; and on the ſouth and weſt ſides of the outer part are the houſes of the poor knights of Windſor.

The royal apartments in the upper court are uſually termed the ſtar building, from a ſtar and garter in gold in the middle of the ſtructure, on the outſide next the terras. The entrance is through a handſome veſtibule ſupported by columns of the Ionic order, with ſome antique buſts in ſeveral niches. This leads to the great ſtaircaſe, which is finely painted with ſeveral fabulous ſtories from Ovid's Metamorphoſes: in the dome Phaeton is repreſented entreating Apollo to let him drive the chariot of the ſun: in large compartments in the ſtaircaſe are the transformation of Phaeton's ſiſters into poplar-trees, and Cycnus into a ſwan. In ſeveral parts of the cieling are repreſented the ſigns of the zodiac ſupported by the winds, with baſkets of flowers beautifully diſpoſed: at the corners are the four elements, each expreſſed by a variety of figures. Aurora is alſo repreſented with her nymphs giving water to her horſes. The whole is beautifully diſpoſed, and from this ſtaircaſe you have a view of the back ſtairs painted with the ſtory of Meleager and Atalanta.

On the top of the ſtaircaſe you firſt enter the queen's guard-chamber, which is completely furniſhed with arms, beautifully ranged and diſpoſed into various forms. On the cieling is Britannia in the perſon of queen Catharine of Portugal, conſort to king Charles II. ſeated on a globe, bearing the arms of England and Portugal, with the four grand diviſions of the earth making their ſeveral offerings; and on different parts of the cieling are heathen deities, with zephyrs, cupids, and other embelliſhments.

You next enter the queen's preſence-chamber, on the ceiling of which is repreſented queen Catharine, attended by the Virtues, while Fame ſounds the happineſs of Britain, and below Juſtice is driving away Envy, Sedition, &c. The room is hung with tapeſtry repreſenting the perſecution of the primitive Chriſtians.

The cieling of the queen's audience-chamber is painted with Britannia in the perſon of queen Catharine in a car drawn by ſwans to the temple of Virtue, attended by Flora, Ceres, Pomona, &c. The room is hung with tapeſtry, and the canopy is of fine Engliſh velvet ſet up by queen Anne.

On the cieling of the ball-room king Charles II. is repreſented giving freedom to Europe by the figures of Perſeus and Andromeda. The tapeſtry, which was made at Bruſſels, and ſet up by king Charles II. repreſents the ſeaſons of the year; and both this room and all the former are adorned with ſeveral pictures by the greateſt maſters.

The next is the queen's drawing-room, where on the cieling is painted the aſſembly of the gods and goddeſſes: it is hung with tapeſtry repreſenting the twelve months of the year, and adorned with pictures of Lot and his daughters after Angelo, and ſeveral other pieces by the great maſters.

In the queen's bed-chamber the bed of ſtate is of rich flowered velvet, made in Spitalfields by order of queen Anne, and the tapeſtry, which repreſents the harveſt ſeaſon, was alſo made at London. The cieling is painted with the ſtory of Diana and Endymion, and the room adorned with the pictures of the Holy family, by Raphael; Herod's cruelty, by Giulio Romano; and Judith and Holofernes, by Guido.

The next is the room of beauties, ſo named from the portraits of the moſt celebrated beauties in the reign of king Charles II. They are fourteen in number, and all original paintings, by Sir Peter Lely.

Queen Elizabeth's, or the picture-gallery, is adorned with a great number of fine paintings, among which are Rome in flames, by Giulio Romano; the pool of Betheſda, by Tintoret; a Roman family, by Titian; and two uſurers, an admired piece, by the famous blackſmith of Antwerp. There is here likewiſe queen Caroline's china-cloſet, filled with a great variety of curious china, elegantly diſpoſed. This cloſet is finely gilt and ornamented, and likewiſe adorned with ſeveral pictures done by Holbein.

On the cieling of the king's cloſet is painted the ſtory of Jupiter and Leda; and among other curioſities this room contains a large frame of needle-work ſaid to be wrought by Mary queen of Scots, and it is alſo adorned with ſeveral fine paintings, particularly Titian's daughter, by herſelf; a German lady, by Raphael, &c.

It would carry us to too great a length were we to deſcribe the numerous paintings and ornaments of the king's dreſſing-room, bed-chamber, drawing-room, audience-chamber, preſence-chamber, and guard-chamber; the cielings being painted and the rooms adorned with admirable pictures.

St. George's chamber, which is ſet apart for the honour of the moſt illuſtrious order of the Garter, ought not, however, to be omitted, it being one of the nobleſt rooms in Europe. In a large oval in the center of the cieling king Charles II. is repreſented in the habit of the order, attended by England, Scotland, and Ireland; Religion and Plenty hold a crown over his head; Regal Government is ſupported by Religion and Eternity, while Juſtice, attended by Fortitude, Temperance, and Prudence, beat down Rebellion and Faction. To the throne is an aſcent by five ſteps of fine marble, to which the painter has added five more, with ſuch perfection, as to deceive the ſight, and induce the ſpectator to think them equally real. This noble room is a hundred and eight feet in length, and the whole north ſide is taken up with the triumphant entry of Edward the Black Prince, while Edward III. the founder of the order of the Garter, is ſeated on a throne receiving the captive kings of France and Scotland.

The king's chapel is no leſs richly adorned: on the cieling is finely repreſented our Lord's Aſcenſion; the altar-piece is adorned with a noble painting of the Laſt Supper, and the north ſide with the repreſentation of our Saviour's raiſing Lazarus from the dead, his curing the ſick of the palſey, and other miracles, by Verro. The canopy, curtains, and furniture are of crimſon velvet; and the beautiful carved work is done by Gibbons.

St. George's chapel has always been eſteemed for its neatneſs and beauty, and in particular the ſtone roof is accounted an excellent piece of workmanſhip; but what appears moſt worthy of notice is the choir: on each ſide are the ſtalls of the ſovereign and knights companions of the moſt noble order of the Garter, with the helmet, mantling, creſt, and ſword of each knight ſet up over his ſtall, on a canopy of ancient carving curiouſly wrought; and over the canopy is affixed the banner or arms of each knight properly blazoned on ſilk, and on the back of the ſtalls are the titles of the knights, with their arms neatly engraved and blazoned on copper.

The ſovereign's ſtall is on the right hand of the entrance into the choir, and is covered with purple velvet and cloth of gold, and has a canopy and complete furniture of the ſame rich materials; his banner is likewiſe of velvet, and his mantling of cloth of gold. The prince's ſtall is on the left, but has no diſtinction from thoſe of the reſt of the knights, they being all companions and collegues equal in honour.

This chapel has alſo the monuments of ſeveral princes and of the nobility, ſome of which are very magnificent.

Having now finiſhed our deſcription of Windſor caſtle, we ought to take ſome notice of the great park, and the foreſt: the former lies on the ſouth ſide of the town, and opens by a noble road in a direct line to the top of a delightful hill at near three miles diſtance. This road leads through a double plantation of trees on each ſide to the ranger's lodge, the reſidence of the late duke of Cumberland, who greatly improved the natural beauties of the park, and by large plantations, extenſive lawns, new canals, and rivers, rendered this villa an habitation worthy of a prince. This park is fourteen miles in circumference, well ſtocked with deer and other game, with foreign beaſts and birds. The new erected building on Shrub's hill is adorned beneath with a beautiful rural landſcape; a noble piece of water, produced at a great expence from a ſmall ſtream, capable of carrying barges and pleaſure-boats, terminates in a grotto and large

caſcade, and over it his royal highneſs erected a noble bridge conſiſting of one arch, a hundred and ſixty-five feet wide.

The duke alſo greatly improved Windſor foreſt, which joins to the park, and has been rendered famous whereever the Engliſh tongue is underſtood, by the pen of the celebrated Pope. It is indeed generally barren and uncultivated, yet is finely diverſified with hills and vales, woods and lawns, interſperſed with pleaſant villas, towns, and villages.

We ſhall now proceed to the principal towns, and ſhall begin with

Reading, which is ſo called from the Britiſh word Rhedim, that is Fern; which formerly grew in great quantities there. This is a very large and wealthy town, ſeated on the river Kennet, forty miles to the weſt of London, and ſeventy-five to the eaſt of Briſtol; but is ſo near the Thames, that the largeſt barges which they uſe may come up to the town bridge, where they have wharfs to load and unload them. The inhabitants carry on a very great trade, which chiefly conſiſts in this water-navigation to and from London; and they have neceſſarily a great trade into the country for the conſumption of the goods brought by their barges from London, particularly coals, ſalt, grocery-wares, oils, and all heavy goods. By theſe barges they ſend from hence to London great quantities of malt, meal, and timber. There are here three churches, which are St. Mary's, St. Laurence's, and St. Giles's, built of flint and ſquare ſtones in the quincunx faſhion, with tall towers of the ſame materials. Here are alſo two large meeting-houſes, beſides that of the Quakers. Reading contains about eight thouſand people, including a little hamlet at the bridge over the Thames.

This town had formerly a famous abbey, in which the parliament of England has been ſometimes held; it ſtood in a fine ſituation, and large ruins of it are ſtill viſible, built of flint: the walls which remain are about eight feet thick, though the ſtone that faced them is gone. There are many remnants of arched vaults, and the abbey gate is yet pretty entire. This ſtructure was built by king Henry I. on an old abbey formerly erected by a Saxon lady: that prince was buried in it, with his queen, but their monuments are not now to be found. The town is governed by a mayor, twelve aldermen, twelve burgeſſes, and other officers.

Newbury is ſituated fifty-ſix miles from London, in a moſt fruitful plain, watered by the river Kennet, which is made navigable up to the town. The ſtreets are ſpacious, and the market-place large, in which is ſold a great deal of corn, and it contains a hall in which the buſineſs of the corporation is tranſacted. It is governed by a mayor, high-ſteward, aldermen, and burgeſſes. It has a charity-ſchool for forty boys, and the place is noted for good trout and cray-fiſh: all ſorts of proviſions are here likewiſe very reaſonable. Part of Newbury is known by the name of Speenham-land, it riſing out of the ruins of an old town called Spine, the remains of which join to Newbury, in reſpect to which it was called New Borough, and for ſhortneſs Newbury. This town was anciently very famous for making woollen cloth, and the people now are generally employed in making ſhalloons.

Here lived the famous Jack of Newbury, the greateſt clothier in England, he having a hundred looms at work in his own houſe. He flouriſhed in the reign of Henry VIII. and marched at the head of a hundred of his own men, all cloathed in one uniform, and maintained at his own expence, to the battle of Flodden-field, where he behaved with great bravery.

Near this town were fought two bloody battles between the army of king Charles I. and the parliament's forces, the king himſelf being preſent at both.

Maidenhead is an ancient town, twelve miles from Reading, and twenty-eight from London, under the government of a high-ſteward, a mayor, and ten aldermen, out of whom they annually elect two bridge-maſters, to look after the large timber bridge which here croſſes the Thames, for the repair of which the town has three trees annually allowed them out of Windſor foreſt. Maidenhead is ſaid to be ſo called from one of the eleven thouſand virgins which the legend tells us were martyred with St. Urſula. The town is a great thorough-fare, and has many good inns, with a weekly market on Wedneſdays.

Wallingford is an ancient, large, and well-built town, forty-ſix miles to the weſt of London: in the town-hall the aſſizes are ſometimes held, and there the quarter-ſeſſions are always held for the borough. It is ſeated on the Thames, over which is a ſtone bridge of nineteen arches, and four draw-bridges. It has been ſurrounded with a wall a mile and a half in circumference, and had a ſtrong caſtle, but it is now demoliſhed. It had likewiſe four pariſh-churches, but two of them were deſtroyed during the civil wars. It has a free-ſchool, and a handſome market-houſe, in which the magiſtrates keep the ſeſſions, it being governed by a mayor, burgeſſes, &c.

Abingdon, a handſome well-built town, where the aſſizes, ſeſſions, and other public meetings of the county are generally held. It has a ſtately market-houſe built on high pillars, over which is a large hall for the aſſizes. Here are alſo two churches, and the town conſiſts of ſeveral well-built ſtreets, which center in an open and ſpacious place, where the corn-market is kept. The inhabitants make great quantities of malt, which they ſend in barges to London. Here is a good free-ſchool, and a charity-ſchool founded in 1563. The corporation conſiſts of a mayor, two bailiffs, and nine aldermen. This place was famed for religious houſes in the time of the ancient Britons.

SECT. XII.

Of Wiltſhire, or Wilts; its Name, Situation, Extent, Air, Soil, Produce, Rivers, Diviſions, &c. and principal Towns; with a particular Deſcription of Stonehenge, and whatever is moſt curious in this County.

WILTSHIRE receives its name from Wilton, once its capital, which was ſo called from its ſituation on the river Willy, it being from Willy-town contracted to Wilton. It is bounded on the north-eaſt and eaſt by Berkſhire, laſt deſcribed; on the ſouth-eaſt by Hampſhire; on the ſonth-weſt by Somerſetſhire; and on the north-weſt and north by Glouceſterſhire. Its length from north to ſouth is near fifty-four miles, its breadth from eaſt to weſt thirty-eight, and it is about a hundred and forty-two in circumference.

The air is ſweet and healthy, though ſomething ſharp on the hills in winter; but it is mild during that ſeaſon in the vales. The land in the northern parts is generally hilly and woody; in the ſouthern it is rich and fertile; in the middle it chiefly conſiſts of downs, that afford the beſt paſture for ſheep; and in the valleys, which divide the downs, are abundance of corn-fields and rich meadows. In ſome places is found knot-graſs near twenty feet in length, with which hogs are fed, eſpecially about Market Lavington. Its chief commodities are ſheep, wool, wood, and ſtone; of this laſt there are excellent quarries at Chilmark, on the banks of the river Nadder, where ſome of the ſtones are twenty yards in length, and four in thickneſs, without a flaw. The chief manufactures are thoſe relating to the cloathing trade.

The principal rivers in Wiltſhire are the Upper and Lower Avon, the Nadder, the Willy, the Bourne, and the Kennet. The Upper Avon riſes near the center of the county, and running ſouthward enters Hampſhire. The Lower Avon riſes in the northern edge of Wiltſhire. paſſes by Malmſbury, and at length enters Somerſetſhire. The Nadder riſes in the ſouth-weſt point of the country, and flowing eaſtward to Saliſbury, there joins the Avon. The Willy has its ſource on the weſtern ſide of Wiltſhire, and running towards the ſouth-eaſt falls into the Nadder, near Saliſbury. The Bourne has its ſpring in the eaſtern limits of Wiltſhire, and running to the ſouthward joins the Avon a little below Saliſbury; and the Kennet has its ſource near the middle of the county, and running eaſtward enters Berkſhire. Thus is all Wiltſhire ſupplied with rivers, which not only afford great

plenty of fiſh, but add to the beauty and fertility of the country in their ſeveral courſes between the hills and the downs.

This county, which lies in the dioceſe of Saliſbury, contains twenty-one market-towns, a hundred and ſeven vicarages, three hundred and four pariſhes, and nine hundred and fifty villages. It is divided into twenty-nine hundreds, which contain near twenty-eight thouſand houſes, and a hundred and ſixty-eight thouſand inhabitants. It ſends thirty-four members to parliament, namely, two knights for the ſhire, and two burgeſſes for each of the following boroughs: New Sarum, Wilton, Marlborough, Old Sarum, Wooton-Baſſet, Luggerſhall, Great Bedwin, Cricklade, Malmſbury, Chippenham, Devizes, Calne, Weſtbury, Heyteſbury, Hinton, and Downton. The principal places in this county are the following:

Saliſbury, or New Sarum, is pleaſantly ſeated at the confluence of the rivers Avon and Willy, eighty-four miles from London; it roſe out of the ruins of Old Sarum, which ſtands on a hill a little to the north of this city, which is large, well built, and very pleaſant; but its founders ſeem to have run from one extreme to another, for as the old city was in great want of water, this has rather too much, the water running through the middle of every ſtreet, which keeps them always wet and dirty, even in the midſt of ſummer. The cathedral is famous for the height of its ſpire, which is ſaid to be the moſt lofty in England, it being four hundred and ten feet from the ground, and yet the walls are ſo exceeding thin at the upper part of the ſpire, that, upon a view made by the late Sir Chriſtopher Wren, they were found to be leſs than five inches thick; on which that great architect ordered it to be ſtrengthened with bands of iron plates, which have ſo effectually ſecured it, that it is ſaid by the beſt architects to be ſtronger now than when it was firſt built. This venerable ſtructure is in the form of a croſs, and coſt an immenſe ſum of money; but the work on the inſide is not anſwerable to the numerous decorations without. The painting in the choir is mean, it being probably performed when that art was but in its infancy in this kingdom; but the carving is well executed. However, the author of the Tour through Great Britain obſerves, that it is rather a fine church, than finely adorned. The following lines ſhew the number of its windows, pillars, and gates:

As many days as in one year there be,
So many windows in one church we ſee;
As many marble pillars there appear,
As there are hours throughout the fleeting year;
As many gates as moons one year do view:
Strange tale to tell, yet not more ſtrange than true!

There are ſome very fine monuments in this church; particularly in what is called the Virgin Mary's chapel, is a noble one of the late duke and ducheſs of Somerſet. The cloyſter is a hundred and ſixty feet ſquare, and the inner cloyſter thirty feet wide. Over the eaſt part of the cloyſter is a ſpacious library. The cathedral, with the cloſe adjoining, where the prebendaries live, make a noble appearance. The chapter-houſe is an octagon no leſs than a hundred and fifty feet in circumference, yet the roof has no other ſupport in the center than a ſmall marble pillar. The corporation conſiſts of a mayor, recorder, aldermen, &c. and the town-houſe, which makes a noble appearance, is adorned with a very fine original picture of queen Anne, done by Dahl.

Wilton, an ancient borough town, once ſo conſiderable that it gave name to the county, ſtands near the junction of the Nadder with the Willy, ſeven miles from Saliſbury, and eighty-ſix from London, but is now a mean town, though it ſends two members to parliament, and is the place where the knights of the ſhire are choſen. It has, however, a manufacture of carpets, which is carried to great perfection, and many of the carpets made there, being very beautiful, are ſold in London at a good price.

Wilton houſe is ſituated in a pleaſant vale, with the town of Wilton on one ſide, and a ſpacious park on the other. The canal before the houſe lies parallel with the river, and on entering the court-yard you ſee a noble column of porphyry, on the top of which is a fine marble ſtatue of Venus, of excellent workmanſhip. The houſe is a noble pile of building, deſigned by the celebrated Inigo Jones, and the rooms are adorned with the moſt beautiful ſtatues and paintings. The great geometrical ſtair-caſe has been deſervedly admired, it being the firſt of the kind in England; and the grand apartment is a ſuperb piece of architecture, particularly the ſaloon, which is ſixty feet long, thirty high, and thirty broad. "When you have entered theſe grand apartments, ſays "a late writer, ſuch varieties ſtrike upon you every way, "that you ſcarce know to which hand to turn: on one "ſide you ſee ſeveral rooms adorned with paintings, ſo "curious and various, that you leave them with reluc-"tance; and looking another way, you are called off by "a vaſt collection of buſts and pieces of the greateſt an-"tiquity of the kind, both Greek and Roman. At one "end of the grand room is the celebrated family pic-"ture, by Vandyke, twenty feet long, and twelve feet "high, containing thirteen figures as big as the life." This room is alſo adorned with a great number of family pictures.

In moſt of the apartments the marble chimney-pieces are of the moſt exquiſite workmanſhip, all carved in Italy, with many curious ſtatues, baſſo relievos, and pictures, by the greateſt maſters. The loggio in the bowling-green is ſupported by beautiful pillars, and adorned with niches and ſtatues. The grotto has its front curiouſly carved, and all the inſide is caſed with marble; it has black columns of the Ionic order, with capitals of white marble, and four fine baſſo relievos from Florence.

The front of the houſe next the gardens is eſteemed one of the beſt pieces of the celebrated Inigo Jones, and is a hundred and ninety-four feet in length. The gardens are on the ſouth ſide of the houſe, and extend beyond the river, a branch of which runs through a part of them. To the ſouth of the gardens is the great park, which reaches beyond the vale, and the view opens into Saliſbury-plain. Here is alſo a hare warren, as it is called, which has been for many years a ſanctuary for the hares; but the neighbouring gentlemen complain that it ſpoils their ſport, for if they put up a hare within two or three miles of it, ſhe always runs to the warren, and an end is put to their purſuit: beſides, theſe animals are of great prejudice to the corn.

Saliſbury-plain is very delightful, as well as extenſive, the numerous flocks of ſheep all round are a pleaſing ſight, and it is not uncommon for theſe flocks to contain from three to five thouſand, all belonging to one man.

On this plain are a great number of barrows, or little hills, thrown up over graves; alſo the remains of temples, and the traces of many old Britiſh, Roman, Saxon, and Daniſh camps and fortifications. But the greateſt curioſity in this county is that noble monument of antiquity called Stone-henge, which Inigo Jones endeavoured to prove to be the remains of a temple of the Tuſcan order, built by the Romans to the god Cœlum, or Terminus; but the learned doctor Stukeley has endeavoured to prove it to be a temple built by the ancient Britons. It received its name from the Saxon Rode-hengenne, or hanging-rocks; and in Yorkſhire hanging rocks are ſtill called henges.

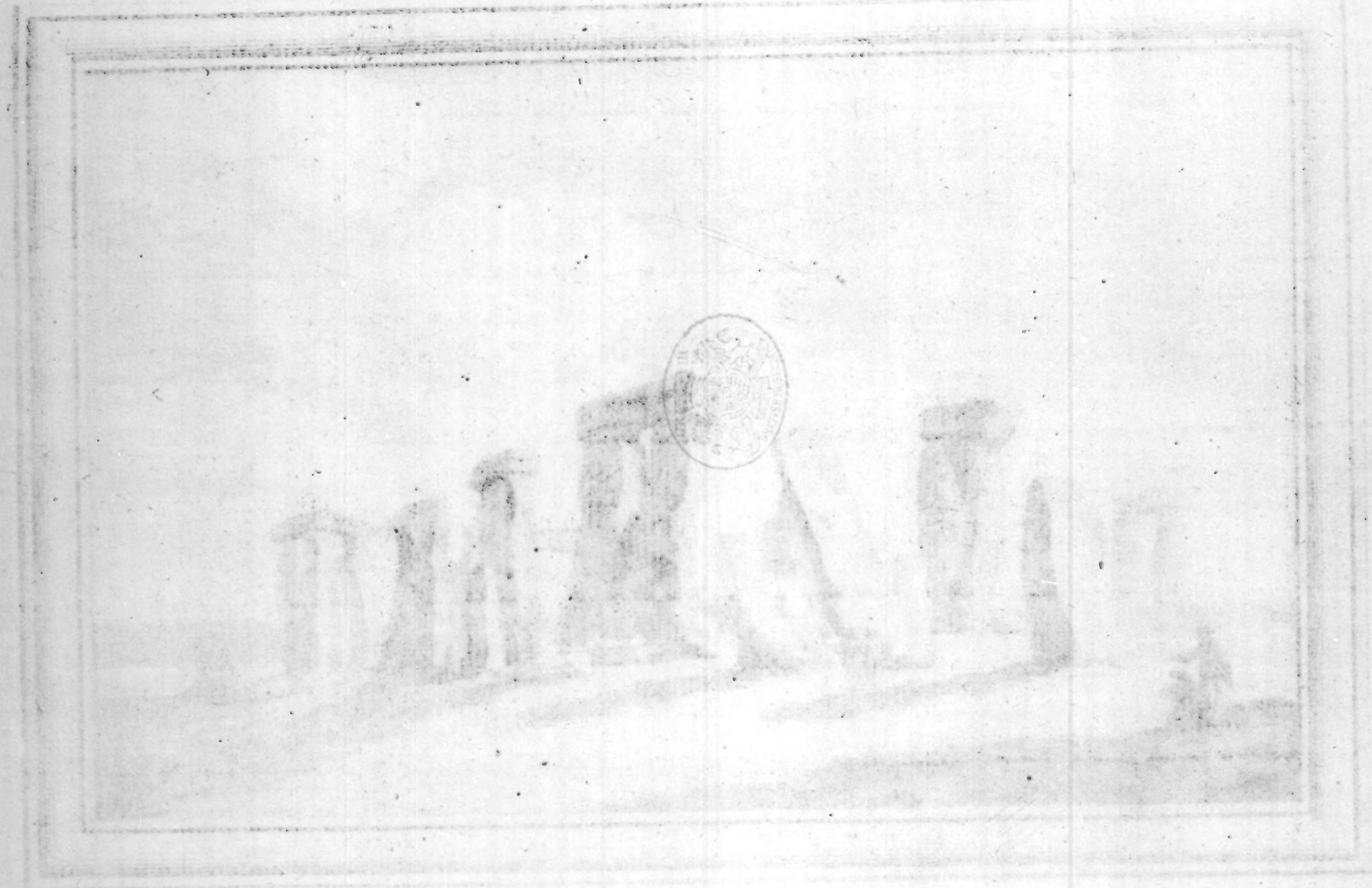
Stone-henge is ſituated in Saliſbury-plain, ſix miles to the north of Saliſbury. It has the river Avon to the eaſt, and a brook that runs into the Willy on the weſt, which ſtreams encompaſs it half round, at the diſtance of two miles, forming as it were a circular area of four or five miles diameter, compaſſed by gentle acclivities. This antiquity ſtands on the ſummit of a hill, which riſes with a very gentle aſcent.

At the diſtance of about half a mile it has a ſtately and auguſt appearance, and as you advance nearer, eſpecially up the avenue on the north-eaſt ſide, where the remains of this wonderful ſtructure are moſt perfect, it fills the eye in an aſtoniſhing meaſure. It is encompaſſed with a circular ditch, and after this is paſſed you proceed a hundred and eight feet to the work itſelf, which is a hundred and eight feet in diameter. "When we enter the build-

"ing,

Stone-henge

Hooker sc.



"ing, says Dr. Stukeley, whether on foot or on horse-"back, and cast our eyes on the yawning ruins, we "are struck with an extatic reverie, which none can "describe, and they only can be sensible of that feel it. "When we advance farther, the dark part of the pon-"derous imposts over our heads, the chasm of sky be-"tween the jambs of the cell, the odd construction of "the whole, and the greatness of every part, surprizes. "If you look upon the perfect part, you fancy entire "quarries mounted up into the air: if upon the rude "havock below, you see, as it were, the bowels of a "mountain turned inside outwards."

The stones are supposed to have been brought from the Grey Wethers, upon Marlborough downs, which is sixteen miles distant from the place; but the difficulty in bringing them hither must appear inconceivable. The stone at the upper end of the cell, which is fallen down and broke in half, is, according to Dr. Hales, twenty-five feet in length, seven in breadth, and at a medium three and an half in thickness, and amounts to six hundred and twelve cubic feet. Rude as the work seems, there is not a stone that has not felt more or less the chissel. The upright stones are made to diminish a little every way, by which means the imposts project two feet seven inches, which is very considerable in a height of eighteen feet. On the top of each of the upright stones is a tenon ten inches and a half in diameter, and made exactly to fit the mortises made in the imposts. On the outside the imposts are rounded a little, to humour the circle, but within they are straight and make a polygon of thirty sides, which, without injuring the beauty of the work, adds to its strength. The height of the uprights and imposts is ten cubits and an half, the uprights being nine cubits, and the imposts one and a half.

Of this outer circle, which in its perfection consisted of sixty stones, thirty uprights, and thirty imposts; there are seventeen uprights left standing, eleven of which remain contiguous by the grand entrance, which is somewhat wider than the rest, with five imposts upon them. One upright at the back of the temple leans upon a stone of the inner circle, and six others lie upon the ground, whole or in pieces. Somewhat more than eight feet from the inside of this exterior circle is another of forty smaller stones, without any imposts, which, with the outer circle, form as it were a circular portico. These are a cubit thick, and four cubits and a half in height, being every way half of the outer uprights. Of these nineteen are only left; of which eleven are only standing. But besides this outer portico, which is three hundred feet in circumference, there is an inner one, which originally composed about two-thirds of an oval; the outer part of this is formed of certain compages of stones, which Dr. Stukeley calls *trilithons*, because each of these compages is formed of two upright stones, with an impost on the top. The stones of which these *trilithons* are composed are really stupendous, and cannot fail of filling the beholder with surprize. These stones diminish very much towards the top, probably to take off from their weight, and they rise in height and beauty of the stones from the lower end on each side next the principal entrance to the upper end, and are, upon a medium, twenty feet high; but the imposts on the top are all of the same size.

On the inside of the oval is a lesser oval of nineteen stones, somewhat of a pyramidical form; these are two feet six inches in breadth, one foot and an half thick, and upon a medium eight feet high; they rising in height as they approach the upper end of this inclosure. The space within it has been called the *adytum*, or the Holy of holies, it being supposed that none entered it but the druids, or British priests, who offered their sacrifices on the altar at the upper end. This altar is composed of a kind of blue coarse marble, twenty inches thick, four feet broad, and, according to Mr. Webb, sixteen feet in length. All the stones added together, with which this whole temple was built, make just a hundred and forty. This is the solution of the mighty problem that has so much perplexed the vulgar.

As the most early method of building temples, says our author, was to make them open at the top, this is a proof of the prodigious antiquity of this fabric. It must be owned, that they who had a notion that it was degrading the Deity to pretend to confine him within a limited space, could not easily invent a grander design for sacred purposes. Here space indeed is not marked out and defined, but with the utmost freedom. Here the presence of the Deity is intimated, but not bounded.

On the downs, about two or three miles from Marlborough, are abundance of loose stones, lying scattered about the plain, of the same kind with those of Stonehenge, and some larger, they are called by the country people the Grey Wethers, they appearing at a distance not unlike sheep straggling upon the downs. They are found to be a sort of white marble, and lie upon the surface of the earth in infinite numbers, and of all dimensions. They are loose and detached from any rock, and Dr. Stukeley imagines that they have lain there ever since the creation.

Marlborough, so called from its hills of chalk, which was anciently called Marl, is seated on the river Kennet, in a chalky soil, seventy-five miles to the west of London, and contains two parish-churches and about five hundred houses. The streets are broad and paved, and it is governed by a mayor, aldermen, and burgesses. It had formerly a castle at Marlborough Mount; this Mount was the key of the castle, and is now converted into a pretty spiral walk, on the top of which is an octagonal summer-house, from whence you have a pleasant view over the town and country. Near Marlborough are the remains of several religious houses, particularly of a priory, the gate-house of which is still standing.

Between Marlborough and Newbury is Savernack forest, which is about twelve miles in circumference, well stocked with deer, and rendered delightful by the many vistas cut through the woods and coppices with which it abounds. Eight of these vistas meet like so many rays of a star in a point near the middle of the forest, where the late earl of Ailesbury, to whom it belonged, prepared the ground for erecting an octagon tower, whose sides were to correspond with the vistas; through one of which you have a view of the seat at about two miles distance, called Tottenham, from a park of that name, in which it is situated, contiguous to this forest. This is a stately edifice, erected after the model and under the direction of our modern Vitruvius, the earl of Burlington, who, to the strength and convenience of the English architecture, has added the elegance of the Italian. The house has four towers and four fronts, each differently beautified; to which are now added four wings, in which are rooms of state, a noble and capacious library, containing a collection of several thousand volumes in all languages, especially the modern. The beauty and delightfulness of the buildings are much augmented by the large canals, the spacious and well-planted walks, with which it is surrounded.

The Devizes is seated on high ground about two miles from the bottom of hills that keep off the eastern winds, in a rich soil eighty-nine miles to the west of London. It is a large town, consisting chiefly of two long parallel streets, the houses mostly of timber, but of a very good model. It has two churches, besides a chapel and a dissenting meeting house. The corporation consists of a mayor, a recorder, eleven masters, and thirty-six common council. On the utmost part of the Rundway hill, which overlooks the town, is a square single-trenched camp; and there have been discovered in its neighbourhood several hundred pieces of ancient Roman coin of different emperors, and in 1714 was dug up a large urn with Roman coins, and a number of little brass statues of several of the heathen gods and goddesses. The inhabitants make a great deal of malt; their principal manufacture is woollen cloth, especially druggets, and the market is much frequented for all sorts of cattle, wool and horses; but it has great scarcity of water.

SECT. XIII.

Of Dorsetshire; its Name, Situation, Extent, Air, Soil, Produce, Rivers, and principal Towns; with a Description of the Peninsulas of Portland and Purbec.

THIS county was anciently called Durotriges by the Romans, and by the Britons Dwn Gwyr, both of which signifies Dwellers by the Water-side. This county

county is bounded on the north by Somerſetſhire and Wiltſhire; on the eaſt by Hampſhire; on the ſouth by the Britiſh channel; and on the weſt by Devonſhire and part of Somerſetſhire, extending about fifty miles in length from eaſt to weſt, where broadeſt about thirty, and near one hundred and fifty in circumference.

The air is for the moſt part very good and wholeſome. on the hills it is however ſomewhat bleak and ſharp, but it is very mild and pleaſant near the coaſt.

The ſoil is generally rich and fertile, though in ſome parts exceeding ſandy; the northern part, which was formerly divided by a range of hills from the ſouthern, was anciently overſpread with foreſts, but now affords good paſture for cattle, while the ſouthern part chiefly conſiſts of fine downs, and feeds incredible numbers of ſheep. The inhabitants have not forgot what king Charles ſaid of Dorſetſhire, that he never ſaw a finer country either in England or out of it. Indeed the downs and hills are covered with great flocks of ſheep, whoſe fleſh is ſweet and delicate, and wool ſo fine, that it is much covetted by the clothiers, and the valleys abound with other cattle. The huſbandman reaps an ample return for his toil and labour, his grounds generally producing a profuſion of corn, or of flax and hemp, which laſt is allowed to be the beſt that grows in all his majeſty's dominions. Here are alſo plenty of fowl, as poultry of all ſorts, ſwans, woodcocks, pheaſants, partridges, field-fares, &c. The chief commodities are corn, cattle, wool, fiſh, fowl, hemp, fine Portland ſtone, and ſome marble. The iſle or rather peninſula of Purbec alſo furniſhes a particular kind of ſtone, called by its name, and tobacco-pipe clay. This county is alſo famous for its linen and woollen manufactures, and fine ale and beer.

The principal rivers of this county are the Stour, which riſes in Somerſetſhire, but ſoon enters into this county, running ſouth to Sturminſter, where making an angle, it forms a courſe nearly weſt-ſouth-weſt, and leaves Dorſetſhire about five miles below Winborn in Hampſhire, and ſoon after falls into the ſea. The Froom riſes in the eaſt end of the county, and running chiefly weſtward, falls into the bay called Pool-harbour. Both theſe rivers afford plenty of fiſh; but the tench and eels of the Stour are particularly famous.

The coaſt of Dorſetſhire is very diſſimular, it being in ſome places bounded with high lands and cliffs, and in others with only a beach of pebbles; the cliffs are in ſome parts compoſed of ſand, earth, and loamy clay, in others they conſiſt of chalk, but very few of ſtone, except in the iſlands.

This county lies in the dioceſe of Briſtol and contains ſixty-eight vicarages, two hundred and forty-eight pariſhes, upwards of twenty-one thouſand nine hundred houſes, and about one hundred and nine thouſand ſeven hundred inhabitants. It is divided into twenty-eight hundreds, and ſends twenty members to parliament, of which two are knights of the ſhire, and two for each of the following towns, Dorcheſter, Pool, Lime, Bridport, Shaftſbury, Wareham, Corfe-Caſtle, Weymouth, and Melcomb-Regis; for though theſe two laſt are united each ſends two. The principal places in this county are the following:

Dorcheſter, the county town, is clean and regularly built, and is ſituated one hundred and twenty-eight miles to the ſouth-weſt of London, is encompaſſed by the foundations of an ancient Roman wall; but to the eaſtward a ſtreet is built upon it, and the ditch filled up; for on that ſide the town is ſwelled out into a conſiderable ſuburb or village, named Fordington or Farington, which has a church. There are three other churches in the town, and the ſtreets are wide and handſome. On the ſouth and weſt ſides, without the walls, is planted an agreeable walk of ſycamores. The banks of the river are here ſteep, the town ſtands on high ground. Beyond the river are meadows and warm ſandy lands. At a ſmall diſtance is the noble Roman amphithreatre called by the vulgar Maumbury, and the terras on the top is a common place of rendezvous, it affording an agreeable circular walk, which has a proſpect of the town and of wide plains of corn fields all round.

Weymouth is a clean and agreeable town, conſidering its low ſituation, it ſtanding cloſe to the ſea. It is ſituated eight miles to the ſouth of Dorcheſter, and one hundred and thirty-two to the weſt-ſouth-weſt of London. It is well built, and has an excellent harbour, defended by two forts. Many ſubſtantial merchants reſide here, who have a conſiderable number of ſhips, and carry on an extenſive trade, not only to France, but to Portugal, Spain, Newfoundland, and Virginia, and they have a cuſtom-houſe, and a good quay. Without the harbour ſtands Sandfoot caſtle, and oppoſite to them is Portland-caſtle, ſeated in the iſle of that name. It is joined to Melcomb Regis by a wooden bridge over the little river Wey. The united towns have a church, and about four hundred houſes. In Weymouth is a chapel upon a ſteep rock, and there are ſixty ſteps to go up to it. They are governed by a mayor, ſeveral aldermen, and a recorder, and each ſends two members to parliament.

Portland, which was formerly an iſland, is now joined to the continent by a ſhelf of ſand, thrown up by the ſea. It is ſituated in the fiftieth deg. thirty min. latitude, and in the ſecond deg. forty-eight min. weſt longitude. It is about ten miles in circumference, and thinly inhabited, yet affords plenty of corn, and paſture for ſheep; but wood and coals are ſo ſcarce that the inhabitants, are generally obliged to make uſe of cow dung dried in the ſun for fuel. The natives are for the moſt part ſtone-cutters, for from this peninſula come our beſt and whiteſt free-ſtone, with which the cathedral of St. Paul, and all the moſt magnificent edifices in the city of London, are principally built.

The whole iſland is little more than one continued rock of free-ſtone, and the height of the land is ſuch that when the weather is clear and ſerene one may ſee from thence above half over the Channel to France, though it is here very broad.

Thoſe who are delighted with natural curioſities are greatly amuſed here with ſeeing in the midſt of the ſtone a great number of ſhells of oyſters, muſſels, cockles, &c. and above all ſpirals, or ſcrews as they are vulgarly called, which every where abound in the ſtone; they are perfectly ſolid, and nicely coiled about as it were an imaginary axis. Theſe being of the ſame ſubſtance as the ſtone, are very brittle, and generally break in taking out.

In ſome quarries on the ſouth-weſt part of the iſland is found a ſort of ſtone which they call ſugar-candy ſtone, of which there are two ſorts, one pale like white ſugar-candy; and the other of an amber-colour like brown ſugar-candy; and indeed they ſo reſemble ſugar-candy in the lump, that any perſon might be impoſed upon by them till his tongue and teeth convinced him that they were only an inſipid exudation of juices petrefied and cryſtallized by nature in this form.

To prevent any ſhips being embayed to the weſt of Portland, and driven a-ſhore on Portland Race, which extends to the main land, two light houſes are erected on the two points of the peninſula. Not far from theſe light houſes, on the ſouth ſide of the iſland, is a very remarkable hole through the earth, wide on the top and narrowing about ſeven or eight feet downwards where it opens into a large ſubterranean cavern, where you ſee the waters of the ſea, the ſight and noiſe of which in boiſterous weather fill the mind with terror: ſo large is this cave, that ſome ſmall craft with their ſails up have been driven from the ſea into it.

Not far from Portland lies the peninſula of Purbec, which was formerly full of heaths, woods and foreſts, well ſtocked with fallow deer; but there is at preſent good lands towards the ſouthern part of it, and under ground there are veins of marble and different kinds of ſtone. This peninſula is ten miles in length; but not more than five or ſix in breadth, and there is a good paſſage to it by land. At the firſt entrance into this peninſula is a plain of barren heathy ground, repleniſhed with red deer, diſjoined from the reſt by an almoſt continued ridge of high hills, which when once paſſed there are grounds that afford excellent paſture for ſheep and other cattle, with plenty of good corn as alſo quarries of a laſting kind of flat ſtone, uſed in London for paving the foot-ways or ſides of London and Weſtminſter bridges, and of the ſides of the ſtreets; alſo ſpotted and blue marble.

Pool, the moſt conſiderable ſea-port in all this part of England, is ſeated one hundred and ten miles to the weſt-by-ſouth of London, and twenty-four to the eaſt of Dorcheſter, at the bottom of a great bay or inlet of the ſea, which entering at a narrow mouth, opens to a great breadth, and comes up to the very ſhore of the town. It alſo runs almoſt weſt to Wareham, a little below which it receives the Froom and Peddle. At the entrance of this large bay is an iſland called Brankſey, which lying in the very mouth of the paſſage divides it into two, and has an old caſtle, built to defend the entrance. The town conſiſts of a church, and about ſix hundred houſes, diſpoſed into broad paved ſtreets, and has a manufactory of knit hoſe. It was formerly only a place inhabited by a few fiſhermen; but was greatly enlarged in the reign of Henry VI. when the inhabitants had the privilege of walling it round. It was alſo made a county of itſelf, and allowed to ſend two members to parliament; but ſince that time it has much decayed, though it has ſtill ſome trade, and a number of merchants, who every year ſend ſhips to the Newfoundland fiſhery. This place is famous for the beſt and largeſt oyſters in all this part of England, which the people of Pool pickle, and, barrelling them up, ſend them not only to London, but to Spain, Italy, and even the Weſt-Indies. The town is governed by a mayor, a ſenior bailiff, four other juſtices, and an indeterminate number of burgeſſes.

Wareham, a town ſeated between the rivers Froom and Peddle, where they fall into the Luckford lake, one hundred and nine miles from London, and twenty miles from Dorcheſter. It was once a very large place and had ſeveral churches, which are now reduced to three. It was alſo walled round, and had a caſtle, but it has ſuffered ſo much by the various turns of fortune, and particularly by having its harbour choaked up, that it is at preſent only the ſhadow of what it was.

Lyme, a ſea-port town, one hundred and forty-four miles from London, and twenty-three miles from Dorcheſter, is ſituated on the ſea-ſhore, and though it has neither creek nor bay, road nor navigable river, has a good harbour; but it is ſuch a one as is not to be found perhaps in any other part of the world. It is formed by a maſſy pile of building conſiſting of high and thick walls of ſtone raiſed at firſt with great art, and maintained ſtill with very little difficulty. Theſe walls are raiſed in the main ſea at a good diſtance from the ſhore. There is one ſolid wall of ſtone large enough for carts and carriages to paſs on the top, and to admit houſes and warehouſes to be built on it, it being as broad as a ſtreet: oppoſite to this, but farther in the ſea, is another wall of the ſame workmanſhip which croſſes the end of the firſt, and after winding runs parallel to it. The entrance into the port is between the point of the firſt wall and the ſecond, or oppoſite wall, which breaks the violence of the ſea from the entrance, and ſhips there go into the baſon, where they ride as ſecure as in a wet dock. This work is called the Cobb, and the cuſtom-houſe officers have a lodge and warehouſe upon it. As the ſhore is convenient for batteries, ſome guns are planted in proper places for the defence of the Cobb and town, which is large and well built. It is a place of good trade, and is under the government of a mayor and aldermen.

In 1685 the duke of Monmouth landed here with a handful of men, which was ſoon increaſed to ſix thouſand, and he was proclaimed king; but being defeated by king James's army, was taken priſoner and beheaded.

SECT. XIV.

Of Somerſetſhire; its Situation, Extent, Air, Soil, Produce, Mountains, Caverns, Minerals, and particularly ſeveral beautiful kinds of Ochres. Of its Rivers, and principal Towns.

THIS county probably takes its name from Somerton, once the capital, but now obſcured by Bath, Wells, &c. Some indeed have derived the name Somerſetſhire from Summer, alleging that the largeſt ſhare of that ſeaſon is enjoyed in this county above any other in England. It is bounded on the north by Glouceſterſhire and Briſtol Channel; on the eaſt by Wiltſhire; on the weſt by Devonſhire; and on the ſouth by Dorſetſhire. It is computed to be ſixty-two miles in length, thirty-two in breadth, and two hundred and four in circumference.

Somerſetſhire, which is ſituated in the dioceſe of Briſtol, and in that of Bath and Wells, is divided into thirty-ſeven hundreds; and contains about one hundred and thirty-two vicarages, three hundred and eighty-five pariſhes, thirty-five market towns, fifty-ſix thouſand houſes; three hundred thouſand inhabitants, and ſends eighteen members to parliament, namely, two knights of the ſhire; and two burgeſſes for the following towns, Briſtol, Bath, Wells, Taunton, Bridgewater, Minehead, Ivelcheſter, and Milborn Port.

The air of Somerſetſhire is, in the lower grounds, univerſally mild, and generally wholeſome. The ſoil is various; the lower grounds, except where it is boggy, yield great quantities of corn and graſs; the hilly parts are leſs fertile, yet in many places, by the help of art and induſtry, good crops of corn are raiſed, and where they are moſt barren they afford paſture for ſheep, though where there are mines the graſs is diſcoloured, and the ſheep that feed upon it are ſmall and big-bellied. The country about Taunton is exceeding rich, and affords the greateſt plenty of corn, graſs, and rich fruit for cyder. Within the mountains are mines of lead and lapis calaminaris. The commodities produced by this county are therefore corn, cattle, lead, woad for dying, Chedder cheeſe, lapis calaminaris, and Briſtol ſtones. It is alſo one of the greateſt clothing counties in England: the manufactures are chiefly on fine Spaniſh medley cloths, druggets, ſerges, cantaloons, knit ſtockings, &c. in which vaſt numbers are employed.

In deſcribing this county it will be proper to take notice of its mountains, mines and caverns.

The ridges of Mendip hills run confuſedly, but moſtly extend eaſt and weſt, and are of a very unequal height. The ſoil is barren, and the air cold, moiſt, thick, and foggy. The ſurface is in a great meaſure covered with heath, fern, and furze, and conſequently affords but little food for the cattle, which are for the moſt part ſheep. The ore in theſe mountains runs in veins, ſometimes it is alſo diſperſed in banks, and ſometimes lies between the rocks. About the ore is ſpar and chalk, with another ſubſtance called croots, which is a mealy white and ſoft kind of ſtone. The ſpar is white, tranſparent, and as brittle as glaſs; the chalk is alſo white, and heavier than any ſtone. The vein lies between theſe coats, and is of different breadths; it ſometimes alſo riſes near the ſurface, and at others lies very deep in the earth.

About two miles from Wells, on the ſouth ſide of this ridge of mountains is a famous grotto called Wokey, or Okey hole, which is much reſorted to by ſtrangers. You aſcend the hill about thirty yards to the mouth of a cave, which is about fifteen or twenty-feet high, and opens into a ſpacious cavern that reſembles the body of a cathedral; the upper part is very craggy, abounding with pendant rocks that ſtrike terror into a timorous ſpectator, eſpecially as they appear by candle light, by which they may be plainly ſeen. From all parts of the roof, a clear water is conſtantly dropping, forming a number of ſtony cones reſembling iſicles. The bottom of this vault is extremely rough, ſlippery, and rocky.

From this grotto you proceed by a gradual deſcent, through a very narrow and even paſſage, into another ſpacious vaulted cavern; but not quite ſo high, though nearly as wide, and in other reſpects much like the firſt. From this you paſs through a long low rocky paſſage into a third vault, with a cylindric roof; on one ſide it has a fine ſandy bottom, about fifteen or twenty-one feet wide, and on the other a rivulet about eight or ten feet wide, and two or three deep; the water of which is extremely clear and cold. This rivulet, after its courſe thro' the rock, deſcends forty or fifty feet to the level ground, where it turns a paper-mill at a ſmall diſtance from the foot of the hill. The loudeſt noiſe made by a number of people in theſe caverns cannot in the leaſt be heard by thoſe on the

outside of the hill over them. The air within them is very cold and damp.

About five miles to the north-west of Okey hole lies Chedder, a village famous for its cheese, which excels, in high relish and delicate flavour, all other cheese in England. This village is famous for the stupendous chasm, or cleft, through the body of Mendip hills near this place. It seems as if the hills had been split asunder by the shock of an earthquake: the impending tremendous rocks on either side are very astonishing; some standing on the bottom, reach near the height of the cliff, and yet are entirely severed from the body of the rock. The passage between is but narrow, yet is the road from this part of the country to Bristol. At the entrance of the cleft is a most remarkable spring of water, rising as it were upright out of the rocky basis of the hill, with so large and rapid a stream, that it drives a mill within a few yards. This stream, and that of the cavern just mentioned, are the sources of a river named Ax.

At a small distance from Chedder is another cavern, but smaller than that we have mentioned: Mr. Beaumont, however, mentions a still more extraordinary cavern than any of those yet described, and of which he has given an account in the Philosophical Transactions. This is on a hill called Lamb. "Much ore, says that "gentleman, has been formerly raised on this hill; and "being informed that a great vault was discovered "there, I took six miners with me and went to see it. "First we descended a perpendicular shaft about seventy "fathoms, when we came into a leading vault, which "extends about forty fathoms in length, and as it does "not run upon a level, but descends, when you come "to the end of it you are twenty-three fathoms deep "by a perpendicular line. The floor is full of loose "rocks, and its roof vaulted with rocks of lime-stone, "among which are flowers of all colours hanging from "them, which appear extremely beautiful, and are al-"ways kept moist by the distilling waters. In some "parts the roof is about five fathoms high, in others, "so low that it was difficult to pass through by creep-"ing. The width for the most part is about three fa-"thoms. This cavern crosses many veins of ore. A-"bout the middle of it, on the east side, is a passage into "another, between forty and fifty fathoms in length. "At the end of the first another vast cavern opens. I "fastened a cord about me, and ordering the miners to "let me down; after descending twelve or fourteen fa-"thoms, I came to the bottom. This cavern is about "twenty fathoms in height, fifteen in length, and sixty "in circumference. I afterwards caused the miners to "drive forwards the breast of this cavern, which termi-"nates to the west, and after they had driven about ten "fathoms, they happened into another about one hun-"dred fathom in length, and eight or ten in height. "The frequency of caverns on these hills, he adds, "may easily be guessed at, by the frequency of swallow "pits, which are made by the falling in of the roofs of "caverns. Some of these pits are of a large extent, and "very deep. Sometimes our miners sinking in the bot-"tom of these swallows, have found oaks, fifteen fa-"thoms deep in the earth."

There are several other hills in this county besides those of Mendip. On each side the river Avon the hills form a most beautiful prospect; but are of little advantage to their possessors; for they are neither fertile in herbage, nor timber; but are in general filled with rocks, and are in a manner covered with fern and furze; nor do the few trees scattered upon them flourish like those in a better soil. From the redness of the earth and stones they seem to abound with iron, and in the cracks of the rocks is found ochre, which is greatly superior to that in the shops, and considerable advantage might doubtless be made of it, by collecting the purest parts, and sending it to this metropolis, where it might be sold to great advantage to the colourmen.

The late Mr. Owen, who made very curious observations on the natural productions about the city of Bristol, observes, that there are two principal kinds of earth of the nature of ochre, the one red and the other yellow, which here often crumbled to dust in the places where they lie. The red is of a deep colour, between crimson and purple, and of a strong body: the yellow, of a fine gold colour, light, dusty, and of so strong a body, that a dram of it is equal to an ounce of common ochre, and is besides of a better colour. They both tinge the fingers very much on being touched; and being ground with oil, prove excellent colours for painting. In some of the creeks and crevices of the yellow iron ores is a fine sort of ochre like meal, as fine to the touch as powder for the hair: this is of a lemon colour, and nearly resembles French ochre; but is finer, and can be had but in small quantities. These several kinds of ochre are found not only in crevices of the rocks, but adhering to lumps of various kinds of ore, which being broken shew a variety of colours. Here are also lumps of emery and manganese, and in the same rocks are also veins of lead ore; but they are small. Some of these veins are pure, others are intermixed with a brown stone of the nature of calamine, and some have small clusters of yellowish or white spars, accompanying them in beautiful forms.

The chief rivers belonging to this county, besides the mouth of the Severn, commonly called the Bristol Channel, are the Avon, the Brent, and the Parret. The Avon enters this county about five miles to the south-east of Bath, and soon becomes the northern boundary between Somersetshire and Gloucestershire, and passing by Bristol, discharges itself into the mouth of the Severn. It ought not to be omitted, that about two miles from the Hot Wells, near Bristol, this river is bounded on each side with high, rough, and craggy rocks, the cliffs of which are in some places above two hundred feet high, hanging over in an astonishing manner; and many of these being covered with tufts of grass, small shrubs, tall plants, and and chumps of short trees, seem to form little hanging woods, and afford a most agreeable and romantic prospect.

The Brent rises in the eastern edge of the county, and runs to the westward by Glastonbury, below which it forms a large lake, and then falls into the river Parret near Bristol Channel.

The Parret rises in the south edge of Somersetshire, and running to the northward, receives in its course the Yeovil and the Tome, then passing by Bridgwater, falls into the Bristol Channel. This county is also watered by abundance of smaller streams, which furnish it with plenty of all sorts of fish; but one particular species in the river Avon deserves our notice: they are called elvers, and resemble a diminutive eel: in the spring the river is in some places covered with them, and even looks black with the prodigious multitudes of them on the surface of the water, they being in size about the thickness of a goose-quill. When taken they are made, by a particular management, to cast their skins, and then appear very white; after which they are kneeded into a kind of cake, and then fried.

The principal towns in this county are the following:

Bath, a celebrated city, seated in a plain of moderate extent, surrounded with hills, which form a kind of amphitheatre, and supply the springs that render this city so famous. It is situated a hundred and eight miles to the west of London, nineteen to the north-east of Wells, and twelve to the south-east of Bristol. This city arose from its salutary springs, which in the time of the Romans were greatly celebrated, and is now become a city of pleasure, it being justly esteemed the most polite, gay, and agreeable place in the world. It is encompassed with verdant meadows, hills, and pleasant walks; and perhaps there is no other place where such a number of delightful and variegated landscapes rise to the view. The buildings are magnificent, and many of them in a grand taste; the streets are large, well paved, and clean; the market-place spacious, open, and supplied with the best meat, fish, vegetables, fruit, &c. The grove, the squares, the parades, are worthy of notice; but the most extraordinary buildings are that circular range of magnificent structures built of stone, called the Circus. Nothing can be more singular, and at the same time more beautiful, than a number of noblemen's houses magnificently built, formed into a fine circle, with a noble and spacious area in the middle. But more than all this the wretched and miserable are here frequently delivered from their painful

painful diſorders, by the healing qualities of the waters of the different baths, or relieved, and have the advantage of being directed by the advice of gentlemen the moſt eminent in the profeſſion of phyſic.

With reſpect to the baths, it is proper to obſerve, that in ſome places the hot and cold ſprings riſe very near each other, and in one place within two yards. In this city the hot ſprings exhale a thin kind of miſt, and ſomething of an ill ſmell proceeding from the ſulphureous particles mixed with the water. Theſe hot ſprings are always the ſame, for the longeſt and heavieſt rains do not make them diſcharge more water, nor the drieſt ſeaſons make them diſcharge leſs.

Of theſe ſprings that called the Croſs-bath, from a croſs formerly erected in the middle of it, is of a moderate warmth, and a perſon may ſtay much longer in it than in any of the others. It is encloſed with a wall, on the ſides of which are ſeats, and at the ends galleries for the muſic and ſpectators, under which are ranges of ſmall dreſſing-rooms; one of which ranges is for the gentlemen, and the other for the ladies, who being dreſſed in linen habits go both together into the water, the men keeping on one ſide and the women on the other.

The Hot-bath, ſo called from its being much hotter than the Croſs-bath, is fifty-eight feet and a half diſtant from it. This bath has a well, the water of which not only ſupplies its own pump, but is conveyed by pipes to the pump in the Croſs-bath.

The King's-bath, which is much the largeſt, is accommoded with many dreſſing-places, ſome of which are appropriated to the men, and others to the women, both of whom bathe in linen-drawers and ſhifts. There is here a ſpring ſo hot, that they are obliged to turn moſt of it away, for fear of heating the bath too much. However, the heat of the hotteſt ſpring is not ſufficient to harden an egg.

The Queen's-bath has no ſpring of its own, but is ſupplied by water conveyed from the King's.

There is likewiſe a bath for lepers, into which none go but ſuch as the phyſicians ſuppoſe to have the leproſy, or ſome other diſeaſe of the ſame kind: this is made by the overflowing of the Croſs-bath. The poor who bathe in it have an allowance for their ſupport from the town; but are chiefly relieved by the generous contributions of the gentlemen and ladies who come to enjoy the benefit of the other baths.

That nothing may be wanting to complete the circle of pleaſures in this city, there are ſpacious and lofty rooms for balls and aſſemblies; the ſtudious have here an eaſy ſupply of all kinds of books; two large and elegant theatres have been erected, and a large ſtone bridge built over the river. The ſtone with which the fine buildings in this city are erected is dug out of the quarries upon Charlton down, and brought from thence down a ſteep hill, by a four-wheeled carriage of a particular form and ſtructure; the wheels are of caſt iron, broad and low, with a groove in the perimeter to keep them on the pieces of wood on which it moves down hill, with four or five ton weight of ſtone, very eaſily, without the help of horſes, the motion being moderated by means of a friction lever bearing more or leſs on the hinder wheel, as occaſion requires.

The walls of Bath are almoſt entire; the ſmall circuit of ground encompaſſed by theſe walls is in the form of a pentagon, with four gates, beſides a poſtern. Without the walls is a handſome ſquare, in the center of which is an obeliſk ſeventy feet high. The market-houſe is a large ſtone building, ſupported by thirty-one ſtone pillars, and over it is the town-hall. Here is a general hoſpital for the the reception of the ſick and lame poor from all parts of the kingdom, erected in 1738, by the contributions of the nobility and gentry, and is capable of containing a hundred and fifty patients. Another new ſquare has been laid out in the gardens adjacent to the public walks on the ſouth ſide of the city by the Avon, where is a noble room for balls and public aſſemblies. Bath is the ſee of a biſhop, who is alſo prelate of Wells. St. Peter's cathedral is a lofty venerable pile, with a handſome tower in the middle, and a good ring of eight bells; beſides there are likewiſe three other churches, with two ſchools, one for fifty boys, and the other for as many girls. Near the Croſs-bath is St. John's hoſpital for poor ſick people, which has a chapel of white free-ſtone. Here are alſo two other hoſpitals and an alms-houſe. In this city is a manufactory of cloth; and it is under the government of a mayor, aldermen, and common-council.

Wells is ſituated at the foot of Mendip-hills, a hundred and twenty miles weſt of London, and nineteen ſouth-weſt of Briſtol, and has its name from the wells and ſprings about the city, which is but of ſmall extent, tho' well inhabited. The public and private buildings are very neat, and the cathedral one of the handſomeſt in England, it being a ſtately pile, whoſe frontiſpiece at the weſt end is adorned with images and carved work. The cloſe, which contains the biſhop's palace, is walled in like a little fortification, and encompaſſed by a moat. The dignified clergy live in the inſide of it, and the prebendaries and canons have very agreeable dwellings. The market-houſe is a handſome ſtructure ſupported by columns, and the city is governed by a mayor, a recorder, ſeven aldermen, and ſixteen common-councilmen. The chief manufactures of this city are making of bone-lace, and knitting of hoſe.

Briſtol, called by the Saxons Brightſtow, is ſituated in fifty-one degrees twenty minutes north latitude, and in two degrees forty-nine minutes weſt longitude, partly in this county, and partly in Glouceſterſhire; but being a county of itſelf, is independent of them both. It is divided by the river Avon which runs through it, and ſeparates the two counties; but that part which is on the Glouceſterſhire ſide is the largeſt and moſt populous; for, according to a ſurvey made in the year 1736, the circumference on the Glouceſterſhire ſide was four miles and a half, and on the Somerſetſhire ſide two miles and a half. This city has a ſtone bridge of four broad arches over the Avon; and here is one of the moſt commodious quays in England for ſhipping and landing merchants goods, which lies along the river Froom, and is half a mile in length, from the bridge on the Glouceſter ſide of the city, to the place where that river falls into the Avon. This is the ſecond city in Great Britain for trade, wealth, and number of inhabitants. The trade of many nations is drawn hither by the convenience of commerce, and the harbour, which receives veſſels under ſail into the heart of the city. The Avon ſwells ſo high by the coming in of the tide, that ſhips upon the ſhallows are borne up eleven or twelve fathoms. The merchants here, as well as thoſe of London, have an Exchange; but it was formerly a cuſtom with them to meet, walk, and tranſact mercantile affairs in the open ſtreet, and pay their money on large braſs baſons on the tops of poſts, in that part of the ſtreet called the Tolzey. They were the firſt adventurers to the Weſt Indies, and about forty years ago it was computed that they employed two thouſand ſail of ſhips, in trade, to the ſeveral parts of the world. By the Severn and the Wye the inhabitants of this city have almoſt the whole trade of South Wales to themſelves, and the greateſt part of that of North Wales; and by land-carriage they ſend goods to Exeter, Bath, Wells, Froom, and all the principal towns from Southampton to the banks of the Trent. Here are conſiderable manufactures of woollen ſtuffs, particularly cantaloons, carried on chiefly by French refugees; and here are no leſs than fifteen glaſs-houſes, which are ſupplied with coals from Kingſwood and Mendip-hills; ſome are for glaſſes, others for crown-glaſs, and others for bottles, for which there is a great demand at the hot well in its neighbourhood, which lies about a mile and half from the city down the Avon, and alſo at Bath, for exporting their mineral waters.

The city with its ſuburbs is very compact, being almoſt as broad as long, and no way above a mile; yet the houſes are computed at about thirteen thouſand, and the ſouls at ninety-five thouſand. Beſides the cathedral there are eighteen churches, and ſeven or eight meeting-houſes of Proteſtant Diſſenters: and, according to Mr. Whatley, there are eighteen hoſpitals, beſides charity-ſchools, a guildhall, and a very large council-houſe; and its cuſtom-houſe ſtands on the ſide of Queen's-ſquare, which is adorned with rows of trees that lead to a curious equeſtrian ſtatue of king William III. On the north-weſt ſide of the city is Brandon-hill, under which is Jacob's-well,

where plays are acted almoſt every night in the ſummer ſeaſon by comedians from London. The College-green is juſtly admired for its ſituation, as it commands a moſt delightful proſpect over the whole city and harbour; and here ſtands the cathedral, with a ſtately croſs, which is a fine Gothic ſtructure ſurrounded with the effegies of ſeveral kings of England. It is remarkable, that though the city carries on ſuch a prodigious trade, no carts are admitted into it, for fear of damaging the arches of the vaults and thoſe of the gutters made under ground for carrying off the ſoil into the river; ſo that the goods being conſtantly drawn through the ſtreets upon ſledges, the pavement is neceſſarily rendered exceeding ſlippery.

Bridgwater is ſeated about twelve miles from the Start-point, where the Parret runs into the Briſtol Channel, a hundred and forty-three miles from London. The ſpring-tide here flows twenty-two feet at leaſt at the quay, and comes in with ſuch an impetuous torrent, and ſuch a noiſe, that it is called The Raging Bear. Ships of two hundred tons come up to its quay, and from its convenient ſituation for commerce the inhabitants have a pretty good coaſting trade to Briſtol, and carry coals to Wales, and ſlate, &c. to Cornwall, twenty ſhips at leaſt being conſtantly employed. Its foreign trade is principally to Newfoundland. It is a large well frequented place; has ſeveral good inns, and the market is well ſupplied with corn, cattle, hogs, and ſheep, and particularly excellent cheeſe.

Somerton, once the moſt celebrated town in the county, and that from whence it took its name, is now but a poor place, a hundred and twenty-nine miles to the weſt of London, but has a conſiderable market for corn, proviſions, and cattle.

Glaſtonbury is ſeated one hundred and twenty miles from London, and is famous for its abbey, ſome magnificent ruins of which are ſtill remaining, but are daily diminiſhed for the ſake of the ſtones: however, the curious ſtructure called the Abbot's Kitchen, is ſtill pretty entire, and of a very unuſual contrivance. It is pretended that the bodies of Joſeph of Arimathea, of king Arthur, and of king Edward the Confeſſor, were buried here. The town is pretty large and well built; near it, on a high ſteep hill, named the Tor, is placed a tower that commands an extenſive proſpect, and ſerves as a land-mark to ſeamen. The laſt abbot of this place was hanged on the top of the Tor, by order of king Henry VIII. for not acknowledging his ſupremacy. The holy thorn, or haw thorn, in the church yard upon the hill, ſaid to have taken root from a ſtaff ſtuck in the ground by Joſeph of Arimathea, and to bloſſom only on Chriſtmas-day, has brought a vaſt number of people to viſit this town, though it is very dubious whether Joſeph was ever in Britain. Dr. Gibſon ſays it has been cut down for many years, yet there are ſtill ſome growing in the county from branches of it, particularly in the garden of Mr. Stroud, the poſſeſſor of the ground where the other ſtood; and another in the garden now belonging to an inn there. Theſe branches, however, do not always bloſſom on Chriſtmas-day; for they ſometimes bloſſom three or four days after, and ſeldom ſo ſoon as Chriſtmas-day, except the weather be extremely mild. Glaſtonbury, about fifteen years ago, was for ſome time famous for its mineral waters, but for want of proper caution they proved fatal to ſeveral who drank them, but have been found ſerviceable in the aſthma and dropſy, in the cure of ſcorbutic diſorders, ulcers, and even cancers.

Taunton, a handſome, neat, well-built town, a hundred and forty-eight miles to the ſouth-weſt of London, received its name from its being ſeated on the river Thone. The ſtreets are ſpacious, and it has two pariſh-churches, beſides ſeveral meeting-houſes of Proteſtant Diſſenters, and it is ſurrounded by delightful meadows, orchards, and gardens. This town is very populous, and ſome thouſands are employed in the manufacture of ſerges, duroys, ſagathies, ſhalloons, &c. for weaving of which eleven hundred looms have been employed at a time. The river is navigable for barges within three miles of the town, where there is a handſome bridge, and it once had a caſtle.

SECT. XV.

Of Devonſhire; its Situation, Extent, Diviſions, Repreſentatives in Parliament, &c. Its Air, Soil, Produce, Rivers, and Curioſities; with a Deſcription of the principal Towns.

DEVONSHIRE is bounded on the north by Briſtol Channel; on the eaſt by Somerſetſhire; on the ſouth by he Engliſh Channel; and on the weſt by Cornwall, and has the title of a duchy. It extends ſixty-one miles in length, fifty-four in breadth, and contains fifty-ſix thouſand three hundred and ten houſes, three hundred and thirty-ſeven thouſand eight hundred and ſixty inhabitants, three hundred and ninety-four pariſhes, thirty-eight market-towns, and about ſeventeen hundred and thirty villages. This county, which is ſubdivided into thirty hundreds, ſends twenty-ſix members to parliament: theſe are two knights for the ſhire, and two members for each of the following places; Exeter, Plymouth, Totneſs, Plympton, Okehampton, Honiton, Barnſtaple, Taviſtock, Aſhburton, Tiverton, Beralſtone, and Clifton-Dartmouth-Hardneſs.

The air of this county is very mild and healthful in the valleys; but exceſſively cold and bleak upon the mountains. The ſoil is various, for the lower grounds are naturally fruitful, and yet are made much more ſo by the art and induſtry of thoſe who poſſeſs the lands; but the hills are very barren. In the eaſtern parts there is plenty, not only of good corn, but of fine paſturage for ſheep, where the grounds are dry and chalky. The ſouthern part of the county is remarkably fertile, and is as juſtly called The Garden of Devonſhire, as Italy The Garden of the World. The trees are in as great variety here, as in any other part of the kingdom; and fruit-trees are particularly plentiful, eſpecially apples, with which they make a great quantity of cyder. The merchants who go long voyages to ſea find this a very ſerviceable drink in their ſhips, and therefore lay in great ſtores of it; for it is ſaid one ton of cyder will go as far as three of beer, and it is found by experience to be much more wholeſome in hot climates.

On the coaſt in this county is found plenty of a peculiar rich ſand, which proves of ſingular ſervice to the huſbandmen, as thoſe who live at a diſtance from the ſea purchaſe it in order to improve their poor lands, for it renders the moſt barren ſoil fruitful, and, as it were, impregnates the glebe. However, thoſe huſbandmen who live at too great a diſtance from the ſea-ſhore, and whoſe circumſtances are too narrow to purchaſe a ſufficient quantity of this valuable manure, are reduced to the neceſſity of uſing marl, lime, and the turf of the ground pared off and burnt to aſhes.

Though the inhabitants are in no want of horſes, kine, hogs, goats, ſheep, or rabbets, yet their principal commodity is fowl, which they enjoy in the greateſt profuſion. In the weſtern parts of Devonſhire are great quantities of game, eſpecially hares, woodcocks, and pheaſants, in ſuch abundance as to render them very cheap. And in that part of the country is a bird ſo very ſmall that it is reputed a humming-bird, and like that hangs its neſt on the extreme branches of the trees. The inhabitants inſiſt that no venomous creature, of what nature or ſpecies ſoever, will live among them.

In the ſouth-weſt parts of Devonſhire are great quantities of marble, and in many places marble rocks are found to be the baſis of the road on which people travel; this marble, when poliſhed, is little inferior to ſome we have from abroad, and accordingly is much uſed by the gentry in thoſe parts.

This county abounds with a greater variety of rivers than any other can boaſt of, yet there are only two, namely the Tamar and the Ex, that are peculiarly worthy of the reader's attention. The former, which ſeparates this county from Cornwall, has its ſource in the hills near Welcomb, and runs nearly from north to ſouth till it reaches the Engliſh Channel at Plymouth. This river is particularly remarkable for the goodneſs of the ſalmon caught in it. The Ex forms a courſe upon the ſame points, and, paſſing by Exeter, alſo falls into the Channel.

Channel. Great plenty of ſalmon is alſo found in this river, where they come in great quantities in the ſpawning ſeaſon. From theſe two rivers the country is ſtocked with a great variety of common fiſh; but the moſt beneficial are herrings and pilchards, for by trading with them they obtain all ſorts of commodities from the adjacent counties and foreign nations.

In ſeveral places in Devonſhire are mineral waters that have been of ſingular ſervice in dangerous epidemic diſeaſes.

Among the curioſities of this county is Lay-well, which ebbs and flows near eleven times every hour.

The river Tamar, juſt mentioned, receives into it a ſmall river called the Lid, which is peculiarly remarkable for being pent up with rocks at the bridge, and running ſo far below it, that the water is ſcarcely to be ſeen, or the murmurs of it to be heard, to the aſtoniſhment of all ſtrangers who have the curioſity to attend to theſe uncommon circumſtances; for the bridge is level with the road, and the water runs near ſeventy feet below it.

Within a mile of this place is a cataract, where the water falls above an hundred feet; it comes from a mill at ſome diſtance, and after a courſe upon a deſcent of near an hundred feet from the level of the mill, it arrives at the brink of the precipice, from whence it falls in a beautiful manner, and ſtriking upon a part of the cliff, ruſhes from thence in a wider cataract to the bottom, where falling with great violence, it makes a deep and foaming baſon in the ground. This wonderful fall of water fills the air all round at the bottom with ſuch an atmoſphere of aqueous particles, that a perſon approaching it finds himſelf in a miſt. The principal places in this county are the following:

Exeter, thus called by contraction from Exceſter, a caſtle on the river Ex, was the Auguſta of the Romans; it is ſituated a hundred and ſeventy-three miles from London, on the top of an eaſy aſcent on the eaſtern bank of that river. The walls are in pretty good repair, and form an agreeable walk round the city, with the view of a fine country, hills covered with trees, fields, orchards, villages, and gentlemen's ſeats. The principal part of the city conſiſts of four ſtreets centering at a handſome conduit. The High-ſtreet particularly makes a noble appearance, it being broad and ſtraight; and the houſes are of a very old but good model, ſpacious, commodious, and not inelegant. This ſtreet is full of ſhops well furniſhed, and all trades are briſkly carried on. In the northern angle of the city, and the higheſt ground, ſtands Rugemont caſtle, once the reſidence of the Weſt Saxon monarchs, and afterwards of the earls of Cornwall. It is of a ſquare figure, not very large, but environed with a high wall and a deep ditch. It has a rampart of earth parallel to the top of the wall, and forming a terrace that over-looks the city and country. In this caſtle the aſſizes are held, and it alſo contains a chapel. The bridge over the Ex is of great length, and has houſes on both ſides, with a conſiderable vacancy in the middle.

The cathedral was about four hundred years in building, and is yet very remarkable for the uniformity with which it was carried on; for the whole ſeems the workmanſhip of one and the ſame architect. The altar-piece, which was done a hundred years ago, is the repreſentation of the church in perſpective, a very fine piece of painting. The fine painted glaſs, of which there is a great deal, was much damaged during the time of the civil wars, in the reign of king Charles I. and the carved figures of the patriarchs and prophets were greatly defaced. On the ſouth ſide of the high altar are three ſeats adorned with Gothic carvings to the height of about twenty-five feet, ſupported by braſs pillars. In one of the towers of this church is a very large bell of about three ton weight, and in the other a fine ring of ten large ones.

The other buildings of a public nature are the chapter-houſe and cloiſters, the biſhop's palace, the houſes belonging to the dean, the chancellor, treaſurer, and other dignitaries of the church, the guild-hall, with the hoſpital of St. John the Baptiſt. There are within the city and liberties twenty pariſh-churches; to which may be added ſome chapels and alms-houſes, with the ruins of ſeveral others. There are likewiſe three or four meeting-houſes, a quay for landing goods, and a cuſtom-houſe.

The city is governed by a mayor, twenty-four aldermen and common-council, a recorder, a ſheriff, four ſtewards, a chamberlain, and town-clerk, who are attended by a ſword-bearer, who wears the cap and carries the ſword given by king Henry VII. before them in all public proceſſions. There are alſo in this city twelve incorporated trades, who on public occaſions walk in the mayor's train, dreſſed in gowns, each company having a beadle in a laced coat bearing the enſigns of their ſeveral profeſſions.

Plymouth is ſituated in the fiftieth degree twenty-ſix minutes north latitude, and in the fourth degree twenty-ſeven minutes weſt longitude, two hundred and fifteen miles from London, between two very large inlets of the ſea, in the bottom of a ſpacious ſound, or bay, encompaſſed on every ſide with hills; the ſhore is generally ſteep and rocky, though the anchorage is good, and it is pretty ſafe riding. In the entrance of the bay is a large and dangerous rock, which at high water is covered, but at low tide lies bare. Upon this rock, which is called the Eddy-ſtone, the ingenious Mr. Winſtanley firſt built a light-houſe for the direction of ſailors; this work, conſidering its height and the magnitude of the building, ſtood to admiration ſeveral dreadful ſtorms. Mr. Winſtanley, who often viſited it, ſtrengthened the building by new works, and was ſo confident of its ſtability, that he uſually ſaid to thoſe who doubted its ſtanding in hard weather, that he only deſired to be in it when a ſtorm ſhould happen; but in the dreadful tempeſt of November 27, 1703, when he happened to be ſo unhappy as to have his wiſh, he in vain made ſignals for help; but no boats dared to go off to him; and in the morning after the ſtorm nothing was to be ſeen but the bare rock, the light-houſe being gone, in which Mr. Winſtanley and all that were with him periſhed; but a very ſtately light-houſe has ſince been built in its room. The town is defended by a caſtle ſeated on an iſland named St. Nicholas, and by a citadel in the town oppoſite to the iſland. This is a ſmall but regular fortification, inacceſſible by ſea, but not exceeding ſtrong by land. It is ſurrounded with a deep trench, out of which was dug the ſtone of which the citadel was built. It is about three quarters of a mile in circumference, and has three hundred guns on its walls, which ſtand thickeſt towards the ſea. The town ſtands above the citadel upon the ſame rock, ſloping on the ſide of it towards the eaſt. The inlet of the ſea, called Catwater, forms a harbour capable of receiving any number of ſhips, and of any ſize; it waſhes the eaſtern ſhore of the town, where they have a kind of natural mole, with a quay and all other conveniences for loading and unloading of veſſels. On the other ſide of the town is another inlet of the ſea, called Hamouze; this is the mouth of the river Tamar, where is a wet dock, with yards, dry docks, launches, and conveniences of all kinds for building and repairing of ſhips. Theſe wet and dry docks exceed every thing of the kind, being hewn out of a mine of ſlate, and lined with Portland ſtone. The dry dock is large enough for a firſt-rate man of war, and the wet dock will contain five of the ſame ſize. Here are alſo ſtore-houſes for rigging, and for the naval and military ſtores of ſuch ſhips as may be appointed to be laid up there; with very handſome houſes for the commiſſioner, clerks, and officers of all kinds uſual in the king's yards. In ſhort, it is now become as complete a yard as any belonging to the government, though not ſo large. Here are two fine churches, and two or three meeting-houſes for Proteſtant Diſſenters and French refugees; alſo a free-ſchool, and an hoſpital for blue coat boys. It gives title of earl to the noble family of Hickman.

Dartmouth, a ſea-port town ſeated on the declivity of a hill at the mouth of the river Dart, where it empties itſelf into the ſea, a hundred and ninety-eight miles from London, and thirty-one from Exeter. The opening into the harbour is not broad; but the channel deep enough for the largeſt ſhips in the royal navy. The ſides of the entrance are mounded with rocks, and at the firſt narrowing of the paſſage is a good ſtrong fort, and a platform of guns which command the port. The narrow entrance extends about half a mile, and then opening forms a harbout, in which five hundred ſail of ſhips may ride with

the greateſt ſafety, and the entrance may, upon occaſion, be chained up.

Dartmouth is ſituated on the weſt ſide of this baſon, or harbour, in a kind of ſemicircle, on the aſcent of a ſteep hill; but though large and populous it is but meanly built, yet the quay is ſpacious, as is alſo the ſtreet before it. Here live ſome very flouriſhing merchants, who carry on a proſperous trade to the moſt conſiderable ports of Spain, Portugal, Italy, and the plantations; but eſpecially to Newfoundland, and from thence to Spain and Italy with fiſh; and they alſo drive a good trade in their own fiſhery of pilchards, which is carried on with the greateſt number of veſſels of any port in the weſt, except Falmouth. It has three churches, and a very large meeting-houſe; but the ſtreets are narrow and bad, though they are all paved, and is governed by a mayor, a recorder, twelve maſters, or magiſtrates, a town-clerk, and a high-ſteward.

This town was burnt by the French in the reign of Richard I. They ſome time after beſieged it again; but were bravely repulſed, particularly by the women, when the enemy being routed, general Caſtel, with three lords, and twenty-three knights, were made priſoners. This town has the title of an earldom.

About fifty miles from the north-weſt coaſt of this county is Lundy Iſland, which is five miles long, and two broad; but it is remarkable that it is ſo encompaſſed with inacceſſible rocks, that it has but one entrance into it, and that ſo narrow that two men can ſcarce go abreaſt. The ſouth part of the iſland enjoys a pretty good ſoil; but the north part is in a great meaſure barren, and has a remarkable high pyramidical rock called the Conſtable.

SECT. XVI.

Of Cornwall; its Name, Situation, Extent, Diviſion, &c. and the Members it ſends to Parliament. The Air, Soil, and Vegetables; the Mines, Minerals, and natural Curioſities; with the Cattle, Fowls, Fiſh, and Rivers of this County. The Manners of the Inhabitant, a Deſcription of the principal Towns, and a conciſe Account of the Scilly Iſlands.

THE preſent name of this county is differently accounted for; but the moſt probable derivation ſeems to be that which brings it from the promontories projecting into the ſea like horns, called in the Britiſh language Kernaw, with the Saxon addition of Waules, to denote the people who fled thither. It is ſurrounded by the ſea on all ſides, except the eaſt, where it is parted from Devonſhire by the river Tamar: the northern coaſt being waſhed by the Briſtol Channel, the weſtern by St. George's, and the ſouthern by the Britiſh ſea. Its length from eaſt to weſt is near ſeventy miles, its breadth next to Devonſhire, where it is broadeſt, is computed about forty; but in the narroweſt, at St. Ives, it does not exceed five, yet its circumference from its unequal ſhore meaſures upwards of two hundred and thirty-three miles.

Cornwall is ſituated in the dioceſe of Exeter, and contains about twenty-ſeven thouſand ſix hundred and twenty houſes, a hundred and ſixty-five thouſand inhabitants, a hundred and ſixty-one pariſhes, twenty-ſeven market-towns, and twelve hundred and thirty villages: it is ſubdivided into nine hundreds, and ſends no leſs than forty-four members to parliament; theſe are two knights of the ſhire, and as many members for each of the following towns: Camelford, Bodmin, Boſſiney, Dunevet, Launceſton, Eaſt Loe, Foy, Helſton, Grampound, St. Maws, Leſkard, Kellington, St. Ives, St. Germans, Truro, St. Michael, Tregony, Newport, Portpigham, and Saltaſh.

The air is ſharp and healthful to the natives, yet the vicinity of the ſea, on three of its ſides, prevents its being ſubject to hard froſts, and the ſnow lying long on the ground. The ſame reaſon may be aſſigned for the frequent guſts of wind which are here very boiſterous, and conſequently ſometimes pernicious; but the inhabitants are ſeldom troubled with infectious diſeaſes. The ſeaſons are ſomewhat different from thoſe in other parts, the ſummer being more temperate; and as the autumnal fruits are later, their harveſt is ſeldom ripe enough for the barn till near Michaelmas.

The ſoil as it is very ſhallow cannot be extraordinary fruitful, eſpecially on the hilly parts. The vallies yield plenty of graſs, and the lands near the ſea, by being manured with orewood, a kind of ſea-weed, and fat ſea-ſand, produce conſiderable quantities of corn. The fruits and herbs of this county are much the ſame with thoſe of others, though not ſo plentiful among the common people. It has beſides ſome plants which are either uncommon, or have never been found in other counties: among theſe is a ſort of grain ſown plentifully towards the farther end of the county, which is naked oats, called pillcorn, from its being naturally ſtripped of the huſk, with which the common oat is covered, for which reaſon it is much eſteemed. They have alſo plenty of ſea-herbs, as camphire, eringo, ros ſolis, and what is peculiar to this county the ſweet-briar grows naturally here.

From the ſurface we ſhall paſs to the bowels of the earth, where are found many ſorts of ſtones and metals. As to the former, the moor-ſtone is the chief: this is uſed both in buildings aud for large mill-ſtones. Its natural compoſition is very beautiful, it conſiſting for the greateſt part of a whitiſh granulated marble, variegated with a ſort of black and yellow matter reſembling tinſel and tin-glaſs, ſhining and glittering very agreeably in the ſun beams. This ſtone, therefore, while new, gives a glorious aſpect to buildings; but though prodigiouſly hard at firſt, it ſoon changes its colour and conſiſtence. When poliſhed it appears much more ſplendid and beautiful than any of the marble kind, and makes the richeſt furniture, as tables, chimney-pieces, &c. but being exceeding hard, the poliſhing is very expenſive.

With reſpect to the mines of Cornwall, they conſiſt of two ſorts, one of tin, the other of copper; thoſe of tin are very numerous, and are in general very large and rich in ore, theſe have rendered this county famous in all ages. There have alſo been ſometimes found a ſmall quantity of gold and ſilver, but not worthy of notice. With the metalline ores are intermixed large quantities of mundic and arſenic.

The tin works are of different ſorts, on account of the different forms in which the tin appears, for in many places the tin ore ſo nearly reſembles common ſtones, that they can only be diſtinguiſhed from them by their ſuperior weight. The ſecond form in which tin appears conſiſts of tin and earth, compounded and concreted into a ſubſtance almoſt as hard as ſtone, of a bluiſh or greyiſh colour, and often the mundic gives it a yellowiſh caſt. This ore is always found in a continued ſtratum or bed, which the tinners call the load, and thus, for the moſt part, is found running through the ſolid ſubſtance of the hardeſt rocks, beginning in ſmall veins near the ſurface, perhaps not above half an inch or an inch wide, and increaſing as they go into larger dimenſions branching out into ſeveral ſtrata, and proceeding downwards in a direction that is in general nearly eaſt and weſt. Theſe loads are ſometimes white very wide and thick; ſo that great lumps of this ore are often drawn up of more than twenty pounds value. The loads of tin ore are not always contiguous; but ſometimes break off ſo entirely, that you would think you had got to the end of it, but the ſagacious tinner knows by experience, that by digging a ſmall diſtance on one ſide he ſhall meet with a ſeparated part of the load appearing to tally with the other end as nicely as if it had been broken off by ſome ſudden ſhock of the rock.

The mines of this country follow the load in all its rich and meandering windings in the bowels of the rocky earth. Sometimes the waters are drained from theſe mines by ſubterranean paſſages, formed from the body of the mountain to the level country; theſe, which are called adits, ſometimes prove the labour of many years, but when effected they ſave the conſtant expence of large water-works and fire engines. From the ſurface of the earth they ſink a paſſage to the mine, which they call a ſhaft, and over it place a large winch; but in greater works a wheel and axle, by which means they draw up large quantities of ore at a time, in veſſels called kibbuls.

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This ore is thrown into heaps, where great numbers of poor people are employed in breaking it to pieces and fitting it for the ſtamping mills.

The third form in which tin appears is that of cryſtals; for tin being a ſalt, will, under ſome circumſtances, readily cryſtalize; and therefore in many parts of the mineral rocks are found the moſt perfect tranſparent and beautiful cryſtals of pure tin.

The copper mines of this county next deſerve our notice, they being very numerous, and ſome of them large and rich in ore. It is remarkable, that in ſome parts of Cornwall the earth has produced ſuch an exuberance of this metal, as to afford it in large maſſy lumps of malleable copper, ſeveral pieces of which they ſhew in very curious vegetable forms. The mundic, which we have obſerved, is found in the loads of tin, was for many ages conſidered as of no other uſe but to nouriſh tin while in the mine. However, in the reign of queen Elizabeth, a laudable curioſity prompted ſome private perſons to examine into its nature; but the deſign miſcarried, and the mundic was thrown as uſeleſs into the old pits with other rubbiſh; but about eighty years ago, Sir Gilbert Clark began to work upon the mundic, and others following his example have by degrees brought the work to bear, and the copper extracted from this ore, once eſteemed uſeleſs, now brings in above one hundred and fifty thouſand pounds a year, and equals in goodneſs the beſt Swediſh copper, yielding a proportionable quantity of lapis calaminaris for making braſs. In Mount's bay, near Penzance, the ſhore is as it were paved with a rocky ſtone, of ſo fine a grain that it equals any hone in giving an edge to a razor.

In many of the cavernous parts of the rocks are found thoſe tranſparent cryſtals called Corniſh diamonds, they being extremely brilliant when well poliſhed. Their form is that of a ſix ſided priſm pointed on the top, and they are ſometimes four or five inches in length.

All the parts of Cornwall on this ſide St. Auſtle's, St. Michael's, and St. Agnes, have little or no mineral ores, but moſtly abound with rocks of blue ſlate, eſpecially towards the ſouth, where are many large quarries of that uſeful foſſil.

Among the curioſities obſervable in this county, it is worthy of notice that the Lands-end conſiſts of very ſteep rocks projecting beyond the reſt into the ſea, in which the water of the ſea runs with great rapidity, violence, and noiſe.

Among the rude relics of nature in this county, we ought not to paſs by the logan or rocking-ſtone, of which there are two ſorts, ſome artificial, others natural; we ſhall here only take notice of the latter. In the pariſh of St. Levin is a promontory called Caſtle Treryn. This cape conſiſts of three diſtinct groups of rocks, and on the top of the middle group is the moſt wonderful of theſe ſtones perhaps in the world. It is computed that its ſolid contents amount to about ninety-five tons; the two inclined ſides ſomewhat reſemble the roof of a houſe meeting in a ſort of obtuſe ridge upon the top. The lower part is a large plain baſe, near the middle of which projects a ſmall part on which it reſts, not more than eighteen or twenty inches in diameter. This prodigious ſtone is eaſily moveable upon the large ſtone below, the power of one man being ſufficient to make it vibrate up and down.

With reſpect to the cattle of this country, it has all the ſeveral kinds found in the others; but it is remarkable that the ſheep, which when it lay open and uncultivated were ſmall, and their wool ſo coarſe that it was uſually called Corniſh hair, have ſince the land has been well manured, equalled the ſheep of other counties in ſize, and in the fineneſs of the wool. The cows and oxen are ſmall, but their fleſh ſweet and juicy. They uſe oxen chiefly in ploughing. Their horſes are bred hard, and fed as coarſely; but though they are ſmall, they travel well, and are very ſerviceable in this mountainous country: mules are alſo much uſed. The parks are well ſtocked with fallow deer; but they have no red deer except what ſtray thither out of Devonſhire. Many foxes, otters, badgers, and martins harbour in the cliffs near the ſea ſide.

The fowl of this county are generally ſuch as are found in others. Wild fowl are very plenty in the parts adjoining to Devonſhire. The birds called the choughs, which are in a manner peculiar to this county, are found in great plenty, and ſomewhat reſemble the pied or grey crow; they are nearly of the ſize of the jack-daw, have red legs and beak, and have the character of being a very thieviſh bird. The moſt remarkable among the water-fowl is one about the ſize of a ſea-gull, which has a ſingular method in taking of its prey; for it riſes high in the air, and from thence falls as if dead, and by the velocity of the fall, is enabled to penetrate through the water, and ſuddenly ſeize the fiſh it ſtrikes at. Theſe are ſeen in very great numbers in Mount's bay, and other parts of the ſea-coaſt.

The rivers and ſeas afford great plenty of fiſh, but moſtly ſuch as are common to other counties; but the prodigious ſhoals of pilchards enable them to carry on a very great trade in that fiſh. On the ſouth coaſt are found large quantities of thoſe ſmall ſhell-fiſh which affords that beautiful tint called the Tyrian dye; this matter is contained in ſmall ciſtus or bag, and when taken out appears of a greeniſh yellow. If this be ſpread upon a piece of fine linen, it will in a day or two appear of a pale reddiſh colour, the linen being waſhed the firſt time it is heightened into a paleiſh purple, and every waſhing after renders the colour ſtill more ſtrong and vivid, and it is not in the leaſt ſubject to fade.

The chief rivers are the Tamar, the Camel, and the Fale. The Tamar runs a long courſe from north to ſouth, and is the boundary between the two counties of Cornwall and Devonſhire, emptying itſelf into Plymouth Sound. The Camel runs from ſouth to north, and forms Padſtowe haven in the Briſtol Channel. The Fale runs from north to ſouth, and diſcharges itſelf into St. George's Channel, forming the haven of Falmouth.

The language of the Corniſh gentry is Engliſh, which is ſaid to be as pure as that in London, except in two or three pariſhes, where a corrupt dialect of the ancient Corniſh tongue is much uſed. The natives of this country are diſtinguiſhed by their plainneſs and ſimplicity of manners; they ſeem abſolutely unacquainted with fraud, diſſimulation, and flattery, and are of a free, facetious, and generous temper; they are curious and inquiſitive, and are are alſo diſtinguiſhed for their humanity and hoſpitality to ſtrangers; they are great encouragers of the arts and ſciences, and excel in mechanics.

The principal places in this county are the following:

Leſkard is a conſiderable town, two hundred and twenty-one miles to the ſouth-weſt of London, and had anciently a good caſtle and a palace, in which the dukes of Cornwall kept their court, particularly Edward the Black prince, who reſided here as prince of Wales and duke of Cornwall. Its town hall has a turret with a fine clock. There is here an ancient large church, dedicated to St. Martin, a ſpacious meeting houſe for the diſſenters, a good free-ſchool, and a fine conduit in the market place. It has a very great trade in all manufactures of leather, as boots, ſhoes, gloves, purſes, breeches, &c.

Launceſton is ſeated on the top of a ſmall hill near the river Tamar, twenty-eight miles to the north of Plymouth, and two hundred and nine to the weſtward of London. Here the buſineſs of the county, as the aſſizes, and the election of the knights for the ſhire, are uſually tranſacted. It is a neat town, and was formerly defended by a caſtle which is now in ruins.

Falmouth, a ſea-port town, and by much the richeſt and beſt trading town in the county, is ſituated in fifty degrees, twelve minutes north latitude, and in five degrees twelve minutes weſt longitude, two hundred and eighty-two miles from London. The harbour is ſo large, that one hundred ſail may ſafely ride at anchor at a time, and thoſe of the greateſt burthen may come up to the quay. The entrance into the harbour is defended by St. Mawes and Pendennis caſtles, both of which are very ſtrong, and have governors and garriſons.

St. Mawes, alſo called St. Mary's, has a little town annexed to the caſtle; but it has neither church nor market. Falmouth is well built, and has abundance of ſhips belonging to it. It is full of merchants, and its trade has greatly increaſed ſince the eſtabliſhment of the Engliſh packets between this town, Portugal, and the Weſt

Indies, as alſo between it and the Groyne in Spain: thoſe from Portugal bringing over not only vaſt quantities of gold for the London merchants, but for thoſe of Falmouth, who trade with the Portugueſe in their own ſhips, and have a great ſhare in the profitable pilchard fiſhery. Here is the cuſtom-houſe for moſt of the towns in the county, and a head collector lives at Falmouth. This town gives title of viſcount to the noble family of Boſcawen.

Truro is one of the chief towns in the county, and is ſeated two hundred and ſeventy-four miles from London, on a branch of Falmouth haven, which is here divided into two ſtreams, and almoſt ſurrounds the town. It is a large, handſome, and well inhabited place, which takes its name from its three ſtreets, which in the Corniſh tongue are expreſſed by the word Truru. It has three churches, about ſix hundred houſes, and is governed by a mayor and aldermen.

Penryn is up the ſame branch of the haven as Falmouth, but ſtands four miles to the weſt: It is a pleaſant agreeable town, full of orchards, and looks like a town in a wood. The ſtreets are broad and paved: it has a church, and about three hundred houſes, and is governed by a mayor, four aldermen, and a town clerk, and there has been lately ſet up here a manufactory of ſerges.

Penzance, a town ſeated on Mount's bay, within about twelve miles of the promontory called the Lands-end, and two hundred and ninety to the ſouth-weſt of London, is a market-town well built and populous, and has many ſhips belonging to it; and alſo a conſiderable number of families of rank. It conſiſts of about ſix hundred houſes; the ſtreets, though bad, are paved. The church ſtands about half a mile from the town; but the inhabitants have a chapel. It is governed by a mayor, a recorder, fourteen aldermen, and twenty-four common-council men. It is remarkable that veins of lead, tin, and copper ore are ſaid to be ſeen even to the utmoſt extent of land at low-water mark, and in the very ſea.

The rocks of Scilly, called by the Greeks Caſſiterides, and by the Dutch ſeamen, Sorlings, are about one hundred and forty ſmall iſlands and rocks thirty miles from the Lands-end, of which St. Mary's is the largeſt, and moſt fruitful, though but nine miles in circumference. It has a good harbour defended by a caſtle. The iſle of Scilly was once eſteemed the moſt conſiderable; that and ſome others ſtand very high; but ſeveral of them are overflowed at high tides. Some of them bear good corn, and moſt of them paſture. They abound with rabbets, cranes, herrons, ſwans, and other water-fowl. Theſe iſlands being ſituated near the mouth of the Engliſh Channel, have proved the deſtruction of many ſhips; for, in ſpite of light houſes and the beſt ſkill of the mariners, they are very dangerous in the night, and in ſtormy weather: here Sir Cloudſley Shovel, in the admiral-ſhip, with three other men of war, unhappily ran upon theſe rocks, on the twenty-ſecond of October, 1707, and not a man was ſaved out of all the ſhips.

We have now deſcribed all the counties of England to the ſouth of the Thames and Briſtol channel, and ſhall therefore proceed further north, and begin with Monmouthſhire.

SECT. XVII.

Of Monmouthſhire; its Situation, Extent, Air, Soil, Produce, and Rivers.

MOnmouthſhire was formerly a part of Wales, and as ſuch is deſcribed by Camden, and other authors; but as all the later writers have placed it in England, we ſhall follow their example, though there ſeems to be no better reaſon for it than the Oxford circuit being extended through that county in the reign of king Charles II.

Monmouthſhire receives its name from Monmouth its county town, and is bounded on the north by Herefordſhire; on the eaſt by Glouceſterſhire; on the ſouth by the river Severn; and on the weſt by the Welſh counties of Brecknock and Glamorgan. Its extent from north to ſouth is about twenty-nine miles, from eaſt to weſt twenty, and in circumference eighty-four. It is ſubdivided into ſix hundreds, and contains ſeven market-towns, one hundred and twenty-ſeven pariſhes, about ſix thouſand four hundred and ninety-four houſes, thirty-eight thouſand nine hundred inhabitants; but ſends only three members to parliament, that is, one for Monmouth, and two for the county.

The air is temperate and healthy, and the ſoil fruitful, though mountainous and woody. The hills feed ſheep, goats, and horned cattle, and the valleys produce plenty of graſs and corn, eſpecially of the latter, of which there is as good wheat as in any county in the kingdom.

This county is extremely well watered by ſeveral fine rivers; for beſides the Wye, which parts it from Glouceſterſhire, the Mynow, which runs between it and Herefordſhire, and the Rumney, which divides it from Glamorganſhire, it has peculiar to itſelf the Uſk, which enters this county a little above Abergavenny, runs moſtly ſouthward, and falls into the Severn by the mouth of the Ebwith; which laſt river runs from north to ſouth in the weſtern ſide of the county. All theſe rivers, eſpecially the Wye and Uſk, abound with fiſh, particularly ſalmon and trout.

The gentlemen here generally ſpeak Engliſh, though the common people uſe the Welſh language. The manufacture of the county is flannels.

The principal towns in this county are the following:

Monmouth, or Mynwy, is ſeated at the mouth of the river Mynwy, or Mynow, between that river and the Wye, over each of which it has a bridge. The town is in a manner ſurrounded with water, there being another river called the Trotby, over which it has alſo a bridge. It is a populous, handſome, well built town, and has a ſtately church, the eaſt end of which is much ornamented. It has been a place of great ſtrength, and might be eaſily made ſo again. The caſtle, though now in a ruinous condition, was formerly a ſtately edifice. The market, which is very conſiderable for corn and all ſorts of proviſions, is held on Saturdays. The government is under a mayor, two bailiffs, fifteen common-council-men, a town-clerk, &c.

Chepſtow is ſeated on the ſide of a hill, fourteen miles to the ſouth of Monmouth, and a hundred and thirty-one to the weſt of London, near the mouth of the Wye, over which it has a fine bridge: it was formerly much reſorted to, and is ſtill a large, well-built, and populous town. It was antiently walled round, and defended by a caſtle; and among the other public buildings had a monaſtery, the remaining part of which is converted into a pariſh-church. This is the port for all the towns that ſtand on the rivers Wye and Lug; ſhips of good burthen come up to it, for the tide commonly riſes here ſix fathoms, or ſix and a half at the bridge, which is of timber, and no leſs than ſeventy feet high from the ſurface of the water when the tide is out. In the year 1689 was diſcovered in this town a Roman pavement, which when entire was very beautiful, repreſenting men, beaſts, birds, trees, &c.

Abergavenny has its name from the river Gavenny, which falls below it into the Uſk. It is a handſome well-built town, ſixteen miles to the weſt of Monmouth, and a hundred and forty-two of London. This town is encompaſſed by a wall, and defended by a ſtrong caſtle. It is a great thorough-fare from the weſt parts of Wales to Briſtol and Bath, and alſo from Monmouth to Glouceſter; and the inhabitants carry on a great trade in flannel. It gives title of baron to the ancient and noble family of Neville.

SECT. XVIII.

Of Glouceſterſhire; its Name, Situation, Extent, Diviſions, Repreſentatives in Parliament, Air, Soil, Produce, Rivers, and principal Towns.

THIS county takes its name from the city of Glouceſter, which was called by the Saxons Gleaucester, and is bounded on the north by Worceſterſhire, and

and a ſmall part of Warwickſhire; on the eaſt by Warwickſhire, Oxfordſhire, and Berkſhire; on the ſouth by Wiltſhire and Somerſetſhire; and on the weſt by Herefordſhire and Monmouthſhire. It is ſixty-five miles in length and thirty-two in breadth, and contains twenty-ſeven market-towns, two hundred and eighty pariſhes, one caſtle, two foreſts, nineteen parks, twenty-ſix thouſand ſeven hundred and ſixty houſes, and a hundred and ſixty-two thouſand five hundred and ſixty inhabitants: it is ſubdivided into thirteen hundreds, and ſends only eight members to parliament, that is, two for the county, two for the city of Glouceſter, and two each for Cirenceſter and Tewkſbury.

The air of this county is wholeſome throughout its whole extent; but has a different ſoil and appearance in the different parts of it: in the eaſt it is hilly, in the weſt woody, and in the middle is enriched with a fruitful vale. The eaſt part, called Coteſwould, has a ſharp air; and though the lands are not very fertile in corn, they feed a great number of ſheep: the Vale includes both ſides of the river Severn, and is very fertile, eſpecially in rich paſtures. Here is made the cheeſe which, next to that of Cheſhire, is highly eſteemed all over England; and a great deal of this cheeſe is alſo made in Wiltſhire: in this Vale the air is ſo mild, even in winter, that it ſeems to enjoy a different climate from that of Coteſwould. The Foreſt of Dean, which borders upon Herefordſhire and Monmouthſhire, is fertile both in paſture and tillage; it bears very fine oaks, and has rich mines of iron and valuable coal-pits. In general this county may be juſtly ſaid to abound with all the neceſſaries of life in the greateſt perfection, as corn, wool, iron, ſteel, timber, bacon, cyder, and ſalmon. The chief manufacture carried on by the inhabitants is clothing, which, before our wool was ſmuggled to France, has been known to return five hundred thouſand pounds per annum.

Its principal river is the Severn, which riſes in Montgomeryſhire, and entering this county a little above Tewkſbury runs near ſouth-weſt by Glouceſter, diſcharging itſelf into the Briſtol Channel. The tide flows as high as Tewkſbury, which, following the courſe of the river, is near ſeventy miles. A little below Newnham it reſembles a ſea, and the tide of flood ruſhes on with ſuch impetuoſity, that it comes in a roll often near four feet high, carrying every thing before it. This is called The Boar. But what is ſtill more remarkable is, that the tides are higheſt one year at the full moon, and the next at the change; and one year the night-tides are higheſt, and the next the day-tides. In this river are taken plenty of excellent ſalmon, lamprey, and conger eels.

The principal places in Glouceſterſhire are the following:

Glouceſter, by the Britons called Caer-Glow, which ſignifies fine city, and by the Romans Glevum, is ſeated on the eaſt ſide of the river Severn, a hundred and two miles from London. It abounds much with croſſes and ſtatues of the kings of England, and has a handſome proſpect of ſteeples, ſome without a church. Theſe and their religious foundations in every part of the city gave riſe to the old proverb, "As ſure as God is at Glou-"ceſter." The cathedral is a venerable pile with a handſome tower, and a finely vaulted choir. On the north ſide lies the unfortunate king Edward II. and before the high altar, in the middle of the church, lies the equally unfortunate prince Robert, the eldeſt ſon of William the Conqueror, who, after being impriſoned twenty-ſix years by his younger brother Rufus, died, and was interred here. In this cathedral is a whiſpering-place, which formerly paſſed among the vulgar as ſomewhat almoſt miraculous, till they were taught that there is a whiſpering-gallery in St. Paul's cathedral. This city was anciently fortified, but after the Reſtoration was diſmantled by act of parliament, on account of the reſiſtance it made againſt the forces of king Charles I. The old houſes projecting into the ſtreets, and its croſs, have been pulled down by act of parliament in 1750, and inſtead of the latter is a ſtatue of colonel Selwyn, their member, who at his own expence made a very large reſervoir about half a mile off, from which the water is conveyed into a ſquare baſon at the foot of this ſtatue, from whence it runs into four canals, which flow through the four great ſtreets that here meet in the center of the city. There are large remains of abbies and convents, both of black and white friars.

There is a large quay, wharf, and cuſtom-houſe on the river; and in the city are twelve companies, the maſters of which attend the mayor on all public occaſions in their gowns, and with ſtreamers. Great proviſion is here made for the poor, particularly Bartholomew's hoſpital for fifty-four men and women; a blue coat hoſpital for educating twenty boys, and for maintaining and annually cloathing ten men and women: there are alſo three others, with ſeveral benefactions for encouraging young tradeſmen and putting out boys apprentice, and lately an infirmary has been erected here. The city is governed by a mayor, twelve aldermen, and common-council, who are never fewer than twenty-ſix, nor above thirty-nine, a town-clerk, and ſword bearer. This city was made the ſee of a biſhop by king Henry VIII. who erected the abbey-church into a cathedral, with a dean and ſix prebendaries.

Cirenceſter, ſo called from the river Churn, on which it ſtands, and Ceſtre, a caſtle, is a populous, rich, and trading town, full of clothiers; it ſtands eighteen miles to the ſouth-eaſt of Glouceſter, and eighty five to the north-weſt of London, and carries on a great trade in wool, which is brought from the inland counties of Leiceſter, Northampton, and Lincoln, and bought up here by the clothiers of Wiltſhire and Glouceſterſhire, for the ſupply of the great clothing trade. Here is a large beautiful church, with two iſles, ſupported by ſtrong pillars. The chancel is handſomely decorated, and the tower is very neat and lofty: the windows ſhew ſome beautiful remains of painted glaſs, and there are five chapels adjoining it. In this town is a free-ſchool, and ſeveral hoſpitals and alms-houſes.

Many antiquities have been found here. In 1723 was diſcovered a fine Moſaic pavement, and afterwards Mr. Biſhop dug up in his garden a vault ſixteen feet long and twelve broad, ſupported by ſquare pillars of Roman brick three feet and half high, on which was a ſtrong floor of terrace, and near it are ſeveral other vaults. Theſe were probably the foundations of ſome Roman temple; for in the ſame place they found pedeſtals, the ſhafts and capitals of columns, and handſome entablatures. Indeed there have been found here innumerable coins and entaglios. The town is governed by two high-conſtables; and has two weekly-markets, one on Monday for corn, cattle, and proviſions; and on Friday for wool. In the neighbourhood of this town lord Bathurſt has an elegant ſeat, park, and gardens.

Fairford is a ſmall market-town ſituated on the river Coln, and is remarkable for the many medals and urns that have been dug up here, and particularly for the fine painted windows of the church. For John Tame, a merchant of London, having taken a prize-ſhip bound for Rome, in which he found a great quantity of painted glaſs, he brought both the glaſs and workmen to England. This painted glaſs was ſo beautiful, that Mr. Tame built this church in order to place it in the windows, and dedicated this ſtructure, which is a hundred and twenty-five feet long, and fifty five broad, to the Virgin Mary. It has three chancels, a good veſtry, and a noble tower. The windows, which are twenty-eight in number, are glazed with this invaluable prize, and ſtill remain entire; for in the civil wars the glaſs was taken out and concealed. The painting was from the deſign of Albert Durer, and the colouring in the drapery and ſome of the figures ſo well executed, that Vandyke affirmed they could not be exceeded. The ſubject is taken from the ſcripture hiſtories of the Old and New Teſtament. John Tame, Eſq; the founder of this ſtructure, who died in 1500, lies buried on the north ſide of the church, under a marble monument.

Tewkſbury is ſeated at the confluence of the rivers Severn and Avon, ninety-ſix miles weſt-north-weſt of London, and contains about five hundred houſes. Its church is a noble ſtructure, and one of the largeſt in England, that is not collegiate or a cathedral. It is very lofty, has two ſpacious iſles, a ſtately tower, and a large chancel. The communion-table conſiſts of one entire piece of marble, fourteen feet long, and three and a half

broad. The town is governed by two bailiffs and twenty-four burgeſſes, and its neighbourhood to Coteſwould makes the clothing trade flouriſh here. It has likewiſe a manufacture of cotton.

We have already deſcribed the city of Briſtol in treating of Somerſetſhire, though a conſiderable part of that city ſtands in this county; and have purpoſely omitted taking notice of St. Vincent's rocks, and the Hot Well, which ſtand about two miles diſtance from Briſtol, and ought to be mentioned in this county. St. Vincent's rocks are a vaſt and irregular heap of ſtones, intermixed with minerals; but the principal ſubſtance of the rocks is a very hard limeſtone. The rock, out of which iſſues the famous water called that of the Hot Well, or Briſtol water, ſtands on the north ſide of the river Avon, and affords a romantic and beautiful proſpect. To taſte this water in perfection it muſt be drank warm from the ſpring, or elſe it loſes its flavour. As it paſſes through a vaſt bed of rocks, and among a variety of different ſtones, it doubtleſs borrows its taſte and virtues from the moſt particular kinds, and when drank at the ſpring-head has a fine gentle warmth and a delicate ſoft milky taſte; it is very grateful to the ſtomach, and is allowed to be cooling, cleanſing, and balſamic; but one of its greateſt qualities is its aſtringency: this renders it uſeful in the diabetes; and in conſequence of its other qualities, it is drank with great ſucceſs in obſtructions in the urinal paſſages from gravel, as alſo in many of the chronic caſes which are leaſt to be relieved by the common courſe of medicine.

Briſtol-ſtones are found in vaſt quantities in the cracks of rocks and cavities of ſtones; but chiefly in the cavities of iron ore. They riſe in a great variety of forms in different places, and the cluſters of them are yet more various in their appearance, they generally adhere to the rock or ore at one end, and terminate in a point at the other.

SECT. XIX.

Of Herefordſhire; its Situation, Extent, Diviſions, &c. Its Air, Soil, Produce, Rivers, and principal Towns.

HEREFORDSHIRE is bounded on the north by Shropſhire; on the eaſt by Worceſterſhire and Glouceſterſhire; on the ſouth by Monmouthſhire; and on the weſt by Radnorſhire, in Wales; it extends thirty-five miles from north to ſouth, thirty from eaſt to weſt, and a hundred and eight in circumference.

This county lies in the dioceſe of Hereford, and contains eight market-towns, eighty-ſeven vicarages, a hundred and ſeventy-ſix pariſhes, and three hundred and ninety-one villages, fifteen thouſand houſes, and ninety-five thouſand ſix hundred inhabitants. It is divided into twelve hundreds, and ſends eight members to parliament, namely, two knights for the ſhire, and two for each of the following towns: Hereford, Lempſter or Leominſter, and Weobly.

The air of this county is healthy and delightful, whence the inhabitants generally live to a great age. As an inſtance of which, it is ſaid, that a morris-dance was performed before king James I. by ten men and women, whoſe ages together made a thouſand years. The ſoil is exceeding rich, producing excellent corn, wool, and fruit, as is evident from the Lempſter bread, Webber ale, and Herefordſhire cyder: the laſt of which is ſent to all parts of England. It alſo abounds with wood and fiſh.

Herefordſhire is plentifully watered with ſeveral rivers, the chief of which are the Wye, the Monow, the Zug, and the Frome, or Froom; all of which are well ſtored with fiſh. The ſalmon of this county are very remarkable, for in other parts of England they are ſo far out of ſeaſon, after ſpawning, as to be unwholeſome food, till they have been again at ſea to recover themſelves; but here they are always ſound, fat, and fit for the table. The principal places in this county are the following:

Hereford, the metropolis and only city of that county, received its name from the Saxon, it ſignifying the ford of the army, being the head-quarters of the Saxons: it is ſeated on the banks of the Wye, a hundred and thirty-one miles from London, and twenty-ſix from Glouceſter. It has a good ſtone bridge of eight arches over the Wye, and is ſurrounded with rivers on all ſides but the eaſt. This city, though large, is not populous; as it lies low the ſtreets are often overflowed, ſo that they are very dirty. It originally owed its flouriſhing ſtate to the martyrdom of Ethelbert, king of the Eaſt Angles, who was baſely murdered by king Offa, and had a church built here to his memory, which was ſoon erected into an epiſcopal ſee. This is a ſtately fabric, the choir, tho' plain, is neat, and has a good organ; and the ſpire is handſome, but not very lofty.

The city is governed by a mayor, and has diſtinct privileges for its ſeveral companies, who have their reſpective halls. In the time of the civil wars this city, being very ſtrong, and well defended, ſupported a very ſevere ſiege againſt the parliament forces, and even the Scottiſh army, four thouſand of the latter having been ſlain before it; but at length it ſurrendered. Of its ſix pariſh-churches two were demoliſhed by the ſiege; but in 1738 the Gothic chapel belonging to the biſhop's palace was pulled town, in order to erect another for the public ſervice. Without the walls of Hereford city are the ruins of Black friars monaſtery, and a pretty ſtone croſs entire, round which were the cloiſters, and now the cloiſters of the cathedral incloſe juſt ſuch another. Theſe croſſes ſerved as a kind of pulpit, whence a monk preached to the people in the open air. It has an hoſpital liberally endowed for twelve poor perſons, with two charity-ſchools, one for ſixty boys, and the other for forty girls, all taught and clothed by ſubſcription. Its weekly markets are on Wedneſday, Friday, and Saturday; and it gives title of firſt viſcount of England to a branch of the Devereaux family.

The walls may be traced all round the city, though overgrown with trees, ſhrubs, graſs, and hedges. Towards the north it is ſheltered by a high mountain of ſteep aſcent, with a vaſt camp at the top, from which is a proſpect as far as St. Michael's Mount in Monmouthſhire, and on the other ſide is a lofty bleak mountain that ſeparates Brecknockſhire from this county.

Lempſter, or Leominſter, is a large borough on the river Lug, over which are ſeveral bridges, fifteen miles from Hereford, and a hundred and thirty-ſix from London. The church, which is very large, having been in a manner rebuilt, is a very beautiful ſtructure. On the north ſide of it was a conſiderable priory, two aiſles of which now belong to the church, and two others of more lightſome work, have been added. There are ſome poor remains of the priory, particularly a little chapel which probably belonged to the prior's family, and underneath it runs a rivulet, which ſerved to grind the prior's corn, but now turns a fulling-mill; and near it are very large ponds for fiſh, which uſed to furniſh the monks on faſting days. This town is noted for its fine wool and the beſt wheat and barley, and conſequently for the fineſt bread: it has alſo a briſk trade in hat-making. Three rivulets that have a ſwift current run through the town, and there are others very near it; the inhabitants make uſe of theſe to work their mills and other machinery in the various branches of their trade.

Between Lempſter and Hereford is Hampton, the ſeat of the late lord Coningſby. There is a plentiful ſupply of water on all ſides of the houſe for fountains, baſons, and canals; and the windows of the chapel are well painted. The park, which is very fine, is eight miles in circumference, and conſiſts of lawns, groves, canals, hills, and plains.

SECT. XX.

Of Oxfordſhire; its Situation, Extent, Diviſions, Repreſentatives, Air, Soil, Produce, and Rivers; with a Deſcription of the principal Places it contains, particularly Oxford and Blenheim-houſe.

THIS county takes its name from the City of Oxford, and is bounded on the north by Warwickſhire and Northamptonſhire, between which counties it runs

runs for a few miles due north, in the form of a wedge; on the eaſt by Buckinghamſhire and Hampſhire; on the ſouth by Berkſhire; and on the weſt by Glouceſterſhire. It extends forty-one miles in length, eighteen in breadth, and a hundred and thirty-eight in circumference.

This county ſends nine members to parliament, namely, two knights for the ſhire, two repreſentatives of the univerſity, two burgeſſes for Woodſtock, and one for Banbury. It is divided into fourteen hundreds, and contains ſixty-two vicarages, two hundred and eighty pariſhes, twelve market-towns, four hundred and fifty-one villages, nineteen thouſand houſes, and a hundred and fourteen thouſand inhabitants.

The air of this county is equal in goodneſs to any of the other; for the ſoil being naturally dry, and at the ſame time plentifully watered with limpid ſtreams, the air is naturally ſweet and wholeſome.

The ſoil in general is very fruitful both in corn and graſs; but there is a great variety in it, and conſequently ſeveral degrees of fertility. The huſbandmen know well how to diſtinguiſh and manage accordingly, both as to the tillage and the different kinds of grain ſown here, there being no leſs than five ſorts of wheat adapted to as many kinds of ſoil. The meadows are covered with rich graſs, and are extremely profitable to the farmer. The chief commodities are corn, malt, cattle, fruit, free-ſtone, ſeveral ſorts of earth, uſeful in medicine, dyeing, and ſcouring. Whitney in this county is famous for its manufacture of blankets.

The principal rivers are the Thames, Iſis, Charwell, Windruſh, and Evenload, which afford plenty of fiſh, and are remarkably good. The principal places in this county are the following:

Oxford, a noble, populous, and fine city, ſeated in a delightful plain on the banks of the Iſis and Charwell, fifty-five miles from London. It is pretended by ſome authors, that it was built a thouſand years before the birth of our Saviour; but this is juſtly controverted by others; however, it is allowed by all to have been a place of note before the coming of the Saxons. The whole city, with its ſuburbs, is of a circular form, three miles in circumference. The ſtreets are ſpacious, neat, and generally ſtraight; the mayor and aldermen govern the corporation, but in ſubjection to the chancellor and vice-chancellor of the univerſity, to whom both they and the ſheriff of Oxfordſhire ſwear to maintain the rights and privileges of the univerſity. On St. Scholaſtica's-day, which is on the tenth of February, ſixty-two of the principal citizens pay an acknowledgedment of one penny each, inſtead of a heavy fine laid on the city, for an outrage committed againſt the univerſity in the reign of king Edward III. when ſixty-two ſtudents were barbarouſly murdered by the citizens.

The univerſity, conſidered as a body corporate, conſiſts of the officers of the univerſity in general, and of the ſeveral colleges. The governors of this great univerſity, which, for the number of its colleges, and the fineneſs of its buildings, has not its equal, are the following: I. The chancellor, who is choſen by the ſtudents in convocation, and whoſe office is to inſpect the government of the univerſity, to protect its privileges, and call aſſemblies. The choice generally falls on ſome nobleman of high rank, and his office is for life. II. The high ſteward, who is nominated by the chancellor, and accepted of by the univerſity: his office is for life, and his employment to aſſiſt the chancellor and proctors in the execution of their offices, and to ſit as judge in capital cauſes, when required by the chancellor III. The vice-chancellor is annually nominated by the chancellor as his deputy, and is elected in convocation. He is always the head of ſome college, and is in orders; he on all occaſions repreſents the chancellor in his abſence. IV. The proctors, who are two in number, are annually choſen out of the ſeveral colleges by turns. Their duty is to inſpect the public exerciſes, to ſee diſcipline preſerved, and all diſorders prevented or puniſhed. After theſe are the public orator, the keeper of the records, the regiſter, ſix beadles, and a verger.

The colleges are places provided with ſufficient revenues for the maintenance of a maſter, profeſſors, and ſtudents: the halls are houſes where the ſtudents live either wholly, or in part, at their own expence. Of the firſt ſort there are twenty, and of the latter but five. In each of theſe are private lectures and diſputes in the liberal ſciences, to prepare the ſtudents for the public exerciſes. They are ranked in the following order:

I. Univerſity-college is ſituated near the eaſt gate of the city, and was the beginning of the univerſity. It was founded before the year 721, but how much earlier is not certain, king Alfred not being ſo properly the founder of this univerſity, as its reſtorer after the Daniſh devaſtions. It has one maſter, twelve fellows, ſeventeen ſcholars, and two exhibitioners. Before the noble benefaction of Dr. Radcliffe, it had one large beautiful quadrangle, the ſouth ſide of which is divided into a handſome hall and chapel. In a niche before this quadrangle is a ſtatue of the late queen Anne, and in a niche on the inſide of a new quadrangle is that of Dr. Radcliffe, who left forty thouſand pounds for building a public library, which is a noble ſtructure.

II. Baliol-college ſtands in the north part in the ſuburbs, and was founded by John Baliol, whoſe ſon was king of Scotland. It maintains a maſter, twelve fellows, thirteen ſcholars, and eighteen exhibitioners. It has one large ancient quadrangle, on the north ſide of which is the chapel, and a library furniſhed with a noble collection of books.

III. Merton-college is ſituated on the ſouth ſide of the city, and takes its name from its founder Walter of Merton, biſhop of Rocheſter, and chancellor of England, about the year 1267. It has a warden, twenty-four fellows, fourteen portioniſts, and two clerks. The chapel is the pariſh-church of St. John Baptiſt. The inner large court of the college is very beautiful, and has a well furniſhed library, with a fine garden.

IV. Exeter-college is ſituated on the weſt ſide of the ſchools, in the north part of the town, and was founded in 1316, by Walter Stapleton, biſhop of Exeter, and lord-treaſurer of England. It maintains a rector, twenty-three fellows, one bible-clerk, and three exhibitioners, It has one large quadrangle, which has a very noble front, and over the gate is a ſplendid tower.

V. Oriel-college is ſituated on the ſouth ſide of the town, and was at firſt named St. Mary's and King's-college. It was founded by king Edward II. in 1324, and his ſon Edward III. adding to the revenue a rich meſſuage called Le Oriel, it thence took the name of Oriel-college. It conſiſts of one handſome regular quadrangle, and has a provoſt, eighteen fellows, and twelve exhibitioners.

VI. Queen's-college is ſeated near the pariſh-church of St. Peter's in the Eaſt, and founded in 1340 by Egleſfield, chaplain or confeſſor to Philippa, conſort to king Edward III. in honour of whom he called it Queen's-college. It maintains a provoſt, ſixteen fellows, ſixteen ſcholars, eight chaplains, nine taberders, and twenty exhibitioners. It has had ſome noble benefactors, who have erected extenſive buildings that are juſtly admired. One ſide of it is three hundred and twenty-ſeven feet long, ſupported by a piazza, and adorned with ſtatues, in which is a long and lofty library, well furniſhed with books; and on the other ſide of the college is the new chapel and hall. Her late majeſty queen Caroline's ſtatue is erected in this college under a kind of temple ſupported by pillars, ſhe having given a thouſand pounds towards completing the new building.

VII. New-college, which ſtands on the north-eaſt part of the city, was founded in 1386 by William of Wickham, biſhop of Wincheſter, and lord high chancellor, under the name of the college of the Bleſſed Virgin Mary. It has a warden, ſeventy fellows, ten chaplains, three clerks, ſixteen choriſters, &c. Great additions have been made to the beauty of the buildings, which have been alſo enlarged towards the garden with two ſtately and uniform wings. The chapel is a magnificent ſtructure, with a very lofty tower, and a fine ring of bells. The library is well furniſhed with books and manuſcripts, and the great garden laid out in form. In the front is a range of iron paliſades, and a gate of exquiſite workmanſhip.

VIII. Lincoln-college, which ſtands in the middle of the city, was founded in 1427 by Richard Fleming,

biſhop of Lincoln; but finiſhed by Thomas De Rotherham, biſhop of Lincoln, afterwards lord high chancellor and archbiſhop of York, in 1475. It has a rector, twelve fellows, nine ſcholars, twenty exhibitioners, two chaplains, &c. This college has two ſmall ancient quadrangles, with a beautiful chapel, the windows of which are curiouſly painted.

IX. All Souls college, which fronts the High ſtreet, was founded by Henry Chichely archbiſhop of Canterbury, for offering up prayers for the ſouls of all who fell in the wars of king Henry V. in France. It has a warden, forty fellows, two chaplains, nine ſcholars, three clerks, ſix choriſters, &c. Colonel Codrington bequeathed ten thouſand pounds to this college for building a library and furniſhing it with books. This library is two hundred feet long within the walls, and thirty-two feet and a half-broad: it has eleven large windows to the ſouth, with a window of ſeventeen feet in width at each end. It is a fine gothic ſtructure, and is thus built in conformity to the chapel.

X. Magdalen college ſtands without the eaſt gate, and was founded in 1458, by William Patten, otherwiſe Wainfleet, biſhop of Wincheſter, and lord high chancellor. It has a preſident, forty fellows, a ſchool-maſter, thirty ſcholars, called demies, an uſher, three public readers, four chaplains, eight clerks, ſixteen choriſters, &c. The chapel and hall are very magnificent, and the walks very delightful. The library, to which colonel Codrington alſo bequeathed ten thouſand pounds, is very well furniſhed.

XI. Brazen-Noſe college is ſituated in the middle of the city, where ſtood a hall of the ſame name, with a monſtrous noſe of braſs fixed upon the door. It was founded in 1509, by William Smith biſhop of Lincoln, and has a principal, twenty-four fellows, thirty-three ſcholars, &c. It conſiſts of two very handſome quadrangles, in the leſſer of which are the chapel and library, and under them a wide and pleaſant cloiſter, compactly and elegantly built.

XII. Corpus Chriſti college ſtands on the ſouth ſide of the city, and was founded in 1516, by Richard Fox, biſhop of Wincheſter, and lord privy ſeal to king Henry VII. and VIII. It has a preſident, twenty fellows, twenty ſcholars, two chaplains, and four exhibitioners. It contains ſome very noble buildings, and its library has a valuable collection of books and manuſcripts.

XIII. Chriſt-Church college, takes up a vaſt extent of ground, on the ſouth ſide of the city. It was begun in the year 1515, by Cardinal Wolſey, but upon his diſgrace it fell into the king's hands, who made it an epiſcopal ſee, and joined it to Canterbury college, and Peckwater Inn. It has a dean, eight canons, one hundred and one ſtudents, eight chaplains, eight ſinging men, eight choriſters, and a teacher of muſic, a ſchool-maſter, uſher, forty grammar ſcholars, &c. In the ſtately tower in the front of the gate, hangs the great bell called Tom, which was removed thither out of the ſteeple of the cathedral, and is ſeven feet one inch in diameter, weighing ſeventeen thouſand pounds weight. This bell is tolled every night one hundred and one ſtrokes, agreeable to the number of ſtudents in the college, to give warning for ſhutting up the gates in the colleges and halls in the univerſity. The buildings of this college are very large and ſplendid. The great quadrangle has a wide and handſome terrace round it, and a fountain in the middle. Peckwater quadrangle is finely built, and there are alſo two other ſquares. The cathedral is lofty, the hall and library are high and ſpacious, and the latter contains a noble collection of books. In a word, this college is a univerſity of itſelf.

XIV. Trinity college was originally a religious houſe, called Durham college; for the monks of Durham cathedral, ſeated in the north ſuburbs; but upon the diſſolution of monaſteries, Sir Thomas Pope purchaſed it of thoſe to whom it had been granted by the crown, and converted it into a college. It has a preſident, twelve fellows, twelve ſcholars, &c. It conſiſts of two quadrangles, in the firſt of which are the chapel, the hall, and the library. The chapel, which has been rebuilt, is an elegant ſtructure, and the roof is inriched with fret-work, and an admirable painting repreſenting our Saviour's aſcenſion. The gardens on the eaſt ſide of the college are large and well laid out.

XV. St. John Baptiſt's college ſtands in the north ſuburbs, and was founded in 1555, by Thomas White, lord mayor of London in the place where St. Bernard's college ſtood before the Reformation. The two quadrangles are large and uniform, particularly the inner court built by archbiſhop Laud, which is very elegant, the eaſt and weſt ſides of it being ſupported by noble piazzas. The hall is neat, and adorned with good pictures, and the gardens large and well laid out. It has a preſident, thirty-nine fellows, eleven ſcholars, &c.

XVI. Jeſus college is ſituated in St. Michael's pariſh, and was begun in 1571, by Hugh Price prebendary of Rocheſter, and appropriated to the benefit of the Welſh; it has met with ſeveral benefactions, by which it is enabled to maintain a principal, nineteen fellows, eighteen ſcholars, twenty-one exhibitioners, &c. It has two handſome quadrangles, the innermoſt of which is very regular and uniform.

XVII. Wadham college is ſeated in the north ſkirts of the city, and received its name from its founder Nicholas Wadham, of Somerſetſhire, Eſq;. It was begun in 1609, and finiſhed after his death by his lady in 1613. It conſiſts of one noble quadrangle, beſides the library and chapel, the windows of which are beautifully painted, and has a handſome garden. It maintains a warden, fifteen fellows, fifteen ſcholars, &c.

XVIII. Pembroke college ſtands on the ſouth ſide of the city, and was formerly called Broad-gate hall, but was erected into a college by the bounty of Thomas Teſdale, Eſq; and Richard Wrightwicke, B. D. in 1624, who gave it the preſent name in honour of the earl of Pembroke, then lord chancellor. It has one handſome quadrangle, the front of which is a regular neat piece of building, and has a pleaſant garden. It has a maſter, thirteen fellows, and twenty-three ſcholars, &c.

XIX. Worceſter college was lately called Glouceſter hall; but was erected into a college by Sir Thomas Cookſey, of Aſtley in Worceſterſhire, and has lately been adorned with new buildings, which make a ſtately and ſplendid appearance.

XX. Hertford college was originally called Hart hall; but was erected into a college in 1740, by his late majeſty's royal charter, by which it is to conſiſt of a principal, with four ſenior and eight junior fellows. It ſtands in the pariſh of St. Peter's in the eaſt, and conſiſts of one quadrangle.

Theſe are the twenty colleges of which this celebrated univerſity conſiſts; there are beſides five halls, which are places unendowed, though not without exhibitions; the ſtudents in theſe ſubſiſt at their own expence, are under the government of a principal, and vice-principal, and pay the former for their lodgings. Theſe five halls are Alban hall, Edmund hall, St. Marys hall, New-Inn hall, and St. Mary Magdalen hall.

Beſides the building already mentioned, is the theatre, a magnificent ſtructure raiſed by the munificence of Dr. Gilbert Sheldon archbiſhop of Canterbury, and built by Sir Chriſtopher Wren. The roof, which is ſupported without pillars, is finely painted. There is here alſo the noble Bodleian library, and the muſeum Aſhmoleanum, one of the richeſt repoſitories of natural curioſities in the world, the Clarendon printing-houſe, &c.

The city of Oxford was made an epiſcopal ſee in 1541, and beſides the colleges and halls juſt mentioned, has two charity ſchools, one erected by the univerſity for fifty-four boys, and the other by the city, for fifty boys and girls.

Woodſtock, a borough ſeven miles to the north of Oxford, is pleaſantly ſeated on a riſing ground, and was formerly celebrated for the famous labyrinth in which fair Roſamond was concealed by king Henry II. and murdered by his queen. Some years ago a ſmall part of the old palace, and of this labyrinth were remaining; but not the leaſt veſtige of them is now left. This town is now principally famous for Blenheim houſe, a magnificent pile of building erected about half a mile from the town to perpetuate the memory of the ſignal victory obtained by the allies over the French and Bavarians near the village of Blenheim on the banks of the Danube,

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in Auguſt 1704. This noble ſeat, with the manor of Woodſtock, was ſettled by the Britiſh parliament on John Churchill, duke of Marlborough, and his heirs, as a grateful acknowledgment for his bravery and conduct on that occaſion. The roof is adorned with a ſtone baluſtrade; but there are ſeveral towers on the top of the wings, that have a very heavy aſpect. The lofty hall was painted by Sir James Thornhill, and the cieling by La Guerre; the rooms are finely inriched with marble chimney pieces, beautiful furniture, incomparable hangings, and paintings repreſenting the principal exploits of the duke of Marlborough. Among the pictures are many of Rubens's beſt and largeſt pieces, and the famous loves of the gods by Titian, which was a preſent from the king of Sardinia. The gallery is ſupported by marble columns and pilaſters, ſupporting a moſt curious entablature. Over a pediment in the front of the houſe, facing the gardens, is a fine buſt of Lewis XIV. bigger than the life, taken from the gate of Tournay The chapel is very beautiful, and the garden is a large plot of ground taken out of the park and well laid out, having fine walks, eſpaliers, &c. and the viſtas are terminated by ſome remarkable objects in the neighbouring country. In the park is a lofty bridge, conſiſting of one arch above one hundred and ninety feet wide, and a vaſt obeliſk, in which is inſcribed an excellent ſummary of the duke's actions and character.

Banbury is a large well built market-town, ſeated on the Charwell, ſeventy-ſeven miles to the north-weſt of London. It contains ſeveral good inns, and its markets are well ſupplied with proviſions. This is eſteemed the ſecond town in the county for beauty; the houſes are generally built with ſtone, and the church is a large handſome ſtructure. This town has long been famous for its cakes and ale.

SECT. XXI.

Of Buckinghamſhire; its Name, Situation, Extent, Diviſions, Repreſentatives, Air, Soil, Produce, Rivers, and principal Places.

THIS county probably derived its name from the Saxon word Buc, it formerly abounding more in deer than any other county. It is bounded on the north by Northamptonſhire; on the eaſt by Bedfordſhire, Hertfordſhire, and Middleſex; on the ſouth by Berkſhire, from which it is ſeparated by the Thames; and on the weſt by Oxfordſhire. Its length is about thirty-nine miles, its breadth where broadeſt, is about eighteen, and it is one hundred and thirty-eight miles in compaſs.

This county, which lies in the dioceſe of Lincoln, and in Norfolk circuit, is divided into eight hundreds, and contains fifteen market towns, ſeventy-three vicarages, one hundred and eighty-five pariſhes, ſix hundred and fifteen villages, eighteen thouſand three hundred and ninety houſes, and about one hundred and eleven thouſand three hundred and forty inhabitants. It ſends fourteen members to parliament, namely two for the county, two for Buckingham, two for Chipping-Wycomb, two for Aileſbury, two for Great-Marlow, two for Wendover, and two for Agmondeſham.

The air of Buckinghamſhire is generally eſteemed good, eſpecially in the higher parts; and even in the vallies it is more healthful than in many other counties. The ſoil is for the moſt part chalk, or marl, and very rich; ſo that the corn and cattle of this county are excellent, particularly their ſheep. The chief commodities are timber, beach, fine wool, and the chief manufactures are bone-lace, which is here made in great perfection, ſtraw-hats, and paper.

The rivers of this county are but ſmall, except the Thames, which waſhes its borders to the ſouth; the others are the Ouſe and the Colne.

The principal places in this county are the following:

Buckingham, which is ſeated on the Ouſe, which ſurrounds it on all ſides but the north, and is forty-ſix miles to the north-weſt of London. It ſtands on a low ground, and has three bridges over the river. A caſtle was formerly ſeated in the middle of the town, but hardly any of its ruins now remain. It has a town-hall, a church, and a chapel, erected by archbiſhop Becket, now uſed as a free-ſchool, and ſeveral meeting-houſes. The county jail and court are ſometimes kept here, and ſometimes the aſſizes are held in this town.

Near this town is Stow, a village rendered deſervedly famous by the noble gardens which belonged to the late lord viſcount Cobham, and now to earl Temple. On entering the garden on the ſouth-ſide, you are ſtruck with the grandeur and variety of the objects that preſent themſelves to view. In the middle of a large octagon piece of water is an obeliſk near ſeventy feet high, from the top of which riſes a ſtream of water. At a good diſtance are two beautiful rivers, which join, and enter the octagon in one ſtream, and over one of them is a Palladian bridge. At a diſtance on the right hand is a Gothic ſtructure ſeated on a hill, and dedicated to Liberty, and on the left, an Egyptian pyramid ſixty feet high.

From the above octagon falls a natural caſcade, in three different ſheets of water. From hence you paſs to the hermitage, which is agreeably ſituated in a wood; on paſſing through you come to a neat ſtructure called the Veneris Hortus, before which are the ſtatues of Cain and Abel. Each way from the entrance of the room is a handſome colonade leading to ſome pavilions, where are four antique buſts of Veſpaſian, Cleopatra, Nero, and Fauſtina.

On the top of a mount is the Belvidere, a building which affords a delightful proſpect. In the garden is alſo the temple of Friendſhip, a lofty ſquare building of the Doric order, with three noble porticos on the ſides. The cieling is painted, and in the room are ten pedeſtals, on which are the buſts of his lordſhip, and nine of his friends, his late royal highneſs the prince of Wales, the earl of Cheſterfield, Mr. Pitt, &c. There are alſo in the garden, St. Auguſtine's cave, which is formed of roots of trees and moſs: the temple of Bacchus; a Saxon temple, ſtanding in a ſolemn grove, and containing the ſeven Saxon deities preſiding over the ſeveral days of the week; and in the middle an altar for ſacrifice; a Corinthian column, on which is placed the ſtatue of his late majeſty king George; Dido's cave, ſeated in a wood; a rotunda, the dome of which is ſupported by ten Doric columns, and in the centre is a circular pedeſtal, on which is placed a Venus de Medicis; the ſtatue of her late majeſty queen Caroline, erected on four Ionic columns placed on a large pedeſtal; the ſleeping parlour, a ſquare ſtructure placed in a wood in the centre of ſix walks; the temple of ancient Virtue, which is a rotunda of the Doric order; and in four niches are the ſtatutes of Epaminondas, Lycurgus, Socrates, and Homer; the Elyſian fields, a moſt delightful ſpot; a grotto adorned with ſhells, pebbles and minerals; a ſhell pavilion, the the dome of which is ſupported by ſix wreathed columns; the Chineſe houſe; the monuments of Britiſh worthies, theſe are Mr. Pope, Sir Thomas Greſham, Shakeſpear, Sir Iſaac Newton, Sir Francis Bacon, king Alfred, Edward the Black Prince, queen Elizabeth, king William III. Sir Walter Raleigh, Sir Francis Drake, John Hampden, Eſq; Sir John Barnard, &c.

In ſhort, the temples, pavilions, pyramids, obeliſks, monuments, ſtatues, buſts, &c. are all highly finiſhed, and the many inſcriptions are deſigned for the information and inſtruction of the beholder; and this delightful ſpot ſeems to want nothing that can contribute to render it a terreſtrial paradiſe.

Aileſbury, the largeſt and beſt town in the county, is ſeated on a hill, 44 miles from London; but the country round it is low and dirty. It conſiſts of ſeveral large ſtreets, and has a handſome market-houſe, which ſtands in a kind of ſquare. It has alſo a town-houſe, where the aſſizes, the ſeſſions, and other meetings of the county are held, and under it the jail. Many of the poor are employed in making bone-lace. Proviſions are here plentiful and cheap, which is owing to its being encompaſſed by ſome of the richeſt land in England. This town is governed by a bailiff, ten aldermen, and twelve capital burgeſſes. It gives title of earl to the noble family of Bruce.

Eaton, or Eton, a town ſeated on the Thames, oppoſite to Windſor, is juſtly celebrated for its college, which has

has produced a great number of learned men. This building, except the great ſchool-room, are in the Gothic ſtyle, and together with the chapel were founded by Henry VI. for the ſupport of a provoſt and ſeven fellows, one of whom has the title of vice-provoſt, and for the education of ſeventy king's ſcholars, as thoſe are called, who are on the foundation. The revenue of the college is about five thouſand pounds a year. Theſe ſcholars, when properly qualified, are elected on the firſt Tueſday in Auguſt, to King's college Cambridge, but are not removed till there are vacancies in the college, and then they are called according to ſeniority; and after they have been three years at Cambridge, they claim a fellowſhip. Beſides thoſe on the foundation, there are ſeldom leſs than three hundred ſcholars, at this time there are many more, who board at the maſters houſes, or within the bounds of the college. The ſchool is divided into upper and lower, and each of theſe into three claſſes. To each ſchool there is a maſter, and four aſſiſtants. Here is a noble library. In the great court is a fine ſtatue of the founder, erected at the expence of the late provoſt Dr. Godolphin, dean of St. Paul's.

In this county are alſo Newport Pagnel, Stoney Stratford, and a number of fine ſeats.

SECT. XXII.

Of Middleſex; its Name, Situation, Extent, Diviſions, Air, Soil, and Produce; a conciſe Deſcription of the River Thames, of the City of London, the Palace of Hampton-Court, and Kenſington, with the other remarkable Places in this County.

THIS county received its name from its ſituation: it being ſurrounded by the Eaſt, Weſt, and South Saxons. It is bounded on the north by Hertfordſhire, on the eaſt by Eſſex, from which it is divided by the river Lea, on the ſouth by the Thames, which runs between it and Surry, and on the weſt by Buckinghamſhire, from which it is ſeparated by the river Coln. It extends twenty miles in length, fourteen in breadth, and is about ninety-five in circumference.

This county, which lies in the dioceſe of London, is divided into five hundreds; and, beſides the cities of London and Weſtminſter, contains four market towns, thirty-one vicarages, ſeventy-three pariſhes, five thouſand houſes, and twenty-five thouſand inhabitants: but with the addition of London, the number of all theſe is vaſtly encreaſed. It is indeed one of the leaſt counties, but is by much the richeſt, moſt populous, and pays more taxes to the government than any ten beſides; yet ſends only eight members to parliament, two for the county, four for London, and two for Weſtminſter.

The air muſt be extremely wholſome, ſince not even the great number of people in London can affect it ſo much as to render it more ſubject to epidemical diſeaſes, than other places uſually are; but, at a very ſmall diſtance from the ſmoke of this immenſely populous city, the air is not only healthful but exceeding pure; to this the ſoil, which generally conſiſts of gravel, greatly contributes. The land which chiefly conſiſts of paſture and kitchin-gardens, is extremely fertile, which indeed cannot be otherwiſe, conſidering the advantages of the dirt of London ſtreets, which in many places improves the land, and there being never any want of dung for manure, from the many thouſand horſes kept in this city and its neighbourhood.

The Thames, though running through various counties, ſeems properly to belong to Middleſex; it being here of the greateſt importance to the kingdom. It may be here proper to take notice, that the right reverend annotator on Camden obſerves, that though it is the current opinion that the Thames had its name from the conjunction of the Thame and Iſis, yet it is always called Thames before it comes near the Thame. This he proves from ſeveral ancient records, and adds, that it may be ſafely affirmed, that it does not occur under the name of Iſis in any charter and authentic hiſtory; and that the name is no where heard of, except among ſcholars; the common people all along from the ſpring-head to Oxford, calling it by no other name but that of the Thames. See Gibſon's Camden, Vol. I. page 99.

It was neceſſary to ſay thus much to reſcue truth from the poetic fictions of the marriage of Thame and Iſis, which has been farther ſtrengthened by the painters and engravers.

The Thames, ſays the author of London and its Environs, if conſidered with reſpect to its courſe and navigation, is not to be equalled by any river in the known world. It riſes from a ſmall ſpring a little to the ſouth-weſt of Cirenceſter, in Glouceſterſhire; and taking its courſe eaſt-ward, becomes navigable at Lechlade for veſſels of fifty tons, and there receives the river Colne, about one hundred and thirty-eight miles from London. From Lechlade it continues its courſe north-eaſt to Oxford, where it receives the Charwel; after which it runs ſouth-weſt to Abingdon, and from thence to Dorcheſter, where it receives the Thame, and continuing its courſe ſouth-eaſt, flows by the borders of Berkſhire, Buckinghamſhire, Surry, Middleſex, Eſſex, and Kent, and paſſing by a number of towns and fine villages, proceeds by Weſtminſter and London, to Deptford, Greenwich, Woolwich, Graveſend, and ſo on to the ſea. It is impoſſible to repreſent the beauties with which the banks of this noble river are embelliſhed from Windſor to London; the numerous villages on its banks being all along adorned with the magnificent houſes and fine gardens of the nobility. This river is navigable as far as Lechlade, in Oxfordſhire, which is two hundred and thirty miles from its mouth, and the tide flows as high as Richmond in Surry, which, following the courſe of the river, is ſeventy miles from the ſea. At London the depth is ſufficient for the navigation of large ſhips, which renders it one of the greateſt ports for trade in the univerſe. The water is juſtly eſteemed exceeding wholeſome and fit for uſe in very long voyages, during which it will work itſelf perfectly fine. It likewiſe abounds with a great variety of fiſh.

London, the metropolis of Great Britain, and one of the largeſt as well as the richeſt cities upon earth, is ſituated in the fifty-firſt degree thirty minutes north latitude, and from this city we have, through the courſe of this work, computed the longitude of all other countries in the three parts of the world of which we have treated; but it is proper here to obſerve, that placing the firſt meridian at the iſle of Ferro, its longitude eaſt from thence is ſeventeen degrees thirty-five minutes.

This city was neither built by built by Brute nor king Lud, as ſome romantic and fanciful authors pretend; but probably exiſted in the time of the ancient Britons, before the art of writing was brought into England, and when there were no other monuments of ancient facts than what were found in the ſongs of the bards which were preſerved only by memory. London, however, had no buildings either of brick or ſtone till it was inhabited by the Romans; for the dwellings of the Britons were only huts formed of twigs wattled together: however, Tacitus obſerves, that in the year 26 it was very famous for the multitude of its merchants, and the greatneſs of its traffic; but ſoon after Suetonius abandoned the city to the fury of Boadicea, it being two large to be defended by his little army of ten thouſand Romans, which is doubtleſs a proof of its being even then of conſiderable extent, that injured princeſs burnt the city, and in the cruelty excited by revenge, put the inhabitants to the ſword.

It is impoſſible in the ſmall compaſs required in a work like this, in treating of a ſingle city, to give the revolutions that have happened in this metropolis: it will be ſufficient therefore in this place to deſcribe its preſent ſtate. The two laſt great calamities this city has ſuffered were the plague in 1665, which ſwept away ſixty-five thouſand five hundred and ninety-ſix perſons, at a time when the buildings of the city and its inhabitants did not amount to half the number they do at preſent; and the fire in 1666, which burnt down thirteen thouſand two hundred dwelling-houſes, four hundred ſtreets and lanes, the cathedral of St. Paul's, eighty-ſix pariſh churches, ſix chapels, the royal exchange, with many other public ſtructures, and fifty-two of the compt nies halls. In memory of this laſt a monument is erected near the place where

Boadicea haranguing the Britons.

where it began, which is a magnificent column that rises to a prodigious height, and on the base is an allegorical representation in basso relievo of the raising of the city from this dreadful conflagration.

London is seated on the banks of the Thames, and, including the buildings which generally go under that name, extends above seven miles in length, but its breadth is in some places only three, in others two, and in others again not much above half a mile. A person unaccustomed to the sight cannot behold without surprize the vast number of barges and boats, both of pleasure and burthen, above London bridge, continually passing and repassing, for the convenience and supply of this city and the towns on the banks of the Thames; for is it possible to observe without astonishment the vast fleets which constantly appear below bridge, carrying away the manufactures of Britain, and bringing back the produce of the whole earth.

The city of London was formerly surrounded with walls, and till lately had seven gates: these were Ludgate, Aldersgate, Aldgate, Cripplegate, Newgate, Moorgate, and Bishopsgate; the three first of which were taken down in 1760, and all the rest, except Newgate, before the end of the following year. But the bounds of what is strictly called the city, including the liberties, are still every where determined by wooden bars, or rails, except on the west, where is a magnificent gate called Temple-bar.

We shall first consider the buildings belonging to the city, strictly so called. A little without the gates to the south-east it was defended by the Tower of London, a very ancient structure, in which the White Tower is said to be founded by William the Conqueror; it is surrounded by a wall and deep ditch, which inclose several streets, besides what is properly called the Tower: there are here some artillery, a magazine of small-arms for sixty thousand men, ranged in the most beautiful order, and a horse-armoury, in which are fifteen figures of kings on horse-back. Here are likewise the crown and other regalia, the mint for coining of money, and the menagerie for lions and other beasts, with several foreign birds. The circumference of the whole is about a mile. It contains one parish-church, and is under the command of a constable and lieutenant.

In Thames-street, near the Tower, is the custom-house, with the front facing the river. This is a large and stately structure, where the king's customs are received for all goods imported and exported; and opposite to it, as well as a great way down the river, is a delightful prospect of a grove of masts belonging to merchant ships. A little farther to the west is London bridge, which was formerly much admired for having houses on each side; but having been of infinite disadvantage by blocking up and narrowing the passage, they have been taken down; instead of houses a handsome stone balustrade is now fixed on each side, and the passage rendered as commodious, and at the same time as beautiful as possible, without entirely rebuilding it.

The royal exchange in Cornhill is generally allowed to be one of the best structures of the kind in the world. It was first built by Sir Thomas Gresham in 1566, and 1567; but being burnt in 1666, it was rebuilt in a grander manner, the principal part of Portland stone, and cost eight thousand pounds. In each of the principal fronts is a piazza, and in the center a grand entrance into an area, under a noble and lofty arch; on each side that of the principal front, which is in Cornhill, are Corinthian demi-columns, supporting a compass pediment; and in the intercolumnation, on each side, is a nich with the figures of king Charles I. and II. in Roman habits. On the sides of this entrance is a range of windows placed between demi-columns and pilasters of the Composite order, above which runs a balustrade. The height of the building is fifty-six feet, and from the center of this side rises a lantern and turret a hundred and seventy-eight feet high, on the top of which is a vane in the form of a grasshopper, of polished brass. The north front of the royal exchange is adorned with pilasters of the Composite order; but has neither columns nor statues; and instead of the two compass pediments has a triangular one. The inside of the area, which is a hundred and forty-four feet long and a hundred and seventeen broad, is surrounded with piazzas like those of the south and north fronts, forming ambulatories for the merchants to shelter themselves from the weather. Above the arches of these piazzas is an entablature extending round, and a compass pediment in the middle of each of the four sides. Under that on the north are the king's arms, on the south those of the city, on the east those of Sir Thomas Gresham, and on the west those of the mercers company. In these intercolumnations are twenty-four niches, twenty of which are filled with the statues of the kings and queens of England. In short, in the center of the area is another statue of king Charles II. in a Roman habit, encompassed with iron rails. In this area merchants meet every day at twelve at noon, and continue there in order to transact business till two. These merchants are disposed in separate classes, each of which has their particular station, called their walk.

The bank of England began to be erected in 1732; this is a very noble structure, to which very large additions are now making; with a grand passage to it from Cornhill.

The mansion-house is a magnificent structure; but too heavy and too large for the use for which it was designed. It is built of Portland stone, and has a portico of six lofty fluted columns of the Corinthian order in the front, the same order being continued in pilasters, both under the pediment and on each side. The basement story is very massy, and built in rustic, and on each side rises a flight of steps of very considerable height, leading up to the portico, in the middle of which is the door which leads to the apartments and offices. The columns support a large angular pediment, adorned with a very noble piece in basso relievo, representing the dignity and opulence of the city of London, executed by Taylor. In the center stands a very graceful woman crowned with turrets, representing the city, her left foot placed upon the figure of Envy, who lies on her back, and seems endeavouring to rise. Her left arm rests upon a large shield, which has the city arms, and in her right hand she holds a wand. This being the principal figure, it is done in alto relievo: she seems ready to step forwards, her head and right arm project from the back ground, and her wand extends beyond the cornice of the pediment. Near her, on her right hand, stands a Cupid, holding the cap of Liberty on the end of a short staff, and a little farther a river god, representing the Thames, lying reclined, pouring a stream of water from a large vase; and near him an anchor fastened to its cable, with shells lying on the shore. On the left hand of London is Plenty kneeling and supplicating London to accept of the fruits she is pouring from her cornucopia; and behind her are two naked boys with bales of goods, as emblems of commerce. Beneath this portico are two series of windows, which extend along the whole front; and above this is an Attic story, with square windows crowned with a balustrade. This building has an area in the middle, and the apartments are extremely noble.

Guildhall is the town-hall of the city, and is an old Gothic structure, in which the courts of justice are kept: the great hall is a hundred and fifty-three feet long, fifty broad, and fifty-eight high, embellished with two monsterous wooden giants, the pictures of several of the kings and queens of England, and of eighteen judges who distinguished themselves in determining the differences between landlords and tenants on rebuilding the city after the fire.

Blackwell-hall is famous for being the greatest mart for woolling cloth in the world. Sion-college has a library appropriated to the use of the London clergy.

In Warwick-lane is the college of physicians, where two of the fellows meet twice a week to give medicines to the poor gratis. The structure is very fine; but is in a manner entirely concealed.

Christ's hospital was formerly a house of the Grey friars, and was founded by Edward VI. for the entertainment and education of the children of citizens of both sexes. Here is a writing-school, drawing-school, grammar-school, and another for teaching the mathematics. The boys educated, maintained, and clothed gratis in this school

ſchool generally amount to near a thouſand, excluſive of the girls, who are about ſeventy in number.

The college of heralds, to which belong three kings at arms, namely, Garter, Clarencieux, and Norroy, with ſix heralds, four purſuivants, and eight proctors, is a ſpacious building, with convenient apartments, a good library relating to heraldry, and here the coats of arms are kept of all the families of note in England.

St. Paul's cathedral, which is ſeated on the higheſt ground in the city, is deſervedly eſteemed the ſecond in Europe, not for magnitude only, but for the magnificence and grandeur of the building. Its general form is that of a long croſs: the walls are wrought in ruſtic, and ſtrengthened as well as adorned by two rows of coupled pilaſters, one over the other; the lower Corinthian, and the other Compoſite. The ſpaces betwen the arches of the windows, and the architrave of the lower order, are filled with a great variety of curious enrichments, as are thoſe above. The weſt front has a moſt magnificent portico, a noble pediment, in which is repreſented the converſion of St. Paul in baſſo relievo, and two ſtately turrets. At this end is a grand flight of ſteps of black marble, that extend the whole length of the portico, which conſiſts of twelve lofty Corinthian columns below, and eight of the Compoſite order above, ſupporting the above pediment. Theſe are all coupled and fluted. The magnificent figure of St. Paul on the apex of the pediment, with St. Peter on his right, and St. James on his left, have a fine effect. The four evangeliſts, with their proper emblems on the front of the towers, are alſo well executed. The other ſides of the church are beautifully ornamented, and each has a different front. The dome, which riſes in the center of the whole, appears extremely grand: twenty feet above the roof of the church is a circular range of thirty-two columns terminated by their entablature, which ſupports a handſome ſtone gallery, adorned with a baluſtrade. Above theſe columns is a range of pilaſters, with windows between; and from the entablature of theſe the diameter encreaſes conſiderably. On the ſummit of the dome is an elegant balcony, and from its center riſes the lantern, adorned with Corinthian columns; and the whole is terminated by a ball, from which riſes a croſs, both elegantly gilt.

This vaſt and noble fabric, which is two thouſand two hundred and ninety-two feet in circumference, and three hundred and forty in height to the top of the croſs, is ſurrounded at a proper diſtance by a dwarf ſtone wall, on which is placed a baluſtrade of caſt iron. In the area of the grand weſt fronts ſtands a ſtatue of queen Anne, formed of white marble, with proper decorations. Four ſtatues ſitting at the baſe, repreſenting Britannia with the ſpear; Gallia or France with a crown in her lap; Hibernia, with her harp; and America with her bow.

At the entrance into the choir the organ gallery is ſupported by eight Corinthian columns of blue and white marble; and the choir has on each ſide thirty ſtalls, beſides the biſhop's throne on the ſouth-ſide, and lord mayor's on the north. The carving of this beautiful range of ſtalls, as well as that of the organ, is much admired. The reader's deſk, which is at ſome diſtance from the pulpit, is an incloſure of very fine braſs rails gilt, in which is a gilt braſs pillar, ſupporting an eagle of braſs gilt, which holds the book on his back, and extended wings. The altar-piece is adorned with four noble fluted pillaſters painted, and veined with gold, in imitation of lapis lazuli, and their capitals are double gilt. In the intercolumniations are twenty one pannels of figured crimſon velvet, and above them ſix windows in two ſeries. The floor of the choir, and indeed of the whole church, is paved with marble; but within the rails of the altar with porphyry. In the large croſs aile between the north and ſouth porticoes, and at a ſmall diſtance from the choir, riſes the cupola, where you have a view of the whiſpering gallery, of the paintings above it, and the concave at the top, which fills the mind with ſurpriſe and pleaſure. Under its center is fixed in the floor a braſs plate, round which the pavement is beautifully variegated; but the figures into which it is formed can no where be ſo well ſeen as from the whiſpering-gallery, to which any perſon may aſcend for a trifling expence, and there the voice of one perſon ſoftly ſpeaking againſt the wall, on the other ſide, ſeems as if he ſtood at your ear on this, though the diſtance between is not leſs than one hundred and forty feet; and the ſhutting of the door reſounds through the ſpacious vault like thunder, or as if the whole fabric was falling aſunder.

The other churches moſt worthy of notice in the city, are St. Stephen's Walbrook; which is juſtly admired for the inſide, which is covered with a ſpacious and noble dome, finely proportioned to the church, and divided with ſmall compartments decorated with great elegance, and crowned with a lantern, while the roof, which is alſo divided into compartments, is ſupported by very noble Corinthian columns, raiſed on their pedeſtals. Bow church in Cheapſide, and that of St. Bride, are rendered very famous by the extraordinary elegance and lightneſs of their ſteeples. The Temple church is one of the moſt beautiful Gothic ſtructures in England: it was founded by the Knights Templars, whoſe houſe is converted into two inns of court, called the Inner and Middle Temple, and conſiſt of handſome buildings adorned with gardens.

Among the numerous hoſpitals in this city, are St. Bartholomew's near Smithfield, a very magnificent ſtructure, of Portland ſtone, conſiſting of four ſides, which, when the old buildings and ſhops are taken away, will form the moſt ſuperb, though not the largeſt ſquare in this metropolis. This is deſigned for the relief of the ſick and lame; as is alſo the London hoſpital at Mile End. Bedlam or Bethlehem hoſpital is a magnificent building for the reception of lunatics, and St. Luke's hoſpital is a plainer, but no leſs uſeful building for the ſame purpoſe. The Magdalen hoſpital, and the ſmall-pox hoſpital, are alſo noble foundations.

The borough of Southwark is a conſiderable part of this metropolis, it is ſeated on the ſouth ſide of the Thames, and conſiſts of the pariſhes of St. Olave, St. John, St. Saviour, St. George, and St. Thomas; and for its extent, and number of inhabitants, is perhaps inferior to few cities in England. Though in the county of Surry, it is juſtly conſidered as a part of London, it being in ſome meaſure ſubject to the lord-mayor, who has under him a ſteward and bailiff, the former of whom holds a court of record every Monday at St. Margaret's hill, for all debts, damages, and treſpaſſes within his limits; and the lord-mayor proclaims Southwark fair. But tho' this is conſidered as one of the city wards, and an alderman is appointed for the government of it, yet it has its own magiſtrates, diſtinct from thoſe of the city.

The moſt remarkable ſtructures in Southwark are the two noble hoſpitals for the ſick and wounded, called St. Thomas's and Guy's. The former conſiſts of three fine ſquares encompaſſed with buildings, and adorned with the ſtatues of king Edward VI. and Sir Robert Clayton. Its annual diſburſements amount to eight thouſand pounds: there are four hundred and ſeventy-four beds, which are conſtantly kept filled; and they have always a conſiderable number of out-patients.

Guy's hoſpital is alſo a noble ſtructure, in one of the ſquares of which is a fine brazen ſtatue of Mr. Guy. This hoſpital is ſeated near the former, and contains four hundred and thirty-five beds.

The government of the city has a near reſemblance to the political conſtitution of the nation: for as England is governed by the king, lords, and commons in parliament aſſembled, ſo is the city by the lord-mayor, aldermen, and common-council. The city is divided into twenty-ſix diſtricts, called wards, each of which is governed by its reſpective alderman, who is elected by the houſe-keepers.

Out of this body the lord-mayor, or principal magiſtrate, is annually choſen on Michaelmas-day, and enters upon his office on the ninth of November. He is alſo conſervator of the river Thames, from the bridge at Stanes to the river Medway. When the lord-mayor appears abroad as a magiſtrate, it is in a coach of ſtate; he then wears a purple or a ſcarlet robe, has a gold chain, with a rich jewel to it, round his neck, and is attended by ſeveral officers walking before and on each ſide of him.

The next in power and dignity are the twenty-ſix aldermen, each of whom has under him a certain number of common-councilmen, one of whom is his deputy: theſe, as well as the aldermen, are choſen by the inhabitants of each ward. The mayor and aldermen chuſe the recorder, who is their ſpeaker, and counſellor with reſpect to the laws and cuſtoms of the city.

The two ſheriffs are conſiderable magiſtrates, who have the power to impanel juries, and in their courts cauſes are tried on actions of debt, treſpaſs, breach of covenants, &c. the execution of the laws is intruſted to to them. They are annually choſen on Midſummer-day by the liverymen.

The chamberlain of London is an officer of great truſt, he having the charge of the city caſh, and is uſually general receiver of the land-tax for the city of London and county of Middleſex. He has alſo full authority over the apprentices of the city; for in his court he decides cauſes between them and their maſters, and admits them to the freedom of the city.

The common-council are members choſen out of every ward, to the number of two hundred and thirty-ſix, by the houſe-keepers, from among themſelves. Theſe are the repreſentatives of the people.

The liverymen of the city are ſuch as have not only taken up the freedom of the city, but alſo the livery or gown of their reſpective companies. Theſe companies amount to ninety-two in number, and the lord-mayor belongs uſually to one of the principal of them; theſe are the mercers, grocers, drapers, fiſhmongers, goldſmiths, ſkinners, merchant-taylors, haberdaſhers, ſalters, ironmongers, vintners, and cloth-workers. Moſt of the ninety-two companies have halls, ſeveral of which are magnificent ſtructures; together with a maſter, a clerk, ſeveral wardens, aſſiſtants, and liverymen, who tranſact the buſineſs of the company, and provide for a number of their own poor. In theſe companies are ſeventy-nine maſters, two hundred and twenty wardens, two thouſand three hundred and eighteen aſſiſtants, eight thouſand two hundred and ſeventeen liverymen, who alone have the privilege of electing the repreſentatives of the city, with fifty-two halls; and it is computed that above twenty-ſix thouſand pounds is diſpoſed of annually by theſe companies to charitable uſes; and many of them have very noble alms-houſes in the neighbourhood of the city, where the old and decayed members of their reſpective companies are lodged, maintained, and clothed.

Beſides theſe there are ſeveral companies of merchants trading to different parts of the world, who have their reſpective halls: and a conſiderable number of companies for inſuring ſhips at ſea, and houſes from fire; theſe always keep fire-engines and a ſet of men in pay, who are ready at all hours to give their aſſiſtance in caſe of fire; and are on all occaſions extremely bold, dexterous, and diligent; but though all their labours ſhould prove unſucceſsful, the perſon who ſuffers by this devouring element has the comfort ariſing from the certainty of being paid the value of what he has inſured.

We now come to Weſtminſter, which is generally included under the name of London, and is only diſtinguiſhed from it by its not being under the government of the ſame magiſtrates. It received its name from its abbey, or minſter, being ſeated to the weſt of St. Paul's, and was once a mile diſtant from London; but its ſuburbs extending to that city, have perfectly united them.

As Weſtminſter has the honour of containing the palace of the king of Great Britain, our law-tribunals, and both houſes in which the parliament aſſemble, it is inhabited by the nobility and gentry, and thence that city and its liberties has a greater number of noble ſquares and elegant private buildings. The city of Weſtminſter at preſent conſiſts but of two pariſhes, St. Margaret's and St. John's the Evangeliſt; but the liberties contain ten pariſhes, namely, St. Martin's in the Fields, St. James's, St. Anne's, St. George's Bloomſbury, St. George's Hanover-ſquare, St. George's Queen-ſquare, St. Paul's Covent-garden, St. Mary le Strand, and St. Clement's Danes; to which may be added the precinct of the Savoy. However, each of the above pariſhes is of ſuch prodigious extent, conſidering the number of the houſes they contain, that it would be impoſſible for one-tenth part of the inhabitants to attend divine worſhip at one and the ſame time, there are therefore many chapels of eaſe for the convenience of thoſe who could not be ſo well accommodated in their pariſh-churches.

The abbey-church of St. Peter's Weſtminſter is a venerable pile of building in the Gothic taſte, where moſt of our monarchs have been crowned, and many of them interred. The preſent fabric was in part erected by Henry III. and finiſhed after his death. The extent of the building is very conſiderable; for its length is three hundred and ſixty feet within the walls, at the nave it is ſeventy-two broad, and at the croſs a hundred and ninety-five. The Gothic arches and ſide ailes are ſupported by forty-eight pillars of grey marble, each compoſed of cluſters of very ſlender ones, and covered with ornaments. This ſtructure is adorned with a prodigious number of monuments of kings, heroes, generals, and perſons diſtinguiſhed by their learning and genius: many of which are extremely beautiful, being adorned with admirable ſtatues of white marble, baſſo relievos, the moſt beautiful kind of granite, porphyry, and other rich kinds of marble, finely poliſhed, and accompanied with elegant inſcriptions.

Henry the ſeventh's chapel joins to the abbey, and is ſtiled by Leland, The Wonder of the World; it is, indeed, one of the moſt expenſive remains of the ancient Engliſh taſte and magnificence, and was founded by Henry VII. in 1502. The cieling is wrought with ſuch an aſtoniſhing variety of figures as is impoſſible to be deſcribe. The ſtalls on each ſide are of oak, with Gothic canopies moſt beautifully carved; as are alſo the ſeats; and the pavement is of black and white marble. In the middle of the eaſt end of the nave is the magnificent tomb of Henry VII. encloſed with a ſcreen of caſt braſs, moſt admirably executed and ornamented with ſtatues. In this chapel are the tombs of George Villiers, duke of Buckingham, and ſeveral other perſons of high rank.

Weſtminſter-hall is near the abbey, and is one of the largeſt rooms in Europe, whoſe roof is not ſupported with pillars. Here the courts of law are kept; and adjoining to it are the houſes of the Lords and Commons.

Weſtminſter bridge is univerſally allowed to be one of the fineſt in the world. The firſt ſtone was laid on the twenty-ninth of January, 1739, and the laſt in 1747. It is adorned and ſecured on each ſide with a lofty and noble baluſtrade, and is twelve hundred and twenty-three feet in length. The piers, which are fourteen, have thirteen large and two ſmall arches, all ſemicircular. The center arch is ſeventy-ſix feet wide, and the others decreaſe in width four feet on each ſide.

The admiralty, the treaſury, and the horſe-guards are expenſive buildings; the banqueting-houſe at White-hall is thus called from there being originally in this place an edifice in which our kings had public entertainments. This ſtructure was erected by the celebrated Inigo Jones, as a ſmall part of a ſuperb palace, of which that great architect had drawn the plan. The outſide of this ſtructure has been always eſteemed a moſt admirable work; and the cieling is painted by Rubens. This great apartment has been many years converted into a chapel.

The architecture of ſeveral churches of Weſtminſter and its liberties have been greatly admired, particularly that of St. Martin's in the Fields, and St. Paul's Covent-garden.

The Britiſh Muſeum, which may properly be ſaid to be founded by Sir Hans Sloane, bart. may be juſtly eſteemed an honour and an ornament to this nation, it conſiſting of an amazing number of natural curioſities, to which were added by his late majeſty the royal libraries of books and manuſcripts collected by the kings of England.

Amidſt the ſplendid buildings of this city we are ſorry we cannot mention the palace of our ſovereign, which is a mean ſtructure, unworthy of being the reſidence of ſo great a monarch. The meuſe, which contains the king's ſtables, is, however, a more magnificent edifice; but the ſquare in which it ſtands would admit of great improvements. The new buildings in the liberty of Weſtminſter are daily increaſing in the moſt aſtoniſhing manner. The principal ſquares are thoſe of Hanover, Groſvenor,

Groſvenor, Berkley, Cavendiſh, St. James's, Soho, Leiceſter, Golden, Red Lyon, Bloomſbury-ſquare, and Lincolns-inn Fields; with many others of leſs note.

There are in Weſtminſter, as well as in the city of London, a great number of charitable foundations, among which we may reckon the noble infirmaries at Hyde-park-corner, Middleſex hoſpital, and that called Weſtminſter infirmary, the hoſpital for expoſed and deſerted young children, the aſylum, ſeveral hoſpitals for lying-in women, and many others.

The civil and eccleſiaſtical government of this city were veſted in the dean and chapter of Weſtminſter; but ſince the Reformation the civil part has been committed to laymen. The high-ſteward, who is uſually a nobleman of the firſt rank, is choſen by the dean and chapter, and has an under-ſteward who officiates for him, and muſt therefore be verſed in the law; but his choice muſt be confirmed by the dean and chapter. The under-ſteward, with other magiſtrates, keeps the court leet, which tries all petty offences, and is commonly a chairman of the quarter-ſeſſions.

Next to the under-ſteward is the high-bailiff, who is alſo choſen by the dean and chapter. His power reſembles that of a ſheriff, for by him juries are ſummoned; all the bailiffs of Weſtminſter are ſubordinate to him, and he makes the return at the election of members of parliament. As all fines and forfeitures are his, his place is very profitable.

There is alſo a high-conſtable choſen by the court-leet, to whom all the other conſtables are ſubject. Here are likewiſe fourteen burgeſſes, or magiſtrates, ſeven for the city and ſeven for the liberties, each having an aſſiſtant. Their office is much like that of an alderman of London, each having a proper ward, out of theſe are elected two head-burgeſſes, one for the city, and one for the liberties.

Beſides the cities of London, Southwark, and Weſtminſter, there are included a great number of ſtreets which cannot properly be termed in the liberty of either, and yet are comprehended under the general name of London, they being united to it. Hence the number of ſtreets, lanes, and alleys exceed ſeven thouſand, the houſes amount to about a hundred and fifty thouſand, and that of the inhabitants cannot be leſs than a million. Beſides St. Paul's cathedral and Weſtminſter abbey, there are a hundred and two pariſh-churches, and ſixty-nine chapels of the eſtabliſhed religion; twenty-one French Proteſtant chapels, eight chapels belonging to the Germans, Dutch, Danes, &c. above a hundred meeting-houſes of the Proteſtant Diſſenters; ſeveral popiſh chapels for the uſe of foreign ambaſſadors, and three Jewiſh ſynagogues. There are alſo in and near this city one hundred alms-houſes, about twenty hoſpitals and infirmaries, twenty-two priſons, forty-two markets, twenty-ſeven public ſquares, beſides thoſe within any ſingle building, as for inſtance in the Temple; eight free-ſchools for grammar learning, and a hundred and thirty-one charity-ſchools, which conſtantly provide education for above five thouſand children.

In ſhort, this great metropolis enjoys ſeveral advantages which no other great city has in equal perfection; the plenty of water fit for drinking and all other uſes, is none of the leaſt. That of the Thames, that of the New River, conducted to Iſlington by the immortal Sir Hugh Middleton, and that of ſeveral other water-works, not only ſupply this city with that neceſſary of life, eſſential alſo to cleanlineſs, and conſequently to health, but running in ſtreams through pipes under the pavement of every ſtreet, is of the greateſt uſe in extinguiſhing fires: while the common-ſewers contribute to keep the ſtreets clean and wholeſome, and prevent our ever being greatly incommoded by that element. Add to this, that this great metropolis is much better lighted by night than Paris, or any other great city, and that, by the improvement making in the pavement, it will in this reſpect alſo be inferior to no other city.

For the entertainment of people of all ranks there are aſſemblies for dancing, muſical aſſemblies, two theatres, in which plays are acted, an opera-houſe, a houſe of theatrical amuſements called Sadler's-Wells, at Iſlington, ſeveral places where there are commodious rooms and pleaſant gardens near London, where the people meet to drink tea; beſides Marybone-gardens, and Vaux-hall-gardens already deſcribed in treating of the county of Surry, and thoſe of Ranelagh. The two laſt are not to be equalled in Europe.

Ranelagh-gardens, are ſo called from their formerly belonging to the earl of Ranelagh. Though the garden is beautiful, this place is moſt admired for its amphitheatre in the midſt of it. This is a circular building, one hundred and eighty-five feet in its external diameter. Round the whole is an arcade, and over that a gallery with a baluſtrade, to admit the company into the upper boxes, except where the entrances break the continuity; over this are the windows, and it is terminated by the roof. The internal diameter is one hundred and fifty feet, and the architecture of the inſide correſponds with that without, except that over every column between the windows, termini ſupport the roof. In the middle of the area, where the orcheſtra was at firſt deſigned, is a chimney that has four faces; this renders it warm and comfortable in cold weather. The orcheſtra fills up one of the entrances. The entertainment conſiſts of a fine band of muſic, with an organ, accompanied by the beſt voices. The regale is tea and coffee.

Chelſea, in which are the above gardens, is a large and populous village, pleaſantly ſituated on the bank of the Thames, two miles from London. Here is a phyſic-garden belonging to the company of apothecaries of London, ſeveral private buildings worthy of the curioſity of the public; Salter's coffee-houſe, well known for the great number of curioſities to be ſeen there; and Chelſea-hoſpital, a noble edifice, erected for the invalids in the land-ſervice.

Chelſea-hoſpital, which Charles II. began to erect, was carried on by James II. and completed by William III. was entirely built under the direction of Sir Chriſtopher Wren, and conſiſts of a vaſt range of buildings. The front towards the north opens into a piece of ground laid out in walks for the penſioners; and that facing the ſouth, into a garden which extends to the Thames, and is kept in good order. This ſide not only affords a view of that fine river, but of the county of Surry beyond it. In the centre of this edifice is a pediment ſupported by four columns, over which is a handſome turret, and in this part is an opening which leads through the building. On one ſide of this entrance is the chapel, the altar-piece of which is adorned with the reſurrection, painted by Ricci; and on the other the hall, where is the picture of Charles II. on horſeback, and ſeveral other pieces as big as the life, and in this room all the penſioners dine. The wings join the chapel and hall to the north, and are open towards the Thames on the ſouth: theſe are three hundred and ſixty feet in length, and about eighty in breadth; they are three ſtories high, and the rooms are ſo well diſpoſed, that nothing can be more pleaſant. On the front of this ſquare is a colonade, extending along the ſide of the hall and chapel; and in the midſt of the quadrangle is the ſtatue of king Charles II. in a Roman dreſs, ſtanding on a marble pedeſtal. There are ſeveral other buildings adjoining, that form two other large ſquares, and conſiſt of apartments for the officers and ſervants of the houſe; for old maimed officers of horſe and foot, and the infirmary for the ſick.

An air of elegance and neatneſs is obſerved in theſe buildings. They are compoſed of brick and ſtone, and there appears ſuch a diſpoſition of the parts as is beſt ſuited to the purpoſes of the charity, the reception of a great number, and the providing them with every thing that can contribute to the convenience and pleaſure of the penſioners. The expence of erecting them amounted to about one hundred and fifty thouſand pounds, and the extent of the ground is above forty acres.

In the wings are ſixteen wards, in which are accommodations for above four hundred men; and in the other buildings are a conſiderable number of apartments for officers and ſervants. Theſe penſioners conſiſt of ſuper-annuated veterans, who have been at leaſt twenty years in the army, or thoſe ſoldiers who are diſabled in the ſervice of the crown. They wear red coats lined with blue, and are provided with all other clothes, diet, waſhing, and lodging. The governor has five hundred pounds a year;

a year; the lieutenant-governor two hundred and fifty pounds, and the major one hundred and fifty pounds. Thirty-six officers are allowed six pence a day; thirty-four light horſemen, and thirty ſerjeants, have two ſhillings a week each; forty-eight corporals and drums have ten pence *per* piece; and three hundred and thirty-ſix are each allowed eight pence a week pocket-money. As the houſe is called a garriſon, all the members are obliged to do duty in turn; and they have prayers twice a day in the chapel, performed by two chaplains, who have each a ſalary of one hundred pounds a year. The phyſician, ſecretary, comptroller, deputy-treaſurer, ſteward, and ſurgeon, have alſo each a hundred pounds a year, and many other officers have conſiderable ſalaries. There are likewiſe between eight hundred and a thouſand out-penſioners, each of whom has eight pounds twelve ſhillings and ſix pence a year.

Theſe great expences are ſupported by a poundage deducted out of the pay of the army, with one day's pay once a year from each officer and common ſoldier; and when there is any deficiency, it is ſupplied by a ſum raiſed by parliament.

This hoſpital is governed by the following commiſſioners; the preſident of the council; the firſt commiſſioner of the treaſury, the principal ſecretary of ſtate, the pay-maſter-general of the forces, the ſecretary at war, the comptrollers of the army, and by the governor and lieutenant-governor of the hoſpital.

Kenſington is a large and populous village, about two miles from Hyde-Park-Corner. The palace, which was the ſeat of the lord-chancellor Finch, afterwards earl of Nottingham, was purchaſed by king William III. who greatly enlarged it; queen Mary enlarged the gardens; they were farther improved by queen Anne, and queen Caroline completed the deſign by extending them much farther. Theſe gardens, which are three miles and a half in compaſs, are extremely pleaſant, and kept in great order, and in ſummer are reſorted to by a great number of people. The palace indeed, has none of that grandeur which ought to appear in the reſidence of a Britiſh monarch, it being very irregular in point of architecture; however, the royal apartments are grand, and adorned with pictures by the greateſt maſters.

Hampton-Court is delightfully ſituated near the north bank of the Thames, twelve miles to the ſouth-weſt of London, at a ſmall diſtance from the village of Hampton. This palace was originally built by cardinal Wolſey: but king William and queen Mary were ſo greatly pleaſed with the ſituation, which rendered it capable of great improvements, and of being made one of the fineſt palaces in Europe, that while the former cauſed the old apartments to be pulled down and rebuilt in the magnificent manner in which they now appear, her majeſty, impatient to enjoy ſo agreeable a retreat, fixed upon a building near the river called the water-gallery, and ſuiting it to her convenience, adorned it with the utmoſt elegance, though its ſituation would not allow it to ſtand after the principal building was completed. Since the pulling down of the water-gallery which ſtood before the fine ſtone front that faces the river, the ground to the ſouth-weſt received conſiderable improvements. The park and gardens, with the ground on which the palace now ſtands, are about three miles in circumference. On a pediment at the front of the palace on this ſide is a baſs relief of the trials of Hercules over Envy, and facing it a large oval baſon, anſwering to the form of this part of the garden, which is a large oval divided into gravel-walks and parterres. At the entrance of the grand walk are two large marble vaſes of exquiſite workmanſhip, one ſaid to be performed by Mr. Cibber, the father of the poet-laureat; and the other by a foreigner: theſe pieces are reported to be done as a trial of ſkill; but it is difficult to determine which is the fineſt performance. They are beautifully adorned with baſſo-relievoes, that on the right hand repreſenting the triumphs of Bacchus, and the other on the left Amphitrite and the Nereiads. At the bottom of this walk, facing a canal which runs into the park, are two other large vaſes, the baſs-relief on one repreſenting the judgment of Paris, and that of the other, Meleager hunting the wild boar. In four of the parterres are four fine braſs ſtatues, all after fine originals.

The whole palace conſiſts of three quadrangles; the firſt and ſecond are Gothic; but in the latter is a moſt beautiful colonade of the Ionic order, the columns in couplets, built by Sir Chriſtopher Wren. Through this you paſs into the third court or quadrangle, in which are the royal apartments, which are magnificently built of brick and ſtone by king William III. and on the farther ſide of them are the gardens, with the ſuperb front of ſtone facing them.

On the oppoſite ſide of the quadrangle, that is adorned with a colonade, is the great ſtair-caſe, which has iron baluſters curiouſly wrought and gilt, and both the cieling and ſides were painted by Verrio. From the ſtair-caſe you paſs into the grand chamber, which is upwards of ſixty feet long, and forty wide. This room contains arms for five thouſand men, placed in various forms.

The next is the king's firſt preſence-chamber, which is hung with rich old tapeſtry. The cieling is vaulted, and from the centre hangs a fine luſtre of nineteen branches. Fronting the door are the canopy and chair of ſtate, which, as well as the ſtools, are of crimſon damaſk. On the left hand of the entrance is a fine picture, about eighteen feet by fifteen, by Sir Godfrey Kneller; in which king William III. is repreſented in armour on a ſtately grey horſe, trampling on trophies of war, and a flaming torch: Plenty, with her cornucopia, offers him an olive branch, and Flora preſents flowers. At the top in the clouds, Mercury and Peace ſupport his helmet, decorated with laurel, and a cupid holds a ſcroll. On the bottom part of the picture appear Neptune and his attendants by the ſide of a rock, welcoming the hero on ſhore; and at a diſtance is ſeen a fleet of ſhips, their ſails ſwelled with the wind.

The ſecond preſence-chamber is ſpacious, and has a vaulted ceiling, from the centre of which hangs a gilt chandelier of twelve branches. The tapeſtry is ancient, but very rich, the lights being all gold, and the ſhadows ſilk. The chair of ſtate and ſtools are of crimſon damaſk, fringed with the ſame colour. The room is alſo adorned with ſeveral paintings.

The fourth room is very lofty, in the middle hangs a beautiful chaſed ſilver chandelier of ſixteen branches. Here is a fine canopy of ſtate, with the windows, curtains, chair, and ſtools, of rich crimſon damaſk, laced and fringed with gold. The tapeſtry, which repreſents part of the ſtory of Abraham, is fine.

In the fifth room is alſo a chair of ſtate and ſtools; the window-curtains are tiſſue, with a ſilver ground, and there are ſilver ſconces faſtened to the tapeſtry. Over the chimney-piece is an admirable whole length picture of king Charles I. and over the doors are two capital pictures; the firſt is David with Goliah's head, by Fetti; the other the holy family, by Correggio.

In the king's ſtate-chamber is a bed of crimſon velvet laced with gold, with plumes of white feathers on the top. This room, which is very ſpacious, is hung with tapeſtry, and adorned with eight chaſed ſilver ſconces. The cieling, which was painted by Verrio, repreſents Endymion lying with his head in the lap of Morpheus, and Diana admiring him as he ſleeps. On another part of the cieling is a fine figure of Somnus with his attendants. In the border are four landſcapes, and four boys with baskets of flowers, intermixed with poppies.

The king's dreſſing-room has alſo the cieling painted. Mars is ſleeping in Venus's lap, while ſeveral cupids ſteal away his armour, ſword, and ſpear, and others are binding his legs and arms with fetters of roſes. The room is hung with ſtraw-coloured India damask, and the chairs, ſtools, and ſcreen, are covered with the ſame.

The king's writing-cloſet is of a triangular form. The hangings and ſtools are of a pea-green India damask. A glaſs is ſo placed as to ſhew all the rooms on that ſide of the building in one view. Over each door is a flower-piece by Baptiſt, and over the chimney a fine picture of a great variety of birds, by Bougdane.

Queen Mary's cloſet is hung with needle-work, ſaid to be wrought with her own hand; there are alſo an eaſy chair, four others, and a ſcreen, all ſaid to be the work of that excellent queen. The work is extremely neat, and ſhows great judgment in drawing.

The queen's gallery, which is about ſeventy feet long, and twenty-five feet wide, is hung with ſeven beautiful pieces

pieces of tapeſtry, repreſenting the hiſtory of Alexander the Great, done after the paintings of Le Brun.

The cieling of the queen's ſtate bed-chamber is finely painted: Aurora is repreſented riſing out of the ocean in her golden chariot, drawn by four white horſes. The bed is of crimſon damask, and, beſides other furniture, the room is adorned with a number of fine portraits, and a glaſs luſtre with ſilver ſockets.

The queen's drawing room has the cieling painted by Verrio: in the middle queen Anne is repreſented in the character of Juſtice, holding the ſword and ſcales, with Neptune and Britannia ſupporting a crown over her head. The room is hung with green damask, upon which are placed nine pictures by Andrea Montegna, three on each ſide of the room, and three at the end. Theſe were originally all in one piece of great length, as may be plainly ſeen from ſome of the figures being cut aſunder, and placed in different pieces. The whole is a triumph of Julius Cæſar, and was a long proceſſion of ſoldiers, prieſts, officers of ſtate, &c. at the end of which that emperor appears in his triumphal chariot, with Victory holding a laurel crown over his head.

The queen's ſtate audience-room has a fine canopy of ſtate, and is hung with rich tapeſtry, repreſenting the children of Iſrael carrying the twelve ſtones to the river Jordan; and has five pictures at full length of the duke, ducheſs, and marchioneſs of Brunſwic; the ducheſs of Lenox, and Margaret queen of Scots all by Holbein.

The prince of Wales's preſence-chamber is hung with tapeſtry, and has a canopy of ſtate of green damask; and both this, and the prince's drawing-room, are adorned with a number of portraits by Holbein.

In the private dining-room are four pictures of the defeat of the Spaniſh armada, by Vandeveldt, and over the chimney a very fine one, by Vandyke, of the lord Effingham Howard, lord high-admiral of England.

In the admirals gallery are the pictures of a conſiderable number of celebrated admirals; and in the room of beauties are the portraits of a number of beautiful ladies of the Engliſh court; among which is that of queen Mary.

The cartoons of Raphael Urbino, ſo called from their being painted on paper, were for a long time the moſt conſiderable ornament of this palace; but have of late been removed to the queen's palace in St. James's park.

A great number of the villages in this county are adorned with many ſeats of the nobility and gentry, and are more worthy of notice than even the market-towns: it will be ſufficient to mention one or two of thoſe ſeats.

Chiſwick, is ſeated on the Thames, on the ſouth-weſt ſide of Hammerſmith. In this village is a charity ſchool; and it is adorned with ſeveral elegant ſeats, as the earl of Grantham's, now colonel Elliot's, the earl of Shrewſbury's, the late lord Wilmington's, &c. but the moſt remarkable is that of the late earl of Burlington's, which was a plain commodious building, but a part of it being deſtroyed by fire, his lordſhip erected near it a beautiful villa, which for elegance of taſte, equals every thing of its kind in England. The court in the front is kept very neat, and has on each ſide yew-hedges in pannels, with termini placed at proper diſtances, and in the front of the hedges are two rows of cedars, the dark ſhade of which afford a pleaſing contraſt to the whiteneſs of the elegant building behind them. The aſcent to the houſe is by a noble flight of ſteps, on one ſide of which is the ſtatue of Paladio, and on the other, that of Inigo Jones. The portico is ſupported by ſix fine fluted columns of the Corintian order, with a very elegant pediment, and the cornice, frieze, and architrave, are as rich as poſſible. Though the other front towards the garden is plainer, yet it is in a bold and maſterly ſtyle, and has at the ſame time a pleaſing ſimplicity, as hath alſo the ſide-front towards the ſerpentine-river, which is different from the two others. The octagonal ſaloon in the middle of the building, which is covered at the top with a dome, through which it is enlightened, is alſo very elegant. The inſide of this ſtructure is nobly adorned, the cielings are gilt and painted, and the rooms ornamented with ſome of the beſt pictures in Europe.

The gardens are very beautiful, and laid out in the fineſt taſte: on deſcending from the back part of the houſe you enter a verdant lawn planted with clumps of evergreens, between which are two rows of large ſtone vaſes. At the end next the houſe are two wolves in ſtone, by Scheemaker: at the farther end are two large lions, and the view is terminated by three antique ſtatues, dug up in Adrian's garden at Rome, with ſtone ſeats between them, and behind a cloſe plantation of evergreens. On turning to the houſe on the right hand an open grove of foreſt-trees affords a view of the orangery; and on turning to the left is an eaſy ſlope covered with ſhort graſs, which leads down to a ſerpentine river, on the ſide of which are clumps of evergreens; and at the farther end is an opening into an encloſure, where are a Roman temple and an obeliſk, with graſs ſlopes, and in the middle a circular piece of water. From hence you are led to the wilderneſs, through which are three ſtraight avenues, terminated by three different edifices; and in the ſides are ſerpentine walks, through which you may ramble near a mile in the ſhade. On each ſide the ſerpentine river are alſo verdant walks, which accompany the river in all its turnings. On the right hand of the river is a building that is the exact model of the portico of Covent-garden church; on the left a wilderneſs laid out in regular walks, and in the middle over the river a Paladian wooden bridge. With the earth dug from the bed of this river is raiſed a terrace that affords a proſpect of the adjacent country, which when the tide is up is agreeably enlivened by a view of the boats and barges paſſing along the Thames.

Gunerſbury-houſe, near Ealing, the ſeat of the late Henry Furneſe, Eſq; is a noble and elegant ſtructure built by Inigo Jones, or, as ſome ſay, by Mr. Webb, his ſon-in-law. It is ſeated on a riſing ground, and the approach to it from the garden is remarkable fine. The loggia has a beautiful appearance at a diſtance, and commands a fine proſpect of the county of Surry, the river Thames, and of all the meadows on its banks for ſome miles; and in clear weather of even the city of London. The apartments are well contrived, and the hall, which is ſpacious, is on one ſide ſupported by rows of columns, and from thence you aſcend by a noble flight of ſtairs to a ſaloon, twenty-five feet high, and moſt elegantly furniſhed. This fine room has an entrance into the portico on the back front, which is adorned with beautiful columns. On entering the garden from the houſe you aſcend a noble terrace, which affords a delightful view of the neighbouring country, and from this terrace, which extends the whole breadth of the garden, you deſcend by a noble flight of ſteps, with a grand baluſtrade on each ſide, into the garden.

SECT. XXIII.

Of the County of Eſſex; its Situation, Extent, Diviſions, Repreſentatives, Air, Soil, and principal Places.

ESSEX, which took its name from its being the country of the Eaſt Saxons, is bounded on the north by the river Stour, which ſeparates it from Suffolk and Cambridgeſhire; on the eaſt by the German ſea; on the weſt by Hertfordſhire and Middleſex; and on the ſouth by the river Thames. It extends forty-four miles in length from eaſt to weſt, and about forty-two in breadth from north to ſouth. This county, which is in the dioceſe of London, is divided into eighteen hundreds, and contains twenty-ſeven market-towns, four hundred and fifteen pariſhes, a hundred and twenty-five vicarages, and eleven hundred villages, with about thirty-four thouſand eight hundred houſes, and two hundred and eight thouſand eight hundred inhabitants. It ſends eight members to parliament, namely, two for the county, and two for Colcheſter, Harwich, and Malden.

The air in the inland parts is healthy; but in the marſhes near the ſea it produces agues, particularly in the part called the Hundreds. However, the fertility of the unwholeſome part is very great, and even the higher grounds of this county are very fruitful. About Saffron

Walden, the earth, after bearing ſaffron three years, it is ſaid, will produce good barley for eighteen years ſucceſſively, without any manure. Its produce, which is very plentiful, conſiſts of corn, moſt excellent ſaffron, cattle, fowl, fiſh, and particularly oyſters. The chief manufactures of this county are cloth, ſtuffs, and particularly baize.

The principal rivers, beſides the Thames, are the Stour, which falls into the German ſea at Harwich; the Lea, its weſtern boundary, falls into the Thames below Stratford; the Blackwater runs through the heart of the county, and paſſing by Chelmsford is joined by the Chalmer, and from thence runs into the German ſea; the Colne runs by Halſted to Colcheſter, and ſo into the ſea. All theſe rivers abound in moſt ſorts of fiſh.

The principal places in this county are the following:

Chelmsford is thus called from the ford over the river Chelmer, and is ſeated on the road to Colcheſter, between that river and the Blackwater, over which there are bridges, twenty-eight miles eaſt-north-eaſt of London. It is a handſome well frequented town, and is governed by a chief conſtable; but has only one church, which is an ancient Gothic ſtructure, and three meeting-houſes. There is here an excellent conduit, which has ſuch a ſupply of water, that it is ſaid to run above a hogſhead and an half in a minute. Here the members for the county are choſen, and the aſſizes commonly held, as well as the four quarterly ſeſſions. As it is ſeated nearly in the center of the county, and in the great road to London, it is much frequented by travellers and the neighbouring gentry, for tranſacting all buſineſs relating to the county.

Colcheſter is a place of great antiquity, twenty-two miles to the eaſt-north-eaſt of Chelmsford, and fifty from London. It is pleaſantly and commodiouſly ſeated on the ſouth ſide of the river Coln, which runs through the town, and incloſes it on the eaſt and north-eaſt ſides: over it are three bridges. It is navigable within three miles of the town for large ſhips; a little lower it may receive the royal navy; and up to that part called the Hythe it is navigable for hoys and ſmall barks quite cloſe to the houſes, here being a long quay. The trade principally conſiſts in making baize and ſerges, the whole country being employed in ſpinning wool for this and the adjacent towns. Colcheſter, including the villages within its liberty, which is of large extent, has been ſuppoſed to contain forty thouſand people. In the civil wars, during the reign of Charles I. it ſuſtained a ſevere ſiege, which was turned into a blockade, in which the garriſon and inhabitants ſuffered the utmoſt extremity of hunger, and were at laſt obliged to ſurrender at diſcretion, when their two principal officers, Sir Charles Lucas and Sir George Liſle, were barbarouſly ſhot in cold blood under the caſtle wall, to the indelible infamy of Fairfax, the general of the parliament's forces. It was ſurrounded with a wall, which had ſix gates and three poſterns, beſides nine watch-towers; but theſe are in a great meaſure demoliſhed. It had ſixteen pariſh-churches; but now only twelve are uſed, which are not very large, and moſt of them were damaged in Cromwell's time. There are here alſo five meeting-houſes. The town conſiſts of about three thouſand dwelling-houſes, moſt of them ancient buildings; but there are among them many good houſes. The ſtreets are not very broad, but are pretty well paved: and the town, which is famous for oyſters and eringo-root, imports baize, wine, brandy, coals, deals, &c. Towards the eaſt are the ruins of an old caſtle, with a fence round it, about two miles in circumference.

Harwich, a ſea-port town, ſituated in the fifty-ſecond degree three minutes latitude, and in the firſt degree eighteen minutes eaſt longitude, ſeventy-three miles to the eaſt-north-eaſt of London, is ſurrounded on three parts by the ſea and the river Stour. It is not very large, but is well inhabited, and contains between eight and nine hundred houſes, which are generally good and lofty buildings, and the ſtreets are both pretty wide and well paved. The number of the inhabitants amount to about four thouſand. The harbour is one of the fineſt in England, for in it four hundred ſhips may ride in ſafety; and oppoſite to the town is Landguard fort, and a good battery of cannon. Here the packet-boats are ſtationed that paſs to and from Holland; and here alſo is a good dock-yard, in which many ſhips of war are built. The town is governed by a mayor, eight aldermen, a recorder, and twenty-four capital burgeſſes; but it has only a chapel of eaſe, and ſeveral meeting-houſes, the mother church being at Dover-court, at two miles diſtance. The market is kept on Tueſdays and Fridays.

Dunmow, a market-town thirty-eight miles from London, in which the manufacture of baize flouriſhes, is particularly remarkable ſince Henry III's time for the cuſtom of giving a flitch of bacon to any married couple who will ſwear, kneeling on two peaked ſtones in the church-yard, that for a year and a day after their marriage they never repented of their choice, nor quarrelled in all that time; and this appears upon record to have been ſeveral times actually claimed and delivered.

SECT. XXIV.

Of the County of Suffolk; its Situation, Extent, Diviſions, Repreſentatives, Air, Soil, Produce, and principal Towns.

SUFFOLK was thus called by the Saxons, to denote the Southern people, in oppoſition to thoſe of Norfolk, or Northfolk; and is bounded on the north by the rivers Waveney and the Leſſer Ouſe, which part it from Norfolk; on the eaſt by the German ocean; on the ſouth by the river Stour, which divides it from Eſſex, laſt deſcribed; and on the weſt by Cambridgeſhire. It extends fifty miles in length, twenty-five in breadth, and is divided into ſeventeen hundreds, in which are twenty-eight market-towns, ninety-five vicarages, five hundred and ſeventy-five pariſhes, fifteen thouſand villages, thirty-four thouſand four hundred and twenty houſes, and two hundred and ſix thouſand inhabitants. It ſends ſixteen members to parliament, namely, two knights for the ſhire, and two burgeſſes for each of the following boroughs: Ipſwich, Dunwich, Orford, Aldborough, Sudbury, Eye, and St. Edmondſbury, and lies in the dioceſe of Norwich.

The air is very clear and healthy, even near the ſea-coaſt; the beach being generally ſandy and ſhelly, which either abſorbs or ſhoots off the ſea-water, and keeps it from ſtagnating or forming a noiſome and ſtinking mud, whence phyſicians eſteem the air as good as any in England.

The ſoil is of various qualities; that near the ſhore is ſandy and full of heaths, yet abounds in rye, peas, and hemp, with numerous flocks of ſheep. High Suffolk, or the Wood-lands, which is the inland part of the county, though abounding in wood, has a rich deep clay and marle that yields good paſture-grounds, on which feed abundance of cattle. That part which lies on the confines of Eſſex and Cambridge alſo affords excellent paſture; and about Bury St. Edmund's, and ſo on to the north and north-weſt, it is fruitful in corn, except towards Newmarket. The feeding of cattle and ſheep on turnips is ſaid to have been an improvement firſt ſet on foot in this county. Its principal produce is butter and cheeſe, the latter of which is frequently in this county very much the worſe on account of the goodneſs of the former, and is ſometimes of ſo hard and horny a nature, as to require the force of the hatchet to cut it.

This county is generally divided into two parts, namely, the Franchiſe or Liberty of St. Edmund, which contains the weſt part of the county; and the Geldable, which is the eaſtern, each of theſe furniſhes a diſtinct grand-jury at the aſſizes.

The principal rivers are the Waveney, the Deben, the Orwell, by ſome called the Gipping, and the Stour. The Waveny riſes in the northern edge of the county, and running to the north-eaſtward, after it has paſſed Beccles, forms two branches, one of which runs to the eaſt almoſt to Leoſtoff, where it ſtops ſhort, without reaching the ſea; the other makes an angle to the northward, and falls into the Yare a little above Yarmouth. The Deben riſes a little to the weſtward of Debenham, and running eaſtward to Wickham, winds round that town, and runs ſouth-

ſouth-ſouth-eaſt to the German ocean. The Orwell riſes near Wulpit, and runs eaſtward to the ſame ſea. The Stour riſes in the edge of Cambridgeſhire, and running moſtly eaſtward, falls into the German ocean with the Orwell at Harwich.

The principal places in this county are the following:

Ipſwich, a place of great antiquity, is ſeated on the river Orwell, twenty miles to the north-eaſt of Colcheſter, and ſeventy-two to the north-eaſt of London, and was once ſurrounded with a wall, the traces of which are ſtill to be ſeen. The town forms a half moon upon the bank of the river, and it is remarkable that though ſhips of five hundred tons may upon a ſpring-tide come up near the town, yet the river is ſcarce navigable above the town even for the ſmalleſt boats; nor does the tide, which ſometimes riſes thirteen or fourteen feet, and gives them near the town twenty-four feet water, flow much farther up the river. This may be accounted a very neat and well-built town. It has a very ſpacious market-place, in the midſt of which is a handſome croſs. At a ſmall diſtance is the ſhambles, with the herb-market; and in a ſpacious ſtreet, at a ſmall diſtance, is a market for butter, poultry, &c. and another for fiſh, with which the town is well ſupplied. The town conſiſts of about four thouſand houſes, which are generally good buildings and very loſty, formed into ſtreets that are tolerably wide and well paved. It is divided into four wards, and contains twelve pariſh-churches, with a Preſbyterian, an Independant, and a Quaker's-meeting. Here is alſo a town-hall, with a ſpacious council-chamber, and other commodious apartments; a county-hall, two hoſpitals, a free-ſchool, a good library, a cuſtom-houſe, a good quay, and ſeveral alms-houſes. It is governed by a bailiff, twelve aldermen, and twenty-four common-councilmen; but no manufacture of conſequence is carried on here; yet being a ſea-port, and having a large and convenient quay, it has a good maritime trade, though it is not ſo conſiderable as formerly.

Bury St. Edmund's, or St. Edmundſbury, ſo called from Edmund, king of the Eaſt Angles, who was murdered in 870, and buried here, is delightfully ſituated upon an eminence on the weſt ſide of the river Lark, or Bourne, ſeventy miles to the north-eaſt of London, and having a view of a very fruitful country, has been called the Engliſh Montpelier. It is regularly built, the ſtreets croſſing each other almoſt at right angles, and is governed by a recorder, twelve aldermen, and twenty-four common-council. It was formerly famed for its abbey, which was ſaid to be the fineſt and richeſt of any in England, and ſtood between the two churches, which are both very large, and ſeated in one church-yard. In St. Mary's, one of theſe churches, lies Mary queen of France, who was married to Thomas duke of Norfolk. Beſides theſe churches, it has one Preſbyterian, one Independant, and one Quaker's-meeting. The inhabitants are ſaid to amount to about ſeven thouſand. Here is a ſpacious market-houſe, a beautiful croſs, and a grammar-ſchool. Here are held the aſſizes for the county. This town is the general rendezvous of all the nobility and gentry from the neighbouring counties.

SECT. XXV.

Of Cambridgeſhire; its Situation, Extent, Diviſions, Repreſentatives, Air, Soil, &c.

CAMBRIDGESHIRE, which receives its name from Cambridge, ſo called from its bridge over the river Cam, is bounded on the north by Lincolnſhire; on the eaſt by the counties of Norfolk and Suffolk; on the ſouth by Eſſex and Hertfordſhire; and on the weſt by Huntingdon and Bedfordſhire. It is thirty-five miles in length, about twenty in breadth, and near a hundred and thirty in circumference; it lies partly in the dioceſe of Ely, and partly in that of Norwich. It is divided into ſixteen hundreds, and contains eight market-towns, eighty-three vicarages, a hundred and ſixty-three pariſhes, two hundred and ſeventy-nine villages, with about ſeventeen thouſand houſes, and eighty-ſix thouſand ſeven hundred inhabitants. It ſends only ſix members to parliament, namely, two for the county, two for the town of Cambridge, and two for the univerſity.

The air and ſoil of this county vary extremely, ſome parts, eſpecially the ſouthern and eaſtern, are pleaſant and healthy; but the northern and fen-country are low and watery, and conſequently not very healthful. As the fen-country is in a manner the ſink of thirteen counties, it is often overflowed; for all the waters of the middle part of England, which do not run into the Thames or the Trent, fall into theſe fens, and in the latter part of the year, when they are overflowed with water, they appear covered with fogs; ſo that while the higher grounds of the adjacent country glitter with the beams of the ſun, the Iſle of Ely appears wrapt in a miſt. To clear theſe fens a number of drains has been made at a very great expence, by which a great deal of ground has been rendered fertile, and the air much improved. The people who are uſed to live in this watery country are as healthy as thoſe who enjoy a clearer air, except being ſubject to the ague, which they make light of.

In theſe fens are abundance of thoſe ingenious contrivances called decoys, and it is incredible what quantities of wild-fowl of all ſorts, as duck, mallard, teal, wigeon, &c. they take in them every week during the ſeaſon. It is ſaid that the neat profits of a decoy near Ely amount to near five hundred pounds a year; there being generally ſent to London during the ſeaſon from that decoy three thouſand couples a week.

Cambridgeſhire is almoſt wholly a corn-country, and five parts in ſix of all they ſow is barley, which is generally ſold to Ware, Royſton, and other great malting-towns in Hertfordſhire.

The principal river in this county is the Ouſe, which runs from the eaſt to the north-weſt, and receives the Cam near Thetford.

The chief places in this county are the following:

Cambridge, the capital of the county, and a celebrated univerſity, ſtands in a ſpacious, delightful, and fertile plain, fifty-five miles north of London, and ſixty north-eaſt of Oxford. The river Cam divides it into two unequal parts; but its ſituation is low, and the air is generally eſteemed not ſo good as that of Oxford. It contains about two thouſand five hundred houſes, and the inhabitants are computed at ſix thouſand: but the ſtreets are generally narrow, though pretty well paved; yet, as they lie low, they are in winter very dirty. In the midſt of the market-place is a very good conduit, continually running. The town conſiſts of fourteen pariſhes, and is governed by a mayor, a recorder, twelve aldermen, and twenty-four common-council; and the mayor, when he enters upon his office, takes an oath to maintain the privileges, liberties, and cuſtoms of the univerſity, to which he is ſubſervient.

The glory of this town is its univerſity, which is under the government of the chancellor, who is always a nobleman of high rank, and may be elected every three years, or is continued by the tacit conſent of the univerſity. The other officers of the univerſity are, II. The vice-chancellor, who is annually choſen on the fourth of November, by the body of the univerſity, out of two perſons nominated by the heads of colleges. III. A commiſſary, who holds a court of record of civil cauſes for all privileged perſons and ſcholars under the degree of maſter of arts. IV. A high-ſteward, choſen by the ſenate, and holding by patent from the Univerſity. V. Two proctors, who are annually choſen; as are alſo two taxers, who, with the proctors, have the cognizance of weights and meaſures, as clerks of the market. The univerſity has alſo a librarian, a regiſter, and other officers.

The vice-chancellor ſometimes viſits the taverns and other public-houſes in perſon; but it is more frequently done by the proctors, who have power to puniſh offending ſcholars, and to fine the public-houſes who entertain them after eight at night in the winter, or nine in ſummer.

The origin of this univerſity is concealed by the darkneſs of antiquity; it is ſaid to have been reſtored by Sebert, king of the Eaſt Angles, in the year 630, but was afterwards long neglected and overthrown by the war

war of the Danes; but at length revived under the Norman government. It has at preſent ſixteen colleges and halls, which here differ only in name, they being equally endowed, and enjoy the ſame privileges. In theſe are ſixteen maſters, four hundred and ſix fellowſhips, about ſix hundred and ſixty-two ſcholarſhips, two hundred and thirty-ſix exhibitions; and the whole number of maſters, fellows, ſcholars, exhibitioners, and other ſtudents, amount to about fifteen hundred. We ſhall now give a brief account of theſe colleges and halls, according to the date of their ſeveral foundations.

I. Peter-houſe, which perhaps took its name from St. Peter's church in its neighbourhood, was founded by Hugh Balſham, biſhop of Ely, in the year 1257. It was endowed for a maſter, fourteen fellows, &c. which number might be increaſed or diminiſhed according to the improvement or diminution of their revenues; and has at preſent twenty-two fellows, and four ſcholars.

II. Clare-hall was founded in 1340 by Richard Badew, chancellor of the univerſity, with the aſſiſtance of the lady Elizabeth Clare, counteſs of Ulſter. He had before erected a houſe called Univerſity-hall, in which the ſcholars lived for ſixteen years at their own expence, till it being accidentally burnt, the founder being ſenſible that the expence of rebuilding it would exceed his abilities, obtained the aſſiſtance of the above lady, through whoſe liberality it was not only rebuilt, but endowed. This ſtructure has been lately rebuilt with free-ſtone, and is one of the neateſt and moſt uniform houſes in the univerſity. It enjoys a moſt delightful ſituation, it being ſeated on the banks of the river, which here forms a kind of natural canal. It maintains eighteen fellows, and ſixty-three ſcholars.

III. Pembroke-hall was founded ſeven years after Clare-hall, by Mary St. Paul, counteſs of Pembroke, and maintains five fellows and thirteen ſcholars.

IV. St. Bennet's, or Corpus Chriſti-college, was founded about the ſame time by the united guilds or fraternities of Corpus Chriſti and the Bleſſed Virgin. It takes its name from the adjoining church of St. Benedict. Among its modern benefactors the moſt conſiderable is Dr. Matthew Parker, archbiſhop of Canterbury, who gave a curious library, chiefly conſiſting of ſcarce manuſcripts; he alſo founded two fellowſhips, aad five ſcholarſhips. At preſent it is able to maintain twelve fellows, and forty ſcholars.

V. Trinity-hall was founded by William Bateman, biſhop of Norwich, about the year 1348; and as he was eminent for his extenſive knowledge in the civil and canon law, two fellows and three ſcholars, placed by him there, were obliged to purſue that particular branch of learning. It has twelve fellows and fourteen ſcholars.

VI. Gonvil and Caius-college. With reſpect to this college it muſt be obſerved, that in 1348 Edmund de Gonvil, rector of Terrington in Norfolk, founded a hall, called after his name, in the place where are now the orchard and Tennis-court of Bennet's-college: but within five years after it was removed by biſhop Bateman to the place where it now ſtands. In 1607 John Caius, M. D. made ſuch large additions, both to the building and revenues, that he is deſervedly conſidered as the principal founder; and it has of late years received conſiderable embelliſhments. It now maintains twelve fellows of the firſt rank, fourteen of the ſecond, and ſeventy-four ſcholars.

VII. King's-college was founded in 1451 by king Henry VI. and afterwards enlarged by Henry VII. and his ſon Henry VIII. The model firſt laid down was never completed; only a part of the magnificent plan being executed: however, the chapel is deſervedly eſteemed one of the fineſt buildings of its kind in the world. It is three hundred and four feet in length, ſeventy-three in breadth, and ninety-one high to the battlements, and has not one pillar in it. It has twelve large windows on each ſide finely painted, and the carving and other workmanſhip of the numerous ſtalls ſurpaſs any thing of the kind. It conſtitutes one ſide of a large ſquare; for the royal founder deſigned that the college ſhould be a quadrangle, all of equal beauty; but the civil wars prevented his accompliſhing it: however, what has been lately added is not only an ornament to the college, but to the whole univerſity, and is built with great regularity and beauty. It maintains ſeventy fellows and ſcholars, beſides chaplains, &c.

VIII. Queen's-college was founded in 1448, by queen Margaret of Anjou, the wife of Henry VI. but finiſhed by Elizabeth the conſort of Edward IV. It now maintains a maſter, nineteen fellows, twelve bible-clerks, four Greek ſcholars, forty other ſcholars, beſides lecturers of Hebrew, geometry, and arithmetic.

IX. Catharine-hall owes its foundation to Richard Woodlarke, the third provoſt of King's-college. A great part of it has been lately rebuilt. It is a neat and elegant ſtructure, in which are maintained ſix fellows and thirty ſcholars.

X. Jeſus-college was begun by John Alcock, biſhop of Ely, in 1497, who having obtained of Henry VII. and pope Julius II. the revenues of a monaſtery of nuns, which had been ſuppreſſed on account of their ſcandalous incontinence, endowed and dedicated it to Jeſus, the Bleſſed Virgin, and St. Radegund, patroneſs of the nunnery. It has now ſixteen fellowſhips, and thirty-one ſcholars.

XI. Chriſt's-college was founded by the lady Margaret, counteſs of Richmond, mother of Henry VII. for a maſter and twelve fellows, which number agreeing with our Saviour and his twelve apoſtles was complained of in Edward the Sixth's reign as ſuperſtitious, on which the king added another fellowſhip and ſome ſcholarſhips. A noble building has been lately added to the old houſe, and the number of ſcholars amount to fifty-ſix.

XII. St. John's-college was begun by the ſame lady about nineteen years after Chriſt's-college, and was finiſhed by her executors. This college, which in the beginning of the reign of king James I. was greatly enlarged with new buildings, is pleaſantly ſituated near the river, and is no leſs remarkable for the number of its ſtudents and its beautiful groves and gardens, than for its ſtrict and regular diſcipline. It has a fine ſtone bridge over the river, and the library is noble and curious. The number of ſtudents amount to one hundred, and its fellows to fifty-three.

XIII. Magdalen-college was originally a hall for monks to prepare themſelves for academical exerciſes; but at the diſſolution of the monaſteries by Henry VIII. a new college was founded here by Thomas Audley, baron of Walden, and it was afterwards enlarged and endowed by Sir Chriſtopher Wray, lord chief juſtice of England. This college ſtands by itſelf on the north-weſt ſide of the river, and has been improved and adorned by handſome buildings. It maintains a maſter, thirteen fellows, and thirty ſcholars.

XIV. Trinity-college was founded by Henry VIII. who converted three ſmall houſes into one college, made a conſiderable addition to their former endowments, and dedicated this houſe to the Holy and Undivided Trinity. Queen Mary added largely to the endowment, and by ſubſequent benefactions it is enabled to maintain ſixty-five fellows, and ninety-one ſcholars. Its library, which many learned men have contributed to enrich, is very noble: the chapels, buildings, &c. juſtly place this in the firſt rank of colleges, and render it ſuperior to ſome foreign univerſities.

XV. Emanuel-college was founded by Sir Walter Mildmay, chancellor of the exchequer, in 1584, on the ſame ſpot where the Dominican friars had formerly a houſe. It has a very neat chapel, built by the bounty of Dr. William Sancroft, archbiſhop of Canterbury, and others, who likewiſe made a fine addition to the library by giving it his fine collection of books. It maintains a maſter, fourteen fellows, fifty ſcholars, and ten poor ſcholars.

XVI. Sidney Suſſex-college was founded by virtue of the will of the lady Frances Sidney, counteſs of Suſſex, who died in 1589, and for this purpoſe left five hundred pounds. Afterwards Sir Francis Clarke, and after him Sir John Brereton, not only erected a ſet of new buildings, but augmented the ſcholarſhips and fellowſhips; ſo that it is now enabled to maintain a maſter, twelve fellows, and twenty-eight ſcholars.

Among the other buildings in Cambridge is the new ſenate-houſe, which is a fine edifice, and, with the

ſchools, the univerſity-library, and other buildings, form a noble ſquare. This ſtructure is a hundred and one feet in length, forty-two in breadth, and is adorned with fluted columns, a triangular pediment, and other beautiful decorations.

The ſchools of the univerſity were at firſt in private houſes, afterwards public ſchools were erected at the expence of the univerſity, in or near the place where they now ſtand: but the preſent ſtructure, which is built of brick and ſtone, was erected partly at the expence of the univerſity, and partly by the contributions of ſeveral benefactors.

The univerſity-library was firſt built by Rotheram, archbiſhop of York, who with Tonſtal, biſhop of Durham, furniſhed it with choice books; after which his majeſty king George I. purchaſed the library of Dr. John Moore, biſhop of Ely, which coſt him ſix thouſand guineas, and beſtowed it upon this univerſity. Soon after the late lord viſcount Townſhend erected a fine marble ſtatue of his majeſty in the ſenate-hall of King's-college. The ſame prince alſo appointed two perſons, both in the univerſity of Oxford and Cambridge, well ſkilled in modern hiſtory, and in the knowledge of modern languages, to be nominated king's profeſſors of modern hiſtory, one of whom in each univerſity is obliged to read lectures in the public ſchools at particular times; each of theſe profeſſors to have a ſalary of four hundred pounds per annum, out of which each profeſſor is obliged to maintain, with ſufficient ſalaries, two perſons at leaſt, well qualified to teach and inſtruct in writing and ſpeaking thoſe languages gratis, twenty ſcholars of each univerſity, to be nominated by the king, each of which is obliged to learn at leaſt two of thoſe languages.

Stourbridge, a field near Cambridge, is known for its famous fair annually kept on the ſeventh of September, and continues a fortnight. This is eſteemed one of the greateſt fairs in England, many tradeſmen going thither from London and other parts to keep ſhops there. The trade chiefly conſiſts of woollen cloth, hops, iron, wool, leather, cheeſe, horſes, and many other things.

Ely is ſeated on an iſland of the ſame name, ſeventeen miles to the north of Cambridge, and ſixty-nine north-by-eaſt of London. It ſtands on a hill ſeated in the middle of a fenny plain, on the banks of the river, which renders it very unhealthy. The ſoil is exceeding rich, and the city is encompaſſed with gardens, which furniſh all the county for twenty miles round. Great quantities of ſtrawberries are cultivated here, particularly of the white ſort. The city conſiſts of about ſix hundred good houſes, and has but one good ſtreet well paved, the reſt being extremely dirty. The biſhop has the ſame power as in a county palatine; for he appoints a judge, holds the aſſizes, jail-delivery, and quarter-ſeſſions of the peace for the liberty. The aſſizes are held there every twelve months. The cathedral is a ſtately ſtructure, which has a lanthern of curious architecture; beſides which the city has only one church.

SECT. XXVI.

Of Hartfordſhire; its Situation, Extent, Diviſions, Repreſentatives, Rivers, Air, Soil, and principal Towns.

HARTFORDSHIRE, or Hertfordſhire, derives its name from Hartford, or Hertford, the county town, is bounded on the north by Cambridgeſhire, on the eaſt by Eſſex, on the weſt by Bedfordſhire and Buckinghamſhire, and on the ſouth by Middleſex. It is thirty-one miles in length, about twenty-eight in breadth, and about a hundred and thirty in circumference. This county, which lies partly in the dioceſe of London and partly in that of Lincoln, is divided into eight hundreds, which contain eight market-towns, fifty-four vicarages, a hundred and twenty pariſhes, and near nine hundred and fifty villages, with about ſixteen thouſand five hundred houſes, and eighty-two thouſand eight hundred inhabitants; and ſends ſix members to parliament, two knights for the ſhire, with two burgeſſes for St. Albans, and as many for Hertford.

The air is very clear and ſalutary, whence it is frequently recommended by phyſicians as highly conducive to health, and the people have a ſaying, that whoever buys a houſe or land in Hertfordſhire, pays two years purchaſe extraordinary for the goodneſs of the air. The ſoil is generally rich, and in the northern parts has a marle mixed with it, that makes it produce excellent wheat; but the meadows and paſtures are indifferent. The chief commodities are wheat, barley, malt, and wood.

This county is well watered with ſmall rivers, the chief of which are the Lea and the Coln. The principal towns in Hertfordſhire are the following:

Hertford, is ſeated on the river Lea, two miles to the weſt of Ware, and twenty-one to the north of London, and was formerly much more conſiderable than it is at preſent. It is built in the form of a Y, with a caſtle in the middle of the two horns, and contains ſeveral ſtreets and lanes. It had formerly five pariſh churches; but they are now reduced to two, with ſeveral meeting-houſes of the diſſenters.

It has a corporation, governed by a mayor, nine aldermen, a recorder, a town-clerk, a chamberlain, ten capital burgeſſes, &c. The chief commodities of its markets are wool, wheat, and malt, and it is ſaid to ſend five thouſand quarters of malt weekly to London, by the river Lea.

Here is a free-ſchool for the children belonging to the town; three charity ſchools, and alſo a ſchool belonging to Chriſt's-Hoſpital in London; this is a handſome ſtructure, erected by the governors, for ſuch children as either want health, or are too young for that hoſpital. This town gives the title of earl to the family of Conway, and near it is the ſeat of the late governor Harriſon, pleaſantly ſituated on a hill, that commands a fine proſpect, and there are ſeveral other ſeats in its neighbourhood.

Ware, is ſeated on the river Lea, twenty-one miles from London. The plenty of water about this town gave riſe to that admirable project, of cutting a channel from thence, and thus forming a new river for ſupplying London with water. This river takes its riſe from Arnwell, near this town, and was formed by the great Sir Hugh Middleton, who was obliged, in order to avoid the eminences and valleys in the way, to make it run a courſe of about thirty-nine miles, and to carry it over two valleys, in long wooden troughs lined with lead; that at Buthill being ſix hundred and ſixty feet in length, and thirty in height, under which is an arch, capacious enough to admit the largeſt waggon loaded with hay or ſtraw. In ſhort, over and under this river, which ſometimes riſes thus high, and at others is conveyed under ground, run ſeveral conſiderable currents of land waters, and both above and below it a great number of brooks, rills, and water courſes have their paſſage.

In the town of Ware is a charity-ſchool, and ſix or ſeven alms houſes. The ſchool which formerly was for the younger children of Chriſt's hoſpital, is removed to Hertford, the air being there eſteemed purer. This town has been famous for its great bed, which is much viſited by travellers, it being twelve feet ſquare, and is ſaid to hold twenty people. It was kept at the Crown, but now at the Bull.

St. Alban's, a large and ancient town, twenty-one miles from London, received its name from St. Alban, who ſuffered in the perſecution under Diocleſian, and being afterwards canonized, and interred on a hill in the neighbourhood of the town, a monaſtery was erected to him by king Offa, to atone for his guilt, in cauſing him to be murdered. King Edward I. erected here a magnificent croſs, in memory of queen Eleanor, and king Edward VI. incorporated the town by a charter, granting the inhabitants a mayor, a ſteward, a chamberlain, and ten burgeſſes; but the mayor and ſteward are here the only juſtices of peace. Here are three churches, beſides the ancient church called St. Alban's, belonging to the monaſtery, which is now a pariſh church. In this ancient ſtructure is a funeral monument, and the effigy of king Offa its founder, who is ſeated on his throne. On the eaſt ſide ſtood the ſhrine of St. Alban, and in the ſouth aile is the monument of duke Humphry, brother to king Henry V. commonly diſtinguiſhed by the title of the

the Good duke of Glouceſter. It is adorned with a ducal coronet, and the arms of France and England quartered. In niches on one ſide are ſeventeen kings, but in the niches on the other ſide there are no ſtatues remaining.

About fifty years ago, in digging a grave, a pair of ſtairs was diſcovered that led down into a vault, where a leaden coffin was found, in which the duke of Glouceſter's body was preſerved entire, by a kind of pickle in which it lay, only the fleſh was waſted from the legs, the pickle at that end being dried up. Many curious medals and coins are to be ſeen in the church, that have been dug out of the ruins of Old Verulam, which ſtood on the other ſide of the river Ver or Moore, which runs ſouth-weſt of the town.

St. Alban's is the largeſt town in the county, and, beſides its four churches, has ſeveral meeting houſes, two charity ſchools, and three fairs, and has on Saturdays one of the beſt markets for wheat in England. It gives the title of duke to the noble family of Beauclerc. The great John duke of Marlborough erected a ſeat here, called Holloway-houſe, and ſeveral neat alms-houſes have been built here by him and his ducheſs. Near St. Alban's is a fort at a place called by the common people the Oyſter-hills, which is ſuppoſed to have been the camp of Oſtorius the Roman proprætor.

SECT. XXVII.

Of Bedfordſhire; its Situation, Extent, Diviſions, Repreſentatives, Air, Soil, and principal Places.

THIS county derives its name from its chief town; it is bounded on the north by Northamptonſhire and Huntingdonſhire; on the eaſt by Cambridgeſhire; on the weſt by Buckinghamſhire; and on the ſouth by Hertfordſhire. It is twenty-two miles long, but not quite fifteen broad. This county is divided into nine hundreds, in which are ten market-towns, fifty-eight vicarages, one hundred and ſixteen pariſhes, five hundred and fifty villages, with about twelve thouſand one hundred and ſeventy houſes, and upwards of ſixty thouſand inhabitants. This county ſends only four members to parliament, two of which are for the county, and the other two for Bedford.

The air is temperate, clear, and conſequently healthy. The ſoil is a deep clay, and in the northern parts abounds in corn and paſture; but is ſandy in the middle, with a ridge of hills, covered with woods. Its commodities are chiefly fuller's earth, which is of the utmoſt conſequence to the clothing trade; it alſo affords cattle, veniſon, fowl, timber, wood, wheat, and barley in great plenty, and remarkably good. The chief manufactures here are bone-lace and ſtraw hats.

The chief river in this county is the Ouſe, the navigation of which is of great ſervice in the corn-trade. It divides the county into two unequal parts, forming the moſt beautiful meanders; for in the diſtance of twenty miles it runs over a tract of ſeventy.

The principal places in this county are the following:

Bedford, a populous and well built town, forty-four miles to the north-weſt of London, is ſeated on the banks of the river Ouſe, which divides it into two parts. Here are five pariſh churches, the principal of which is St. Paul's, and alſo ſeveral meeting-houſes of the diſſenters: a handſome ſtone bridge, with a gate at each end, to ſtop the paſſage occaſionally; and its high-ſtreet is in particular very handſome and well built, as is alſo the market-place, which is much improved with new buildings. It is the only market-town on the Ouſe, which has been made navigable to it, vaſt quantities of corn, particularly barley, being carried from hence down the river to Lynn, where it is ſhipped for Holland; and here being great plenty of proviſions, the higlers buy up conſiderable quantities for the uſe of the London markets. On which account it has many good inns, tho' it does not ſtand upon any of the great roads. Here is a well endowed free-ſchool, and a charity-ſchool for forty children. The town is governed by a mayor, twelve aldermen, a recorder, two bailiffs, a town clerk, and two ſerjeants at mace.

The ſoil in the neighbourhood of Bedford is extremely rich, and particularly produces great quantities of the beſt wheat, which is carried by waggons from hence, and the north parts of the county to Hitchin and Hertford, where it is ground, and the flour brought by land to London. This town gives the title of duke to the noble family of Ruſſel.

Dunſtable, a market-town, ſeated on a dry chalk hill, ſixteen miles from Bedford, and thirty-four from London. Here no ſprings are to be found, unleſs they dig very deep for them; but there is a large pond in the middle of the town, filled with rain water, and is never dry. It has four ſtreets, anſwering to the four cardinal points. The church is the remainder of a priory, and oppoſite to it is a farm-houſe, which was once a royal palace. The larks of this town are well known to all who ſtudy the gratification of their palates.

Woburn, a market-town, ſeated on a riſing ground, on the high road from London to Northampton. It was burnt down in 1724, but has been neatly rebuilt, and has a handſome market-place, with a free-ſchool and a charity-ſchool, founded by the duke of Bedford, who alſo erected the market-houſe. Woburn has near it plenty of fuller's earth.

This town was formerly famous for its abbey, which now belongs to the duke of Bedford, and is his ſeat; it has many noble rooms, particularly a fine library well ſtocked with books, and fitted up in an elegant taſte; and a long gallery adorned with a collection of fine paintings. Before the houſe is a large baſon of water, ſurrounded with a fine broad gravel walk. In this baſon is a beautiful yacht, of between thirty and forty tons burthen, elegantly carved and gilt, is completely rigged, and mounts ten guns, which are fired on occaſion of entertainments given on board. There are alſo a handſome pleaſure boat, a wherry, and ſkiff.

The park is nine miles round, and encompaſſed with a brick wall ten feet high. It has lofty woods, ſome of them of fir trees, and other ever-greens: particularly on the north ſide of the park is a plantation near two miles long, with a fine riding through it, where, in the depth of winter, one may ride in ſhelter through a perpetual verdure. A noble piece of water at the end of this plantation, has an iſland in the middle, upon which is a Chineſe building, where, in ſummer, his grace often dines with his company. There are alſo in this park many gravel roads through the woods, by which means a perſon may either walk or ride to every part of the park in the wetteſt ſeaſon, without meeting with the leaſt dirt.

SECT. XXVIII.

Of Huntingdonſhire; its Name, Situation, Extent, Diviſions, Repreſentatives, Air, Soil, Produce, and principal Places.

HUNTINGDONSHIRE, or Huntingtonſhire, received its name from the Saxons, who, from its being a ſporting country, called it Huntedunſcire. It is bounded on the north and weſt by Northamptonſhire; on the eaſt by Cambridgeſhire; and on the ſouth by Bedfordſhire; extending twenty-five miles in length from north to ſouth, eighteen in breadth from eaſt to weſt, and near ſixty-ſeven in circumference.

This county, which is in the dioceſe of Lincoln, is divided into three hundreds, and contains ſix market-towns, twenty-nine vicarages, ſeventy-nine pariſhes, two hundred and twenty-nine villages, about eight thouſand two hundred and twenty houſes, and upwards of forty-one thouſand inhabitants: but ſends only four members to parliament, namely, two knights of the ſhire, and two members for Huntingdon.

The air of Huntingdonſhire is good, except in the fenny parts, which are ſubject to damps and unwholeſome fogs. The ſoil is very fruitful; in the dry lands it yields good crops of corn, and in the lower grounds the meadows

meadows and paſtures are exceeding rich, producing fine horned cattle. Hence its chief commodities are corn, cattle, excellent cheeſe made at Stilton, and called the Parmeſan of England; with fowl and fiſh.

There is ſomething particular in the civil government of this county; for as Cambridgeſhire and Ely are under the ſame adminiſtration with it, the ſheriff is choſen by turns out of theſe ſeveral places.

The principal rivers are the Nen and the Ouſe. The Nen, after it has paſſed Oundle in Northamptonſhire, winds round the north-weſt and north bounds of this county. The Ouſe enters it at St. Neot's, and running to the north-eaſt paſſes Huntingdon, and then leaves the county at Erith.

In the north-eaſt part of the county, is a lake called Wittleſey-Meer, ſix miles long and three broad; the water is clear, but in the calmeſt weather is ſubject to be agitated, as if by a tempeſt. The air of this lake is thick, foggy, and too often fatal to ſtrangers, who attempt to live in its neighbourhood; but the natives receive no inconvenience from it; on the contrary, this lake abounds in fiſh, and its banks are remarkably fertile.

The chief places in this county are the following:

Huntingdon, called by the Saxons Hunter's-Down, is pleaſantly ſeated on a riſing ground, by the river Ouſe, over which it has a handſome ſtone bridge, fifty-ſeven miles north-by-weſt of London. It was once much larger than at preſent, it having fifteen pariſh churches, which are now reduced to two, with ſeveral meeting houſes. In this place the aſſizes are held, and it is a great thorough-fare on the northern road, on which account it is well furniſhed with inns. It is governed by a mayor, and confers the title of earl on the noble family of Haſtings.

Near the weſt ſide of the town is Hinchinbroke, which gives the title of viſcount to the eldeſt ſon of the earl of Sandwich, and where that nobleman has a ſeat called Hinchinbroke-houſe, the gardens of which are very fine.

St. Neot's is a well built town, fifty-ſix miles to the north-north-weſt of London, ſeated on the river Ouſe, over which there is a ſtone bridge: it has a handſome church, with a fine ſteeple, and the market is very conſiderable.

St. Ives is an ancient, large, and handſome place, fifty-ſeven miles north-weſt of London, and is ſeated on the river Ouſe, over which it has a handſome ſtone bridge. Here was a priory, which is now in ruins. It has one large church, two diſſenting meetings, and a popiſh chapel, with about five hundred dwelling-houſes. The ſtreets are pretty wide, and tolerably well paved.

SECT. XXIX.

Of Northamptonſhire; its Name, Situation, Extent, Diviſions, Repreſentatives, Air, Soil, Produce, Rivers, and principal Towns.

THIS county takes its name from the town of Northampton, which ſome ſay was ſo called from its ſituation on the north ſide of the river Anſona, or Nen, while others maintain that it was thus named from its ſituation with reſpect to Southampton. It is ſeated in the middle of England, and as it extends in a narrow tract towards the north-eaſt, borders upon more counties than any other in England; for on the north it is bounded by Lincolnſhire, Rutlandſhire, and Leiceſterſhire; on the eaſt by Cambridgeſhire, Huntingdonſhire, and Bedfordſhire; on the weſt by Warwickſhire and Oxfordſhire; and on the ſouth by Buckinghamſhire. It extends in length from the ſouth-weſt to the north-eaſt near fifty-five miles, in the broadeſt part from eaſt to weſt it is twenty-ſix, and a hundred and twenty-five in circumference. It is ſeated in the dioceſe of Peterborough, and divided into twenty hundreds, containing thirteen market-towns, eighty-five vicarages, and about five hundred and fifty villages, with about twenty-four thouſand eight hundred houſes, and a hundred and twenty-nine thouſand inhabitants. Northamptonſhire ſends nine members to parliament; two for the county, two each for Northampton, the city of Peterborough, and Brackley, and one for Higham Ferrers.

The air of this county is very healthy, and, except the little corner of Peterborough hundreds, is entirely free from bogs and fens, hence it abounds with the ſeats of the nobility and gentry. The ſoil is very fertile, both for tillage and paſturage, and is deficient in nothing but fuel, which is in moſt parts very ſcarce; nor can this ſcarcity be remedied, as they have no coal-pits, nor any navigable rivers to admit of their being ſupplied by water-carriage. It is obſervable, that here is but one barren heath, and that the reſt of the country is as fruitful in corn and graſs as any part of England. The commodities produced by this county are horned cattle, ſheep, horſes, and corn. The principal manufactures in which the people are employed are ſerges, tamies, ſhalloons, boots, and ſhoes.

The principal rivers of Northamptonſhire are the Nen and the Welland; beſides which it is partly watered by the Ouſe, the Leam, and the Charwell. Three of theſe, namely, the Nen, the Leam, and the Charwell, riſe within a ſmall diſtance of each other, near Daventry, and there form very different courſes; the Leam running weſtward, the Charwell ſouthward, and the Nen eaſtward, till it falls into the German ocean. The Welland riſes in the north-weſt ſide of the county, and divides it from Leiceſterſhire, Rutlandſhire, and Lincolnſhire, running through a part of the laſt county till it falls into the ſea. The Ouſe alſo riſes in this county, but ſoon enters Buckinghamſhire. Theſe rivers are of great ſervice in furniſhing this inland county with fiſh.

The principal towns in this county are the following:

Northampton, an ancient borough town, incorporated by king Henry II. and confirmed by king James I. is ſeated on the river Nen, ſixty-ſeven miles north-weſt-by-north of London. It had walls, which are now demoliſhed, and likewiſe a large caſtle, which is in ruins; and here ſeveral parliaments have been held. It is at preſent eſteemed the handſomeſt town in all this part of England; but its beauty is owing to a dreadful diſaſter; for it was ſo effectually burnt down on the twentieth of September, 1675, that very few houſes were left ſtanding: but it is now handſomely rebuilt with brick and ſtone, and the ſtreets are wide and ſpacious. It has two bridges over the river: the hall for the aſſizes is adorned with columns of the Corinthian order, and the market-place is ſquare and ſpacious. It had ſeven churches, which are now reduced to four, All Saints, St. Giles's, St. Sepulchre's, and St. Peter's. The firſt is a noble edifice, adorned with a cupola, and has a grand portico before it of eight lofty Ionic columns. This ſtructure ſtands in the center where four large ſpacious ſtreets terminate, and is conſequently ſeen to the utmoſt advantage. Here are alſo ſeveral meeting-houſes of Proteſtant diſſenters. The public buildings are in general extremely handſome: this town has an infirmary, a good free-ſchool, a charity-ſchool, and two alms-houſes. It is governed by a mayor, two bailiffs, a recorder, four aldermen, forty-eight common-councilmen, and a town-clerk.

Peterborough, a city of great antiquity, is ſeated on the river Nen, over which there is a bridge that leads into Huntingdonſhire, and is in the eaſtern angle of Northamptonſhire, ſeventy-ſix miles north-by-weſt of London. This is the leaſt city in England; for Wells, Ely, and Carliſle are much bigger. Here are, however, many good houſes; for the ſtreets are handſome and well built, and the market-place pretty ſpacious. It has, however, but one church beſides the cathedral, which is one of the moſt noble Gothic buildings in England: the weſt end is ſupported by three noble arches, very curiouſly embelliſhed; and the windows are finely painted with the hiſtories of the Old and New Teſtament. In ſhort, the whole ſtructure is adorned with a great deal of curious work. In this church was buried Mary queen of Scots; but her body was afterwards removed by her ſon James I. to king Henry the Seventh's chapel, in Weſtminſter abbey.

Here

Here alſo lies interred queen Catharine the divorced wife of king Henry VIII. who has a monument erected to her memory.

This town is governed by a mayor, aldermen, and a recorder, and gives the title of earl to the noble family of Mordaunt.

Wellingborough is pleaſantly ſeated on the aſcent of a hill on the weſtern banks of the river Nen, ſixty-five miles from London, and is a large, well built, and well inhabited town, with a handſome church, and a free-ſchool. A dreadful fire happened here in July, 1738, which in ſix hours time conſumed above eight hundred dwelling-houſes, moſtly in the ſouth and eaſt parts of the town; but it has ſince been rebuilt in a more handſome manner. This town enjoys a pretty good trade.

SECT. XXX.

Of Warwickſhire; its Name, Situation, Extent, Diviſions, Repreſentatives, Air, Soil, Produce, Rivers, and principal Places.

WARWICKSHIRE derives its names from the Saxons, who called it Weringſcire, which ſignifies a ſtation of ſoldiers. It is bounded on the north by Staffordſhire, on the eaſt by Leiceſterſhire and Northamptonſhire, on the ſouth-weſt by Glouceſterſhire, and on the ſouth-eaſt by Oxfordſhire; extending in length forty-ſeven miles, and twenty-ſeven in breadth. This county, which lies partly in the dioceſe of Litchfield and Coventry, and partly in that of Worceſter, is divided into four hundreds and one liberty, and contains ſeventeen market-towns, eighty-ſeven vicarages, a hundred and fifty-eight pariſhes, ſeven hundred and eighty villages, about twenty-two thouſand houſes, and two hundred thouſand inhabitants. It ſends ſix members to parliament, namely, two knights of the ſhire, two members for Warwick, and two for Coventry.

The air is allowed to be very mild, pleaſant, and healthy; and more ſo ſince the wood-lands have been thinned and laid more open than formerly, by the great conſumption of wood in the iron-works; by which means the wood-landers have been obliged to apply to tillage and paſture. The northern part of the country, called the Woodland, is divided from the ſouth, called the Feldon, by the river Avon; but the ſoil of both is rich, and produces excellent corn and cheeſe, the laſt of which is famous all over England: hence the chief commodities of this county are corn, malt, wood, wool, and cheeſe. This county alſo abounds in coals, which in ſome places lie even with the ſurface of the earth; and here are many excellent coal-pits.

The principal rivers are the Avon, which riſes in Leiceſterſhire, and enters this county a little above Rugby, running chiefly ſouth-weſt; it paſſes by Warwick, Stratford, and Bitford, below which it enters Worceſterſhire. The Tame, which riſes in Staffordſhire, and entering this county, runs eaſtward, till it has received the Blythe, and then, turning to the northward, enters Staffordſhire. The Arrow riſes in Worceſterſhire, and croſſing the weſt-ſouth-weſt borders of this county, joins the Avon a little below Bitford. The principal towns in Warwickſhire are the following:

Warwick is ſeated on a rock near the Avon, eighty-four miles to the north-weſt of London. All the paſſages to it are cut through the rock; and there is no way to go to it but over water. It was anciently fortified with a wall, which is now in ruins; but has ſtill a ſtrong and ſtately caſtle, which is the ſeat of the lord Brooke. It is a large and handſome town, in which are two pariſh-churches, with ſeveral meeting-houſes of the Diſſenters. It principally conſiſts of one regular built ſtreet, at each end of which is an ancient gate, and over the river is a ſtone bridge of twelve arches. It is governed by a bailiff and twelve burgeſſes, and has a handſome market-houſe ſupported on ſtone pillars. It has likewiſe a good free-ſchool, and an hoſpital called St. James's, for twelve decayed gentlemen, who have each twenty pounds a year, and the chaplain fifty.

This town was wholly reduced to a heap of ruins by a terrible fire on the fifth of September, 1694; but was rebuilt by act of parliament in ſo noble and beautiful a manner, that few towns in England make ſo fine an appearance. It is famous for being the reſidence of the celebrated Guy earl of Warwick, of whom ſo many fabulous and romantic accounts have been given, that it is perhaps impoſſible to diſtinguiſh his real actions from thoſe that are fabulous. He flouriſhed in the reign of Athelſtan, and decided the fate of the kingdom by ſingle combat with Colbrond, the Dane, a man of gigantic ſtature, whom he ſlew, and afterwards led an hermit's life till his death. They ſhow here his helmet and ſword.

The caſtle, already mentioned, ſtands upon the river Avon, on a ſolid rock. The terrace, like that of Windſor, overlooks a beautiful country, and you ſee the Avon running at the foot of the precipice, from above fifty feet perpendicular height. The building is old, but has often been repaired and beautified, and is now a very agreeable ſtructure, both within and without. The apartments are well contrived, and the communication between the remoteſt parts of the building is well preſerved by galleries, and the great hall, which is very magnificent. There are in the caſtle many curious original pictures, by Vandyke, and other hands, of kings, queens, and other noble perſonages.

A mile out of town on the ſide of a hill is a cell called Guy-Cliff, and in a kind of old chapel is a ſtatue of Guy eight feet high. The fence of the court is of ſolid rock, in which are cut ſtables and out-houſes. Here they ſhew the cave where Guy died an hermit.

Coventry is a city and county of itſelf, containing under its juriſdiction nineteen villages and hamlets. It is ſituated ninety-two miles to the north-weſt of London, and eleven to the north-eaſt of Warwick. It ſtands on the little river Sherburn, and is of great extent; but the houſes being moſtly very old, and chiefly built of wood and plaiſter, with ſtories projecting over each other, make but a very indifferent appearance. This is the ſiſter city to Litchfield, and is joined in the title of the ſee, which was for ſome time ſeated here. It was walled and incorporated by Edward II. afterwards its charter was confirmed by king Henry VI. and augmented with ſeveral privileges by king James I. Its walls were demoliſhed by order of king Charles II. in the year 1662, and only the gates left ſtanding, from which the beauty and ſtrength of the walls, which were three miles in compaſs, may be eaſily gueſſed at.

It is governed by a mayor, two bailiffs, ſheriffs, ten aldermen, a town-clerk, and other officers, who hold pleas for all actions, and it has a jail for felons, as well as debtors. It is divided into ten wards, and has three pariſh churches, that of the Holy Trinity, St. Michael, and St. John the Baptiſt, with ſeveral meeting-houſes; but has no cathedral. The church of St. Michael is a fine ſtructure of Gothic architecture, and has a curious piece of painting for the altar-piece. The ſpire of the great church, which is very beautiful, is three hundred feet high, and there are two churches in the ſame yard, where they ſeem to rival each other. At the ſouth end of the town alſo ſtands a tall ſpire by itſelf, this being what is left of the Grey Friar's conventual church. In the market-place ſtood the moſt ſtately croſs in England, it being ſixty-ſix feet high, and adorned with the ſtatues of ſeveral of the Engliſh kings, and a variety of curious Gothic ſculpture; but it has been lately taken down. The inhabitants have alſo lately obtained an act for paving, lighting, and cleaning the ſtreets. The town-houſe is worth ſeeing, the windows being of painted glaſs, repreſenting ſome of the old kings, earls, &c. who have been benefactors to the town.

The ſtory of the lady Godina, who rode naked thro' the high-ſtreet of the city, to purchaſe its exemption from oppreſſive taxes, is here ſo firmly believed, that they will not ſuffer the truth of it to be queſtioned, and in memory of it the inhabitants have an annual proceſſion on the Friday after Trinity Sunday, which is held as a fair, when the figure of a naked woman rides on horſe-back through the city with great pomp and ceremony, and the picture of the poor fellow who peeped out of a window

to

to ſee her, is ſtill kept up, looking out of a window in the high-ſtreet. This city has a very conſiderable manufacture of ſtuffs, particularly of tamies, and alſo of ribbons. It gives the title of earl to the noble family of Coventry.

Birmingham is a very large town, ſeventeen miles to the north-weſt of Coventry, and one hundred and nine to the north-weſt of London; it ſtands on the ſide of a hill, forming nearly a half-moon. The lower part is filled with work-ſhops and ware-houſes of the manufacturers, and conſiſts chiefly of old buildings; but the upper part contains a number of new and regular ſtreets. It has no corporation, it being governed only by two conſtables and two bailiffs, and is therefore free for any perſon to come and ſettle there, which has greatly contributed both to the increaſe of the buildings, and the trade, which is the moſt flouriſhing of any in England for all ſorts of iron-work and hard-ware. It has two churches, one in the lower part of the town, which is an ancient building with a very tall ſpire; the other is a very grand modern ſtructure, having a ſquare ſtone tower, with a dome and turret above it. In this town is a fine peel of ten bells, and a ſet of muſical chimes, which play ſeven different tunes, one for each day of the week. It has alſo two chapels and meeting-houſes for every denomination of diſſenters. The houſes, which are continually increaſing, amount to about ſeven thouſand. There is a free-grammar ſchool, founded and handſomely endowed by king Edward VI. and ſince rebuilt in a very handſome form. Here is alſo a charity ſchool, in which are maintained and taught upwards of fifty boys and girls.

SECT. XXXI.

Of Worceſterſhire; its Name, Situation, Extent, Diviſions, Repreſentatives, Air, Soil, Produce, Rivers, and principal Places.

WORCESTERSHIRE derives its name from its capital, called by the Saxons Weagorceſter, which at length became changed to Worceſter. This county is bounded on the north by Staffordſhire; on the eaſt and north-eaſt by Warwickſhire; on the weſt by Shropſhire, and Herefordſhire; and on the ſouth by Glouceſterſhire; extending about thirty-five miles in length, and twenty-ſeven in breadth.

It is divided into ſeven hundreds, and two limits, and contains twelve market-towns, fifty-five vicarages, one hundred and fifty-two pariſhes, five hundred villages, about twenty thouſand ſix hundred houſes, and one hundred and twenty-three thouſand ſeven hundred inhabitants. It is in the dioceſe of Worceſter, and ſends nine members to parliament; namely, two for the county, and two for each of the following places, Worceſter, Droitwich, and Eveſham, and one for the borough of Bewdley.

The air of Worceſterſhire is very healthy, and the ſoil in the vales and meadows very rich, producing corn and paſture, particularly the rich vale of Eveſham, which is juſtly ſtiled the granary of theſe parts. The hills have generally an eaſy aſcent, except Malvern hill, and feed large flocks of ſheep. This county had formerly two large foreſts, but the iron and ſalt works have in a manner deſtroyed them; and therefore theſe works are now chiefly carried on with coal, with which this county abounds. A number of rivers and rivulets water the fine meadows, and give them a richneſs that is eaſily perceived in the butter and cheeſe. Here is plenty of fruits of moſt ſorts, eſpecially pears, which are in many places found growing in the hedges. The chief commodities are coals, corn, cloth, cheeſe, cyder, perry, and ſalt.

The principal rivers with which this county is watered are the Severn, which enters Worceſterſhire on the north-weſt edge of the county, and running ſouthward by Worceſter, receives the Temd, when, paſſing by Upton, it enters Glouceſterſhire. The Temd enters Worceſterſhire on the weſt border, and runs to the ſouth-eaſt, till it joins the Severn. The Avon enters the eaſt-ſide of Worceſterſhire, and running through the vale of Eveſham, leaves this county at the ſouthermoſt point. All theſe rivers abound with the uſual ſorts of fiſh; but the Severn has lampreys almoſt peculiar to itſelf: they reſemble an eel in ſhape, but inſtead of gills, have nine holes on each ſide of the neck: they are in ſeaſon in the ſpring of the year, when they have a delicious taſte, which abates as the ſummer advances. The principal towns of this county are the following:

Worceſter is pleaſantly ſituated on the eaſtern bank of the river Severn, one hundred and twelve miles to the weſt-north-weſt of London. This is a large well built and populous city. It has a handſome ſtone bridge over the Severn, and from hence riſes a gentle aſcent, ſo high as to afford a pleaſant proſpect over the vale beneath. The Foregate-ſtreet is remarkably beautiful and regular, and the whole city is extraordinary well paved. The public buildings make a noble appearance, particularly the Guildhall; but the ſtatues on the out-ſide are very indifferent; the work-houſe is alſo a handſome ſtructure. The cathedral is very ancient, and makes but an indifferent appearance either within or without; the tower being low, without any ſpire, and only four very ſmall pinacles at the corners. In it lies buried king John, not where his monument now ſtands, but under a little ſtone before the altar of the eaſtermoſt wall of the church. On each ſide of him, on the ground, lie the effigies of two biſhops. On the ſouthſide of the high altar, is a large handſome chapel, the choir of which is of exquiſite workmanſhip. Here is the monument of prince Arthur, the eldeſt ſon of king Henry VII. who died at Ludlow in 1502, and among other monuments is one of the famous counteſs of Saliſbury, who, dancing before Edward III. in his great hall at Windſor, dropped her garter, which the king taking up, it is pretended gave riſe to the order of the Garter; but this is generally ſuppoſed to be a miſtake. The monument is very fine, and it is remarkable, that there are ſeveral angels of ſtone ſtrewing garters over the tomb.

Beſides the cathedral and St. Michael's church, which is without the liberty of the city, it contains nine pariſh churches; it has alſo three grammar-ſchools, ſeven hoſpitals well endowed, a water-houſe, and a well contrived quay. It is governed by a mayor, ſix aldermen, a recorder, two coroners, a ſheriff, a ſword-bearer, and five ſerjeants at mace. The inhabitants are generally eſteemed rich, being full of buſineſs, chiefly occaſioned by the clothing trade, of which the city and county carry on a great ſhare: the number of hands it employs in this town and the adjoining villages, in carding, ſpinning, weaving, fulling, &c. is almoſt incredible. One part of the city is wholly poſſeſſed by the Welſh, who ſpeak their own language, and are employed in this manufacture. There is here alſo a manufacture of porcelain, which is carried to a very great perfection; ſo as to equal that brought from China.

Droitwich, is ſeated on the river Salwarp, ſix miles from Worceſter, and ninety-five from London; it is a corporate and borough town, remarkable for its excellent ſalt ſpings, of which is here made fine white ſalt: the inhabitants have alſo a manufacture of linen cloth and hats.

Kidderminſter, a town ſeated under a hill, by the river Stour, one hundred and twenty-eight miles to the north-weſt of London, is particularly famous for its woollen manufacture, called Kidderminſter ſtuffs; but at preſent here is an extraordinary manufactory of blankets and carpets, equal to thoſe of Turkey, and the inhabitants are ſaid to have no leſs than one thouſand looms conſtantly employed. Here is a handſome church, a very good free-ſchool, and an alms-houſe. It is governed by a bailiff, twelve capital burgeſſes, and twenty-five common council men.

Stourbridge, or Sturbridge, is ſeated on the river Stour, over which it has a bridge, from whence it has its name, is one hundred and ſeventeen miles to the noth-weſt of London. The inhabitants have a conſiderable manufacture of glaſs of all ſorts, and alſo iron works. Here are alſo made fine ſtone pots for glaſs-makers to melt their metal in, and likewiſe crucibles, the clay of which theſe are made being almoſt peculiar to this place. Here is a good free-ſchool, in which is a library.

Near this town is Hagley-park, the ſeat of Lord Lyttelton, which is a beautiful ſpot of ground, intermixed with a pleaſing variety of hills, valleys, and woods. The houſe is eſteemed one of the fineſt ſeats in the county.

SECT. XXXII.

Of Shropſhire; its Name, Situation, Extent, Diviſions, Repreſentatives, Air, Soil, and Produce. Of the Phænomena of this County; its Rivers, and principal Towns.

SHROPSHIRE obtained its name from that given by the Saxons to Shrewſbury, which they called Scrobbeſberig, which ſignifies a town built on a woody hill. It is bounded on the north by Flintſhire, in Wales, and Cheſhire; on the eaſt by Staffordſhire and Worceſterſhire; on the ſouth by Worceſterſhire, Hereford ſhire, and Radnorſhire, in Wales; and on the weſt by the Welch counties of Radnorſhire, Montgomeryſhire, and Denbighſhire. It extends about thirty-eight miles in length from north to ſouth, thirty in breadth, and a hundred and forty in circumference.

This county lies partly in the dioceſe of Litchfield and Coventry, and partly in that of Hereford; and is divided into fourteen hundreds, in which are contained ſixteen market-towns, fifty-two vicarages, a hundred and ſeventy pariſhes, ſix hundred and fifteen villages, with about twenty-two thouſand three hundred and eighty houſes, and a hundred thirteen thouſand ſix hundred and eighty inhabitants. It ſends twelve members to parliament, that is, two for the county, and two for each of the following towns, Shrewſbury, Ludlow, Bridgenorth, Wenlock, and Biſhop's-caſtle.

The air of Shropſhire is ſalubrious, and not very ſharp, except on the hills. The ſoil is generally fruitful, eſpecially in the northern and eaſtern parts, which produce plenty of wheat and barley; but the ſouthern and weſtern, being mountainous, are leſs fertile, yet yield ſufficient paſture for ſheep and cattle. Under the ſurface are mines of lead, copper, iron, ſtone, and inexhauſtible coal-pits. Over moſt of the coal-pits lies a ſtratum of a blackiſh, hard, porous ſubſtance, containing great quantities of bitumen, which being ground to powder in horſe-mills, and boiled in coppers of water, there ſwims on the ſurface a bituminous matter, which, by evaporation, is brought to the conſiſtence of pitch; or, by the help of an oil diſtilled from the ſame ſtone, and mixed with it, may be thinned to a ſort of tar: both theſe ſubſtances ſerve particularly for caulking of ſhips, as well, if not better than pitch or tar, it being leſs liable to crack.

Many authors mention a remarkable phænomenon at Broſely, about ſix miles north of Bridgenorth. This is a well that exhales a ſulphureous vapour, which when contracted to one vent, by means of an iron cover with a ſemicircular hole, and fired by applying a lighted candle to it, will continue burning with great violence, ſo as to boil a large piece of beef in two hours; but what is ſtill more extraordinary, a piece of meat broiled in this flame has not the leaſt ill taſte from the ſulphur. This, however, is not the only phænomenon of the kind, there being another burning well of much the ſame nature in Lancaſhire.

The chief rivers of this county are the Severn and the Temd. Both theſe rivers receive ſeveral ſmaller ones, and all of them are well ſtocked with a variety of fiſh, as ſalmon, trouts, pike, carp, lampreys, eels, &c. As the Severn, which riſes in Montgomeryſhire, is navigable before it leaves it, that river is of infinite advantage to this county, not only for the communication it affords, but for the commerce it maintains with Worceſterſhire, Glouceſterſhire, and Briſtol.

The principal places in Shropſhire are the following:

Shrewſbury, a beautiful, large, pleaſant, populous, and rich town, a hundred and fifty-ſeven miles to the north-weſt of London, is ſuppoſed to have been built out of the ruins of the ancient Uriconium. In the reign of William the Conqueror, Roger earl of Montgomery built a caſtle on the north ſide, and a ſtately abbey called St. Giles's, or the Holy Croſs, at the eaſt end, famous for being the repoſitory of St. Winifred's body; but only ſome ruins of it are now to be ſeen.

Shrewſbury is ſeated on the Severn, which in part ſurrounds the town, in the form of a horſe-ſhoe, and over it are two ſtone bridges, upon one of which is built a very noble gate that has over the arch the ſtatue of the great Llewellin, whoſe memory is dear to the Welſh, he being their laſt prince of Wales. The town is near two miles long, and the ſtreets moſtly broad and paved. Here are five churches, and two of them have lofty ſpires: St. Chad's and St. Mary's are ſaid to have been anciently collegiate; and all the churches, except the laſt, which is a royal peculiar, are in the dioceſe of Litchfield and Coventry. There are here a great number of gentry, and this is a place of mirth and gallantry, ſomething like Bury in Suffolk, or Durham in the north; but is much bigger than either of them.

Here is the largeſt market, the greateſt plenty of good proviſions, and the cheapeſt that is to be met with in all the weſtern part of England. Over the market-place is kept a kind of hall for their manufactures, which are chiefly of flannel and white broad-cloth, great quantities of which are weekly ſold here. All the inhabitants ſpeak Engliſh; but on a market-day you would imagine yourſelf in Wales.

Here is the moſt conſiderable free-ſchool in this part of England, founded by king Edward VI. and endowed by queen Elizabeth, with a ſufficient maintenance for a head-maſter and three under-maſters. The buildings, which are of ſtone, are very ſpacious, particularly the library, which contains a great many books. The ſchool-maſters have alſo very handſome dwelling-houſes; ſo that the whole has the appearance of a college. The town was incorporated by king Henry I. and is under the government of a mayor, a recorder, a ſteward, twenty-four aldermen, and forty-eight common-councilmen.

Near this place was fought the bloody battle between Henry Hotſpur and Henry IV. king of England, in which the former was killed, and his army entirely defeated; and the place is ſtill called Battle-field. This town is alſo famous for the reception it gave to Charles I. but the fate of the war afterwards turning againſt the king, the town was almoſt ruined; but it has now fully recovered from this diſaſter, and is one of the moſt flouriſhing places in England: the wall and gates are ſtill ſtanding, but uſeleſs, and the old caſtle is gone to ruins. This town gives title of earl to the noble family of Talbot.

Ludlow is ſeated twenty-nine miles to the ſouth of Shrewſbury, and one hundred thirty-ſix to the north-weſt of London, and was formerly defended by a caſtle, which, now in its decay, gives ſome idea of its beauty in its flouriſhing ſtate. This was the palace of the prince of Wales in right of his principality. It enjoys a fine ſituation, there being a ſpacious plain in its front, which formerly extended near two miles; but much of it now is encloſed. The country round it is exceeding pleaſant and fertile, and nothing can be added by nature to render it a fit place for a royal palace. It is built upon a rock, in the north-weſt angle of the town, and on the weſt is ſhaded by a lofty hill, and waſhed by the river. The battlements are of great height and thickneſs, with towers at convenient diſtances. That half which is within the walls of the town is ſecured with a deep ditch; the other is founded on the ſolid rock; but all the fine courts, the royal apartments, halls, and rooms of ſtate lie open, abandoned, and ſome of them falling down.

The town of Ludlow is likewiſe fortified with walls, which have ſeven gates. It is well built, and is a place of good trade. On the ſouth ſide of the town runs the Temd, over which is a good bridge. The river has ſeveral dams acroſs it, on which are placed abundance of mills. Ludlow has a very good church, the windows of which are full of painted glaſs, pretty entire; the tower is handſome, and has a pleaſant ring of ſix bells. The church is dedicated to St. Laurence, and in the market-place is a conduit, on the top of which is a long ſtone croſs bearing a niche, in which is the image of that ſaint. The town is governed by two bailiffs, twelve aldermen, a recorder, twenty-five common-councilmen, and other inferior officers. It has the privilege of trying

and executing criminals, and has an alms-houſe for thirty poor people.

Bridgenorth is pleaſantly ſituated, twenty-one miles to the ſouth-eaſt of Shrewſbury, and a hundred and thirty-ſix to the north-weſt of London. The air is healthy, the proſpect delightful, and it has a pretty good trade. It conſiſts of two towns, the High and the Low, which are ſeparated by the Severn; but united by a ſtone bridge of ſeven arches, which has a gate and gate-houſe. It has been fortified with walls, and a caſtle now in ruins; and the area in the laſt is converted into a fine bowling-green. The ſtreets are broad and paved. In Cowgate-ſtreet a rock riſes perpendicularly, where are ſeveral tenements that have an agreeable, though a groteſque appearance. There is a hollow way cut through the rock, leading from the High town to the bridge, in ſome parts of the depth of twenty feet, and likewiſe many vaults and dwellings hewn out of the rock. The town is governed by two bailiffs, twenty-four aldermen, and other inferior officers. It is famous for gunſmiths, and the manufacture of ſtockings. Here are two churches, St. Mary Magdalen's, which was made a free chapel, and exempted from epiſcopal juriſdiction by king John; and St. Leonard's, which was burnt in the civil commotions in the reign of Charles I. and lately rebuilt by the inhabitants; but though the pariſhes are large, and the town very populous, the churches are very indifferently endowed; and this is alſo the caſe with the free-ſchool.

Whitchurch is ſeated on the confines of the county, near Cheſhire, about a hundred and ſixty-two miles to the north-weſt of London. It is a pleaſant and populous town, and in the Old church, which was lately taken down, was a monument of the great Talbot, firſt earl of Shrewſbury, called in his time the Engliſh Achilles. The New church is a large and handſome ſtructure. The town has a good market, and many gentry near it.

SECT. XXXIII.

Of Staffordſhire; its Situation, Extent, Diviſions, Repreſentatives, Air, Soil, Produce, Rivers, Lakes, and principal Towns.

STAFFORDSHIRE, which is ſo named from Stafford, the county town, is bounded on the eaſt and ſouth-eaſt by Derbyſhire; on the ſouth by Warwickſhire; on the ſouth-weſt by Shropſhire; and on the north-weſt, north, and north-eaſt by Cheſhire and Derbyſhire. It extends forty-five miles in length, twenty-eight in breadth, and a hundred and forty-two in circumference. This county, which lies in the dioceſe of Litchfield and Coventry, is divided into five hundreds, and contains nineteen market-towns, thirty-nine vicarages, a hundred and fifty pariſhes, and ſix hundred and ſeventy villages; with about twenty-three thouſand ſeven hundred and forty houſes, and a hundred and forty-two thouſand four hundred and forty inhabitants. It ſends ten members to parliament, two for the county, and two for each of the following towns, Litchfield, Stafford, Newcaſtle Under Lyne, and Tamworth.

The air of this county is generally very good, though ſharp, eſpecially on the hilly part, which lies between Trentham and Beach. The moor-lands, which are mountainous, and therefore reckoned the moſt barren, produce a ſhort, but ſweet graſs, and feed as large cattle as thoſe of Lancaſhire. The banks of the Dove in particular maintain the great dairies which ſupply Uttoxeter market with ſuch ſtore of butter and cheeſe. Great numbers of ſheep are fed both in the northern and ſouthern parts; but they are ſmall, and their wool coarſer than that of ſeveral other counties; but a great deal of it is manufactured in the clothing and felting buſineſs. The arable ground is no leſs fruitful than the paſtures, and even the moor-lands, when manured with marl and lime, mixed with turf-aſhes, produce good oats and barley. The ſouthern parts, and ſome of the northern, yield wheat, rye, barley, pulſe, flax, and hemp.

With regard to the ſubterraneous productions, the moor and wood-lands yield copper, lead, iron, marble, alabaſter, mill-ſtones, excellent coal, ſalt, &c. In the more fruitful parts are ſeveral marls which are uſed with great ſucceſs on the lands. Here is likewiſe brick-earth for red bricks, and others that burn blue; fuller's-earth, potter's-clay, particularly a ſort uſed in the glaſs-houſes; ſlip, a reddiſh earth with which veſſels are painted yellow, red ochre, and tobacco-pipe clay. It likewiſe yields fire-ſtone, rocks of lime-ſtone, a kind of iron-ſtone called muſh, as big as the crown of a hat, and containing about a pint of a cold, ſharp, pleaſant liquor, which the workmen are fond of; the beſt ſort of iron-wares are made of this ſtone; alſo hæmatites, or blood-ſtone.

The principal rivers in this county are the Trent, the third river in England, which riſes among the moor-lands in the north-weſt ſide of the county, and has its waters increaſed by ſeveral rivulets, with the Sow, Eccleſhall-water, and other ſtreams, then runs to the eaſtward into Derbyſhire. The Dove riſes in the moſt northern point of Staffordſhire, forming the boundary between it and Derbyſhire, and joins the Trent a little below Burton. The Sow riſes a few miles to the weſt of Newcaſtle Under Lyne, and running to the ſouth-eaſt falls into the Trent. They are all well ſtocked with fiſh, eſpecially the Trent.

Beſides theſe Staffordſhire has plenty of water from its ſmall lakes, as Ladford-pool, Cock-meer, Eccleſhal-caſtle-pool, New and Mare-pools, &c. moſt of which have rivulets paſſing through them, or are fed with ſprings, and abound in fiſh.

The principal places in this county are the following:

Litchfield, a neat well built city, and county of itſelf, is ſeated in a pleaſant champain country, a hundred and eighteen miles to the north-weſt of London. A brook, which glides ſlowly through it, divides the city into two parts, one of which is called the Town, and the other the Cloſe. In the firſt is a fine ſchool, a very handſome hoſpital dedicated to St. John, and well endowed: this part is the largeſt and moſt populous; but the other has the beſt buildings, and among the reſt the cathedral, with the houſes of the reſidentiary clergy, and many other good buildings. The cathedral is eſteemed one of the moſt elegant Gothic ſtructures in England, it is built of a reddiſh ſtone, and the weſt end is adorned with the ſtatues of all the kings who reigned in Jeruſalem, from David to the captivity: but the two towers are much too low for their breadth; yet the ſpires above them are carried up in a beautiful taſte, and a tower and ſpires which riſe from the middle of the church are much higher than thoſe at the weſt end, and equally beautiful. The great window over the middle door is very large, and beautifully adorned. The ſee is very ancient, it having been once archiepiſcopal, with juriſdiction over the kingdoms of the Mercians and Eaſt Angles. Beſides the cathedral, here are three pariſh-churches, a free-ſchool, and two hoſpitals. The juriſdiction of the city extends in a circle near ten miles in compaſs, and is annually rode round by the ſheriff on the eighth of September. The corporation conſiſts of a recorder, who is a nobleman of high rank, two bailiffs, a ſheriff, twenty-four burgeſſes, &c. The market is well ſupplied with all ſorts of proviſions on Tueſdays and Fridays. This town gives title of earl to the noble family of Lee.

Stafford, the county town, is ſeated on the river Sow, which waſhes it on the ſouth and weſt, over which is a ſtone bridge. It ſtands ſixteen miles to the north-weſt of Litchfield, and a hundred and thirty-five to the north-weſt of London. It is a neat and well built town, ſurrounded with meadows: the ſtreets are large, and many of the houſes handſomely built. It has a fine ſquare market-place, in which is the county hall, which is a very handſome ſtructure, and under it is the market-houſe. This town has two pariſh-churches, and a free-ſchool. It is governed by a mayor and other inferior officers, and here the aſſizes and ſeſſions are kept. Stafford is much increaſed and grown rich by the cloathing trade, and it is remarkable that it ſtill retains the ancient cuſtom of Borough Engliſh, which is, that the youngeſt ſons inherit the lands of their fathers within the town.

Newcaſtle Under Lyne is ſeated on a branch of the Trent, fifteen miles to the north of Stafford, and a hundred

hundred forty-nine to the north-north-weſt of London. It is a large place, with broad paved ſtreets; but the caſtle, from whence it receives its name, is quite demoliſhed. It is governed by a mayor, two juſtices, two bailiffs, and common council; and had formerly four churches, which are now reduced to one. The principal manufacture of the town is hat-making, there being here an incorporated company by the name of felt-makers. The cloathing trade alſo flouriſhes here; and about three miles from the town is a manufacture of earthen-ware, which imitates brown china: they alſo make black tea-pots and other veſſels, ſome of which are neatly figured and gilt, and likewiſe a prodigious quantity of white earthen-ware.

The adjacent parts yield pit-coal, which ſhining with a variety of colours, is therefore called peacock-coal.

About three miles ſouth-eaſt of Newcaſtle is the little town of Trentham, ſo called from the river Trent, which riſes there, where is the noble ſeat of earl Gower, eſteemed the fineſt in the county: the houſe is modern, and built on the plan of the queen's palace in St. James's-park; but its ſituation, with the front towards the church-yard, renders the entrance inconvenient. The park is very beautiful; it has two large pieces of water, and the hills which riſe from them are finely covered with wood. The park is walled round, and from the high ground in it you have an extenſive view of the country on every ſide.

Wolverhampton, or Woolverhampton, a very ancient, large, and flouriſhing town, a hundred and twenty miles to the north-weſt of London, is pleaſantly ſeated on a hill. The houſes are pretty well built, and the ſtreets are for the moſt part broad and well paved. It has an ancient collegiate church annexed to the deanry of Windſor, in which are ſeveral ancient monuments, and a very handſome chapel; with a Preſbyterian, a Roman catholic, and a Quakers meeting-houſe. Here the trade of lock-making is carried on to great perfection, as alſo are the making of moſt other utenſils in braſs and iron, which are ſent from hence and exported all over Europe. A market for iron-work is held weekly, ſome of which is made in the town; but the principal part is brought to the market by the farmers for ſeveral miles round, where every farm has one forge or more; ſo that the farmers work at their forges as ſmiths, when they are not employed in the fields, and what they bring to market is bought up by the great tradeſmen who ſend it to London.

SECT. XXXIV.

Of Leiceſterſhire; its Name, Situation, Extent, Diviſions, Repreſentatives in Parliament, Air, Produce, Rivers, and principal Towns.

THIS county takes its name from Leiceſter, its capital, which it obtained from its ſituation on the river Leire, now called the Soar, and is bounded on the north by Derbyſhire and Nottinghamſhire, on the eaſt by Lincolnſhire and Rutlandſhire, on the ſouth by Northamptonſhire, and on the weſt by Warwickſhire. It extends about thirty miles from eaſt to weſt, near twenty-five from north to ſouth, and about ninety-ſix in circumference.

Leiceſterſhire, which lies in the dioceſe of Lincoln, is divided into ſix hundreds, and contains thirteen market-towns, eighty-one vicarages, a hundred and ninety-two pariſhes, ten parks, five hundred and fifty villages, and about a hundred and twelve thouſand two hundred inhabitants; but ſends only four members to parliament, namely, two for the county, and the like number for the town of Leiceſter.

The air of this county is very healthful; but the ſoil is different in different parts: in the ſouth-weſt it is rich and plentiful, both for corn and paſture; but ſo deſtitute of fuel, that the inhabitants are forced to burn dried cow-dung. In this part there are, however, fine meadows on the banks of the Avon. The north-eaſt part, eſpecially about the river Wreke, is moſtly barren, mountainous, and rocky; but affords plenty of wood and pit-coal, feeding vaſt numbers of ſheep, which here and in Lincolnſhire are the largeſt mutton with which the London markets are ſupplied, and have the greateſt fleeces of wool of any in England; nor is the wool leſs fine on account of its quantity, and, ſome few places excepted, is the longeſt ſtaple in the whole iſland. The ſheep-breeding country here reaches from the river Anker, on the confines of Warwickſhire, to the Humber, at the fartheſt end of Lincolnſhire, which is near a hundred miles in length; and from the banks of the Trent, in Lincolnſhire and Leiceſterſhire, to thoſe of the Ouſe, which is above ſixty miles in breadth.

The horſes fed here are alſo the largeſt in England, they being generally the great black coach and dray-horſes, of which ſuch numbers are continually ſent up to London. Indeed moſt of the gentlemen are graziers, and in ſome places it is not uncommon for theſe to rent from five hundred to two thouſand pounds a year.

In ſhort, this county produces wheat, barley, peas, and oats; but its moſt natural and plentiful crops are of beans.

Its principal rivers, the Avon, the Soar, anciently called the Leire, the Anker, and the Welland, which riſe in the weſt part of this county, form four different courſes; for the Avon ſoon leaves this county, and runs to Warwick. The Soar, the principal river, firſt runs north-eaſt by Leiceſter, till having received the Wreke, it turns to the north-weſt, and falls into the Trent, where the three counties, Leiceſterſhire, Derbyſhire, and Nottinghamſhire, meet. The Anker runs north-weſt to Atherſton, on the edge of Warwickſhire. The Welland runs north-eaſt by Harborough to Stamford. The Wreke riſes in a part of the county called the Would, and runs weſtward till it falls into the Soar.

We ſhall now deſcribe the principal places of this county.

Leiceſter, the county town, is ſeated on the river Soar, by which it is half ſurrounded, ninety-eight miles from London. It is a very ancient place, was once the ſee of a biſhop, and is ſaid to have had thirty-two pariſh-churches, which are now reduced to five, with ſeveral meeting-houſes. At preſent it is the largeſt and moſt populous town in the county. In the High-ſtreet is an exquiſite piece of workmanſhip in the form of our Saviour's croſs, and the hoſpital built by Henry Plantagenet, duke of Lancaſter, ſtill continues in a tolerable condition, it being ſupported by ſome revenues from the duchy of Lancaſter, and can decently maintain one hundred aged people; but the moſt ſtately edifice of this kind at preſent is the New Bede-houſe, or hoſpital, built in the reign of Henry VIII. and endowed by Sir William Wigiſton, a merchant of the ſtaple in this town, for twelve poor lazers, which has a chapel and library for the uſe of the miniſters and ſcholars belonging to the town; there is another for ſix widows, and a charity-ſchool for thirty boys and ten girls. Leiceſter has a very ſpacious market-place, and the ſtreets are paved; but have many old buildings. It is governed by a mayor, &c. and the freemen of Leiceſter have by their charter the privilege of being exempted from paying toll in all the fairs and markets in England.

Before the caſtle was diſmantled it was a vaſt building, in which the great Henry, duke of Lancaſter, kept his court; the hall and kitchen ſtill remain entire, the former of which is ſo lofty and ſpacious, that the courts of juſtice, which are held here at the aſſizes, are at ſuch a diſtance as not to incommode one another. The principal buſineſs of the town is ſtocking-weaving.

Many curious relics have been found in this town, particularly Roman coins; and in the bottom of a cellar was diſcovered a piece of Moſaic pavement repreſenting the ſtory of Acteon torn to pieces by his own hounds. This is an admirable piece of workmanſhip, the ſtones being only white and brown, and very ſmall. This piece of antiquity is ſtill preſerved.

The firſt law for burning hereticks, by which lord Cobham and others ſuffered death, was made in a parliament held here, in the reign of king Henry V. declaring the favourers of Wickliff's doctrine heretics and traitors. In the civil wars Leiceſter was beſieged by king Charles I. and taken by ſtorm, on the thirty-firſt of May, 1645, when his army gave the garriſon no quarter, hanged ſome of the committee, and plundered the inhabitants.

inhabitants. But Sir Thomas Fairfax ſoon after advancing with the parliament's forces, beſieged it again, and obliged the new garriſon to ſurrender upon terms.

Loughborough, is pleaſantly ſeated among fertile meadows, near the foreſt of Charwood, one hundred and ſeven miles from London. It ſtands on the river Soar, over which it has a bridge, and is a handſome town, with one ſpacious church.

Aſhby de la Zouche, is a very conſiderable market-town, which took its name from the Zouches, its lords; it is ſeated between Preſton-park, and the great park on the ſkirts of Derbyſhire, about a hundred miles from London. It has a large handſome church, near which ſtand the ruins of the earl of Huntingdon's caſtle, deſtroyed in 1648. There is a free-ſchool here, endowed by the earl of Huntingdon, to whom the manor belongs. The town is noted for its large manufacture of hats, in which ſome hundreds are employed.

SECT. XXXV.

Of Rutlandſhire; its Situation, Extent, Diviſions, Repreſentatives in Parliament, Air, Soil, and principal Towns.

RUTLANDSHIRE, the leaſt of all the counties in England, is almoſt of a circular form, and is bounded on the north and north-eaſt by Lincolnſhire; on the ſouth and ſouth-eaſt by Northamptonſhire; and on the ſouth-weſt and north-weſt by Leiceſterſhire; extending from north to ſouth about fifteen miles, from eaſt to weſt ten, and about forty in circumference. This county is divided into five hundreds, in which are ten vicarages, forty-eight pariſhes, one hundred and eleven villages, about three thouſand two hundred and ſixty houſes, and ſixteen thouſand three hundred inhabitants. It lies in the dioceſe of Peterborough, and ſends only two members to parliament, which are the two knights for the ſhire.

The air is ſweet and ſalubrious, it being quite clear from fogs and miſts. Rutlandſhire is extremely well watered, for, beſides the Welland, which waſhes the ſouth and ſouth-eaſt borders, and the Guaſh or Waſh, which interſects the county from eaſt to weſt, quite through the middle of it; there are abundance of ſmall rivers and brooks, which fall into them on all ſides. They all afford plenty of excellent fiſh, which makes ſome amends for the want of ſea-fiſh, from which the inhabitants are in a great meaſure debarred, by their inland ſituation.

The ſoil is very fruitful, in corn and paſture, which feeds great numbers of cattle, eſpecially ſheep, the wool of which is redder than in other counties, from the peculiar redneſs of the ſoil. The vale of Catmos, in which Okeham ſtands, is not inferior in point of fertility to the vales of White-horſe and Belvoir. This county gives title of duke to the noble family of Manners. The principal towns it contains, are Okeham, and Uppingham.

Okeham, the county town, ſtands in the rich valley of Catmos, ninety four miles from London. It is pretty well built, has a good church, a free-ſchool, and an hoſpital. It has likewiſe an ancient caſtle, in which the aſſizes are held. It is ſaid to be a cuſtom in this town, that when a nobleman comes within its precincts, he is obliged to pay homage, by giving a ſhoe from one of his horſes, or to compound for it in money; when the forfeited ſhoe, or that made in its ſtead, is fixed with the nobleman's name on the caſtle-gate. Sometimes they are made very large, and gilt in proportion to the ſum of money given inſtead of the ſhoe. The caſtle was built ſoon after the conqueſt, by Walkelin de Ferrariis, who bearing horſe-ſhoes in his arms, gave riſe to the above cuſtom.

Uppingham, a town of Rutlandſhire, is ſeated on an eminence, and is a pretty compact well built place, with a very good free-ſchool, and an hoſpital.

Though this county is very ſmall, it contains a conſiderable number of noblemen's ſeats.

SECT. XXXVI.

Of Lincolnſhire; its Situation, Extent, Diviſions, Repreſentatives in Parliament, Air, Soil, Produce, and principal Towns.

LINCOLNSHIRE, takes its name from the city of Lincoln, which by the ancient Britons was called Lindcoit, and by the Saxons Lincollſcire; it is bounded on the north by Yorkſhire, from which it is divided by the Humber, on the eaſt by the German ocean, and a ſmall part of Norfolk, on the ſouth by Cambridgeſhire and Northamptonſhire; and on the weſt is bounded by Rutlandſhire, Leiceſterſhire, Nottinghamſhire, and a ſmall part of Yorkſhire.

It is generally reckoned almoſt ſixty miles from north to ſouth, and in the middle, where wideſt, thirty-five; but according to Templeman, it is ſixty-ſeven miles in length, and forty-three in breadth. It is generally divided into three parts, namely, Holland on the ſouth-eaſt ſide, Keſteven on the ſouth-weſt, and Lindſay on the north; which laſt diviſion is the largeſt, for it includes all that lies north of Lincoln city, and the Foſſe-dyke, which king Henry I. cut between the Witham and the Trent. This county is ſub-divided into three hundreds, and twenty-five wapentakes, and contains one city, five parliamentary boroughs, thirty-four other market-towns, two hundred and fifty-ſix vicarages, one thouſand five hundred and fifty-ſix villages, near forty thouſand ſix hundred houſes, and about two hundred two thouſand nine hundred inhabitants. It is in the dioceſe of Lincoln, and ſends twelve members to parliament, two for the county, and two for each of the following places, Lincoln, Stamford, Grantham, Boſton, and Grimſby.

This county is well watered with rivers, the principal of which are the Trent, which waſhes the weſtern edge of the county, and falls into the Humber, the northern boundary. The Witham, which riſing in the ſouth-weſt of the county, runs northward, till it receives the Foſſe-dyke at Lincoln, where it turns to the ſouth-eaſt, and at length falls into the German ocean below Boſton; and the Welland, which parts this county from Northamptonſhire, running through Holland diviſion alſo into the German ocean.

With reſpect to the air of this county, it muſt be obſerved, according to its three grand diviſions, that of Holland, as it is partly under water, and the reſt of it moiſt and fenny, muſt be bad. Keſteven is more ſalubrious, it being leſs affected with the fogs from the fen country, and its ſoil more fruitful. Lindſay is generally eſteemed healthy, eſpecially on the weſtern ſide. The ſoil is in moſt places very rich, the inland part producing corn in great plenty, and the fens cole-ſeed, and very rich paſtures; whence their breed of cattle is larger than that of any other county in England, except Somerſetſhire; their horſes are alſo excellent and very large: The hunting hounds and hares are particularly noted for their extreme ſwiftneſs. Here are all the common fruits, and they are ſaid to have better pippins than thoſe of Kent, eſpecially ſuch as grow in the diviſion of Holland, and about Kirton, both of which ſorts are very wholeſome and delicious; yet, being grafted on their own ſtock, are much improved, and are then called rennets.

The churches of this county are ſaid to be its chief ornaments, it being commonly obſerved, that no county has better churches and worſe houſes. The poorer ſort of people here waſh their cloaths with hog's-dung, and burn dry cow-dung.

The principal places in Lincolnſhire are the following.

Lincoln, a city ſeated one hundred and twenty-eight miles from London, was anciently a Roman colony, called Lindum Colonia. It is pleaſantly ſeated on the top, ſide, and foot of a hill, on the river Witham, which divides into ſeveral ſtreams, and waters the lower part of the city, over which are ſeveral bridges. It had formerly fifty churches, which are now reduced to fourteen, beſides the cathedral or minſter, and meeting houſes of every denomination of diſſenters. The cathedral is one of the moſt ſuperb ſtructures of the kind in England, and from its ſituation on the top of a hill, may be ſeen

from five or ſix counties. It has a double croſs or tranſept, with two ſpires or towers, and many bells, particularly in the north tower, which has the fineſt great bell in England, called Tom of Lincoln: it weighs four tons eighteen hundred and ninety-four pounds, and is twenty-two feet eight inches in circumference. The middle or Round-tower is the higheſt in the kingdom, and when the ſpire was ſtanding it muſt, in proportion to the height of the tower, have exceeded that of Old St. Paul's, which was five hundred and twenty feet. The monks were ſo proud of this ſtructure, that they would have it the devil looked upon it with an envious eye, whence the proverb "He looks as the devil does over "Lincoln." Now there are only four very ordinary pinacles, one at each corner. It has two large gates on the weſt: the cloiſters and library are fine, and the latter well furniſhed with printed books and manuſcripts. Two catharine-wheel windows at the ends of the larger tranſept are remarkably beautiful, and adorned with painted glaſs.

To the ſouth of the cathedral, upon the very brow of the hill, is the biſhop's palace. Though this is the largeſt dioceſe in England, the revenue of the biſhopric is laid now to amount only to fifteen hundred pounds per annum; but was formerly immenſely great. In this dioceſe are contained the counties of Lincoln, Leiceſter, Huntingdon, Bedford, Bucks, and part of Hertfordſhire; and in them twelve hundred and fifty-five pariſhes, of which five hundred and ſeventy-ſeven are impropriations.

In the upper town are good buildings, and ſeveral gentlemen have their houſes there, beſides thoſe of the prebendaries and other clergy. The communication between the upper and lower town is very troubleſome; but in the ſteepeſt part is the briſkeſt trade, and here the ſhops are well furniſhed with commodities; but the buildings are generally old, eſpecially in the lower part. This is a city and county of itſelf: it is governed by a mayor, twelve aldermen, two ſheriffs, &c. whoſe juriſdiction extends twenty miles in circumference. It has given the title of earl to the noble family of Clinton ever ſince the reign of queen Elizabeth. Here are four charity-ſchools, in each of which thirty poor children are taught by clergymen's widows.

Stamford is ſeated on the Welland, eighty-three miles from London, and is a large and populous borough in the ſub-diviſion of Keſteven. It ſtands on the ſlope of a hill, and has a ſtone bridge of five arches over the river, on the confines of Northamptonſhire and the county of Rutland. The river is navigable by barges up to the town. Here is a handſome town-hall and ſix pariſh-churches, with ſeveral good ſtreets and fine ſtructures. It is an ancient town, it being known in the time of the Romans, and had long ago a college whoſe ſtudents removed to Brazen-Noſe-college, in Oxford; but though its trade is not very conſiderable, the inhabitants are numerous and rich; and it being ſeated upon the York road, is particularly famous for its large and commodious inns. Among the privileges of which the inhabitants boaſt, is, that the mayor is immediately under the king, and commands the militia, returns writs, &c. and that they have the cuſtom of Borough Engliſh, by which the younger ſons inherit upon their fathers dying inteſtate. In this town is a charity-ſchool, in which eighty poor children are taught and employed.

Boſton, a large, populous, and well built ſea-port town, in the ſub-diviſion called Holland, twenty-ſix miles ſouth-eaſt of Lincoln, and ninety north of London, is built on both ſides of the river Witham, at its mouth, and ſtands part in Lincolſhire and part in Northamptonſhire, which are joined by a wooden bridge. It has a commodious harbour on the German ocean, is full of merchants, and enjoys a good trade. The town is ſupplied with water by pipes from a reſervoir made by act of parliament, in a common called the Weſt Fen. The church is without croſs ailes, and is ſaid to be the largeſt pariſh church in the world; and its tower, which is two hundred and eighty feet from the ground, ſerves as a land-mark to mariners, not only into this port, but even into the mouth of the Ouſe, being ſeen out at ſea to the entrance of the channels, called Lynn-deeps and Boſton-deeps, very difficult places. The living is a vicarage, in the gift of the mayor and burgeſſes.

Grantham, a neat populous borough of the ſub-diviſion called Keſteven, is a place of great reſort, and has abundance of good inns, it lying on the north road, a hundred and four miles from London. It has a fine large church, with a ſtone ſpire two hundred and eighty feet high, which, by a mere deception of the ſight, ſeems to ſtand awry. It has alſo a good free-ſchool, built and endowed by Dr. Richard Fox, biſhop of Wincheſter, who was a native of this town; and here the celebrated Sir Iſaac Newton received his firſt education. In this town there are alſo two charity-ſchools, and upon the neighbouring courſe are frequently horſe-races. It gives title of baron to the noble family of Robinſon.

Gainſborough, a large and well built town of Lindſay ſub-diviſion, is ſeated on the Trent, a hundred and thirty-ſeven miles from London; it has a fine large market held weekly on Tueſdays, and gives title of earl to the noble family of Noel. Its church was rebuilt by act of parliament in 1735; and here are ſeveral meeting-houſes of Diſſenters. The Danes landed here when they came up the Trent, which brings up ſhips of burthen with the tide, though it is forty miles diſtance by water from the Humber.

SECT. XXXVII.

Of the County of Norfolk; its Situation, Extent, Diviſions, Repreſentatives in Parliament, Air, Soil, Produce, Rivers, and principal Places.

THIS county received its name from its northern ſituation with reſpect to Suffolk; it is bounded on the north and eaſt ſides by the German ocean, on the weſt by Cambridgeſhire and Lincolnſhire, and on the ſouth by Suffolk. It extends about fifty miles from eaſt to weſt, thirty-five from north to ſouth, and about a hundred and forty-five in circumference.

It is divided into thirty-one hundreds, and contains a hundred and ſixty-four vicarages, thirty-three market-towns, ſix hundred and ſixty pariſhes, near fifteen hundred villages, about forty-ſeven thouſand one hundred and eighty houſes, and two hundred and eighty-three thouſand inhabitants. This county is in the dioceſe of Norwich, and ſends twelve members to parliament, namely, two for the county, and two for each of the following boroughs, Norwich, Lynn-Regis, Yarmouth, Thetford, and Caſtle-Riſing.

The air of this county is ſharp and piercing, which throws the ſeaſons backwarder than is uſual in the ſame latitude in England. The inland country is thought very healthy; but the ſoil is obſerved to have a greater variety in it than is found perhaps in any other county, and from thence has been conſidered as an epitome of England, it having all the kinds of ſoil found throughout the kingdom, namely, arable, paſture, wood-lands, meadows, heaths, fens, light ſandy ground, and deep clay; but even the worſt of theſe are far from being unprofitable, the ſandy heaths feeding ſheep and breeding rabbets, and the fens affording rich paſture for cattle. The chief commodities are corn, cattle, wool, rabbets, honey, ſaffron, herrings in great abundance, with jet and amber thrown upon the ſea-coaſt. The manufactures are worſted, woollens, and ſilks, in which all the inland part is employed. This county gives title of duke to the noble family of Howard.

The principal rivers of Norfolk are the Ouſe, which divides it on the weſt from Suffolk and Cambridgeſhire. The Waveney, which is the boundary between Norfolk on the ſouth-eaſt and Suffolk. The two different courſes of theſe rivers are the more remarkable, as both riſe within a very ſmall diſtance of each other in the ſouthern edge of the county. The Yare, which is peculiar to Norfolk, riſes near the center of the county, and runs eaſtward through Norwich to Yarmouth, where it falls into the German ocean. A little above this laſt mentioned town the Yare is joined by the Waveney. Theſe three rivers abound with fiſh, and are

particularly famous for excellent perch; but the Yare has alſo a fiſh, called a ruff, peculiar to itſelf, that exceeds the perch in the delicacy of its taſte: it is much about the ſame ſize, and the body is all over rough with ſharp prickles, from whence it has its name. The back is of a browniſh colour, the belly of a pale yellow, and about the jaws it has double ſemi-circular marks.

The principal towns in this county are the following:

Norwich, a very ancient, large, handſome, populous, and well frequented city, is ſeated on the banks of the river Yare, which runs through a part of it, a hundred and nine miles north-eaſt-by-north of London. It is encompaſſed by walls, which have twelve gates, and has a fine old caſtle, at preſent uſed as a priſon, and from whence a perſon may have a view of the whole city. Here alſo are the ruins of a caſtle, called by the name of Kett, who lived in the reign of Edward VI. and did much damage to the city, which is very ancient, and has undergone great calamities. It has ſeveral bridges over the river, and has thirty-ſix churches, beſides the cathedral, which is a handſome ſtructure, and has a lofty ſpire ſteeple: there are here alſo meeting-houſes of Diſſenters of all denominations. As the walls are three miles in compaſs, the whole ſpace within them is not inhabited, they incloſing many gardens and orchards. There are here, however, about eight thouſand houſes; the ſtreets are pretty wide, and there is a very ſpacious market-place. It has alſo a new play-houſe, a place of entertainment called Vauxhall, and ſeveral other curious gardens to which the gentry reſort; with an hoſpital for a hundred poor men and women.

It has a large and flouriſhing manufactory of camblets, crapes, &c. for which it has a great trade, both at home and abroad. It is a city and county of itſelf: the biſhop has a palace here, as hath alſo the duke of Norfolk. It is governed by a mayor, a recorder, twelve aldermen, two ſheriffs, and twenty-one common-council.

It has been obſerved of this city, that if a ſtranger was only to ride through it, or view it on ordinary days, he would be induced to think it a town without inhabitants; but, on the contrary, if he was to view this city either on a Sunday, or on any public occaſion, he would wonder where the people could dwell, the multitude is ſo great: but the caſe is this, the inhabitants being all buſy at the manufactures, are in their combing-ſhops, as they call them, at their twiſting-mills, in their garrets at their looms, and the like; almoſt all the works they are employed in being done within doors.

Yarmouth, a ſea-port town, a hundred and twenty-two miles to the north-eaſt of London, is ſeated on the river Yare, where it falls into the ſea, and is a place of great ſtrength, both by art and nature, it being almoſt ſurrounded with water, and defended by a very ſtrong fort. It is an ancient town much older than Norwich, and is well built and very populous. It has the fineſt quay in England, if not in Europe, and is ſaid to equal at leaſt that of Marſeilles; for the ſhips ride here ſo cloſe, that for half a mile together they go acroſs the ſtream with their bowſprits over the land, their bows or heads touching the very wharf; ſo that one may walk from ſhip to ſhip as on a floating bridge all along by the ſhore ſide. The quay, which reaches from the draw-bridge almoſt to the ſouth gate, is ſo ſpacious and wide, that in ſome places it is near a hundred yards from the houſes to the wharf. In this pleaſant and agreeable range of buildings are ſome very magnificent ſtructures, and among the reſt the cuſtom-houſe, the town-hall, and ſome merchants houſes which reſemble little palaces rather than the dwelling-houſes of private men.

The greateſt defect of this town ſeems to be, that tho' it is very rich and increaſing in wealth and trade, and conſequently in people, there is not room to enlarge it by new buildings. It conſiſts of about fifteen hundred houſes, and though there are ſeveral pretty wide ſtreets, they are chiefly very narrow, and juſt wide enough for their little carriages to paſs through. It is eſteemed the key of this coaſt; but though the harbour is a very fine one, it is very dangerous for ſtrangers in windy weather. Yarmouth is governed by a mayor, eighteen aldermen, and thirty-ſix common-council. This town, though ſo conſiderable, has only one large church, which is dedicated to St. Nicholas, and a neat chapel, with a conſiderable number of meeting-houſes. The ſteeple of St. Nicholas's church is ſo high, that it ſerves for a land-mark to thoſe at ſea; and it is remarkable, that which way ſoever this ſteeple be viewed it appears crooked.

Yarmouth is noted for its red herrings, which are jocoſely called Yarmouth capons, and alſo for its coaches, which are nothing more than ſledges drawn with one horſe. During the fiſhing ſeaſon the land is covered with people, and the river with barks and boats, buſy day and night in landing and carrying off the herrings, which are caught here in almoſt incredible quantities. Our author ſays, he happened to be there during their fiſhing fair, as they call it, when he counted in one tide a hundred and ten barks and fiſhing veſſels coming up the river, all loaden with herrings taken the night before. After the herrings are cured, they export them to Genoa, Leghorn, Naples, Meſſina, Venice, Spain, and Portugal; and at the ſame time carry to thoſe places great quantities of woollen goods. They have alſo a conſiderable trade in woollen manufactures to Holland, Norway, and the Baltic, from whence they import timber and naval ſtores; and have a very great ſhare in the coal-trade between Newcaſtle and the port of London.

Lynn-Regis, or King's-Lynn, was firſt called Lynn-Epiſcopi, as being the property of the biſhop of Norwich, till the diſſolution of monaſteries by king Henry VIII. when that prince becoming its poſſeſſor, conferred on it the title of Lynn-Regis. It is a handſome, large, and well built town, ninety-eight miles north-eaſt of London, in the fifty-ſecond degree fifty-five minutes north latitude, and in thirty-two minutes eaſt longitude. It is ſeated at the mouth of the Ouſe, which, by means of the ſeveral ſtreams it receives before it falls into the ſea, forms a navigation, by which the merchants of Lynn entirely ſupply Cambridgeſhire, Huntingdonſhire, the north part of Buckinghamſhire, Bedfordſhire, and Northamptonſhire, with the inland parts of Norfolk and Suffolk; more particularly with coals and wine: and they carry on a conſiderable foreign trade, eſpecially to Holland, Norway, the Baltic, Spain, and Portugal. The harbour is ſafe when ſhips have once entered it; but there are flats and ſhoals at the entrance, at which buoys are placed; and there are always good pilots ready for ſteering ſtrangers in.

The town contains about two thouſand four hundred houſes; and is ſtrong by ſea, as it was alſo formerly by land, where there are the ruins of the works in part demoliſhed in the civil wars, yet not ſo much but they may be eaſily repaired; theſe conſiſt of nine regular baſtions, and a ditch nearly in the form of a ſemi-circle, which make the place about half a mile in breadth; and St. Anne's fort and platform at the north-eaſt end commands all ſhips that enter the harbour.

It has a ſpacious and fine market-place, in which is a handſome ſtatue of king James II. with a fine croſs, which has a dome, and a gallery round it, ſupported by ſixteen columns; and the market-houſe is a modern free-ſtone building ſeventy feet high, neatly adorned with ſtatues and other embelliſhments. Four rivulets, over which are fifteen bridges, run through the town; and the tide in the Ouſe, which for a mile here is about as broad as the Thames at London bridge, riſes twenty feet perpendicular. The town is ſupplied with freſh water by conduits and pipes from the neighbourhood.

The king's ſtaith-yard is a very handſome ſquare, adorned with a ſtatue of king James II. here the greateſt part of the wines imported are landed. The town-houſe, called Trinity-hall, is an ancient and noble building. The exchange in the middle of the town is an elegant ſtructure of free-ſtone, adorned with two orders of columns, and within it is the cuſtom-houſe.

It has two churches, a very large chapel, and two diſſenting meeting-houſes. St. Margaret's church, which is very large, formerly belonged to an abbey, and has a high lantern, covered with lead: at the weſt end is a ſtone tower, with a moon-dial, ſhewing the increaſe and decreaſe

decreaſe of that planet; and above the tower is a ſpire, in which is a ring of bells. St. Nicholas's chapel is very ancient, and has a tower and octangular ſpire.

In this chapel is a library, to which lord Townſend, the late earl of Orford, Sir Charles Turner, &c. were conſiderable benefactors.

The town is governed by a mayor, a recorder, a high ſteward, twelve aldermen, and eighteen common-council; and there is here a very laudable cuſtom, which is is, that every firſt Monday of the month, the mayor, aldermen, preachers, &c. meet to hear and determine all diſputes in an amicable manner, in order to prevent law-ſuits. There are here alſo a free-ſchool, which is a ſtrong and beautiful building, two hoſpitals, and a charity-ſchool.

SECT. XXXVIII.

Of Nottinghamſhire; its Situation, Extent, Diviſions, Repreſentatives, Air, Soil, Produce, Rivers, and principal towns.

NOTTINGHAMSHIRE takes its name from Nottingham, the county town, called by the Saxons Snottengaham, or a houſe of Dens, ſo called from the ſpacious vaults dug in the rocks, in which the ancient Britons perhaps reſided. This county is remarkable for its being bounded on the four cardinal points of the compaſs, by four ſingle counties, a circumſtance which is not found in the ſituation of any other county in England: on the north it borders upon Yorkſhire, on the eaſt on Lincolnſhire, on the ſouth on Leiceſterſhire, and on the weſt on Derbyſhire. It extends forty-ſeven miles in length, and twenty-ſeven in breadth.

This county, which lies in the dioceſe of York, is divided into ſix wapentakes, and contains nine market-towns, one hundred and ſixty-eight pariſhes, ninety-four vicarages, four hundred and fifty villages, about ſeventeen thouſand four hundred and ſixty houſes, and ninety-five thouſand inhabitants. It ſends eight members to parliament, namely, two for the county, and two for each of the following boroughs, Nottingham, Eaſt-Retford, and Newark upon Trent.

The air of this county is eſteemed exceeding healthful, but the ſoil is various: the eaſtern ſide is very fruitful, and yields great plenty of corn and graſs; but the weſtern parts are leſs fertile, being generally very woody, and in ſome places barren, and only yielding coal. The chief commodities are pit-coal, a kind of ſtone ſomewhat like alabaſter, but not ſo hard, which when burnt, makes a plaiſter harder than that of Paris, with which the inhabitants generally plaiſter the floors of their upper rooms, inſtead of boarding them. Their other commodities are malt, wool, liquorice, wood, fiſh, and fowl. Their manufactures chiefly conſiſt of frame-work knitting, glaſs, and earthen-ware.

The principal rivers of this county are, the Trent and the Idle. The Trent is one of the capital rivers in England, it running a courſe of near two hundred miles before it reaches the Humber. Its ſpring-head is in the highlands of Staffordſhire, as hath been already obſerved, in treating of that county, and from thence it runs through Derbyſhire, Nottinghamſhire, and Lincolnſhire. The name is derived by ſome from the thirty ſmaller rivers it receives, and by others from thirty different kinds of fiſh found in it. It enters this county at the ſouth-weſt point, where it is joined by the Erwaſh, and runs to the eaſtward till it reaches Newark, where it forms an iſland, and turning to the northward, runs into Lincolnſhire. The Idle riſes in Sherwood foreſt, and running through the northern parts of the county to the edge of Yorkſhire and Lincolnſhire, there joins the Trent. The principal towns in this county are the following:

Nottingham, which is delightfully ſeated on a rock, one hundred and twenty-two miles north weſt of London, at the foot of which runs the river Leane, which, at a mile's diſtance, falls into the Trent, over which there is a handſome ſtone bridge, and another over the Leane. The town is large and well built; moſt of the houſes in the market-place and principal ſtreets, have their front ſupported by lofty ſtone colums, of the Tuſcan order, which not only make a very handſome appearance, but afford ſhelter in bad weather. The ſtreets are well paved, and from their ſituation on a rock, are always clean. The market-place, which is large and ſpacious, has a beautiful croſs, in which a kind of dome, is ſupported by very lofty ſtone columns, under which is kept the corn-market. In a ſtreet at ſome diſtance from this market, are ſeveral ſtone ſteps diminiſhing as they riſe, and on the top ſtands a very noble column crowned with a ball. This is called the Hen-croſs, and here is a market for all ſorts of poultry.

It is proper to obſerve, once for all, that, though what are called market-croſſes, take their name from crucifixes being antiently erected in thoſe places, no modern ſtructure of this kind, ever bears any mark of popiſh ſuperſtition.

The rock on which the town ſtands, is pretty ſoft, and renders the town remarkable for its cellars, two or three being ſometimes under each other, with the ſteps hewn out of the rock, in ſome places to the number of ſixty or ſeventy in depth. Theſe conveniencies, together with the goodneſs of the malt, enable the inhabitants to drink the beſt malt liquors, and to make a conſiderable advantage in ſending them to moſt parts of England; for which purpoſe moſt of the low lands of this county are ſowed with barley. As the meadows, which lie between the town and the Trent, are liable to be overflowed, a good boarded cauſeway for foot-paſſengers, extends about a mile long.

The town has three churches; that of St. Mary's is a large and noble gothic ſtructure, with a ſquare tower; and that of St. Peter's is a very handſome building, with a modern painting of the Laſt Supper, on the altar-piece. It has a lofty ſpire, and each has a good ring of bells and chimes. St. Nicholas's church is however a mean building. There are alſo four meeting-houſes.

Heavy goods are brought hither from London by ſea up the river Trent, and many coal-pits within three or four miles of the town, afford plenty of fuel at a ſmall expence. It is governed by a mayor, a recorder, ſix aldermen, two ſheriffs, two chamberlains, two coroners, and eighteen common-council.

At the ſouth-weſt end of the town is a ſteep hill, which has on the ſouth a high precipice fronting the meadows. On this hill ſtood a caſtle of ſuch antiquity, that the time of its firſt erection cannot be traced. It was rebuilt by William Peverel, baſtard ſon to the Conqueror, and afterwards improved by Edward IV. and Richard III. This ſtructure was granted to the earl of Rutland, and afterwards came into the poſſeſſion of William Cavendiſh, marquis of Newcaſtle, who, in 1674, cleared away the old building, and a moſt magnificent ſtructure was at length erected, which ſeems to have been modelled after ſome of the draughts of Inigo Jones. The preſent duke of Newcaſtle, in 1760, made a preſent of this noble edifice to the earl of Lincoln, his grace's nephew. It is built entirely of ſtone, and has a delightful proſpect over the meadows, which extend two or three hundred feet below it, about twelve miles in length, like a level bowling-green, interſperſed with villages, and the river Trent winding through it; on the eaſt-end, over the town and the diſtant country; and on the north, over the park, which is beautifully variegated with hills and valleys.

In this park are the remains of a church or pagan temple, hewn out of the rock, the roof vaulted and ſupported by a kind of maſſy pillars, in a very rude taſte: the floor, the roof, the pillars, and ſides, being all of a piece. In the ſame ledge of perpendicular rocks, are the remains of ſeveral houſes, chambers, dove-houſes, &c. which might poſſibly be the reſidence of ſome of the ancient Druids.

Newark, is a very handſome well built town, ſeated on the Trent, ſeventeen miles to the eaſt of Nottingham, and one hundred and four from London. The market-place is a noble ſquare, and the church is large and ſpacious, with a handſome lofty ſpire. The town is under the government of a mayor, and twelve aldermen. Here was once a handſome caſtle, which is now

in ruins. The Trent here divides itſelf, and forms an iſland, to which there is a bridge leading from the town.

Mansfield, a large well built market-town, ſeated in the foreſt of Sherwood, thirteen miles to the north of Nottingham, and one hundred and thirty-ſix to the north-weſt of London, and carries on a conſiderable trade in malt.

Retford, is divided into Eaſt and Weſt Retford, by the river Idle, which runs through it. This town enjoys many conſiderable privileges, and is governed by a ſteward, who is generally a perſon of quality. In Weſt Retford is a very fine hoſpital, founded in 1666, by Dr. Dorrel, and ſince incorporated: it has a maſter, ten brethren, a ſteward, and a nurſe, who have a garden and orchard divided into ten ſhares.

SECT. XXXIX.

Of Derbyſhire; its Situation, Extent, Diviſions, and Repreſentatives in Parliament; its Air, Soil, and Rivers; with a Deſcription of the Wonders of the Peak, and the principal Towns of the County.

DERBYSHIRE is bounded on the north by Yorkſhire, on the eaſt by Nottinghamſhire, on the ſouth by Leiceſterſhire and Warwickſhire, and on the weſt by Staffordſhire and Cheſhire. It extends near forty miles in length, in the northern parts it is about thirty miles broad, but in the ſouthern not above ſix; and it is computed to be near one hundred and thirty miles in circumference.

This county is divided into five hundreds, in which are contained eleven market-towns, fifty-three vicarages, one hundred and ſix pariſhes, near five hundred villages, twenty-one thouſand one hundred and fifty houſes, and one hundred twenty-ſix thouſand nine hundred inhabitants. It is ſeated in the dioceſe of Litchfield and Coventry, and ſends four members to parliament, two for the county, and two for the town of Derby.

The air, eſpecially on the eaſt-ſide, is wholeſome and agreeable; but in the mountains of the Peak it is ſharp and cold. The north and weſt parts are hilly and ſtony; but the ſouthern and eaſtern have rich lands, that are pleaſant and fertile, producing moſt kinds of grain, particularly barley. Even the north-weſt part, called the Peak, is not deſtitute of riches, for the bleak mountains, produce great quantities of the beſt lead, marble, alabaſter, mill-ſtones, iron, coal, a coarſe ſort of cryſtal, and in the intermediate valleys is great plenty of graſs.

The principal rivers are the Derwent, the Dove, the Erwaſh, and the Trent. The two firſt riſe in the Peak; the Derwent running from north-weſt to ſouth-eaſt, through the middle of the county, and at length becoming a conſiderable river, diſcharges itſelf into the Trent, about eight miles below Derby. The Dove parts this county from Staffordſhire, and falls into the Trent, about five miles to the north of Burton upon Trent. The Trent, of which we have given a particular account in treating of Nottinghamſhire, only viſits a ſmall ſpace of the ſouthern parts of this county.

It will now be proper to take notice of what are called the Seven Wonders of the Peak, one of the moſt extraordinary of which is Poole's-hole, a ſtupendous cavern, at the foot of a great mountain. The entrance is ſo low and narrow, that you muſt ſtoop to get in; but it ſoon opens into a wide and lofty concavity, that has ſome reſemblance to a gothic cathedral, which reaches above a quarter of a mile in length. Water drops every where from the roof and ſides, and being of a petrifying quality, it cruſts all the ſtones with long cryſtals, in various forms, which, by the help of a ſtrong imagination, are ſhewn you as lions, lantherns, organs, a flitch of bacon, &c. At length you come to the queen of Scots pillar, which is the boundary of moſt people's curioſity, and was ſo named by that unhappy princeſs, when ſhe viſited this place. It is compoſed of a clear bright ſtone, like alabaſter, or rather like that kind of ſpar which is found about lead. A ſtream of water runs along the middle of this cavern among the fallen rocks, with an hideous noiſe. On the left hand is a ſort of chamber, where they ſay Poole, a famous robber, lived, and whoſe kitchen and bedchamber they ſhew you, after you have crept ten yards on your hands and knees. What appears moſt extraordinary is, the ſurpriſing height of the arch, which Dr. Leigh compares to fret-work, organ, and choir-work, beſpangled with ſtars, which dazzle the eyes, and looks extremely beautiful from the reflection of the lights.

Another of theſe wonders is Mam-Tor, which ſignifies the Mother-Rock. From the top of a prodigious precipice, the ſoft earth being continually crumbling and falling down, raiſes a mountain below, which viſibly increaſing without an apparent diminution of the top, the ignorant people imagine, that, though the earth is continually falling, the mountain loſes nothing of its bulk.

Another wonder is called by the groſs name of the Devil's Arſe. Here, or on the ſteep ſide of a mountain, is a large opening, almoſt in the form of an old Gothic arch, above thirty feet perpendicular, and above twice that breadth at the bottom. Several ſmall cottages are built on each ſide the entrance, whoſe inhabitants in a great meaſure ſubſiſt by guiding ſtrangers into the cavern. Its width, however, ſoon diminiſhes; for, after croſſing one ſtream of water, the roof gradually deſcends till it is ſo low, that a man cannot ſtand upright under it; but, ſtooping for a little way, and paſſing over another ſtream, you find it more lofty. Then proceeding on, you come to a third rivulet, where the rock deſcends almoſt to the ſurface of the water, and prevents all farther ſearch. The vault in ſeveral places makes a noble appearance, and being chequered with various coloured ſtones, its beauty is admired by every ſpectator.

Another wonder, is called Tides-Well, or Weeden-Well, a ſpring, which according to ſome writers, ebbs and flows regularly like the ſea. That it does ebb and flow is certain; but it is at very unequal periods, ſometimes not in a day or two, and ſometimes twice in an hour. The baſon of the ſpring is about a yard deep, and the ſame in length and breadth. When it flows the water riſes with a bubling noiſe, as if the air, which was pent up within the cavities of the rock, was forcing itſelf a paſſage, it driving the water before it.

The next wonder, as it is called, is Buxton-Wells, which, beſides their medicinal uſe, have this ſingularity, that within five feet of one of the hot ſprings, there ariſes a cold one; but this is not very extraordinary, ſince hot and cold ſprings riſe near each other, in ſeveral places in England, and in other countries. The water of Buxton-Wells is ſulphurous, with a ſmall quantity of ſaline particles; but is not in the leaſt impregnated with vitriol. Hence they are very palatable, in compariſon with other medicinal waters. Theſe wells are often recommended by phyſicians, both for drinking and bathing, eſpecially for ſcorbutic, rheumatic, or nervous complaints.

The late duke of Devonſhire built a large and convenient houſe for the reception of ſtrangers. The bath-room is arched over, and the whole made handſome, convenient, and delightful. The bath will receive twenty perſons at a time to walk and ſwim in, and the water is of a warmth equal to that of new-milk. Theſe waters were well known in the time of the Romans. Beſides the principal ſprings, which are at the village of Buxton, there are many others that riſe unregarded in the neighbouring incloſures, and on the ſides of the hill, ſo that their number can ſcarce be known.

We ſhall now proceed to the next wonder. In the midſt of a plain open field is a frightful chaſm in the earth, or rather rock, called Elden-hole, the mouth of which is about twenty feet over one way, and fifty or ſixty another, deſcending down perpendicularly to a depth that is ſaid never yet to have been diſcovered, tho' ſeveral attempts have been made to find its bottom. Mr. Cotton ſays he let down eight hundred fathoms of line, which is ſixteen hundred yards, or near a mile perpendicular.

The laſt wonder is that of Chatſworth-houſe and gardens, belonging to the duke of Devonſhire. On the top of a mountain, where mill-ſtones are dug, is a vaſt extended moor, which for fifteen or ſixteen miles together

has neither hedge, houſe, nor tree; but appears like a waſte and barren wilderneſs, over which when ſtrangers travel, it is impoſſible to find their way without a guide. If contraries illuſtrate each other, here they are ſeen in the ſtrongeſt oppoſition, for nothing can be more ſurpriſing to a traveller who comes from the north, when, after a tedious progreſs through a diſmal deſart, on a ſudden the guide brings him to a precipice where he looks down from a comfortleſs and barren waſte into the moſt delightful valley, and beholds a noble palace and one of the fineſt gardens that can be imagined. Before the weſt front of the houſe, which is very fine, runs the river Derwent, which, though not many miles from its ſource, ſometimes appears like a large and rapid river, when after a ſudden rain the torrents ruſh down from the mountains. Over this river is a ſtately ſtone bridge, with an ancient tower upon it, and in an iſland in the river is a tower, in the form of a caſtle. The front to the garden is a regular piece of architecture. The ſaſhes of the ſecond ſtory are ſeventeen feet high, of poliſhed looking-glaſs, each ſquare two feet wide, and the wood-work double gilt. The windows, doors, and rooms are adorned with beautiful marble, and the inſide with paintings. The chapel is extremely beautiful, the altar-end and the floor are of marble, the ſeats and gallery of cedar, and the reſt of the wall and cieling finely painted. The gardens abound with green-houſes, ſummer-houſes, walks, wilderneſſes, and orangeries, intermixed with ſtatues, urns, canals, baſons, and a great variety of water-works; among which are many curious fountains, an artificial willow-tree, which drops water from every leaf, and a wonderful caſcade, where from a neat houſe of ſtone, like a temple, a whole river deſcends the ſlope of a hill a quarter of a mile in length, over ſteps, with a roaring noiſe, till it is at laſt loſt under ground.

The principal towns in Derbyſhire are the following:

Derby is ſituated on the weſt banks of the Derwent, over which it has a handſome ſtone bridge, a hundred and twenty-two miles to the north-weſt of London. It is a pleaſant, agreeable, and well built town, inhabited by a great number of gentlemen. The river is navigable up to the bridge, and juſt above it, is a beautiful artificial iſland raiſed out of the water and formed into a garden. This iſland ſtands before the celebrated engine-houſe for making organzine, or thrown ſilk; by which invention one hand will twiſt as much ſilk as could be done by fifty, and that in a truer and much better manner. This engine contains twenty-ſix thouſand five hundred and eighty-ſix wheels, and ninety-ſeven thouſand ſeven hundred and forty-ſix movements, which work ſeventy three thouſand ſeven hundred and twenty-ſix yards of ſilk thread every time the water-wheel goes round, which is three times in one minute, and three hundred and eighteen millions five hundred and four thouſand nine hundred and ſixty yards in one day and night. One water-wheel gives motion to all the reſt of the wheels and movements, of which any one may be ſtopt ſeparately. One fire-engine likewiſe conveys warm air to every part of the machine, and the whole work is governed by one regulator. The town is very populous, and contains five pariſhes and ſeveral meering-houſes.

Derby has a large market-place, a beautiful town-houſe of free ſtone, and very handſome ſtreets. The principal church is that of All Saints, which has a beautiful Gothic tower a hundred and ſeventy-eight feet high, and for the elegance of its ornaments, is not to be equalled by any in this or the adjacent counties. According to an inſcription in this church the ſteeple was erected about queen Mary's reign, at the expence of the bachelors and maidens of the town, on which account whenever a maiden, a native of the town, was married, the bells uſed formerly to be rung by bachelors. The government of this town is under a mayor, an high-ſteward, nine aldermen, a recorder, fourteen brothers, fourteen capital burgeſſes, and a town-clerk. The principal trade of the town conſiſts in malt and ale.

Wirkſworth is ſeated in a valley near the ſpring-head of the river Eccleſborn, and is a pretty large populous place, a hundred and eighteen miles from London, and has a handſome church, a free-ſchool, and an alms-houſe. The town is remarkable for having the greateſt lead market in England, and for having what is called a barmoot-court, to judge controverſies among the miners, and to adjuſt ſubterranean quarrels and diſputes.

Cheſterfield is a handſome populous town, ſituated on a hill between two ſmall rivers, a hundred and twenty-ſeven miles to the northward of London. It has a handſome large church, which has a ſpire of timber covered with lead, but warped all a wry; and alſo ſeveral meeting-houſes. It is governed by a mayor. Its market is conſiderable for corn, lead, and country commodities. The houſes are for the moſt part built of rough ſtone, and covered with ſlate. The inhabitants carry on a conſiderable trade to and with all the neighbouring counties in lead, grocery, the malting of barley, tanning, ſtockings, blankets, bedding, &c. Cheſterfield has a large free-ſchool, reckoned the moſt conſiderable of any in the north of England, and likewiſe ſeveral alms-houſes. This town gives title of earl to the noble family of Stanhope.

SECT. XL.

Of Yorkſhire; its Situation, Extent, Diviſions, Repreſentatives in Parliament, Air, Soil, and Rivers; with a Deſcription of the principal Towns.

YORKSHIRE, which in extent is equal to ſome ſovereignties, and is bigger than any two of the largeſt counties in England, is bounded on the north by Weſtmoreland and the biſhopric of Durham; on the eaſt by the German ocean; on the ſouth by Lancaſhire, Nottinghamſhire, and Derbyſhire; and on the weſt by a ſmall part of Cheſhire, Lancaſhire, and Weſtmoreland. It extends ninety miles in length from eaſt to weſt, ſeventy-five in breadth from north to ſouth, and above three hundred and ſixty in circumference. This county is divided into three ridings, called the North, Eaſt, and Weſt; beſides which there is a fourth diviſion, called Richmondſhire; and is ſub-divided into twenty-three wapentakes, which contain fifty-ſeven market-towns, two hundred and forty-two vicarages, five hundred and ſixty-three pariſhes, two thouſand three hundred and thirty villages, about a hundred and ſix thouſand one hundred and fifty houſes, and ſix hundred and thirty-ſix thouſand nine hundred inhabitants. It lies in the dioceſe of York, except Richmondſhire, in the North Riding, which belongs to the dioceſe of Cheſter, and ſends thirty members to parliament, namely, two for the county, and two for each of the following boroughs, York, Kingſton upon Hull, Knareſborough, Scarborough, Rippon, Richmond, Heydon, Boroughbridge, Malton, Thirſk, Aldborough, Beverley, Northallerton, and Pontefract.

The air and ſoil of this extenſive country vary extremely; the Eaſt Riding, on account of its neighbourhood to the German ocean, is leſs healthy than the other Ridings; but this inconvenience decreaſes in proportion as the country recedes from the ſea. However, where the air is moſt indifferent, the ſoil is moſt fruitful; for on the hilly parts of this Riding, eſpecially in what is called the York Woulds, the ſoil is generally barren, dry, and ſandy. Great numbers of lean ſheep are therefore ſold from hence, and ſent into other counties to be fattened for the market.

The Weſt Riding enjoys a ſharp but healthy air, and the ſoil on the weſtern ſide is hilly, ſtony, and not very fruitful; but the intermediate valleys afford plenty of good meadow ground, and alſo paſture for the largeſt cattle. On the ſide next the river Ouſe, the ſoil is rich, producing wheat and barley; and in its worſt parts the beſt oats. Its commodities, beſides what have been mentioned, are iron, pit-coal, jet, allum, horſes, and goats.

The North Riding in general exceeds the other two in the ſalubrity and coldneſs of the air. The worſt parts breed lean cattle; but on the ſides of the hills, in the valleys, and plains, it produces good corn, and rich paſtures for large cattle; nor is it wanting in ſubterraneous

riches, as marble, pit-coal, copperas, alum, and between the clefts of the rocks on the ſea-coaſt is found the beſt ſort of jet.

The principal rivers are the Ouſe, and thoſe which fall into it, as the Dun, or Don, the Calder, the Aire, the Wharfe, and the Swale, which joining their ſtreams form the Humber, which falls into the German ocean, between Yorkſhire and Lincolnſhire. The Ouſe riſes in the weſt-north-weſt ſide of the county, and chiefly running to the ſouth-eaſt, at length falls into the Humber. The Dun riſes in the hills near the ſouth-weſt end of Yorkſhire, and running to the ſouthward till it has reached Sheffield, turns to the north-eaſt, and having received the Aire, falls into the Ouſe. The Calder, has its ſource in the edge of Lancaſhire, and entering the ſouth-weſt ſide of this county, runs eaſtward, and joins the river Aire. The Aire has its ſpring at the foot of a high hill, called Pennigent, and running ſlow, chiefly to the eaſtward, diſcharges itſelf into the Dun. The Wharfe, or Wherfe, riſes among the hills in the weſt of Yorkſhire, and runs with a ſwift and impetuous current, moſtly to the ſouth-eaſt, till it falls into the Ouſe. The Swale riſes among the north-weſt hills of Yorkſhire, and running chiefly from the north-weſt to the ſouth-eaſt, joins the Ure, about four miles below Boroughbridge. Beſides theſe, the Tees riſes in the biſhopric of Durham, and becoming the boundary between theſe two counties, runs eaſtward till it falls into the German ocean. The Darwent, which divides the north and eaſt ridings, riſes in the north-eaſt of Yorkſhire, near the ſea coaſt, and firſt runs to the ſouth, but ſoon winding to the ſouth-weſt, falls into the Ouſe. The Hull has its ſource in the Woulds, from whence it runs moſtly to the ſouthward, paſſing near Beverley, and falls into the Humber. Into theſe principal rivers a great number of rivulets diſcharge themſelves, and they afford great plenty of fiſh, particularly ſalmon, trout, and craw-fiſh.

We ſhall now deſcribe the principal places in this extenſive county.

York, is ſeated on the river Ouſe, one hundred and ninety-eight miles to the north of London, and is generally eſteemed the ſecond city in England, though Briſtol now claims that honour, on account of its extenſive trade. It is very ancient, and has undergone various revolutions; but is ſtill adorned with many fine buildings, both public and private; it being very populous, and inhabited by gentlemen and wealthy tradeſmen. It is ſurrounded with a good wall, through which are four gates and five poſterns, and has a caſtle, built by William the Conqueror, which was formerly a place of great ſtrength, but is now a priſon, in which debtors and felons are confined, in a manner more agreeable to the dictates of religion and humanity, than perhaps in any other priſon in the kingdom.

The bridge over the Ouſe conſiſts of five arches, of which that in the center is fifty-one feet in height, and eighty-one in diameter.

There are now in this city but ſeventeen churches in uſe, with ſome meeting-houſes; though, in the reign of king Henry V. there were forty-one pariſhes, beſides ſeventeen chapels, and nine abbeys. The cathedral, or minſter, is a noble Gothic ſtructure, in which the rules of proportion are better obſerved than is uſually found in other churches of that kind of architecture. The weſt-end meaſures a hundred and twenty-four feet in breadth: it is adorned with two regular towers, which diminiſh by degrees, and have a good effect. Between them is the principal entrance, over which is a magnificent window that cannot be equalled, except by that in the eaſt front, which can never be ſufficiently admired. The great arch, under which is the entrance into the church, is ſaid to be the largeſt of the kind in Europe. The moſt remarkable deficiency in the building is in the lantern-ſteeple, which terminates very indifferently: it is however finely ornamented, and has eight ſtately windows, meaſuring forty feet from top to bottom. The nave of the church exceeds that of St. Paul's at London, ſeveral feet both in height and breadth, but is not quite ſo high as that of Weſtminſter-abbey, though it exceeds it by upwards of ſixteen feet in breadth. The ſtone ſcreens at each end of the choir are beautifully wrought: the firſt ſeparates the choir from the middle of the church, the other terminates it behind the altar, which by a gradual aſcent of ſixteen ſteps is raiſed to a graceful height above the level of the body of the church. From the middle of the church is ſeen the noble window at the eaſt-end, which is upwards of thirty feet in breadth, and ſeventy-five in height. The maſonry of the upper part is beautifully executed, below which, in one hundred and ſeventeen partitions, is expreſſed the hiſtory of the Bible, on painted glaſs. The ſouth end of the cathedral is beautified with a circular window, called from the colour of the ſtained glaſs, the Marygold-window. The north end is taken up with five lights, which reaching almoſt from the top to the bottom, may be conſidered as one ſtately window, repreſenting a rich embroidery of moſaic needle work. The chapter-houſe is an octagon Gothic building, ſixty-three feet in diameter, with windows of painted glaſs on each ſide; the roof, which is ſixty-eight feet high, is ſupported without any pillar, and over the building is a timber ſpire, covered with lead.

With reſpect to the modern buildings of this city, the aſſembly-houſe is a noble ſtructure, deſigned by the earl of Burlington, conſiſting of a ſtately Egyptian-hall, one hundred and twenty-three feet in length, and about forty in breadth and height, and alſo a common ball-room, ſixty-ſix feet long, with about two thirds of that dimenſion in height and breadth; with other ſmaller rooms for cards and tea. The corporation have lately built a manſion-houſe for the lord-mayor, for ſo he is ſtiled here as well as in London: The corporation alſo conſiſts of twelve aldermen, a recorder, two ſheriffs, twenty-four prime common-council-men, eight chamberlains, ſeventy-two other common-council, &c. The city is a county of itſelf, whoſe juriſdiction extends over thirty-ſix villages and hamlets. This city gives title of duke to his majeſty's eldeſt brother, Edward Auguſtus.

Hull, or Kingſton upon Hull, ſtands on the weſt-ſide of the river Hull, where it diſcharges itſelf into the Humber, one hundred and ſeventy miles north of London. It is very populous; but as its ſituation will not admit of any additional buildings, the ſtreets are very cloſe, and much crouded. One of the ſtreets reſembles Thames-ſtreet in London, where pitch, tar, cordage, and ſails are to be ſold, and where ſhips come to load and unload their merchandize. The town is very well fortified, and is one of the principal places in England for trade; for here centers the cloth trade from Leeds, Wakefield, and Halliſax; the lead from Derbyſhire, butter from moſt parts of Yorkſhire, cheeſe from Cheſhire, Warwickſhire, and Staffordſhire, and corn from many counties. In return for theſe, are imported all kinds of goods, not only from other parts of England, but from foreign countries, where the merchants of Hull have great credit. The town contains two pariſh churches, and ſeveral meeting-houſes of the diſſenters. Among the other public buildings are the Trinity-houſe, for the relief of ſeamen, their wives or widows; an exchange for tranſacting of buſineſs among the merchants, and a town-hall. The bridge over the river Hull is of ſtone, it conſiſts of fourteen arches, and makes a noble appearance. The town, with ſome contiguous lands, forms a county of itſelf, governed by a mayor, ſheriff, twelve aldermen, &c. They have a ſword of ſtate, a cap of maintenance, as marks of their power on land, and an oar of lignum vitæ, to denote their juriſdiction of admiralty, which they enjoy upon the river Humber.

Leeds is ſeated in the Weſt-Riding of Yorkſhire, one hundred and eighty-two miles from London, and ſtands on the banks of the river Aire, over which it has a handſome ſtone bridge, which was formerly capacious enough for holding on it the cloth-market; but the trade being much increaſed, the cloth is now ſold in the High-ſtreet, beginning at the Bridge-foot. The method in which this branch of trade is tranſacted, is ſo extraordinary, as to deſerve particular notice. Early on Tueſdays and Saturdays, a great number of treſſels are ranged, and covered with boards in the ſtreet, at ſix in

ſummer,

ſummer, and ſeven in winter: The market-bell gives the ſignal to the clothiers in the ſeveral inns, to bring out their cloth, which is done with ſuch expedition, and ſo little diſturbance, that ſtrangers are amazed, to ſee in a few minutes all the counters covered with pieces of cloth, and the owner ſtanding behind within the treſſels. When the bell ceaſes ringing, the chapmen enter the market, and ſuit their patterns; the price is aſked and bid in a very low voice, and a very few words determine a bargain. Thus, twenty thouſand pounds worth of cloth is often ſold in about an hour's time. At half an hour after eight the bell rings again, upon which the buyers, ſellers, cloth and treſſels all diſappear, and by nine the market is left clear to the linen-drapers, hardware-men, ſhoemakers, &c. Here is alſo a great demand for white cloths, which are ſold in a magnificent hall. The Guild-hall is alſo a noble building, adorned with a fine ſtatue of queen Anne. Here are three churches, only one of which is parochial; this is St. Peter's, which has the ceiling finely painted in freſco, by Parmantier: the ſubject is, giving the law to Moſes. The town is governed by a mayor, twelve aldermen, and twenty-four aſſiſtants. The great trade of Leeds occaſioned the river Aire to be made navigable, by which means a communication is opened by water with Wakefield, York, and Hull, to which places, beſides its woollen manufactures and other goods exported to Holland, Hamburg, &c. Leeds has the advantage of furniſhing York with coals. This town gives title of duke to the noble family of Oſborne.

Hallifax, a very conſiderable town in the Weſt-Riding of Yorkſhire, one hundred and ninety-nine miles from London. This is an inſtance of the immenſe advantage of our woollen manufactures, it being formerly an inconſiderable village, and has ſtill but one pariſh; but it is near twelve miles in diameter, and has more pariſhioners than any other pariſh in England; for it contains twelve chapels of eaſe, a number of meeting-houſes, and upwards of twelve thouſand inhabitants. The houſes are built of ſtone, and formed into good ſtreets. When a perſon leaves the town, the reſt of the pariſh reſembles a continued village, every houſe having its tenter-ground, with a piece of cloth, ſhaloon, or kerſey, upon it. The women card, ſpin, and wind: the men weave, and work at dreſſing or dying the cloth, and throughout the whole pariſh, there appears ſuch chearful induſtry, and the good effects of it are ſo viſible, that it affords a very ſenſible pleaſure to all who have any benevolence for mankind in general, or concern for their country in particular. It has been computed, that in the articles of ſhaloons alone, not leſs than one hundred thouſand pieces are annually made in this one pariſh only. This town gives title of earl to the family of Montague Dunk.

Scarborough, a town in the North-Riding of Yorkſhire, two hundred and four miles to the north of London. Its ſituation is perfectly romantic, it being built on the top of a ſteep rock, bending in the form of a creſcent to the main ocean, of which you have almoſt an unbounded proſpect from all parts. The ſummit of this mountain contains no leſs than eighteen or twenty acres of meadow ground, and on the upper part ſtood a caſtle. The town which is populous, is almoſt encompaſſed by the ſea, and walled where it does not join to the caſtle, or is not more ſtrongly defended by the ſea; and it has one of the beſt harbours in the kingdom. This town is juſtly celebrated for its ſpaw waters, on which account it is much reſorted to by the nobility and gentry, who have occaſioned many new buildings to be erected. There are now good accommodations for great numbers, even of the higheſt quality, and there are here aſſemblies and public balls, in rooms built for that purpoſe. The ſpring was under the cliff, part of which fell down in December 1737, and the water was loſt; but in clearing away the ruins to rebuild the wharff, it was, to the great joy of the town, recovered. The inhabitants catch prodigious quantities of fiſh of all ſorts, and have ſome foreign trade. This town gives the title of earl to the noble family of Saunderſon.

SECT. XLI.

Of the Biſhopric of Durham; its Name, the Manner in which it became a County Palatine, its Situation, Extent, Diviſions, Repreſentatives, Air, Soil, Rivers, and principal Towns.

THE biſhopric of Durham received its name from its chief town, called by the Saxons Deorham, or Dunholm, to expreſs its ſituation on a hill ſurrounded by a river. On the converſion of the kingdom of the Northumbrians, of which this was a part, this county was beſtowed on St. Cuthbert, biſhop of Lindisfarn, and his ſucceſſors for ever. This grant was ratified both by the Danes and Normans, with the addition of ſeveral privileges, particularly that of being a county palatine, enjoying the ſame prerogatives within, as the king did without its bounds, with reſpect to forfeitures, &c. Thus it was a kind of royalty ſubordinate to the crown.

It is bounded on the north by the river Tyne, which parts it from Northumberland; on the eaſt by the German ocean; on the ſouth by the Tees, which divides it from Yorkſhire; and on the weſt by Weſtmoreland and Cumberland. It extends thirty-five miles in length, and thirty-four in breadth. It is in the dioceſe of its own name, and contains nine market-towns, fifty-nine vicarages, one hundred and thirteen pariſhes, near two hundred and thirty villages, about fifteen thouſand nine hundred and eighty houſes, and ninety-ſix thouſand nine hundred inhabitants; but ſends only four members to parliament, namely, two for the county, and two for the city of Durham.

The air of this county is wholeſome, and though very ſharp in the weſtern parts, is milder towards the ſea, whoſe warm vapours mitigate the ſeverity of the winter ſeaſons. The ſoil is very different, the weſtern ſide being mountainous and barren, while the eaſtern and ſouthern parts nearly reſemble the ſouth of England, and conſiſt of beautiful meadows, rich paſtures, woods, and corn-fields. The inhabitants have their induſtry rewarded by the immenſe quantities of coals, lead, and iron, found in the bowels of the earth.

The principal rivers are the Weare, which riſes in the weſtern part, and after ſeveral turnings falls into the ſea at Sunderland. The Tees, which riſes within three miles of the head of the Weare, and forms the boundary between this county and Yorkſhire. The Tyne, of which we ſhall give a deſcription in treating of Northumberland.

The principal places in this county are the following:

Durham is pleaſantly and commodiouſly ſituated on an eaſy aſcent, and almoſt ſurrounded by the river Weare, over which are two large ſtone bridges, two hundred and ſixty-two miles from London. It is encompaſſed by a wall, and has a caſtle, ſeated on the higheſt part of the hill, now uſed for the biſhop's palace. It contains ſix pariſh-churches, beſides the cathedral, and is governed by a mayor, twelve aldermen, twelve common-councilmen, a recorder, a town-clerk, &c. Its pleaſant and healthful ſituation makes it much frequented by the neighbouring gentry, who, with the prebendaries of the cathedral, make the city look extremely chearful, and money circulate better than could otherwiſe be expected where there is little or no trade. The cathedral ſomewhat reſembles Weſtminſter abbey, and adjoining to it are the houſes of the dean and prebendaries. The biſhop, as count palatine, appoints all officers of juſtice; and, before his prerogatives were abridged by Henry VIII. had a court of chancery and common-pleas; iſſued out writs in his own name, and coined money. He is ſtill ſheriff paramount, and his deputy is not obliged, like other ſheriffs, to account with the exchequer, but only with the biſhop. The earldom of Sedberg is ſtill annexed to the biſhopric, which is eſteemed one of the beſt in England; and as the country about Rome is called St. Peter's patrimony, ſo that about Durham is called St. Cuthbert's.

Sunderland, a ſea-port town, two hundred and ſixty-four miles from London, ſtands in a peninſula almoſt ſurrounded by the ſea. It is a well built, thriving, and

populous

populous town, inhabited by many rich merchants and tradeſmen. Its port is capable of containing many hundred ſail of ſhips at one time, and from thence are loaded and ſent great numbers of ſhips with coals, ſalt, glaſs, and other merchandize, as well to different places in this kingdom, as to foreign parts. It has a very fine church, with a dome at the eaſt end, under which is the altar, placed beneath a canopy of inlaid work, ſupported in front by two fluted columns of the Corinthian order. There is here a bathing-houſe, and a taſte for politeneſs and elegance has been introduced into the town.

Darlington is a pretty large town, two hundred and forty-three miles from London. It is ſeated in a flat, on the river Skern, which falls into the Tees, and is remarkable for its dirty ſituation, and its beautiful church, which has a high ſpire, riſing up in the midſt of it. It has a good ſtone bridge of conſiderable length, over little or no water. However, it is a place of good reſort, the market is large and convenient, and is particularly celebrated for its huckabacks, which are made no where elſe in England, and of which, as well as other linen cloth, it ſends up large quantities to London. The water of the Skern is eſteemed ſo good for bleaching, that linen has been ſent hither from Scotland to bleach.

At Oxenhall near this town are three deep pits called Hell Ketties, full of water, and which have occaſioned many fabulous ſtories among the country people, who imagine they have no bottom. The moſt probable opinion is, that they are old coal-pits, rendered uſeleſs by the water riſing in them.

SECT. XLII.

Of Northumberland; its Name, Situation, Extent, Diviſions, Repreſentatives in Parliament, Air, Soil, Produce, Rivers, and principal Towns.

THIS county received its name from its being ſituated to the north of the Humber. In the Saxon heptarchy it was a part of the kingdom of the Northumbrians, which contained not only the county now called Northumberland, but alſo Yorkſhire, Lancaſhire, Durham, Cumberland, and Weſtmoreland. It is ſeated in the extremity of England next to Scotland, and is bounded on the eaſt by the German ocean; on the ſouth by the biſhopric of Durham and Cumberland; on the weſt by Cumberland; and on the north-weſt by Scotland, from which it is ſeparated by the river Tweed. It extends ſeventy-four miles in length from north to ſouth, and forty-five in breadth from eaſt to weſt.

Northumberland contains twelve market-towns, nine vicarages, four hundred and ſixty pariſhes, about twenty-two thouſand ſeven hundred and forty houſes, and a hundred and twenty-ſix thouſand four hundred inhabitants. It is in the dioceſe of Durham, and ſends eight members to parliament; namely, two for the county, and two for each of the following boroughs, Newcaſtle upon Tyne, Morpeth, and Berwick upon Tweed.

The air of this county is not ſo cold as might be imagined from the latitude in which it lies; for its ſituation between two ſeas in the narroweſt part of England gives it the advantage of having the cold moderated by the vapours of each, and for this reaſon the ſnow ſeldom lies long in Northumberland, except on the tops of high hills. The air is extremely healthful, and the people, who generally live to a great age, are ſeldom afflicted with ſickneſs. The ſoil is various, the eaſtern part, which is fruitful, having very good wheat and moſt ſorts of corn, and has rich meadows on the banks of the rivers; but the weſtern part is generally barren, it being moſtly heathy and mountainous. The ſouth-eaſt part abounds with pit coal, of which ſix hundred thouſand chaldrons are computed to be annually ſhipped from thence for London. There are alſo large quantities of lead and timber. This county gives title of earl to the noble and ancient family of Piercy.

The rivers cauſe the country to be well watered, and afford great plenty of ſalmon and trout. The principal of theſe are the Tyne, the Tweed, and the Cocket; the former has two arms riſing at a great diſtance from each other, but are united a little above Hexham. South Tyne riſes in the north-eaſt edge of Cumberland, but ſoon entering Northumberland runs northward, and at length bends towards the eaſt. North Tyne has its ſource in the weſtern part of Northumberland, called Tyne-Dale, then running to the ſouth-eaſt it joins South Tyne near Hexham, from whence it runs eaſtward by Newcaſtle into the German ocean. The Tweed is the boundary between this county and Scotland, in which it riſes, and having entered Northumberland, purſues its courſe to the north-eaſt, till it reaches the German ocean at Berwick.

We ſhall now deſcribe the principal places in this county.

Newcaſtle upon Tyne, the largeſt town of Northumberland, ſtands two hundred and ſeventy-ſix miles from London: it is a large and populous town ſituated between the Picts wall and the Tyne, which is here a fine and deep river, ſo that ſhips of a middling burthen may ſafely come up to the town, though the large colliers are ſtationed at Shields; and it is ſo ſecure an haven, that veſſels, when they have paſſed Tynemouth-bar, are in no danger either from ſtorms or ſhallows. It is defended by Clifford's fort, which effectually commands all veſſels that enter the river. The town may be conſidered as divided into two parts, of which Gateſhead, on Durham ſide, is one, and both are joined by a bridge of ſeven arches, on which is a ſtreet of houſes. The ſituation of the town is very uneven; it riſes on the north bank of the river, where the ſtreets upon the aſcent are exceeding ſteep. Moſt of the houſes are built with ſtone; but ſome of them are of timber, and the reſt of brick. Through this town went part of that wall which extended from ſea to ſea, and was built by the Romans to defend the Britons, after they had drawn off all their choſen youth to fill their armies, againſt the incurſions of the Picts. The liberty of the town and the power of the corporation extend no farther than the gate upon the bridge, which ſome years ago put a ſtop to a terrible fire, which would otherwiſe, perhaps have burnt the whole ſtreet of houſes on that ſide of the bridge, as it did thoſe beyond it. On the eaſt ſide of this gate are carved the arms of the biſhop of Durham, and on the weſt ſide thoſe of the town of Newcaſtle. The town is defended by an exceeding ſtrong wall, in which are ſeven gates, and as many turrets, with ſeveral cazemates bomb-proof. The caſtle, which is old and ruinous, over-looks the whole town.

The greateſt inconveniencies of Newcaſtle are its ſituation on the declivity of two hills, and the buildings being very cloſe and old, which render it improper for thoſe who ſeek a reſidence of pleaſure; but then, as the river which runs between the two hills renders it a place of great trade, theſe inconveniencies are abundantly recompenſed.

There is here a very noble exchange, and the wall of the town, running from it parallel with the river, leaves a ſpacious piece of ground before it, between the water and the wall, which being well wharfed and faced with free-ſtone, forms the longeſt and largeſt quay for landing goods, that is to be ſeen in England, except that at Yarmouth in Norfolk. Here are four pariſh churches, beſides one at Gateshead, and likewiſe ſeveral meeting-houſes. St. Nicholas's church ſtands on the top of a high hill, and has a lofty ſteeple of curious architecture. There is a great deſcent from it, and a ſtream of water in time of drought runs down from a noble conduit, that ſtands far up in the town, and is of great uſe to the inhabitants near it. Among the other public buildings is a manſion houſe for the mayor, who dwells in it during his mayoralty, with his officers and attendants, at the town's expence, who allow him, in order to keep up his ſtate, ſix hundred pounds for the year. Here is alſo a hall for the ſurgeons to meet in, and a large hoſpital, built by the contribution of the keel-men, for the maintenance of the poor of their fraternity, and ſeveral charitable foundations. The town is almoſt ſurrounded with coal-pits, which furniſh ſuch immenſe quantities of coals, that ſeveral thouſand ſhips are annually loaded with

with them, and they have ſome manufactures, owing to the plenty of this valuable kind of fuel, particularly the making of hard ware, and ſalt, which laſt is indeed performed at Shields, ſeven miles below the town; but the coals are brought chiefly from thence, and the quantity conſumed in theſe ſalt works is ſo great, that a prodigious cloud of ſmoke riſes over the hills, and is ſo thick, that it is ſaid it may be ſeen at ſixteen miles diſtance. Ships are alſo built here to perfection, as to ſtrength and firmneſs; and there are here a conſiderable number of merchants, who trade to Holland, Hamburg, Norway, and the Baltic. This town gives title of duke to the noble family of Holles.

Berwick, is pleaſantly ſituated on the ſouth ſide of an eaſy declivity, on the Scots coaſt of the river Tweed, about half a mile diſtant from its conflux with the ſea, and three hundred and thirty-nine miles from London. It is regularly fortified with baſtions, flanks, and a ditch, on the north and eaſt; and on the ſouth and weſt with high walls well built, and planted with cannon, to which the river ſerves as a moat. The houſes make a good appearance, and the town-houſe is a handſome ſtructure, with a lofty turret, in which is a ring of eight bells. Here is a very ſtately bridge of ſixteen arches over the Tweed. The church, built by the protector Cromwell, is a neat building; but has neither ſpire nor bells. The barracks form a regular ſquare, and will conveniently contain two regiments of foot. The town is governed by a mayor, a recorder, a town-clerk, and four bailiffs.

Corn and eggs are ſhipped from this place for London and other ports; but the principal trade conſiſts of the ſalmon which is taken in the Tweed, and eſteemed the beſt in the kingdom, great quantities of which, being pickled, are put up in veſſels called kits, and ſhipped off for London, where they are called Newcaſtle ſalmon. During the months of June and July the beſt ſalmon may be bought at Berwick for one penny per pound. Conſiderable quantities of the ſmaller fiſh are ſent alive to London in veſſels called ſmacks, built for that purpoſe, they having a well in the middle, bored full of holes for the free paſſage of the ſea water, and in which the fiſh live without injury.

This town is particularly mentioned in all laws, proclamations, &c. that comprehend both England and Scotland, as if it was in neither of theſe countries.

Alnwick is a populous and well built town, ſeated on the north ſide of a hill near the river Aln, over which is a ſtone bridge, at the diſtance of three hundred and ten miles from London. It has a large town-houſe, where the quarter-ſeſſions and county courts are held, and the members of parliament elected. It has three gates which are almoſt entire, and ſhew that it was formerly ſurrounded by a wall, and is defended by an old ſtately Gothic caſtle, the ſeat of the earls of Northumberland.

About ſeven miles to the ſouth-eaſt of Alnwick ſtands Warkworth, a pleaſant village which gives title to the eldeſt ſon of the earl of Northumberland; and near it is a remarkable cave, called the Hermitage, cut out of the ſolid rock. The roof is arched, and the ſides adorned with pillars in the Gothic taſte. It is divided into two apartments of the ſame dimenſions, one of which ſeems to have been a lodging-room, and the other a chapel. At the eaſt end of the chapel is an altar, with a croſs cut in the rock above it; and in the window the figure of a woman in a recumbent poſture at full length. At one end of this figure is another, which ſeems to be weeping over it, and at the other a bull's head.

The higheſt mountain in this county, or perhaps in all England, is that of Cheviot, made famous by the old ballad of Chevy Chace. The top, to thoſe who are below, ſeems to terminate in a point; but has a level plain about a mile and a half in circumference, with a large pool of water in the midſt of it. From hence, in clear weather, is an extenſive proſpect of near fifty miles on every ſide.

SECT. XLIII.

Of Cumberland; its Name, Situation, Extent, Diviſions, Repreſentatives, Air, Soil, Produce, Rivers, and principal Places.

ACCORDING to ſome authors, this county was originally called Cumbria, which name was at length changed to Cumberland. It is bounded on the north by Scotland; on the eaſt by Northumberland, part of the biſhopric of Durham, and Weſtmoreland; on the ſouth by Lancaſhire; and on the weſt by the Iriſh ſea. It extends ſeventy-five miles in length, and twenty-ſeven in breadth. Cumberland is divided into five wards, and contains one city, fourteen market-towns, ninety pariſhes, thirty-ſeven vicarages, near four hundred and forty-ſeven villages, about fourteen thouſand eight hundred and twenty houſes, and eighty-eight thouſand nine hundred inhabitants. It lies partly in the dioceſe of Cheſter, and partly in that of Carliſle, and ſends ſix members to parliament, two for the county, two for Carliſle, and two for Cockermouth.

The air is cold and piercing, yet leſs than might be expected from its being ſituated ſo far to the north. The mountains feed large flocks of ſheep, whoſe fleſh is particularly ſweet and good, and the valleys produce corn, &c. This country is generally admired for the pleaſant proſpects it affords; but theſe would be more beautiful could trees be brought to thrive here better than they generally do. The principal commodities produced by this county are coal, lead, copper, lapis calaminaris, black-lead, a mineral almoſt peculiar to this county, which contains more than is ſufficient to ſupply all Europe; wild-fowl, ſalmon, pearls, &c. The laſt are found in muſcles at the mouth of a brook, called the Irt, which diſcharges itſelf into the ſea a little to the north of Ravenglaſs.

This county abounds with rivers and lakes, called by the inhabitants meers; of the former the Eden takes its riſe from Ulles Water, and after a courſe of about thirty miles to the northward turns to the weſt, and falls into Solway frith. This river is remarkable for a ſmall delicious fiſh called char. The Derwent runs through the middle of the county, and diſcharges itſelf into the Iriſh ſea. This river abounds with ſalmon.

The chief towns in this county are the following:

Carliſle, a city of great antiquity, is ſeated at the confluence of ſeveral ſmall rivers, which almoſt encompaſs it: the river Peterill running on the eaſt, Cauda on the weſt, and Eden on the north, which ſoon after falls into the ſea. It ſtands three hundred and one miles from London, and is ſurrounded with walls, and defended by a caſtle, which ſtands on the weſt ſide. The houſes are well built, and the cathedral is a venerable Gothic pile; beſides which there is another church called St. Cuthbert's. The city has three gates, called Scots-gate, Iriſh-gate, and Engliſh-gate; and the walls are ſo thick, that three men may walk a-breaſt on them, within the parapet. Over the Eden is a bridge that leads towards Scotland, which is not above ſix miles off. The city is very ſmall, but has a good trade in fuſtians. It has ſuffered the fate of moſt frontier towns, and has been taken, retaken, burnt, and deſtroyed ſeveral times by the Scots, Danes, and Norwegians; and lay once in ruins for near two hundred years, till it was rebuilt by William Rufus. In 1745 this city was taken by the rebels, and ſoon after retaken by his late royal highneſs William duke of Cumberland. It is under the government of a mayor, twelve aldermen, &c. and here begins the remains of the famous wall which the emperor Severus built inſtead of Hadrian's dyke, or rampart, and which croſſed the north end of this county and extended through the ſouthern part of Northumberland, ending at the German ocean, near the mouth of the river Tyne, in order to prevent the Picts invading England. This city gives title of earl to the noble family of Howard.

Whitehaven is ſeated on a creek of the ſea, on the north end of a great hill, where is a quarry of a hard

white ſtone, which gives name to the place; and which, with the help of a great ſtone wall, ſecures the harbour into which ſmall barks may enter. It ſtands forty miles to the ſouth-weſt of Carliſle, and two hundred and eighty-nine north-weſt of London; and, by the encouragement of the Lowther family, has riſen from being a ſmall place to be a very conſiderable one, it being about one-third bigger than the city of Carliſle, and contains three times the number of inhabitantss, who are all well lodged, and embarked in profitable employments; ſo that there is here a continual ſcene of induſtry, and buſineſs is carried on with great diſpatch, without hurry or confuſion. They have a plentiful and commodious market, and the adjacent country is well cultivated and ſtrewed with neat and pleaſant houſes. There is here a cuſtom-houſe, and the port is well ſecured by numerous and coſtly works. The coal-trade is ſo increaſed of late, that it is the moſt eminent port in England for it, next to Newcaſtle, for the city of Dublin, and all the towns of Ireland on that coaſt, with ſome parts of Scotland and the Iſle of Man, are principally ſupplied from hence; and the late Sir James Lowther was ſaid to have ſent from hence to Ireland annually as many coals as brought him in near twenty thouſand pounds per annum.

The coal in the mines near this place has ſeveral times been ſet on fire by the ſulminating damps, and has continued burning for many months till large ſtreams of water were conducted into the mines, and ſuffered to fill thoſe parts where the coal was on fire. But more mines have been ruined by inundations from ſprings burſting into them.

In order to deſcribe theſe wonders of nature and art, the reader may ſuppoſe, ſays our author, that he has entered the mines at an opening at the bottom of a hill, and has already paſſed through a long adit hewn in the rock, and arched over with brick, which is the principal road into them for men and horſes; and which, by a ſteep deſcent, leads down to the loweſt vein of coal. Being arrived at the coal he ſtill deſcends by ways leſs ſteep till, after a journey of a mile and a half, he arrives at the profoundeſt part of the mine. The greateſt part of this deſcent is through ſpacious galleries, which continually interſect other galleries, all the coal being cut away, except large pillars, which in deep parts of the mine are three yards high, and about twelve yards ſquare at the baſe; ſuch great ſtrength being required to ſupport the ponderous roof. Thoſe who deſcend into theſe mines find them moſt cloſe and ſultry in the middle parts that are moſt remote from the pits and adits, and perceive them to grow cooler the nearer they approach to thoſe pits and adits that are ſunk to the deepeſt parts of the mines; down which pits large ſtreams of freſh air are made to deſcend, and up which the water is drawn by means of fire-engines. Theſe mines are ſunk to the depth of a hundred and thirty fathoms, and are extended under the ſea to places where there is above them ſufficient depths of water for ſhips of large burthen. Theſe are the deepeſt coal-mines that have been hitherto wrought, and perhaps the miners have not in any other part of the globe penetrated to ſo great a depth below the ſurface of the ſea; the very mines in Hungary, Peru, &c. being ſituated in mountainous countries, where the ſurface of the earth is elevated to a great height above the level of the ocean.

Penrith, or Perith, is a pretty large well built place, ſeated under a hill called Perith Fell, two hundred and eighty-two miles from London; it has a very good market for all ſorts of commodities and cattle; the market-houſe is convenient and ſpacious, and the church is a large and very handſome ſtructure. The town is built of red ſtone, whence it received its name Penrith, which in Britiſh ſignifies a red hill.

This having been a frontier county, the ancient ſeats of the nobility and gentry are, for the moſt part, built in the form of caſtles. We ſhall here deſcribe Corby-caſtle, which did lately, if it does not ſtill, belong to Mr. Howard, a deſcendant of the family of the dukes of Norfolk, and which we chuſe, as it will give us an opportunity of deſcribing the natural beauties of this county, as they are here improved by art.

Corby-caſtle is ſeated four or five miles to the ſouth-eaſt of Carliſle, and is a neat but plain ſtone building. The entrance to the houſe is by a large ſquare court, on the right hand of which are the gardens, and on the left offices for the ſervants and ſtabling for horſes. It is plentifully watered by ſprings in ſeveral large reſervoirs made about the houſe, which ſtands near the precipice of a rock, which on the back part is about a hundred feet high. In this rock is cut a regular pair of ſtairs about ſix feet wide, with all their ornaments down to the bottom. As you deſcend theſe ſtairs, you paſs by ſeveral rooms hewn out of the rock, of about ſixteen feet ſquare, which have no other furniture than tables and ſeats made out of the ſtone. At the bottom of theſe ſtairs you aſcend another pair about ten feet high, which leads to a terrace made in the form of a ſemi-circle, by the ſide of which runs the river Eden. The terrace preſents a fine view of another part of the rock of equal height with the former; from the top of which falls a moſt beautiful cataract. It is at leaſt a hundred feet high, and the water is broken by the pointed ridges of the rock into ſo many forms, and flies about in ſo delightfully rude a manner, as affords a ſurpriſing inſtance of the power of art in embelliſhing nature. From this terrace you have a view of half a mile long of the river on the right hand, and a hanging grove of trees, juſt as nature has placed them, on the left; and at the end of the walk is a ſmall banquetting-room, with a portico in the front, facing the walk. On the other ſide of the river, oppoſite the houſe, are the remains of an old caſtle, under which is an hermit's cave.

SECT. XLIV.

Of Weſtmoreland; its Name, Situation, Extent, Diviſions, Repreſentatives, Air, Soil, Produce, Rivers, and principal Towns.

THIS county probably received its name from its weſtern ſituation, and the meers or lakes it contains. It is bounded on the north and north-weſt by Cumberland, on the north-eaſt and eaſt by the biſhopric of Durham and Yorkſhire, on the ſouth-eaſt by Yorkſhire, and on the ſouth and ſouth-weſt by Lancaſhire. Its extent from north to ſouth is about forty miles, and its breadth from eaſt to weſt twenty-one. It is generally divided into the baronies of Kendal and Weſtmoreland: the former is very mountainous, but the latter is a large champaign country. Theſe are the only principal diviſions of this county, which contains eight market-towns, twenty-ſix pariſhes, two hundred and twenty villages, above ſix thouſand five hundred houſes, and thirty-nine thouſand inhabitants. It lies partly in the dioceſe of Cheſter, and partly in that of Carliſle. The earl of Thanet is hereditary ſheriff of the county, which ſends only four members to parliament, namely, two for the county, and two for the borough of Appleby. Weſtmoreland gives the title of earl to the noble family of Fane.

The air is clear, ſharp, and ſalubrious, the natives being ſeldom troubled with diſeaſes; but generally live to a good old age. The ſoil is various, that on the mountains is very barren, while that in the valleys is fertile, producing good corn and graſs, eſpecially in the meadows near the rivers. In the hilly parts on the weſtern borders it is generally believed there are vaſt quantities of copper ore, and veins of gold; ſome mines of copper are worked, but moſt of the ore lies ſo deep, that it will not anſwer the expence.

The principal rivers are the Eden, the Lone, and the Kan. The Eden, which riſes in the eaſtern borders, runs moſtly northward, and having received eight ſmall rivers, enters Cumberland. The Lone riſes within a few miles of the Eden, and after running a little way to the eaſtward, turns toward the ſouth, and enters Lancaſhire. The Kan, or Can, flows from a lake called Kan, or Kent-meer, and running moſtly ſouthward, after it has paſſed Kendal, which takes its name from this river, falls into the Iriſh ſea at the ſouth-weſt point of the county.

county. These rivers run in rocky channels, and are generally swift limpid streams, well stored with excellent trouts.

Among the mountains in the south part of the county, on the borders of Cumberland lies, Winander-meer, said to be the greatest lake in England, and to be so called by the Saxons from its winding banks. It is about ten miles in length, and paved as it were at bottom with one continued rock. In some parts it is of a vast depth, and is well stored with chare-fish, which is rarely found, except among the Alps. The Ulles-water is a lake also well stocked with fish, and has likewise some chares; but not in such plenty as the former. Both Cumberland and this county lay claim to this lake.

The chief towns in this county are the following:

Appleby is seated on the river Eden, by which it is almost surrounded, two hundred and eighty miles from London. It is a very ancient place but is much decayed, and chiefly consists of only one broad street of mean houses. This is esteemed the county town, and here the assizes are held in the town-hall. At the upper end of the Broad-street is a castle, which was formerly the goal for malefactors, and is surrounded with the river and with a ditch. At the lower end of the town are the church and a school. It is governed by a mayor, a recorder, twelve aldermen, a common council, and serjeants at mace.

Kendal is seated in a valley among hills, on the west side of the river Kan or Kent, two hundred and fifty-six miles from London, and is a rich and populous town which has two bridges of stone, and another of wood, over the river, and at a small distance are the ruins of a castle. The church is a handsome structure, supported by five rows of handsome pillars, and has two chapels of ease. A free school stands on the side of the church-yard and is well endowed, having exhibitions to Queen's college in Oxford. The town consists of several streets neatly paved, one of which is very long, and has a bridge in the middle. The market is plentifully supplied with all kinds of provisions, and with woollen yarn, and the town is famous for its manufacture of cottons, druggets, hats, and stockings.

Lonsdale, or Kirby Lonsdale, is a large well built town, seated on the river Lone, two hundred and thirty-one miles to the north-north-west of London, and has a handsome stone bridge with a stately church, and a fine church-yard, from which and from the banks of the river is a fine prospect of the mountains at a great distance, and of the beautiful course of the river Lone, in a valley far beneath. This town has a good trade in cloth.

SECT. XLV.

Of Lancashire; its Situation, Extent, Divisions, Representatives in Parliament, and Rivers. A concise Account of the curious Canals forming by the Duke of Bridgewater, for extending the Navigation within Land through this and the neighbouring Counties. Of the principal Towns of Lancashire, a remarkable Cave, and other Objects of Curiosity.

THIS county receives its name from Lancaster its county town. It is bounded on the north by Westmoreland and Cumberland; on the east by Yorkshire, on the south by Cheshire; and on the west by the Irish sea. It extends seventy miles in length, and thirty-five in breadth; it is divided into five hundreds, and contains twelve vicarages, twenty-seven market towns, sixty-one parishes, eight hundred and ninety-four villages, about forty-three thousand houses, and two hundred and sixty thousand inhabitants. It lies in the diocese of Chester, and sends fourteen members to parliament, namely, two for the county, and two for each of the following boroughs, Lancaster, Liverpool, Preston, Wigan, Clithero, and Newton.

The air here is in general very healthful, the inhabitants often living to a great age. The soil may be considered under three different classes; the hilly parts are stony and barren; the level grounds bear crops of wheat and barley, and there are here also moss ground, which affords little else but turf and fir-trees, that are frequently found lying under the surface. The chief commodities of this county are great plenty of all sorts of provisions; pit coal, of which they have a species called cannel-coal, which far exceeds all other, not only in making a clear fire, but by in its being capable of being manufactured into candlesticks, cups, standishes, snuff-boxes, &c. and of being polished so as to represent a beautiful black marble. The manufactures of this county are woollen and cotton cloths of various kinds, tickings, and cotton velvets, for which Manchester is particularly famous.

The principal rivers are the Mersey, which parts Cheshire and this county, and the Ribble which rises in Yorkshire, and enters this county at Clitheto, running south-west by Preston into the Irish sea. Besides these there are many lesser streams.

The navigation made by his grace the duke of Bridgewater in this county, is highly worthy of notice. This was begun so lately as about six years ago, and bears vessels of sixty tons burthen, and is carried over two rivers the Muxy and the Irwell. The sough, or adit, which was necessary to be made, in order to drain the water from the coal mines, is rendered navigable for boats of six or seven tons burden, and forms a kind of subterraneous lake, which runs about a mile and a half under ground, and communicates with the canal. This lake which leads to the head of the mines, is arched over with brick, and is just wide enough for the passage of the boats: at the mouth of it are two folding doors, which are closed so soon as you enter, and you then proceed by candle-light, which casts a livid gloom, serving only to make darkness visible.

But this dismal gloom is rendered still more awful by the solemn echo of this subterraneous lake, which returns various and discordant sounds. One while you are struck with the grating noise of engines, which by a curious contrivance let down the coals into the boats: Then again you hear the shock of an explosion, occasioned by the blowing up the hard rock, which will not yield to any other force than that of gun-powder. The next minute your ears are saluted by the songs of merriment from either sex, who thus beguile their labours in the mine.

You have no sooner reached the head of the works, than a new scene opens to your view. There you behold men and women almost in the primitive state of nature, toiling in different capacities, by the glimmering of a dim taper: some digging coal out of the bowels of the earth; some again loading it in little waggons made for the purpose; others drawing those waggons to the boats.

When we behold, says the ingenious gentleman from whose letter we have borrowed this account, a part of our species deprived of sun-shine, the common inheritance of mankind, and buried in a dismal and confined cavern, our feelings prompt us to pity their condition; but when we observe the lively ray of chearfulness break forth in this scene of darkness and distress; when we behold the glow of health in the midst of damp and suffocation; we then cease to pity them, and begin to examine ourselves: we then discover that our enjoyments above ground serve only to multiply our wants; and are convinced of the truth of that maxim, which assures us, that happiness is every where, or no where.

This navigation has already been of great benefit to the town and neighbourhood of Manchester, by reducing the price of coals to one half less than was usually paid; the poor, in particular, reap vast benefit from it, as coals are retailed to them in such small quantities as one hundred weight, at the rate of three pence half-penny. It has likewise afforded great improvement to the lands through which it have been cut, by means of the subterraneous drains which has been made to convey the waters under the canal. When the navigation shall be extended to Liverpool, whither it is expected to be carried in about four or five years, the towns and neighbourhood of Liverpool and Manchester will have the bene-

fit

fit of boats paſſing every day between the two places, and of ſaving half the expence of the water-carriage they now pay.

The principal places in this county are the following.

Lancaſter, the county town, is ſeated near the mouth of the river Lone, two hundred and thirty-three miles from London, and is an ancient, neat, and handſome town; but its port is decayed, and incapable of receiving ſhips of any conſiderable burthen. The bridge has five arches and is ſtrong and handſome. The caſtle is now the county goal, in which the aſſizes are held, and upon its top at one corner, is a ſquare tower called John of Gaunt's chair, from whence you have a delightful proſpect of the adjacent country, and of the courſe of the river Lone; but more eſpecially towards the ſea, where you have an extenſive view over it to the Iſle of Man. There is a handſome ſquare of neat buildings near the caſtle; but the town has little trade, and is but thinly inhabited. It has only one church, and is governed by a mayor, &c.

About five miles from Lancaſter is a remarkable cave called Dunald Mill-hole. In the middle of a large common a brook, near as big as the New-River, after turning a corn-mill juſt at the entrance of the cave, runs into its mouth by ſeveral beautiful caſcades, continuing its courſe two miles under a large mountain, and at laſt makes its appearance again near Carnford, a village in the road to Kendal. The entrance of this ſubterraneous channel has ſomething pleaſingly terrible: from the mill at the top you deſcend about ten yards perpendicular by means of chinks in the rock, and clumps of trees: the paſſage is then almoſt parallel to the horizon leading to the right, a little winding, till you have ſome hundreds of yards thick of rocks and minerals above your head. "In this manner, ſays our author, we proceeded, ſome-"times through vaults, ſo capacious that we could "neither ſee the roof or ſides, and ſometimes on all-"four, ſtill following the brook, which entertained us "with a ſort of harmony well ſuiting the place; for the "different height of its falls were as ſo many keys of "muſic, which being all conveyed to us by an amazing "eccho, greatly added to the majeſtic horror which ſur-"rounded us. In our return we were more particular in "our obſervations. The falls from one rock to another "broke the rays of our candles, ſo as to form the moſt "romantic vibrations and appearances upon the varie-"gated roof. The ſides too are not leſs remarkable for "their fine colouring; the damps, the creeping vege-"tables, and the ſeams in the marble and limeſtone parts "of the rocks, form as many tints as are ſeen in the rain-"bow, and are covered with a perpetual varniſh from "the juſt weeping ſprings that trickle from the roof. "When we arrived at the mouth, and once more be-"held the chearing day-light, I could not but admire "the uncouth manner in which nature has thrown to-"gether the huge rocks which compoſe the arch over "the entrance; but, as if conſcious of its rudeneſs, "ſhe has clothed it with trees and ſhrubs of the moſt "various and beautiful verdure, which bend downwards, "and with their leaves cover all the rugged parts of the "rock."

Mancheſter, a very large and populous town, is ſeated between the rivers Irk and Irwell, upon a rocky hill, a hundred and ſixty-ſix miles to the north-north-weſt of London, and is a place of great antiquity. It carries on a very extenſive trade in cottons, tickings, velvets, and a number of other manufactures diſtinguiſhed by the name of Mancheſter goods; and has increaſed ſo much of late years, that though it is neither a city, borough, nor corporation, is ſuppoſed to contain upwards of fifty thouſand inhabitants. It has a collegiate church, which has a choir of excellent workmanſhip, and two modern churches, one finiſhed in 1723, and an act paſſed for building another in 1753. Theſe are very handſome ſtructures. This town alſo boaſts its college, hoſpital, free-ſchool, and library. The college was founded by Thomas, Weſt, lord Delawar, in 1421; It is incorporated by the name of the warden and fellows of Chriſt's church, in Mancheſter, and conſiſts of a warden, four fellows, two chaplains, four ſinging-men, and four choriſters. The hoſpital was founded for forty boys; but its revenue is ſo much improved, that it at preſent maintains ſixty. The library is well ſupplied with books, and has a revenue for buying others, and a competent maintenance for the librarian. The free-ſchool has been alſo much improved. Mancheſter has likewiſe many meeting-houſes of Diſſenters, and a handſome town-houſe; ſome new ſtreets have been lately built with great elegance. The chief magiſtrate is a conſtable, or headborough. This town gives title of duke to the ancient and noble family of Montagu.

Liverpool, or Leverpoole, is commodiouſly ſeated on the river Merſey, a hundred and eighty-five miles from London, in the fifty-third degree twenty-two minutes north latitude, and in the ſecond degree thirty minutes weſt Longitude, where it has an excellent harbour, ſhips being admitted into a noble wet dock, ſecured by large flood-gates. It is much increaſed and beautified within theſe few years, and, next to London and Briſtol, has the greateſt trade of any town in England; and will probably ſoon, if it has not already exceeded the latter. Here is a handſome town-houſe, ſupported by twelve ſtone pillars and arches, and under it is the exchange for merchants. The houſes are generally new and built with brick. It has alſo three or four churches, which are very noble ſtructures, and one of them has the fronts of the galleries, the pulpit and the altar entirely of mahogany. There are here alſo ſeveral meeting-houſes for Diſſenters, one of which is built in a circular form, and thoſe who meet there have printed forms of prayer different from thoſe of the church of England, a peculiarity that is in no other diſſenting meeting-houſe in this kingdom; but will probably be imitated by other congregations. The town is governed by a mayor and aldermen. It has a good free-ſchool, a very noble charity-ſchool, ſupported by the generous contributions of the inhabitants, for fifty boys and twelve girls, who are maintained with cloaths, meat, and lodging. Here are alſo ſeveral alms-houſes for the ſupport of ſailors widows and indigent perſons.

Warrington is a large market-town ſeated on the river Merſey, a hundred and eighty-two miles from London. It contains two churches, ſeveral meeting-houſes, and a Romiſh chapel; and is a large handſome place, whoſe market is well ſupplied with corn, cattle, and fiſh. In this town has been lately founded an academy upon a noble and extenſive plan, for the education of youth for the learned profeſſions. Here is a ſtone bridge over the river, which leads into Cheſhire. In this town and the neighbouring villages ſail-cloth is made for the royal navy. Here are alſo copper-works, ſugar-houſes, and glaſs-houſes, which furniſh the induſtrious with the means of obtaining a comfortable ſubſiſtence; and on the banks of the Merſey, which, by means of wears and locks, is made navigable to Mancheſter, are paper-mills, gunpowder-mills, oil-mills, iron forges, and ſlitting-mills.

Preſton, a large fine town ſeated on the river Ribble, two hundred and eleven miles from London. Though it has no manufacture, yet as it has a court of chancery, and other officers of juſtice for the county palatine of Lancaſter, it is full of gentlemen, attorneys, proctors, and notaries. It is a clean, neat, and gay place, to which the gentry many miles round reſort in winter, and have aſſemblies, balls, &c. hence it is vulgarly called Proud Preſton. It has a large market-place, and the ſtreets are open, wide, and well paved. On the neighbouring common are frequent horſe-races. Near it the duke of Hamilton, who came to reſcue Charles I. from impriſonment, was defeated in 1648; as were alſo the Engliſh rebels under general Foſter, on the twelfth of November, 1715.

Wiggan, a large well built town, ſeated on the river Douglas, a hundred and ninety-five miles from London, is inhabited by ſhop-keepers of almoſt all kinds, and has been noted for its manufacture of coverlets, rugs, and blankets.

Within a mile and a half of this town, ſays Dr. Gibſon, biſhop of London, is a well, which at firſt ſight does not appear to be a ſpring, but rather rain-water. There

There is nothing about it that ſeems extraordinary; but, upon emptying it, there preſently breaks out a ſulphureous vapour, which makes the water bubble up as if it boiled; a candle being put to it, it preſently takes fire, and burns like brandy; the flame in a calm ſeaſon will continue a whole day; by the heat of which you may boil eggs, meat, &c. though the water itſelf be cold: but by the bubbling the water does not increaſe; it being only kept in motion by the ſudden halitus of the vapours breaking out. The ſame water taken out of the well will not burn.

SECT. XLVI.

Of Cheſhire; its Situation, Extent, Diviſions, Repreſentatives, Air, Soil, Produce, Rivers, and principal Towns.

CHESHIRE is ſeparated on the north from Lancaſhire by the river Merſey, but juſt at the north-eaſt point it borders on Yorkſhire; on the eaſt it is bounded by Derbyſhire; on the ſouth-eaſt by Staffordſhire; on the ſouth by Shropſhire; on the weſt by Denbighſhire and Flintſhire, from which it is ſeparated by the Dee; and on the north-weſt it is waſhed by the Iriſh ſea, into which projects a peninſula about ſixteen miles in length, and ſeven in breadth, formed by the mouths of the Merſey and the Dee.

The whole county extends fifty miles in length and thirty-three in breadth, and is divided into ſeven hundreds, in which are contained thirteen market-towns, twenty vicarages, eighty-ſix pariſhes, ſix hundred and ſeventy villages, about twenty-four thouſand one hundred houſes, and a hundred and ſixty-four thouſand three hundred inhabitants. It lies in the dioceſe of Cheſter, and ſends only four members to parliament, namely, two for the county, and two for the city of Cheſter.

As this, as well as Lancaſhire, is a county palatine, it has a diſtinct government, which is adminiſtered by a chamberlain, a judge ſpecial, called chief-juſtice of Cheſhire, a puiſny judge, &c.

The air is temperately cold and very healthy; for the generality of the inhabitants live to a good old age. It is very rich in paſture and corn-land; but there are ſeveral heaths upon which horſes and ſheep feed. The country is generally level, and the extenſive paſtures with which it abounds feed a great number of cows, whoſe milk is peculiarly rich, and of which is made the excellent cheeſe well known by the name of Cheſhire; and ſuch quantities are made of it, that London alone is ſaid to take annually fourteen thouſand tons of it: vaſt quantities are alſo ſent to Briſtol, York, Scotland, Ireland, &c. However, a conſiderable quantity of what commonly goes by the name of Cheſhire cheeſe is made in Shropſhire, Staffordſhire, and Lancaſhire. This county alſo produces excellent ſalt, mill-ſtones little inferior to thoſe of France, fowl, fiſh, and metals.

The principal rivers of Cheſhire are the Merſey, which runs from the north-eaſt, and is the boundary between this county and Lancaſhire; the Wevel, which riſes in Shropſhire, and, after running about eighteen miles from ſouth to north, turns to the weſtward, and diſcharges itſelf into the mouth of the Merſey: the Dee, which riſes from two fountains in Wales, enters this county at Grafton, and running almoſt due north to Cheſter diſcharges itſelf by a very wide and extended mouth into the Iriſh ſea. It abounds with fine ſalmon and trout. The principal towns in Cheſhire are the following:

Cheſter is a very ancient city, a hundred and eighty-two miles north-weſt of London. It is of a quadrangular form, and the walls which ſurround it are two miles in circumference, affording a pleaſant walk, with very agreeable proſpects. The city is ſquare, and the ſtreets which croſs each other at right angles are bounded by four gates, which anſwer the four cardinal points, of which the eaſt gate in particular is very ſtately. It is remarkable that all the principal ſtreets have a kind of piazza over the ground-floor, in which are the tradeſmen's ſhops: theſe afford ſhelter from the rain, and at the end of every ſtreet is a flight of ſteps to aſcend to the piazza. Here is a ſtrong caſtle on the ſouth ſide of the city, in which is the county-hall, where all cauſes belonging to the county palatine are determined. The exchange is a neat building, ſupported by columns thirteen feet high, each of one ſtone, and over it is the city-hall. Here is a ſtrong ſtone bridge over the Dee, which extends into Wales, and by it is a handſome water-houſe. Cheſter has ten pariſh-churches, beſides the cathedral, which is a pile venerable for its antiquity; but is in no extraordinary condition. It is governed by a mayor, two ſheriffs, and twenty-four aldermen. It was formerly a harbour for ſhips; but ſuch vaſt quantities of ſand have been thrown up by the ſea, that the river would hardly float a ſmall bark up to the city. Great pains have, however, been taken to remedy this inconvenience, and the inhabitants have cut a canal of near ten miles in length at a very great expence, through which ſhips of conſiderable burthen may come to Cheſter. This city gives title of earl to his royal highneſs the prince of Wales.

Nantwich, or Namptwich, is ſeated on the banks of the river Wever, which runs through the middle of it, and is a large town, a hundred and ſixty-two miles from London. The pariſh church is a ſpacious and beautiful ſtructure, with a ſteeple in the middle of it. The town is well built, and the ſtreets make a handſome appearance. The inhabitants are rich, and carry on a good trade, particularly in ſalt and cheeſe; the latter exceeding all that is made in the county from the excellency of the ſoil. Here are ſalt ſprings which lie on the banks of a freſh water ſtream, of which they make great quantities of white ſalt. The water brought from the ſalt ſprings to the wich-houſes, as they are called, by troughs, are received into large caſks ſet in the ground; from hence it is put into the leads, and a fire made for keeping it warm, during which women with wooden rakes gather it as it ſettles to the bottom. After this it is put into ſalt-barrows, a kind of wicker-baſkets, in the ſhape of a ſugar-loaf reverſed, that the water may drop from it and leave the ſalt dry.

Middlewich, which ſtands between Nantwich and Northwich, likewiſe takes its name from its wich-houſes, and is alſo a large market-town, with a ſpacious church: it is ſeated on the river Croke, a hundred and fifty-ſix miles from London; has two excellent ſalt ſprings, and is chiefly noted for making ſalt.

Northwich is likewiſe famous for the ſame ſprings, and is ſeated a hundred and fifty-nine miles from London. About the end of the laſt century was diſcovered on the ſouth ſide of the town rock-ſalt, which they ſtill continue to dig up and ſend in great lumps to the maritime ports, where it is diſſolved and made into common ſalt. The ſalt mines here are very curious; they deſcend into them by a bucket a hundred and fifty feet below the ſurface of the earth, where the mine looks like a cathedral, ſupported by rows of pillars, and the roof that reſembles cryſtal all of the ſame rock, tranſparent and glittering from the numerous candles of the workmen labouring with their pick-axes, in digging it away. This rock-work extends ſeveral acres. The church of Northwich is a handſome building, with a fine roof and a ſemi-circular choir.

Macclesfield is a large handſome town, ſeated at the edge of a foreſt of the ſame name, near the river Bollin, a hundred and fifty-one miles from London: it has a good church, with a high ſpire, and a college adjoining to it, and alſo a good free-ſchool. It has manufactures of hat-bands, twiſt, and mohair-buttons; and ſome years ago ſeveral ſmall ſilk-mills have been erected here after the model of that of Derby. This town gives title of earl to the noble family of Parker.

We have now gone through our deſcription of England; but, before we proceed to Wales, ſhall give an account of the Iſle of Man, which lies oppoſite to the coaſt of Weſtmoreland and Lancaſhire.

SECT. XLVII.

The Isle of Man.

Its Situation, Extent, Climate, and Produce. The Manners, Language, and Government of the Inhabitants; their Religion and Trade; with a concise Description of the little Islands situated on its Coast.

THE Isle of Man, which Cæsar calls Mona, is situated between England and Ireland, at almost an equal distance from each, and lies between the fifty-third degree fifty-three minutes and the fifty-fourth degree twenty-five minutes north latitude, and in the fourth degree thirty minutes west longitude. It is about thirty miles in length from north to south; in the widest part not above fifteen broad nor less than eight in the narrowest. It is entirely surrounded with rocks, and consequently has a very dangerous coast.

The soil is very different; the limestone ground to the south is as good as any in England; but the mountains are cold and less fruitful. These mountains extend in a ridge almost the whole length of the island, and supply the inhabitants quite round with exceeding good water and excellent peat for fuel. Snafield, the highest of these mountains, rises at least five hundred and eighty yards above the level of the sea, and from thence is a fine prospect of England, Ireland, Scotland, and Wales.

The air is cold and sharp in winter; but where they have shelter it is as mild as in Lancashire, the frosts being short, and the snow never lying long on the ground, especially near the sea. They have no coal-pits; but good quarries of black marble, and other stones for building. They have likewise mines of lead, copper, and iron. The orchards and gardens produce as good fruit, roots, and vegetables, as any in the neighbouring countries.

The horned cattle are generally less than those of England, and the gentlemen have good draught and saddle horses; but there is a very small sort bred in the mountains three feet some inches high, which are very handsome, and run with great swiftness. Here is also a breed of small swine, which run wild in the mountains; these and the wild sheep are esteemed excellent meat. They have no badgers, foxes, otters, moles, hedgehogs, snakes, or any other noxious animals.

The number of inhabitants, besides strangers, amount to about twenty thousand. They are an orderly civilized people, very charitable to the poor, and hospitable to strangers. Their language, which is called the Manks, is a dialect of that spoken in the western isles of Scotland, with a mixture of some Greek, Latin, and Welsh words.

In their habit and manner of living they imitate the English, only the poorer sort wear a kind of sandals made of untanned leather, they being cross-laced from the toe to the instep. Oat-cakes are their common bread. They have mills both for grinding of corn or fulling of cloth. Their staple commodities are wool, hides, and tallow; and they are extremely well situated for a foreign trade.

The island is, in civil concerns, divided into six sheadings, and every sheading has its proper coroner, who is in the nature of a sheriff, and is intrusted with the peace of his district, secures criminals, and brings them to justice. The legislative power is lodged in twenty-four keys, so called from their unlocking, as it were, or solving the difficulties of the law. These represent the commons, and join with the lords court in making all new laws, and with the deemsters or judges in settling and determining the meaning of the ancient laws and customs in all difficult cases. The deemsters are two in number, these are judges in cases of common law, and of life and death; but such controversies as are too trivial to be brought before a court, are dispatched at their houses.

The bishop of Man is suffragan to the archbishop of York, and stiled bishop of Sodor and Man; the former being a bishopric in the western island of Jona, or St. Columbus, commonly called Columb-kyle; but the bishop is a baron of the isle, and has his own courts for his temporalities, in which one of the deemsters sits as judge; but he has no seat in the house of lords. The religion and worship is exactly the same with that of the church of England. The clergy meet in convocation at least once a year, on Thursday in Whitsun-week, and they are dignified with the title of Sir before their Christian names. There are here seventeen parish-churches, and four chapels; with four market-towns.

Douglas is the richest and most populous town of the island. The harbour for ships of tolerable burthen is extremely safe, and has a fine mole which runs out into the sea, which renders this one of the best harbours in any part of the three kingdoms.

The island has been successively inhabited by the Britons, Scotch, and Norwegians; but at last became subject to England, about the close of the reign of king Edward I. or the beginning of that of Edward II. King Henry IV. granted the island, together with the patronage of the bishopric, to Sir John Stanley, and his heirs, in which family it continued, till by marriage it came from the earl of Derby to the duke of Athol, in Scotland, who was stiled king in Man.

Its trade was very great before the year 1726; but the late lord Derby farming out his customs to foreigners, the insolence of those farmers drew on the island the resentment of the government of England, who by an act of parliament deprived the inhabitants of a fair trade with this kingdom. This naturally introduced a clandestine commerce, which they carried on with England and Ireland with prodigious success, and an immense quantity of foreign goods was annually run into both kingdoms, till the government, in 1765, thought proper to put an entire stop to it, by purchasing of the duke of Athol the customs of the island, and permitting a free trade with England.

On the little isle of Peele, on the west side of Man, is a town of the same name, with a fortified castle.

Before the south promontory of Man, is a little island called the Calf of Man: it is about three miles in circuit, and separated from Man by a channel about two furlongs broad. At one time of the year it abounds with puffins, and also with a species of ducks and drakes, by the English called barnacles, and by the Scots clakes and soland geese. The puffins 'tis said, breed in the holes of the rabbits, which for that time leave them to these strangers. The old ones, says our author, leave the young ones all day, and fly to the sea, and returning late at night with their prey, disgorge it into the stomachs of their young; by which means they become almost an entire lump of fat. In August, they are hunted as it is called, and no less than five thousand of these young ones are generally taken every year; these are mostly eaten on the island, but many of them are pickled, and sent abroad as presents. About the rocks of this island also breed an incredible number of all sorts of sea fowl.

SECT. XLVIII.

Of Wales.

Of this Country in general; with an Account of Flintshire; its Situation, Extent, Air, Soil, Produce, Rivers, and principal Towns.

WE are now come to Wales, an extensive and mountainous country, separated from England by a range of almost inaccessible mountains, which to the ancient inhabitants of Britain seemed formed by nature as bulwarks for the defence of liberty. Thither therefore those Britains retired, who, finding resistance ineffectual, disdained to submit to the Romans, and thither they were followed by their countrymen, who were afterwards unable to oppose the victorious arms of the Saxons. Thus these barren mountains became the asylum of liberty, and were inhabited by the brave, who for the sake of that invaluable blessing, liberty, preferred them to their native possessions in the fertile plains of England.

By this means they have preserved their race, who still speak the same language, have the same tempers and

diſpoſitions, and laugh at a pedigree that can be traced no higher than William the Conqueror.

The Saxons gave the country the name of Wallia, and the people that of Welſh, terms by which they uſed to denote nations and countries, that appeared to them ſtrange and unknown. Hence the people themſelves, who are unacquainted with the Engliſh, know not that their country is called Wales; or themſelves or their language termed Welſh; but inſtead of Wales uſe the word Cycary, or the antient country, and call the language Cymeraeg. However, people in affluent circumſtances, and thoſe who keep inns on the public roads, generally ſpeak Engliſh.

It was anciently bounded on all ſides by the Severn and Dee, till the Saxons made themſelves maſters of all the plain country over theſe rivers, and Offa, king of Mercia, made a great ditch, as the boundary between his kingdom and Wales. The kings of England alſo, after the conqueſt, obliged the inhabitants to retire farther weſtward, and to ſecure themſelves among the mountains. They enjoyed their own laws, lived under their own princes, and maintained their liberties againſt all the attempts of the Engliſh, till in 1282, Llewellin ap Griffith, prince of Wales, loſt his life, in a battle obtained by Edward I. and afterwards ſending his queen, who was pregnant, to Caernarvon, where ſhe was ſafely delivered, ſummoned a meeting of the Welſh lords, and proffered them the young child, a native of their own country, for their lord and governor, they readily ſwore obedience to him, and ſince that time the king's eldeſt ſon has been created prince of Wales.

This country is at preſent divideſt into twelve counties, which, beginning at the north-eaſt are Flintſhire, Denbighſhire, Caernarvon, Angleſey, Merionethſhire, and Montgomeryſhire, called North-Wales; Radnorſhire, Cardiganſhire, Pembrokeſhire, Caermarthenſhire, Brecknockſhire, and Glamorganſhire, termed South-Wales.

Flintſhire, is bounded on the North by an arm of the ſea, which is properly the mouth of the river Dee; on the eaſt by Cheſhire, on the ſouth by Shropſhire, and on the ſouth-weſt and weſt by Denbighſhire. It is twenty-nine miles in length, and eighteen in breadth, and is divided into five hundreds, in which are one market-town, twenty-eight pariſhes, about five thouſand four hundred houſes, and thirty-two thouſand four hundred inhabitants. The greateſt part of this county lies in the dioceſe of St. Aſaph, and the reſt belongs to that of Cheſter. It ſends two members to parliament, one for the county, and one for Flint.

The air is cold but healthful, it is full of hills, intermixed with a few valleys, which are very fruitful, producing ſome wheat, and great plenty of rye. The cows, though ſmall, yield a great quantity of milk, in proportion to their ſize, and are excellent beef. The mountains are well ſtored with lead, coal, and mill-ſtones. This county alſo produces good butter, cheeſe, and honey, of which laſt the natives make metheglin, a wholeſome liquor, much uſed in theſe parts.

The principal rivers are the Clwyd, the Wheeler, the Dee, the Sevion, the Elwy, and the Alen, which furniſh Flintſhire with great quantities of fiſh.

The principal towns in this county are the following.

St. Aſaph, an epiſcopal city, called by the Welſh Lhan Elwy, as being ſituated at the confluence of the river Elwy with the Clwyd, obtained its Engliſh name from Aſaph, a devout man, who was biſhop of this place. The town though ſeated in a pleaſant vale, and the ſee of a biſhop, is a poor ill built place, even without a weekly market; and the cathedral is far from being an elegant ſtructure: the town has a bridge over each of the rivers above mentioned.

Flint is ſituated near the river Dee, where is a ſmall harbour, one hundred and ninety-four miles from London; but notwithſtanding its advantageous ſituation for trade, it is a mean place, without any market. The aſſizes are generally held here, and the town is governed by a mayor, who is ſtiled governor of the caſtle, which now lies in ruins.

Holywell, a town ſeated twelve miles to the eaſt of St. Aſaph, and two hundred and twelve to the north-weſt of London, is famous for St. Winifred's-well, which is one of the fineſt ſprings in the world. It pours out ſuch a quantity of a water, that running in the middle of the town down the ſide of a hill, it is made uſe of by every houſe as it paſſes, after which it turns ſeveral mills. Over the ſpring, where there is a handſome bath, is a neat chapel, which ſtands upon pillars, and on the windows are painted the hiſtory of St. Winifred's life. About the well grow ſome moſs, which people fooliſhly imagine to be St. Winifred's hair. And as ſhe is reputed a virgin martyr, who they tell you being raviſhed and murdered, was interred here, on which this water ſprung out of her body when buried, the well is much frequented by popiſh pilgrims out of devotion, as well as by thoſe who come to bathe in it, for medicinal purpoſes. Almoſt all the houſes of the town are either let into lodgings, or public houſes, and the Romiſh prieſts who attend here are very numerous, and appear in diſguiſe.

Caerwis, the only market-town in the county, is ſeated five miles to the eaſt of St. Aſaph, on an aſcent, but is a ſmall place not worthy of a particular deſcription.

SECT. XLIX.

Of Denbighſhire; its Situation, Extent, Diviſions, Air, Soil, Produce, Rivers, and principal Towns.

DENBIGHSHIRE, is bounded on the eaſt by Flintſhire and Shropſhire, on the ſouth by Merionethſhire, on the weſt by Caernarvonſhire, and on the north by the Iriſh ſea. It extends thirty-nine miles in length, and fifteen in breadth. This county is divided into twelve hundreds, which contain four market-towns, fifty-ſeven pariſhes, about ſix thouſand four hundred houſes, and thirty-eight thouſand four hundred inhabitants. It is partly in the dioceſe of St. Aſaph; but the greateſt part of the vale of Clwyd is in the dioceſe of Bangor. It ſends two members to parliament, one for the county, and one for the borough of Denbigh.

The air of this county is very wholeſome, but ſharp, it being continually agitated by the winds which blow over the ſnowy tops of the mountains. The ſoil is various; for the famous vale of Clwyd is a fruitful, pleaſant, and delightful ſpot, ſaid to be equalled by few places in Europe, and takes up ſo great a part of the county, that it extends near ſeventeen miles from north to ſouth, and from eaſt to weſt about five. The eaſt ſide of the county is not very fertile, and the weſt is in a manner entirely barren. The inhabitants generally live to a great age, and thoſe who dwell in the above vale are remarkable for retaining great vivacity to the longeſt period of life. The chief commodities this county affords are lead, horned cattle, ſheep, goats, fiſh, and fowl.

The valleys are well watered by rivers; the Clwyd riſes in the middle of the county, and taking a compaſs to the ſouth-eaſt, then turns to the northward, and having entered Flintſhire falls into the Iriſh ſea. The Elwy riſes in the ſouth-weſt edge of the county, and runs chiefly to the north and north-eaſt, till it enters Flintſhire, immediately after which it falls into the Clwyd. The Dee enters this county from Merionethſhire, and becomes the boundary between this county and Cheſhire. The Conway is the boundary between Denbighſhire and Caernarvonſhire.

The principal places in this county are the following:

Denbigh, the county town, is ſeated on the ſide of a rocky hill on a branch of the river Clwyd, twenty-ſeven miles to the weſt of Cheſter, and two hundred and nine to the north-weſt of London. It was formerly walled round, and ſecured by a caſtle, thought to be impregnable from its advantageous ſituation. It gives title of earl to the noble family of Fielding; it is governed by an alderman, two bailiffs, twenty-five capital burgeſſes, &c. Its market on Wedneſdays is plentifully ſupplied with corn, cattle, and other proviſions. The town is pretty large and populous, and a conſiderable trade is carried on by the tanners and glovers.

Wrexham, which is eſteemed the largeſt town in North Wales, is ſeated on a river that falls into the Dee, and has

has been much extolled on account of its church, the ſteeple of which has been much admired. It is indeed adorned with imagery; but the work is mean, and the ſtatues without fancy or ſpirit; and as the ſtone is of a red and crumbling kind, it is greatly diſfigured by time. The church is large; but they are much miſtaken who pretend that it is one of the fineſt in England. The town is well built and populous; and, beſides the church, there are two large meeting-houſes, in one of which, it is ſaid, they preach in Welſh one part of the day, and in Engliſh the other. There is here a conſiderable manufacture of flannel, which is ſent in large quantities from hence to London.

Ruthen is ſeated in the vale of Clwyd, ten miles to the ſouth-eaſt of Denbigh, and a hundred and ninety-nine north-weſt of London, and had once a large caſtle, which is now in ruins; it is a pretty large corporation town, well inhabited, and has an hoſpital and a free-ſchool.

SECT. L.

Of Caernarvonſhire; its Situation, Extent, Diviſions, Air, Soil, Produce, Mountains, Rivers, and principal Towns.

CAERNARVONSHIRE, or Carnarvonſhire, called by the Welſh Sir Gaernarvon, is bounded on the north by the Iriſh ſea, on the eaſt by Denbighſhire, on the ſouth-eaſt by Merionethſhire, and on the weſt and ſouth-weſt by Angleſey and the Iriſh ſea; extending fifteen miles in length, and thirteen in breadth. This county is divided into ten hundreds, in which are ſix market-towns, ſixty-eight pariſhes, about two thouſand ſeven hundred and ſeventy houſes, and upwards of ſixteen thouſand inhabitants. It is ſeated in the dioceſe of Bangor, and ſends only two members to parliament, one for the county, and one for Caernarvon.

The air is cold and piercing, which may be attributed to the ſnow, which, on many of the mountains, lie for nine or ten months in the year. The ſoil is particularly ſtony, and riſes in vaſt mountains one above another, from whence this county has not been improperly called the Engliſh Alps. The higheſt mountain, which is called Snowdon-hill, is boggy on the top, and has two lakes that abound with fiſh. The ſheep which feed on the ſides of this mountain yield the ſweeteſt mutton in Wales. The moſt remarkable mountain, next to that of Snowdon-hill, is Penman Mawr, which hangs perpendicularly over the ſea at ſo vaſt a height, that few ſpectators would be able to look down the dreadful ſteep. On the ſide next the ſea is a road cut out of the ſide of the rock, about ſix or ſeven feet wide, which winds up a ſteep aſcent, defended on one ſide by a ſlight wall, in ſome parts about a yard high, and in others by only a bank, that ſcarce riſes a foot above the road. The ſea is ſeen daſhing its waves forty fathoms below, and the mountain riſes as much above the traveller's head. This, dangerous and tremendous as it muſt appear, is the high road to Holy-head, over which the lord lieutenant of Ireland paſſes in his way to that port. Indeed the author of The Tour through Great Britain, ſays, there is no danger, it being every where defended by a wall; and another author ſays, it is breaſt high, but they are both miſtaken. This county is alſo remarkable for the great number of its lakes; and the continuator of Camden ſays, that there are here no leſs than fifty or ſixty of them. Between the hills are fruitful and pleaſant valleys, whoſe beauties are much heightened by the rude proſpects and dreary waſtes, with which they are encompaſſed. The principal commodities are the cattle, including ſheep and goats, wood, and plenty of fiſh both from the lakes and rivers, and lead, which is found in the mountains.

The principal river is the Conway, which parts Caernarvonſhire from Denbighſhire. It riſes from a lake where the three counties of Caernarvonſhire, Denbighſhire, and Merionethſhire join, and running northward falls into the Iriſh ſea at Aberconway. Here are many other ſmaller rivers, diſperſed in various parts of the country. The chief towns are the following:

Bangor is ſeated thirty-ſix miles to the weſt of St. Aſaph, and two hundred and thirty-ſix to the north-weſt of London: though the ſee of a biſhop, it is an old mean looking place; yet was ſo conſiderable in ancient times, that it was called Bangor the Great, and was defended by a ſtrong caſtle. It has a market on Wedneſdays, and its principal buildings are the cathedral and the biſhop's palace. The cathedral is by ſome thought to be the moſt ancient in Britain; but it now makes a very mean appearance: there is here alſo a free-ſchool. The town is governed by the biſhop's ſteward, who holds the courts.

Caernarvon borders on the ſea, by which, and two rivers, it is ſurrounded on all ſides, except the eaſt: it ſtands ſeven miles to the ſouth-weſt of Bangor, and two hundred and fifty-one to the north-weſt of London. It had a ſtrong caſtle, which is now in ruins, and has one pariſh-church; the houſes and ſtreets are tolerably handſome. The conſtable of the caſtle is always mayor of the town by his patent; beſides whom there is always an alderman, two bailiffs, a town-clerk, &c. It was built by king Edward I. to ſecure a paſſage into the iſle of Angleſey, and here was born king Edward II. the firſt Engliſh prince of Wales; here was likewiſe eſtabliſhed the chancery and exchequer for North Wales.

Abercon way, or Conway, is ſeated at the mouth of the river Conway, fifteen miles to the north-weſt of Denbigh, and two hundred and nine from London. It is a large walled town, with a caſtle, and the houſes are tolerably well built. Near the town corn, timber, and oak-bark, are in great plenty; and they clear out at the cuſtom-houſe from eleven to twelve thouſand buſhels of grain every year. A vaſt body of marcaſite is found up the river, of which copperas is made; and it is thought that there are veins of copper ore near it. This town was formerly famous for a pearl-fiſhery; but though there are ſtill plenty of pearl-muſcles, they are neglected. Here is one church, in which they preach one Sunday in Engliſh, and the other in Welſh; it has a remarkable epitaph to the following purpoſe: "Here lieth the body of Ni-"cholas Hookes, of Conway, gent. who was the one "and fortieth child of his father, William Hookes, "Eſq; by Alice his mother, and the father of twenty-"ſeven children. He died the twentieth day of March, "1637."

SECT. LI.

Of the Iſle of Angleſey; its Situation, Extent, Diviſions, Air, Soil, Produce, Rivers, and principal Towns.

THE iſle of Angleſey, or Angleſea, the moſt weſtern county of North Wales, was called by the ancients Mona, and was the ſeat of the Druids; but being reduced by the Engliſh in the reign of Edward I. it received the name of Angleſey, or the Engliſh Iſland. It is ſurrounded on all ſides by the Iriſh ſea, except on the ſouth-eaſt, where it is divided from Britain by a narrow ſtreight called Meneu, which in ſome places may be paſſed on foot at low water. Its extent from Beaumaris on the eaſt to Holyhead on the weſt is twenty-four miles, and from Abermana's ferry on the ſouth to Lhanbaderig on the north, where broadeſt, is about ſeventeen.

It is divided into ſix hundreds, in which are two market-towns, two chaces, ſeventy-four pariſhes, eighteen hundred and forty houſes, and upwards of twelve thouſand perſons. According to Camden it formerly contained three hundred and ſixty-three villages. It lies in the dioceſe of Bangor, and ſends two members to parliament, one for the county, and one for Beaumaris.

It in general enjoys a pretty good air, except when it happens to be covered with the fogs and exhalations that ariſe from the ſea, which are apt to occaſion agues, eſpecially in autumn. The ſoil of Angleſey is much more fertile than one would imagine from its ſtony, rocky, and mountainous bottom. It particularly abounds in wheat, which is ſaid to be the beſt in all Wales, and likewiſe in cattle, fowl, and fiſh. From the mountains are dug mill-ſtones, and grindſtones. Near Kemlyn

harbour is a quarry of a beautiful marble, among which is found the aſbeſtos, called here ſalamanders wool; it is a ſubſtance like flax, and will bear a common fire without being conſumed. Not far from this is a yellow ſulphureous copper ore, and about three miles to the eaſtward is a vein of ſtony ochre of various colours, as red, yellow, and blue.

The principal rivers are the Brant, the Alow, and the Keveny. The firſt has its ſource on the eaſt ſide of the iſland, and runs moſtly ſouthward, till it falls into the Meneu. The Alow alſo riſes in this county, and, after ſeveral windings, falls into the Iriſh ſea. The Keveny iſſues from the high hills to the north of Coydana, and falls into the ſea, on the ſouth-weſt ſide of the iſland.

Among the antiquities of this iſland are two circles of ſtones, like thoſe of Stone-henge on Saliſbury-plain. This iſland gives the title of earl to the family of Anneſley.

Among the other popiſh cuſtoms ſtill retained in North Wales, it is here uſual, after morning ſervice on Sunday, for the people of a whole pariſh to go to foot-ball; and when the afternoon ſervice is done they go to the ale-houſe, which is frequently kept by the parſon of the pariſh, and there they play at all ſorts of games.

The principal place in this iſland is

Beaumaris, the county town, where all the public affairs of the iſland are tranſacted. It is ſeated on the eaſt ſide of Angleſey, nine miles to the north of Bangor, and two hundred and forty-one north-weſt of London. It was built by king Edward III. to ſecure his conqueſts here, who for that purpoſe began a caſtle; but it does not appear that it ever was finiſhed. The town receives its name from its ſtanding in a fine mooriſh plain. It is at preſent a populous place, in which the ſeſſions and county goal are kept. It has a good harbour for ſhipping; and as it lies in the direct road to Holyhead, this contributes to its trade, by the paſſengers who go through it in order to ſet ſail for Ireland; but, notwithſtanding its harbour, it has little or no foreign trade. It principally conſiſts of two handſome ſtreets, and has a church, in which are ſome fine monuments. The market, which is on Wedneſdays and Saturdays, is well furniſhed with proviſions. The corporation conſiſts of a mayor, a recorder, two bailiffs, who are alſo juſtices of the peace, and twenty-one burgeſſes.

Holyhead is ſeated twenty-four miles to the weſt of Beaumaris, and lies oppoſite to Dublin: from hence is the ſhorteſt and ſafeſt paſſage over St. George's channel, it being the moſt weſterly point of Angleſey. It is a little iſland of itſelf, joined to Angleſey by a ſtone bridge. It has a village called in the Welſh Kaer Gybi, which conſiſts of a few ſtraggling thatched houſes, built on the rock; yet ſeveral of them have good accommodations for travellers. The packet boats from Dublin arrive here three times a week, if the wind permits.

On the rocks grow the herb of which is made kelp, a fixed ſalt uſed in making glaſs and in alum-works. In the neighbourhood is a large vein of white fuller's-earth, and another of yellow, which might be of uſe to fullers. Large flocks of puffins are often ſeen here; they all come in one night, and depart in the ſame manner.

SECT. LII.

Of Merionethſhire; its Situation, Extent, Diviſions, Air, Soil, Produce, Rivers, and principal Towns.

MERIONETHSHIRE is bounded on the north by Caernarvonſhire and Denbighſhire; on the eaſt by Montgomeryſhire; on the weſt by St. George's Channel, or the Iriſh ſea; and on the ſouth by the river Dyffi, which parts it from Cardaganſhire; it extending forty-ſeven miles in length, and twenty-five in breadth.

This county is divided into ſix hundreds, in which are five market-towns, thirty-ſeven pariſhes, about two thouſand five hundred and ninety houſes, and ſeventeen thouſand one hundred inhabitants. It lies in the dioceſe of Bangor, and ſends one member to parliament, namely, a knight for the ſhire.

The air of Merionethſhire is very ſharp in winter, on account of its many high barren mountains. The ſoil is as bad as any in Wales, it being very rocky and mountainous. However, this county feeds large flocks of ſheep, many goats, and large herds of horned cattle, which find pretty good paſture in the valleys. Beſides theſe, among their other commodities may be reckoned Welſh cotton, deer, fowl, fiſh, and eſpecially herrings, which are taken on this coaſt in great plenty.

Some learned authors mention a ſurpriſing phænomenon, which they tell us this part of the country has ſometimes fatally experienced; this is a livid vapour ariſing from the ſea, which ſpreading itſelf on the land ſets fire to all combuſtibles in its way, as barns, ſtacks of hay and corn; after which the graſs and herbage being all blaſted by this peſtilential exhalation, a great mortality of cattle, ſheep, horſes, &c. generally enſued; but on firing a gun, upon ſeeing it approach, it is eaſily diſperſed. See the Philoſophical Tranſactions, and a deſcription of it in Camden's Addenda.

This county is watered by ſeveral rivers, the principal of which are the Dee, the Avon, and the Drurydh. The Dee has two ſpring-heads in the eaſtern part of the county, which being united, is ſuppoſed to run through the lake called Pimble-meer, without mixing its waters with thoſe of the lake; at leaſt the fiſh ſeem not to mingle; for it is ſaid, that though the Dee abounds with ſalmon, none are ever taken in the lake out of the ſtream of the river; nor does the Dee carry off any gwiniads, a fiſh peculiar to the lake, which reſembles the whiting, but taſtes like a trout. This river, after leaving the lake, runs by a north-eaſt courſe into Denbighſhire. The Avon riſes in Beroſe-wood, on the eaſt ſide of the county, and running moſtly ſouth-weſt, falls into St. George's Channel. The Drurydh iſſues from a lake in the north of Merionethſhire, and running to the ſouth-weſt, alſo falls into the Iriſh ſea.

Harlech, the principal town in this county, is ſeated on a ſteep rock on the ſea-ſhore, and is but a poor place, though it is the county town. It had formerly a ſtrong handſome caſtle, which had a garriſon for king Charles I. in the civil wars, on which account it was afterwards demoliſhed by the parliament. The town is governed by a mayor, and has a weekly market on Saturdays.

Dolgelly is ſeated at the foot of a great rock called Cader Idris, which is extremely high, a hundred and eighty-ſeven miles to the north-weſt of London, and is waſhed by the river Avon. It is but an ordinary town, and yet has not only a market on Tueſdays, but a conſiderable manufacture of Welſh cottons.

SECT. LIII.

Of Montgomeryſhire; its Situation, Extent, Diviſions, Air, Soil, Rivers, and principal Places.

MONTGOMERYSHIRE, the laſt county in North Wales, is called by the Welſh Sir Trevalwyn, and is bounded on the north by Merionethſhire and Denbighſhire; on the north-eaſt and eaſt by Shropſhire; on the ſouth by Radnorſhire and Cardiganſhire; and on the weſt by the laſt-mentioned county and part of Merionethſhire. It extends thirty-five miles in length, and thirty-four in breadth. This county is divided into ſeven hundreds, and contains ſix market-towns, ſixty-eight pariſhes, about five thouſand ſix hundred and ſixty houſes, and thirty-three thouſand nine hundred and ſixty inhabitants. It lies in the three ſeveral dioceſes of St. Aſaph, Bangor, and Hereford; but ſends only two members to parliament, one for the county, and one for the town of Montgomery.

The air is pleaſant and ſalubrious: but this county being extremely mountainous, is not very fertile, except in the vallies, which afford ſome corn, and plenty of paſture; however, the ſouth, ſouth-eaſt, and north eaſt parts being much more level, are extremely fruitful, eſpecially a pleaſant vale through which the Severn glides in beautiful meanders. This county has long been famous for an excellent breed of horſes, which are larger

here than in any other part of Wales. The county likewiſe abounds in horned cattle, fowl, fiſh, and corn.

It is watered by ſeveral ſmall ſtreams which fall into the Severn, a river that is the principal beauty of this county: its ſource is a ſmall lake on the vaſt mountain of Plinlymmon, and in its courſe receives ſo many ſmall ſtreams, that it becomes navigable before it leaves the county. The rivers Rhydel and Wye have their ſources on the ſame mountain: but theſe laſt ſoon leave Montgomeryſhire. The Tenat riſes towards the north-weſt ſide of the county, and running eaſtward, forms part of the northern boundary between Montgomeryſhire and Denbighſhire; falling into the Severn at the north-eaſt point of the county. The Turgh riſes on the weſt ſide of Montgomeryſhire, and running eaſtward till it reaches the foot of Mount Golway, turns to the north, and, after receiving the Wurway, falls into the Tanat.

Montgomery, the county town, is pleaſantly ſeated in a fertile ſoil, and a healthful air, on the aſcent of a hill, twenty-four miles to the ſouth of Shrewſbury, and about a hundred and ſixty-eight to the north-weſt of London; it had once a caſtle, which was demoliſhed in the civil wars; but it at preſent contains only about a hundred houſes, and has a market on Tueſdays.

Welſhpool is ſeated in a rich vale on the bank of the Severn, ſeven miles to the north of Montgomery, and a hundred ſeventy-ſix to the north-weſt of London. It is the largeſt and beſt town of the county, and has a very good trade. The market is conſiderable for cattle, proviſions and flannels. The caſtle, now called Powis-court, is built of a reddiſh ſtone, and is a large ſtately ſtructure.

SECT. LIV.

Of Radnorſhire; its Situation, Extent, Diviſions, Air, Soil, Produce, Rivers, and principal Towns.

WE now come to South Wales, and ſhall begin with Radnorſhire, called by the Welſh Sir Vaes y Ved. It is bounded on the north by Montgomeryſhire, on the eaſt by Shropſhire and Herefordſhire, on the ſouth and ſouth-weſt by Brecknockſhire, and on the weſt by Cardiganſhire; extending thirty miles in length, and twenty-five in breadth.

This county is divided into ſix hundreds, in which are contained four market-towns, fifty-two pariſhes, about three thouſand one hundred and ſixty houſes, and eighteen thouſand nine hundred and ſixty inhabitants. It is ſeated in the dioceſe of Hereford, and ſends two members to parliament, one for the county, and one for the town of Radnor.

The air of this county is in winter cold and piercing. The ſoil in general is but indifferent; yet ſome places produce corn, particularly the eaſtern and ſouthern parts; but in the northern and weſtern, which are mountainous, the land is chiefly ſtocked with horned cattle, ſheep, and goats.

With reſpect to the rivers of Radnorſhire; beſides the Tame, or Temd, which, on the north-eaſt, divides this county from Shropſhire, and the Wye, which waters the weſt ſide, it has the Ithon, which riſes in the northern borders of the county, forming its winding courſe to the ſouthward, and, after having received ſeveral rivulets, falls into the Wye. Several other ſmall rivers riſe in the middle of the county, and run into Shropſhire and Herefordſhire; by which means this county is ſupplied with plenty of fiſh.

The principal towns in this county are the following:

Radnor, the county town, is ſeated near the ſpring-head of the little river Somergil, a hundred and forty-nine miles to the weſt-north-weſt of London. It ſtands in a pleaſant valley at the foot of a hill, where a caſtle formerly ſtood, which was deſtroyed by Owen Glendour, when, upon the depoſition of Richard II. he aſſumed the title of prince of Wales. The town is governed by a bailiff and twenty-five burgeſſes, and has a court of pleas for all actions, without being limited to any particular ſum; yet the aſſizes are not held here, nor has the town a market.

Preſteign is ſeated in a rich and pleaſant valley, a hundred and forty-nine miles from London, and is a handſome town, with regular well built ſtreets. It has ſeveral convenient inns, and its market is remarkable for barley, of which a great deal of malt is made. Here the aſſizes are held, and the county jail is kept.

SECT. LV.

Of Cardiganſhire; its Situation, Extent, Diviſions, Air, Soil, and principal Towns.

CARDIGANSHIRE, called by the Welſh Sir Aberteivy, is bounded on the north by a ſmall part of Merionethſhire and Montgomeryſhire, on the eaſt by Radnorſhire and Brecknockſhire, on the ſouth by Caermarthenſhire and a ſmall part of Pembrokeſhire, and on the weſt by Cardigan bay in St. George's Channel. It extends forty-two miles in length and twenty in breadth, and is divided into five hundreds, which contain four market-towns, ſixty-four pariſhes, about three thouſand one hundred and ſixty houſes, and thirty-five thouſand three hundred inhabitants. It lies in the dioceſe of St. David's, and ſends two members to parliament, one for the county, and one for the town of Cardigan.

The air is milder here than in moſt part of Wales. To the ſouth and weſt are plains fruitful in corn; but the northern and eaſtern parts are a continued ridge of mountains, which, compared with the reſt, are bleak and barren: yet in the worſt parts of this county there are paſtures in which are bred flocks of ſheep, and large herds of cattle. Here is alſo plenty of tame and wild fowl: alſo near the rivers are found great numbers of otters. In the valleys are ſeveral lakes, and this country is well ſupplied with ſea and river fiſh. However, coals and other fuel are ſcarce; but the mountains abound with veins of lead and ſilver ore; a ton of which laſt will yield ſeventy or eighty ounces of ſilver. The mines have been worked ſeveral times to great advantage; and particularly Sir Hugh Middleton is ſaid to have cleared two thouſand pounds a month, for ſeveral years together, which enabled him to bring the New River water to London: however, ſome private adventurers have attempted to work them, but have failed for want of a ſufficient capital.

The principal rivers are the Teivy, which riſes from a lake of the ſame name, at the foot of the mountains on the eaſtern edge of Cardiganſhire: at firſt it wanders, loſt, as it were, among the rocks and ſtones with which this part of the country abounds, till beginning to have a regular channel, it runs to the ſouth-weſt, and falls into St. George's channel below Cardigan. This river is famous for its great plenty of excellent ſalmon, and for its abounding with otters. The Rydal has its ſpring on the ſouth-weſt ſide of Plinlymmon mountain, and runs ſouth and ſouth-weſt, till it falls into St. George's channel, jointly with the Iſtwyth, which riſes beyond the lead mines on the north-eaſt ſide of Cardiganſhire.

Cardigan, the principal town, is called by the Welch, Abertievy, from its being ſituated at the mouth of the Tievy, it is ſeated one hundred and ninety eight miles to the weſt-north-weſt of London, and is a large, ancient, and populous borough, with a good ſtone bridge over the river leading into Pembrokeſhire. The tide flows up to the town, and the chief trade of the inhabitants is to Ireland, to which, and other parts, they export lead. Cardigan was once defended by walls and a caſtle, but they are in ruins. It gives title of earl to a branch of the noble family of Montagu. The town is governed by a mayor and aldermen; here the county buſineſs is tranſacted, and the aſſizes held. The church is a handſome ſtructure, as is alſo the town-hall

Aberiſtwyth, a populous town ſeated on the river Rydal, near the place where it falls into the mouth of the river Iſtwyth, thirty miles to the north-eaſt of Cardigan, and one hundred and ninety-nine to the weſt-north weſt of London. It is but a poor town, conſiſting

conſiſting of about a hundred houſes; yet has a conſiderable maket on Mondays. It had formerly a caſtle and walls; but they have long ſince been decayed.

SECT. LVI.

Of Pembrokeſhire, its Situation, Extent, Diviſions, Air, Soil, Produce, Rivers, and principal Towns.

PEMBROKESHIRE, called by the Welch Penbroſhire, is bounded on the north-eaſt by Cardiganſhire; on the eaſt by Caermarthenſhire; on the ſouth by the mouth of Briſtol channel; and on the weſt and north by St. George's channel; extending thirty-ſeven miles in length and eighteen in breadth.

This county is divided into ſeven hundreds, which contains one city, nine market towns, one hundred and forty three pariſhes; about four thouſand three hundred houſes, and twenty-five thouſand nine hundred inhabitants. It lies in the dioceſe of St. David's, and ſends three members to parliament, one for the county, one for Haverford-weſt, and another for Pembroke.

The air is better than is generally experienced in countries ſo much expoſed to the ſea. The ſoil is fertile: its few mountains, which are chiefly in the north-eaſt part, yield pretty good paſture for cattle, and the parts near the ſea afford plenty of good corn, and rich meadows. It likewiſe abounds in goats, and fowl, particularly in excellent faulcons, in fiſh, and in pit-coal.

It is well watered with rivers; for beſides the Teivy, which parts it from Caermarthenſhire, are the Clethy, which riſes at the foot of Wrenywaur hill, and running ſouthward, joins the Dougledye. This laſt has its ſource near the middle of the county, and running towards the ſouth-weſt, joins the Cledhewen, after which, turning towards the ſouth-weſt, and paſſing by Haverford-weſt, it at length receives the Clethy, and at laſt falls into Milford-haven.

The principal places in this county are, St. David's, a city which ſtands on the moſt weſtern promontory of all Wales, two hundred and ſeventy miles from London. It was not at firſt an epiſcopal ſee; but afterwards in the reign of king Arthur, became the metropolitan of all the churches in Wales, and thus continued till the reign of Henry I. when it became ſuffragan to the ſee of Canterbury. It was once a conſiderable city defended by walls; but theſe are demoliſhed, and it is at preſent a ſmall town thinly inhabited, without ſo much as a market. The cathedral is the remains of a venerable building; the weſt end which contains the choir, is ſtill in good repair; but the eaſt end has ſuffered ſo much from time and neglect, that the roof has fallen in.

From the point of land on which St. David's ſtands, may be diſtinguiſhed in a clear day, the coaſt of Ireland, though it is near forty miles diſtant. Before this point lie ſeveral dangerous rocks called the Biſhop and his Clerks, on which many ſhips have been loſt. Near theſe is a little iſland named Ramſey, two miles in length, and a mile and a half in breadth.

Haverford-weſt is commodiouſly ſeated on the river Dougledye, over which is a ſtone bridge, fifteen miles ſouth-by-eaſt of St. David's, and two hundred and ſixty-nine miles to the weſtward of London: is a large handſome place, with ſeveral good houſes, and contains three pariſh churches, among which St. Mary's is a neat building, with a high ſpire. There is alſo a fourth church in the out parts. Haverford has a conſiderable trade and ſeveral ſhips belonging to it. It had formerly a wall and a caſtle, which are now demoliſhed. The aſſizes and county jail are kept here, and it is governed by a mayor, alderman, and twenty-four common council; it has alſo a ſheriff, a town clerk. two bailiffs, ſerjeants at mace, and other officers. The town and neighbourhood abound with gentry, who in politeneſs emulate Caermarthen, as that now does Haverford-weſt for trade and merchandize. There is here a free-ſchool, a charity-ſchool for boys and girls, and an alms-houſe.

Milford-haven, on which this town ſtands, is a large, ſafe, and moſt commodious harbour, capable of containing a thouſand ſhips at one time, without any danger of their running foul of each other. It has thirteen roads, ſixteen creeks, and five bays, all of which have their particular names; and it has ſeveral years been improving and fortifying by order of the government, conſiderable ſums having been granted by parliament for that purpoſe. The entrance into it may be known by three ſmall iſlands on the north-weſt, all in ſight, and the iſle of Lundy on the ſouth-eaſt.

Pembroke, the county town, is commodiouſly, ſeated on the innermoſt creek of Milford-haven, over two branches of which there are two handſome bridges. It ſtands two hundred and fourteen miles to the weſtward of London, and is ſurrounded with a wall which has three gates, and is alſo defended by a ſtrong caſtle ſeated on a rock. It is well built and has two churches, as it is happily ſituated for commerce, the inhabitants carry on an extenſive trade, and employ near two hundred ſhips on their own account; and beſides merchants, ſeveral other conſiderable families reſide there. It gives the title of earl to the noble family of Herbert, and is governed by a mayor and aldermen.

SECT. LVII.

Of Caermarthenſhire; its Situation, Extent, Diviſions, Air, Soil, Produce, Rivers, and a Deſcription of Caermarthen.

CAERMARTHENSHIRE or Carmarthenſhire is bounded on the north by Cardiganſhire; on the eaſt by Brecknockſhire, and Glamorganſhire; on the ſouth by St. George's channel; and on the weſt by Pembrokeſhire; extending forty-eight miles in length and twenty-five in breadth. It is divided into ſix hundreds, in which are contained eight market towns, one hundred and forty-five pariſhes, about five thouſand three hundered and fifty houſes, and ſeventeen thouſand inhabitants. It lies in the dioceſe of St. David's, and ſends two members to parliament, one for the county, and the other for the town of Caermarthen.

The air is generally eſteemed ſalutary, and more mild in winter than in moſt of the neighbouring counties. As the land is leſs incumbered with rocks and mountains than the other parts of Wales, it is more fertile; it produces great plenty of corn and graſs, and the rich meadows feed very fine cattle. This county alſo abounds in wood, pit coal, fowl, and fiſh, eſpecially ſalmon, which is remarkably good here.

The principal rivers are the Toway, which riſes in Cardiganſhire, and entering the north-eaſt ſide of this county, runs ſouth and ſouth-weſt, and at length falls into Briſtol-channel. The Cotley riſes near the north borders of Caermarthenſhire, and running moſtly ſouthward joins the Toway. The Tave, or Teivy, riſes in Cardiganſhire, but ſoon becomes the boundary between that county and Caermarthenſhire, till being joined by the little river Keach, it parts Cardiganſhire and Pembrokeſhire.

Caermarthen, or Carmarthen, the county town, is pleaſantly ſeated, on the banks of the Toway, two hundred and fifty-one miles to the north weſt of London. The town is well built, populous, and daily encreaſing. Hither the gentry of South Wales chiefly reſort, invited by its pleaſing ſituation, handſome buildings, and the plays and aſſemblies held here. It has a convenient quay for the lading and unlading of goods, and a handſome ſtone bridge over the river; but the inhabitants ſuffer from the ſands thrown up by the ſea in the mouth of the harbour. The town is governed by a mayor, two ſheriffs, choſen out of the ſixteen aldermen, a recorder, &c. who on ſolemn days appear in their ſcarlet gowns, with the ſword, cap of maintenance, and two maces. It was once fortified with a wall and a ſtrong caſtle, and at preſent gives title of marquis to the duke of Leeds, of the name of Oſborne.

This was the birth-place of Merlin, the ancient Britiſh prophet, who flouriſhed in 480, and about a mile from the town, by the road ſide, almoſt oppoſite to the biſhop of St. David's palace, is Merlin's grove. The

people in and about this town are reckoned the wealthieſt and politeſt in all Wales.

SECT. LVIII.

Of Brecknockſhire; its Name, Situation, Extent, Diviſions, Air, Soil, Produce, Rivers, and principal Towns.

THIS county is called by the Welſh Breckiniauc, which the Engliſh have changed to Brecknock. The Welch name has been derived by ſome authors from Brechimus, a Britiſh prince famous for his twenty-four daughters, who, from the ſanctity of their lives, were after their death eſteemed ſaints. It is bounded on the north by Radnorſhire, on the eaſt by Herefordſhire, on the ſouth by Glamorganſhire, and on the weſt by Caermarthenſhire and Cardiganſhire, extending thirty-nine miles in length, and twenty-ſeven in breadth.

This county is divided into ſix hundreds, and contains four market-towns, ſixty-one pariſhes, and about thirty-five thouſand three hundred inhabitants. It lies in the dioceſe of St. David's, and ſends two members to parliament, one for the county, and one for Brecknock.

The air of this county, except on the mountains, is remarkably mild. It is indeed extremely mountainous, which renders travelling through it ſo diſagreeable and dangerous, that the Engliſh who ride through it, ludicrouſly, but not very improperly, call it Break-neck-ſhire; however, towards Radnorſhire it is ſomewhat more low and level. The air on the mountains is, during the winter, extremely ſharp, but ſalubrious. The valleys produce plenty of corn, and from the mountains great herds of cows and oxen are brought to England; this county alſo produces goats, ſome veniſon, and plenty of fowl.

The principal rivers in Brecknockſhire are, the Uſk, which riſes from a ſpring on the ſide of the Black-mountain, on the ſouth-weſt borders of the county, and running firſt to the north, and then to the eaſt, paſſes into Monmouthſhire. The Wye is the north-eaſt boundary between this county and Radnorſhire, after which it enters Herefordſhire. The Irvon riſes among the mountains on the north-weſt, and running firſt to the ſouthward, and then to the north-eaſt, falls into the Wye. Both theſe and the ſmaller rivers, are well ſtored with fiſh, particularly the Uſk and the Wye, which abound with ſalmon and trout.

We ought not here to omit Brecknock-meer, a lake in the middle of the county, between two and three miles over, ſo full of fiſh, that the inhabitants commonly ſay, that there are only two thirds of water to one of fiſh.

We ſhall now give a conciſe deſcription of the chief towns of this county.

Brecon, or Brecknock, the capital of the county, is called by the Welch Aber-Hodney, it being ſeated at the confluence of the Hodney and the Uſk, one hundred and ſixty-one miles to the weſtward of London. It is an ancient and large town, containing three churches, one of which is collegiate, and ſtands at the weſt end. The houſes are well built, it has a good ſtone bridge, and it had formerly a wall with three gates, and a ſtately caſtle. The aſſizes are kept here, and it has a pretty good trade in woollen manufactures. It has a market on Saturdays, which is well ſupplied with corn, cattle, and proviſions.

It is governed by two bailiffs, fifteen aldermen, two chamberlains, two conſtables, and a town-clerk.

Bealt, Bealth, or Builth, is pleaſantly ſeated in a woody country, on the banks of the river Wye, ſixteen miles to the north of Brecknock, and has a wooden bridge over the river, leading into Radnorſhire. The inhabitants are chiefly employed in the ſtocking manufacture. The market is well ſupplied with cattle on Mondays, and on Saturdays with corn, and all ſorts of proviſions.

Hay, called by the Welch, Treghelly, is ſeated on the Wye, near the borders of Herefordſhire, one hundred and thirty-four miles to the weſtward of London, and is a pretty good town, with a market on Mondays, well ſupplied with proviſions.

SECT. LIX.

Of Glamorganſhire; its Situation, Extent, Diviſions, Air, Soil, Produce, Rivers, and principal Towns.

GLAMORGANSHIRE, the laſt county in Wales we have now to deſcribe, is bounded on the north by Brecknockſhire, on the eaſt by Monmouthſhire, on the ſouth by Briſtol-channel, and on the weſt by that channel and Caermarthenſhire, extending twenty-ſeven miles in length, and twenty-five in breadth.

It is divided into ten hundreds, in which are contained nine market-towns, one hundred and eighteen pariſhes, twenty-five caſtles, about ten thouſand houſes, and fifty-eight thouſand inhabitants. It lies in the dioceſe of Landaff, and ſends two members to parliament, one for the county, and one for the town of Cardiff.

On the north ſide of this county, where it is mountainous, the long continuance of the ſnow renders the air ſharp; but the country being more level on the ſouth ſide, it is milder, more populous, and bears very large crops of corn, with very ſweet graſs; whence it is called the Garden of Wales. Cattle abound in all parts, there being fruitful valleys among the mountains, that yield very good paſture. Its other commodities are lead, coals, butter, and fiſh.

The principal rivers of this county are the Avon, which riſes among the mountains in the north of Glamorganſhire, and falls into Briſtol-channel. The Rumney, which riſes in Brecknockſhire, but ſoon entering this county, is the boundary between it and Monmouthſhire, and falls into the mouth of the Severn. The Taff, Taffe, or Tave, which alſo riſes in Brecknockſhire, and runs near the eaſtern ſide of Glamorganſhire, to the mouth of the Severn. The Ogmore riſes from a ſpring in the northern borders of this county, and running to the ſouthward, through the middle of Glamorganſhire, falls into Briſtol-channel. The Tavye riſes at the foot of the Black-mountain in Brecknockſhire, and entering this county at the north-weſt, runs moſtly ſouthward, till it enters Briſtol-channel at Swanſey. Theſe, with the many rivulets running into them, render this county ſo fertile, and at the ſame time ſupply the inhabitants with great variety of fiſh.

The principal places in this county are the following:

Landaff, is ſeated on an aſcent, by the river Tave, near Cardiff, one hundred and ſixty-three miles to the weſt of London: but though it is the ſee of a biſhop, and is therefore ſtiled a city, it has not ſo much as a market. The cathedral is however, a neat ancient building.

Cardiff, or Caerdiff, is ſeated on the river Tave, two miles to the ſouth of Landaff, and is a handſome, populous trading town. It has a caſtle, a wall, and four gates, with a bridge over the river. The neighbouring country is fruitful, and four miles below the town is a commodious haven in Briſtol-channel, from which ſmall veſſels may come up to the bridge. It contains two pariſhes, and about three hundred houſes, formed into broad paved ſtreets. The conſtable of the caſtle is chief magiſtrate, and called mayor, beſides whom there are a recorder, twelve aldermen, twelve common-council, two ſerjeants at mace, and eight conſtables. Here the aſſizes and ſeſſions for the county are held. The town carries on a conſiderable trade with Briſtol.

Caerfilly, or Caerphilly, is ſeated between the rivers Tave and Rumney, five miles to the north of Landaff. It ſtands in a mooriſh ground among the hills; and the many Roman coins dug up here, render it probable that the walls were built by the Romans. The caſtle is one of the nobleſt pieces of ruins in the whole iſland. It was larger than any caſtle in England, that of Windſor excepted; and from what remains of it, was extremely beautiful. One half of a round tower has fallen quite down, but the other over-hangs its baſis more than nine feet, and is as great a curioſity as the leaning tower of Piſa in Italy.

Neath, is ſeated on a river of the ſame name, over which there is a bridge, one hundred and ninety-five

miles to the weſtward of London. It is an ancient and pretty large town, governed by a portreve, who is ſworn in by the deputy conſtable of the caſtle of Neath. Small veſſels come to this town to load coals, which are here in great plenty. On the other ſide of the river are the ruins of a fine monaſtery; but a large ſtructure belonging to it is kept in good repair.

Swanſey is a ſea-port town, commodiouſly ſeated on the ſea-ſhore, near the mouth of the river Tavye, in the fifty-firſt degree forty minutes north latitude, and in the fourth degree five minutes weſt longitude. It is a large, clean, and well built town, governed by a portreve, a chief, twelve aldermen, two chamberlains, and ſixty or ſeventy common-council-men. The ſtreets are broad and paved, and it has two churches, and an old caſtle. It has the beſt trade of any town in the county, eſpecially for coals, which are ſent by ſea to Somerſetſhire, Devonſhire, Cornwall, and even to Ireland; a hundred ſail of ſhips being often ſeen here at a time loading of coals. Mineral waters were ſome years ago diſcovered at Swanſey, which are ſaid to be of great efficacy in fluxes, hæmorrhages, diabetes, palſies, rheumatiſms, and other diſtempers.

Among the many antiquities of Glamorganſhire, one of the moſt ſingular is in the weſtern part of the county called Gower, where, on a mountain named Kevyn-Bryn, is a ſtone of an immenſe ſize, computed to weigh near twenty ton, laid upon ſeveral others by way of ſupporters. They are all of the mill-ſtone ſort, and though the upper one is of ſuch a prodigious ſize, ſeveral tons have been broke off for mill-ſtones. It is commonly known by the name of Arthur's ſtone.

CHAP. XXX.

Of NORTH BRITAIN, or SCOTLAND, with its Iſlands.

SECT. I.

Its Situation, Extent, Face of the Country, Air, Soil, Produce, Lakes, and Rivers.

SCOTLAND, which ſince the Union has been called North-Britain, is the northern part of this Iſland, which in the fifth of queen Anne, in 1707, was by the conſent of the parliaments of both kingdoms united to England; and they being thus joined, the whole iſland is ſtiled Great-Britain.

Thus all the northern part of this iſland beyond the counties of Cumberland and Northumberland, belongs to Scotland, together with a multitude of iſlands, which amount to about three hundred; but ſome of them are very inconſiderable. This country is bounded on all ſides by the ocean, except on the ſouth, where it is ſeparated from England, beginning at the eaſt, by the river Tweed, Cheviot-hills, the river Erſk, and Solway Frith. It is generally reckoned to extend three hundred and eighty miles in length, from Aldermouth-head, near the iſle of Mull, to Buchaneſs, and one hundred and ninety in breadth, where broadeſt. The coaſt is much indented, and the land in ſeveral places nearly cut through by bays, gulphs, and rivers, the firſt of which form excellent harbours, and the latter abound with freſh water fiſh.

North-Britain, excluſive of its iſlands, lies between the fifty-fourth degree forty minutes, and the fifty-eighth degree thirty minutes north latitude, and between the firſt degree thirty minutes, and the ſixth degree weſt longitude. The longeſt day is upwards of eighteen hours, and the ſhorteſt five hours forty-five minutes: but the brightneſs of the northern lights in a great meaſure remedy the inconvenience of the ſhort days of winter.

The air is very temperate, and not half ſo cold as might be imagined from its being ſeated ſo far to the north. This, as in England, is owing to the warm vapours and moderate breezes that continually come from the ſea; which alſo ſerve to purify the air, and put it in ſuch a conſtant agitation, as preſerves the inhabitants from any remarkable epidemic diſeaſes.

Great part of the country, particularly towards the north and weſt, is mountainous, and covered with heath; this is called the Highlands, but theſe in ſeveral places yield good paſture: between the higher grounds are many rich valleys, which produce corn and cattle. Indeed the ſouth parts of Scotland are far preferable to the north parts of England, and there are every where all things neceſſary for human life; and not only ſufficient for the inhabitants, but alſo to export. They do not want wheat, but the grain moſtly cultivated is oats, as it will grow in the mountainous parts. The productions in Scotland are in general much the ſame as in England. In the Lowlands there is little timber, but in the more northern parts there are foreſts of fir-trees, that might afford maſts for the largeſt men of war; but it is difficult to bring them to the ſea-ſide. There are alſo many large woods of oaks, aſhes, and elms, fit for building, and abundance of fruit-trees in their gardens and orchards. The ſoil likewiſe in many places produces great plenty of hemp and flax. They have coal-pits, which afford excellent coal, great quantities of which are brought to London, where it is known by the name of Scotch-coal. This is their fuel in ſeveral parts; but in the Highlands they burn wood, and in other places turf, peat, heath, broom, and furze. They have likewiſe mines of lead, with quarries of free-ſtone, and the latter in ſuch plenty, that moſt of the principal towns are built with nothing elſe.

The country abounds in flocks of ſheep, many of which are ſent into England, as is the greateſt part of their wool. It has alſo great herds of cattle, which are generally black, except in corn ſoils, and theſe are much larger than thoſe bred in other parts: but in general, their ſheep and horned cattle are much ſmaller than thoſe of England, and their fleſh is very ſweet. The Highlanders annually bring great numbers of them into the Lowlands, where ſome are fatted; but the bulk of them, with many of thoſe bred in the Lowlands, are ſent into ſeveral parts of England, eſpecially to St. Faith's, near Norwich, where they turn to good account.

They have alſo many hogs, and an incredible number of goats, particularly in the north and the Highlands; the latter they eat themſelves, but the hogs they for the moſt part pickle and export, as they likewiſe do great quantities of ſalt beef. In the ſouthern parts there are no deer, except in gentlemen's parks; but every where elſe they are in great plenty.

They breed great numbers of horſes, eſpecially in Galloway and the Highlands. Theſe, tho' ſmall, are hardy and capable of great fatigue, and are therefore extremely proper for a mountainous country, which in many places will not admit of carriages and teams: theſe will thrive upon what would ſtarve other horſes. However, in many places of the Lowlands, they breed horſes fit for coaches and other carriages, and for war.

Scotland has not only plenty of the domeſtic fowl common in other countries, but many other kinds, eſpecially in the iſlands, where they are ſo numerous, that the inhabitants can neither conſume nor vend half of them. Their fowl and eggs afford a conſiderable trade for food, and their feathers for bedding, and other uſes. Their fat is likewiſe uſed by the inhabitants, not only in many caſes where it is neceſſary, but likewiſe for phyſic.

Beſides the freſh-water fiſh found in the lakes and rivers, ſeveral of the iſlands are frequented by whales; and cod, ling, haddoc, ſturgeon, turbut, mackrel, ſcate, ſea-urchins, cat-fiſh, &c. are caught in great plenty on all their coaſts. Lobſters, crabs, and oyſters, are found in vaſt quantities on the Weſtern Iſlands; and cockles, muſſels, limpets, wilks, ſcallops, and ſpouts, are caſt by the tide in ſuch numbers on the iſles, that the people cannot conſume them.

In this country ſprings of clear and wholeſome water are every where in plenty, not only on the ſides, but on the tops of many of the mountains. Theſe in their deſcent ſwell into pleaſant rills, and augmenting their ſtreams beeome rivers. Many of theſe meeting with hollow places in their paſſage, expand themſelves into lakes, till finding a proper channel they reſume their form of rivers, and, as the nature of the ſoil directs, ſometimes expand themſelves again and again, or continue their progreſs in the ſame form to the ſea.

The moſt remarkable lochs or lakes in Scotland are Lochtay, Lochneſs, and Lochlevin, which ſend forth rivers of the ſame name with themſelves; Lochlomond, which ſends forth the river Lomond; and Lochiern, from which flows the river Iern. There is a lake in Straitherrach, which never freezes, however ſevere the froſt, till February, and then in one night it freezes all over, and if it continues two nights, the ice grows very thick. Another lake at a place called Glencanich, is ſeated on a high ground between the tops of two mountains, and it is remarkable that the middle of this lake is always frozen throughout the ſummer, notwithſtanding the ſtrong reflection of the ſun-beams from the mountains, which melts the ice at the ſides of the lake. Round the lake the ground has a conſtant verdure, as if it enjoyed a perpetual ſpring; and by feeding on that graſs, cattle grow ſooner fat than any where elſe.

In Linlithgowſhire is a lake called Lochoat, from whence a ſtream runs under a neighbouring mountain, and after it has purſued its courſe about two hundred paces, iſſues with great force from a ſpring about three feet broad, when it forms a ſtream that turns a mill.

The capital rivers, particularly the Forth, Clyde, Tay, and Neſs, &c. divide the country into peninſulas; theſe running ſo far within land as to be intercepted only by a ſmall iſthmus, or neck of land. Theſe and the other rivers, which are very numerous, will be particularly treated of in our deſcription of the countries through which they paſs.

SECT. II.

Of the Government, Religion, Fiſheries, and Trade of North Britain.

THE parliament of Scotland being now mingled with that of Great-Britain, there are ſixteen peers choſen out of the nobility who repreſent that body, and forty-five members who repreſent the following ſhires and diſtricts.

The ſhires which ſince the Union ſend one member each to parliament, are, 1. Aberdeen, 2. Aire, 3. Argyle, 4. Bamff, 5. Berwick, 6. Bute and Caithneſs, by turns, 7. Clackmannam, 8. Dumbarton, 9. Dumfries, 10. Edinburgh, 11. Elgin, 12. Fife, 13. Forfar, 14. Haddington, 15. Inverneſs, 16. Kincardine, 17. Kircudbright, 18. Lanerk, 19. Linlithgow, 20. Nairn, 21. Orkney and Zetland, 22. Peebles, 23. Perth, 24. Renfrew, 25. Roſs, 26. Roxburgh, 27. Selkirk, 28. Stirling, 29. Sutherland, and 30. Wigton.

Beſides theſe there are the following fifteen diſtricts of royal burghs, which alternately ſend one member to parliament. 1. Aire, Irwin, Rothſay, Inverary, and Campbell-town. 2. Bamff, Elgin, Cullen, Kintore, and Inverury. 3. The city of Edinburgh. 4. Forreſs, Nairn, Inverneſs, and Fortroſe. 5. Pittenweem, Eaſt-Anſtruther, Weſt-Anſtruther, Craile, and Kilrennie. 6. Inverkeithing, Stirling, Dumferling, Culroſs, and Queensferry. 7. Brunt-iſland, Dyſert, Kirkaldy, and Kinghorn. 8. Dundee, Perth, St. Andrew's, Cowpar, and Forfar. 9. Montroſe, Aberdeen, Brechin, Aberbrothock, and Inverbervey. 10. Kircudbright, Dumfries, Lochmaban, Annan, and Sanquhar. 11. Lanerk, Linlithgow, Selkirk, and Peebles. 12. Renfrew, Glaſgow, Ruglen, and Dumbarton. 13. Dingwall, Tayne, Dornock, Weik, and Kirkwall. 14. Jedburgh, Haddington, Dunbar, North-Berwick, and Lauder. 15. Wigton, Whithorn, New-Galloway, and Stranroer.

The courts of civil judicature in Scotland are,

The college of juſtice, commonly called the ſeſſion, which conſiſts of a preſident, and fourteen fixed ſenators or judges, called ordinary lords of ſeſſion, with two extraordinary lords. Under theſe are ſeven clerks of ſeſſion, and ſix inferior officers. Before this court are tried at ſtated times, all civil cauſes, which they determine by acts of parliament, and the cuſtom of the nation; and where theſe are defective, they decide according to the civil law, and the rules of equity. There lies no appeal from this court but to the parliament; and the preſence of nine judges is required to make their decrees valid.

The juſticiary, uſually called the juſtice or criminal court, conſiſts of five lords of the ſeſſion, the juſtice-general, and juſtice-clerk. Theſe are joined by a pannel of fifteen out of forty-five, cited like juries in England, by whom all cauſes of a criminal nature are tried. They hold aſſizes all over the kingdom twice every year, and from thence are called lords of the circuit.

The court of exchequer, which is like that of England, and conſiſts of a chief and four other barons, &c.

The court of chancery. The officers of ſtate are, the keeper of the ſeal, the lord privy-ſeal, the lord clerk-regiſter, and the lord advocate.

Beſides the above national judges, every county or ſhire has a chief magiſtrate or his deputy, who is ordinary judge in all civil and criminal cauſes; but, in moſt caſes, an appeal lies from this magiſtrate to the ſeſſion and court of juſticiary. The ſheriff is in effect the ſupreme juſtice of peace, to whom the law principally intruſts the ſecuring the quiet and tranquility of that part of the kingdom of which he is ſheriff. Bailiffs, ſtewards, and conſtables, in their reſpective diſtricts, have the ſame liberty as ſheriffs in their ſhires.

There are two ſorts of burghs, namely royal burghs, and burghs of barony, each of which is a corporation, and holds courts, though none but the royal burghs ſend members to parliament. The royal burghs are one intire body, governed by one general court, called, The Convention of Burrows, which is generally held every year at Edinburgh, and has cognizance of every thing relating to the trade and intereſt of all the burghs in general. As to the burghs of barony, every one that holds a barony of the crown, has a court, in which leſſer cauſes, both civil and criminal, are tried.

The court of admiralty is a ſupreme court, in which all maritime cauſes, crimes, treſpaſſes, quarrels, &c. may be tried before the lord high admiral's judge, for he himſelf never judges; he forms his deciſions on the civil law, and the cuſtoms of Scotland.

There are alſo in Scotland what are called commiſſariot courts, which are a kind of eccleſiaſtical courts, in which cauſes are tried by commiſſaries. The principal of theſe is at Edinburgh. The four commiſſaries of that metropolis particularly try cauſes of matrimony and adultery, in order to a plenary divorce, ſo that the innocent perſon may marry, as if the offending party were naturally dead.

The eſtabliſhed religion is called the Preſbyterian; it being a church government by paſtors, teachers, elders, and deacons. The eccleſiaſtical courts are the four following:

I. The General Aſſembly, which is the higheſt eccleſiaſtical court in the kingdom, meets annually in May, and ſits about ten days. A lord commiſſioner, who is always a nobleman of the firſt quality, preſides here, as a repreſentative of the king's perſon. All the members are annually elected, and the moderator of the laſt year's aſſembly opens the new ſeſſions with a ſermon.

II. The Provincial Synod, which is compoſed of the members of ſeveral adjacent preſbyteries, meets twice a year, at a principal place within the bounds, and is opened by a ſermon. Their buſineſs is to receive cor-

reſpondents from the neighbouring ſynods, who are a check upon one another; to determine appeals from the preſbyteries within their diſtrict; and to enquire into and cenſure the behaviour of the preſbyteries themſelves. They have likewiſe power to remove a miniſter from one place to another: but appeals lie from this ſynod to the general aſſembly.

The Preſbytery, which conſiſts of a miniſter and one elder from five to ten or more neighbouring pariſhes, who, being aſſembled, chuſe one of the miniſters to be præſes, or moderator. Here are tried appeals from the Kirk-ſeſſion; and here they inſpect into the behaviour of the miniſters and elders within their reſpective bounds. They ſupply vacant pariſhes, ordain paſtors, examine and licenſe ſchool-maſters and young ſtudents for probationary preachers; and judge when or on whom to inflict the greater excommunication.

IV. The Kirk-Seſſion conſiſts of the miniſter, elders, and deacons in each pariſh, who conſider the affairs of the pariſh as a religious ſociety. They judge in all leſſer matters eſteemed ſcandalous, can ſuſpend from the communion, and regulate every thing relating to public worſhip and the poor.

The number of kirks or churches in Scotland amounts to about nine hundred and fifty, beſides a few chapels, which make up ſixty-eight preſbyteries, included in thirteen provincial ſynods.

The law of Scotland has provided againſt pluralities, and throughout the whole country there are no benefices worth leſs than fifty pound ſterling per annum; which in that country is a good maintenance, nor any that exceed a hundred and fifty pounds a year.

There are here however ſeveral ſects of diſſenters from the eſtabliſhed worſhip, the principal of which are the Epiſcopalians, who uſe the form of prayer of the church of England: but the nonjurers among theſe are not permitted to have public meeting-houſes, but are only ſuffered to preach and read the divine ſervice to very ſmall congregations; while thoſe who take the oaths, and pray for his majeſty in expreſs terms, have meeting-houſes. There are alſo the Erſkinites and Gibbonites, ſo called from the miniſters of thoſe names, who have broke off from the church of Scotland, and upon that account they are alſo called Seceders. There are likewiſe Mountaineers, thus named from their preaching in the open fields, and on the mountains; theſe are alſo called Covenanters.

From the government and religion of North-Britain, we ſhall proceed to its trade. The Scots plaids are a manufacture in which they exceed all other nations, both as to colour and fineneſs; they have likewiſe manufactures of various other woollen ſtuffs; but the principal articles are linen cloth, which is greatly encouraged and improved; cambricks, muſlins, ſtriped, flowered, and plain. The ſalt of Scotland, which is principally made in what they call pans or caldrons, is ſaid to be better and ſtronger than that of Shields and Newcaſtle, and cures fiſh to greater advantage; whence it is ſo valued abroad, that great quantities of it are annually exported to Norway, Germany, and the Baltic.

The fiſheries of Scotland are very conſiderable, and of great advantage to the people, particularly that of ſalmon, cod, and herrings, all of which employ a vaſt number of hands, and are barrelled and exported in great quantities to the continent. Indeed Scotland has the advantage of catching herrings ſooner, and curing them at a leſs expence than England: their ſituation for exporting them is likewiſe extremely commodious, ſo that they can be ſooner at market than the Dutch; thoſe belonging to the Glaſgow merchants ſooner arriving on the coaſts of Spain, Portugal, and up the Streights, as the merchants of Dundee, Aberdeen, &c. can ſooner reach the Baltic.

As it was agreed at the Union that the ſubjects of the united kingdom ſhall have free trade belonging to either, to be regulated as in England, the Scots merchants not only trade to all parts of Europe, but to our plantations in America; from whence they bring great quantities of tobacco, ſugar, drugs, &c. and what they do not ſell at home, export to the different countries of Europe.

In ſhort, Scotland is ſaid to have this advantage to boaſt, which neither England nor any nation in Europe has, namely, that in every branch of its trade with other countries, the balance is on its ſide, that is, the Scots ſend out to every country more commodities than they receive back, and conſequently the difference or overplus muſt be made good in ſpecie.

We ſhall now refer our readers for a farther account of Scotland, to the beginning of the account we have given of Great Britain in general, and conclude this ſection with obſerving, that Scotland is divided into thirty-three ſhires, or counties; theſe are the ſhires of Berwick, Haddington, Edinburgh, Roxborough, Selkirk, Peebles, Lanerk, Dumfries, Wigtown, Aire, Dumbarton, Bute, Caithneſs, Renfrew, Sterling, Linlithgow, Perth, Kincardin, Aberdeen, Inverneſs, Nairne, Cromartie, Argyle, Fife, Forfar, Bamff, Kirkcudbright, Sutherland, Clacmanan, Kinroſs, Roſs, Elgin, and Orkney.

SECT. III.

Of Berwickſhire; its Situation, Extent, Diviſions, Soil, Produce, and principal Towns.

THIS county received its name from Berwick upon Tweed, which once belonged to it; but it was originally termed the Mers, or March, from its being the boundary between England and Scotland. It lies to the ſouth-eaſt of all Scotland, and is bounded on the eaſt by the North ſea; on the ſouth by the Tweed and Tiviot-dale; on the weſt by Tweedale, in Peebleſhire; and on the north by Eaſt Lothian, in Haddingtonſhire; extending about thirty miles in length, and containing two preſbyteries, and thirty-five pariſh-churches.

This county is divided into three parts, namely, Mers, Lammermoor, and Lauderdale. The Mers is a pleaſant low ground, open to the influence of the ſun, and guarded from ſtorms by Lammermoor; hence the ſoil is fruitful, abounding with corn and pulſe, but eſpecially hay.

Lammermoor is a tract of hills on the north ſide of the ſhire, above ſixteen miles long, and at leaſt ſix in breadth, which, though to appearance barren, feed multitudes of ſheep and black cattle. In the ſummer ſeaſon it is particularly noted for paſturage, and for affording plenty of moor-fowl, partridges, plover, dotterels, and other game.

Lauderdale is a tract lying on each ſide the water of Lauder, abounding in hills, woods, and pleaſant valleys. It belongs to the crown, and is governed by a bailiff; which office is annexed to the noble family of Lauderdale.

In ſhort, the ſhire of Berwick is in general very fertile in corn and graſs. It abounds with black cattle, ſheep, and horſes. The moſt fruitful and populous parts are thoſe that lie on the Tweed, and the leſſer rivers Whitewater, Black-water, and the Eye. The fuel of the common people is turf and peat, but the gentry have coals from Northumberland.

As the duke of Richmond derives his title of earl of March from the marches or borders of Wales, ſo this county of the Mers, or March, the borders of Scotland, gives title of earl to the noble family of Douglas.

It is obſervable, that on entering the borders of Scotland, the firſt town you reach is almoſt as perfectly Scots, as if you were a hundred miles north of Edinburgh; and there is very little appearance of any thing Engliſh, either in the cuſtoms or habits of the people, or their way of living, eating, or behaviour: nor are there many Engliſh families to be found among them. On the contrary, in the towns of Northumberland and Cumberland, next to Scotland, there are abundance of Scotſmen, Scots cuſtoms, words, and habits.

We ſhall now deſcribe the principal towns in this ſhire.

Duns, a burgh famous for giving birth to that celebrated ſchoolman John Duns Scotus, who was born in 1274, became the greateſt ſcholar of that age, and was ſtiled The ſubtile doctor. It is ſeated twelve miles to the weſt of Berwick upon Tweed, and is a pretty large populous town, which has the beſt trade of any in the county.

county. It ſtands on a riſing ground in the center of the ſhire, and is the ſeat of a preſbytery, to which belong eleven pariſhes. Its market is ſaid to be the beſt in all Scotland for horſes, cows, and ſheep.

Coldingham ſtands near the coaſt, and is famous for an ancient abbey, built about the year 1100, the remains of which are uſed for a pariſh church. Ebba, its lady abbeſs, on there being a Daniſh invaſion, ſlit her noſe, cut off her upper lip, and perſuaded all her nuns to do the ſame, that their deformity might prevent their being raviſhed by the Danes; upon which thoſe barbarians were ſo exaſperated, that they fired the nunnery, and burnt them all alive. This abbeſs was afterwards ſainted, and a neighbouring promontory is from her called St. Ebba's-head, and by the ſailors St. Tabbe's. In the adjacent moor there is not a hedge or tree to be ſeen for the ſpace of eight miles.

Greenlaw, the chief burgh of the ſhire belonging to the earl of Marchmont, ſtands about five miles from Duns; and in its neighbourhood that nobleman has a fine ſeat.

Lauder, an ancient royal burgh, the capital of Lauderdale, is pleaſantly ſeated on a river of the ſame name, which runs through it, twenty-two miles to the ſouth of Edinburgh. It has a bridge over the river, is the ſeat of the commiſſariot, and has a good market.

From the long valley of this name on both ſides the river Lauder, the family of Maitland takes the title of earl; and there is a ſtately ſeat on the river, in the neighbourhood of the town, called Lauderforth, which belongs to the earl of Lauderdale.

SECT. IV.

Of Haddington, or Eaſt Lothian; its Situation, Extent, Produce, and principal Places.

THIS ſhire is bounded on the north and eaſt by the Firth; on the ſouth by the hills of Lammermoor, in Berwickſhire; and on the weſt by Mid Lothian, or Edinburghſhire. According to ſome authors it is only thirteen, and according to others twenty-two miles in length, and twelve in breadth.

Eaſt Lothian produces corn of all ſorts, and has plenty of graſs, coal, and limeſtone, with ſome conſiderable woods. It feeds a great number of ſheep, eſpecially about the hills of Lammermoor and by Weſt Lammerlow; and from the weſt part to the ſea it abounds with rabbits. A great deal of ſalt is made here, and there was a conſiderable manufacture of broad-cloth made by Engliſh workmen, and with Engliſh wool; but after the Union the Engliſh clothiers poured in ſuch quantities of cloth, that they underſold the Scots, and thus the manufacture was dropt; yet the people employ themſelves in ſpinning, dying, weaving, &c. Here are ſeveral convenient harbours, with the advantage of ſome fiſhing-towns; and particularly there is every year a herring fiſhery after Lammas at Dunbar, where they take enough both for home conſumption and exportation.

The principal towns in this ſhire are Haddington and Dunbar.

Haddington, or Hadina, the ſhire town, is a royal burgh, pleaſantly ſeated on the Tyne, over which it has a handſome bridge with three large arches. It ſtands eighteen miles to the weſt of Edinburgh, and is pretty large, well built, with ſome very good houſes; the ſtreets are well paved; it has a good market, and is the ſeat of a preſbytery, conſiſting of ſixteen pariſhes. Here are the remains of an ancient nunnery, and of a good church built of hewn ſtone, to which adjoins the chapel of the family of Lauderdale, with theirs and other very noble tombs, but the choir of the church is pulled down. This town gives title of earl to a branch of the noble family of Hamilton, which has large poſſeſſions and fine ſeats in the neighbourhood. No place in Scotland is ſurrounded with more little towns and houſes of the nobility and gentry than this; among which Yeſter, the manſion-houſe of the earl of Tweedale, deſerves particular notice.

There is here a noble plantation of fir-trees, which is ſaid to take up ſix thouſand acres. The park itſelf is about ſix miles round, and encompaſſed by a very handſome wall. This noble palace ſtands about half a mile from the park-gate, to which you go by a paved coach-way through a thicket. The building is of free-ſtone, a hundred and twenty feet in front, and ſixty feet deep, with a pavilion or wing. The offices under ground are very noble and vaulted, with paved galleries of communication. There is an aſcent to the houſe of ſix or eight ſteps, which lead to a large hall thirty-ſix feet high; behind it is a ſaloon from the garden of the ſame height, and at the top is a gallery for muſic, which opens into both, exactly as at Blenheim-houſe, near Woodſtock. The rooms of ſtate, which run on each ſide of this ſaloon fronting the garden, are very noble and of an exact ſymmetry. A mathematical ſtone ſtaircaſe, with an iron baluſtrade, leads up to the apartments above.

The garden behind the houſe is very ſpacious, riſing up by an eaſy aſcent to the park. In the middle of the parterre is a handſome baſon with a jet d'eau, and four good ſtatues, one at each corner. There are abundance of ever-greens, and green ſlopes; and to the weſt of the garden, on an artificial mount, is a pleaſant ſummer-houſe. The green-houſe joins the pavilion to the weſt, as does the laundery to the eaſt. A pretty large ſtream runs by the houſe, and from its murmuring as it paſſes through the thick groves in the park, gives the whole a very rural appearance. By the river ſide is a pretty bowling-green. The coach-houſes, ſtables, and hen-houſe are at a diſtance in the park, as is the cuſtom at the ſeats of the nobility in Scotland: for every nobleman's houſe has what is called the Mains, where their labourers, grooms, and every body belonging to the ſtables and poultry reſide.

Dunbar, a royal burgh, is ſeated on the ſouth ſide of the mouth of the river Firth, where is a good harbour, twenty-five miles to the eaſt of Edinburgh. The town is handſome and well built; the houſes, as in moſt of the principal towns, being all of ſtone covered with ſlate. It has been defended by a ſtrong wall, which is now decayed; and on the oppoſite ſide of the haven are the ruins of a caſtle, almoſt covered with the ſea at high tide: it was once remarkably ſtrong, and was the ſeat of the earls of March, afterwards ſtiled earls of Dunbar. This fortreſs was often won by the Engliſh, and as often recovered by the Scots; but was demoliſhed in 1656 by order of the commonwealth, to prevent its affording a retreat for the royaliſts. The port is very conſiderable, and of great advantage to all ſhips in the river, in caſe of ſtreſs of weather. The inhabitants have here a very conſiderable herring-fiſhery, and alſo one for whales.

Between the town and the great road ſtands a pleaſant and agreeable ſeat of the duke of Roxborough, called Broxmouth. It is ſeated in the middle of a fine park, planted with large groves of trees between the building and the ſea, and conſiſts of a body and two wings, between which is a fine paved court; before the building is a good avenue, and behind is a ſpacious parterre adorned with ſtatues.

From the town of Dunbar to Edinburgh the country may be reckoned as fruitful, rich, and pleaſant, as any in Scotland, or indeed as moſt in England. The ſea is on the eaſt at a moderate diſtance, and the hills on the weſt are ſtill farther off; theſe feed large flocks of ſheep, and have many open roads over them leading towards England.

SECT. V.

Of Mid-Lothian, or Edinburghſhire; its Situation, Extent, and Produce; with a Deſcription of Edinburgh, and of the other Places worthy of Notice; with an Account of the Iſland of Baſs, and of the Solan Geeſe which reſort thither.

THIS is the principal county in North Britain, both on account of its fertility and its containing the capital. It is bounded on the eaſt by Eaſt Lothian for thirteen miles together; on the ſouth-eaſt by Berwick-

ſhire

ſhire for about four miles; on the ſouth by the ſhire of Selkirk and Tweedale, in Peebleſhire, for thirteen miles; on the ſouth-weſt by Lanerkſhire for ſix or ſeven miles, and by the ſame on the weſt for two miles; on the north-weſt by Linlithgowſhire for fourteen miles; and on the north by the Frith, or Forth, for eight miles: extending about twenty-one miles in length, and in ſome places ſixteen or ſeventeen in breadth; but in others not above five or ſix.

Mid-Lothian is ſo fertile that it yields a great deal of corn of all ſorts, with good paſture for cattle, and is provided with all neceſſaries in abundance, particularly coals, limeſtone, and a kind of ſoft black marble; and near the water of Leith, ſome miles diſtance from Edinburgh, is a copper mine.

Edinburgh, the metropolis of North Britain, is ſituated in the fifty-fifth degree fifty-ſeven minutes north latitude, and in the ſecond degree fifty-five minutes weſt longitude; fifty-four miles weſt-north-weſt of Berwick upon Tweed, ſeventy-two north of Carliſle, two hundred and one north-north-weſt of York, and three hundred and ninety-three miles north-north-weſt of London. It is a city and county of itſelf, and was formerly the royal ſeat of the kings of Scotland. In this city alſo the parliaments were held, as are ſtill the ſupreme courts of judicature. It ſtands two miles to the ſouth of the port of Leith, and is ſeated upon the ſide of a high hill, or rather a narrow ridge. At the extremity of the eaſt end of the city is the palace of Holy-Rood-houſe; leaving which a little to the left, you come through a populous ſuburb to the entrance, called the Water-port, and from hence proceeding to the weſt, the ſtreet goes on in a ſtraight line, through the whole city, to the caſtle, extending above a mile in length; and is, perhaps, the largeſt, longeſt, and fineſt ſtreet for buildings and the number of its inhabitants in the world. From the gate of the palace, which ſtands on a level with the plain country, the ſtreet begins gradually to aſcend; but is no where ſteep; yet the aſcent being continued ſo far, the upper part muſt neceſſarily be very high; for the caſtle, which ſtands at the extremity weſt, as the palace does eaſt, has on every ſide, except on that which joins it to the city, very ſteep and frightful precipices. The ſtreet is extremely well paved; but the ridge or top of the aſcent is ſo narrow, that the ſtreet and the row of houſes on each ſide take up the whole breadth; ſo that which way ſoever you turn, you immediately go down a ſteep deſcent; and theſe ſide lanes are called wynds. The houſes are very large, and ſome of them ſo lofty, eſpecially in the High-ſtreet, that five or ſix ſtories are but an ordinary height. Moſt of the houſes being parted into tenements, they have as many landlords as ſtories. The fronting of houſes with timber is now prohibited, on account of the many fires that have happened; and about eighty years ago the inhabitants were at the expence of bringing one of the beſt ſprings in Scotland into the city, by leaden pipes laid from a hill at three miles diſtance.

We ſhall now conſider more particularly the buildings of the city. The royal palace, called Holy-Rood-houſe, from its being originally an abbey of that name, was firſt converted into a palace by king James V. and rebuilt by king Charles II. all but two towers on the north ſide of the entrance. It is a magnificent ſtone building in the form of a ſquare, adorned with the ſeveral orders of architecture, and divided into four courts. The entrance is very grand, and over the gate is a large apartment, which the duke of Hamilton claims as hereditary keeper of the palace. Within this entrance is a large irregular court, where are coach-houſes and ſtables. The entrance from the great outer court is adorned with columns, which ſupport a cupola in the form of an imperial crown, baluſtraded on each ſide at the top. The inner court is very magnificent, and has piazzas all round, which lead into very noble apartments, richly furniſhed; among which is a gallery ſaid to be adorned with the pictures of all the kings of Scotland, from Fergus their firſt king, three hundred and twenty years before the birth of Chriſt, to the Revolution. This palace is encompaſſed by beautiful gardens.

From the palace-gate weſtward the ſtreet is called Canongate, from the canons of the abbey formerly reſiding there. This is a kind of ſuburb, in which are ſeveral magnificent houſes of the nobility, with ſpacious gardens behind them. The city is parted from this ſuburb by the Nether-bow-port, or gate, which was rebuilt in 1716, and adorned on both ſides with towers, and a ſpire at the top. The city is encloſed on all ſides, except towards the north, with a wall, where it is ſecured by a lake; and has ſix gates beſides that juſt mentioned.

The great church, which was the cathedral, is a large and ſtately ſtructure, in the form of a croſs, now divided into four churches; here alſo the magiſtrates aſſemble, and the judges in their habits in time of ſeſſion. In a large chapel in the ſouth-weſt part of this church the general aſſembly hold their ſeſſions, as does alſo the commiſſion of the aſſembly, in the interval between the general meetings. This ſtructure is adorned with a very high ſteeple, the ſummit of which reſembles an imperial crown. Here they have a ſet of bells which are not rung as in England, for that is a manner of ringing unknown in this country; but all manner of tunes are played very muſically upon them, and the city gives a man a yearly ſalary for playing upon them, from twelve to one every day, Sundays and holidays excepted. The four churches in this ſtructure, with the reſt, and the chapel in the cathedral, make twelve in all. There are alſo about twenty meeting-houſes of the epiſcopal party.

On the ſouth ſide of the great church is a ſquare of very fine buildings, called the Parliament-cloſe; the weſt and ſouth ſides of which are moſtly taken up with the parliament-houſe, the ſeveral courts of juſtice, the council-chamber, the exchequer, the public regiſters, the court for the royal burghs, the lawyer's library, the poſt-office, &c. The eaſt and part of the ſouth ſide is built into private dwellings, which are magnificent and lofty, they being ſeven ſtories high to the front of the ſquare; and the hill they ſtand on having a very ſteep deſcent, ſome of them are backwards no leſs than fourteen ſtories high. In the middle of this ſquare is an equeſtrian ſtatue of king Charles II.

The caſtle, which, as hath been already ſaid, is ſeated at the weſt end of the city, is inacceſſible on the north, weſt, and ſouth; and the entrance from the city is defended by a round battery, and an out-work at the foot of it. In this ſtructure is a royal palace, magnificently built with hewn-ſtone, in which are kept the regalia and the records of ſtate. Here alſo is the magazine for the arms and ammunition of the public; and there are deep vaults in the rock, which are ſaid to be bomb-proof. It is furniſhed with water by two wells in the rock; and has a chapel for the uſe of the garriſon. The governor is always a perſon of the firſt quality, and general of the forces; and both he, the lieutenant-governor, foot-major, and other officers, have very handſome apartments. From the caſtle is a delightful proſpect over the city and neighbouring country.

Near the Potter-row-port ſtands the college, or univerſity, which conſiſts of three courts, two lower and one higher, equal to the other two. Theſe courts are encompaſſed with neat buildings, for the uſe of thoſe ſtudents who chooſe to lodge in them; for they do not reſide together nor live in common, but only attend their claſſes at certain hours. The public ſchools are large and commodious, with accommodations for the ſtudents, handſome dwellings for the profeſſors, and fine gardens for their recreation. This univerſity was founded in 1580 by king James VI. who eſtabliſhed there a primate, or principal, a profeſſor of divinity, four regents, or maſters of philoſophy, a profeſſor of philology, and a regent of humanity. In 1640 the town added a profeſſor of mathematics; to which have been lately added profeſſors of eccleſiaſtical hiſtory, civil law, theoretical and practical medicine, chemiſtry, &c. They have a good library, which is kept in great order, the books given by its benefactors are kept by themſelves, and over them is the donor's name in letters of gold; and above the books hang the pictures of ſeveral princes, with the moſt eminent reformers at home and abroad. Here is alſo a noble muſeum, in which is contained a prodigious number of curioſities both of art and nature. Under the library is a royal printing houſe, where they are chiefly employed in printing Bibles.

The phyſicians, who were incorporated in 1682 by king Charles II. have their college in Fountain-cloſe, near the Netherbow. They are deſervedly eſteemed for their learning and abilities, in which they are at leaſt equal to the phyſicians of any other country. They have a noble muſeum, called from its founder, Sir Andrew Balfour, M. D. Muſeum Balfourianum; and on the north ſide of the city they have a neat phyſic garden, containing ſome thouſand exotic plants.

On the ſouth ſide of the city is a large building belonging to the ſurgeons and apothecaries, in which is a ſpacious hall hung round with the pictures of all the eminent ſurgeons of Edinburgh that have flouriſhed ſince this building was founded. They have a theatre for diſſections, and a muſeum, in which are the ſkeletons of uncommon animals, a mummy, and other curioſities.

In this city are ſeveral hoſpitals, the chief of which is Heriot's, a large and beautiful building, ſaid to be the moſt magnificent of the kind in the world. It is an exact ſquare, with piazzas all round the inſide. At the corners are ſquare towers, adorned with little turrets. This is a nurſery for an indefinite number of the ſons of freemen, who are maintained, cloathed, and educated in uſeful learning, till they are fit to be put out apprentice, or to go to the univerſity, where they are allowed handſome ſalaries. The gardens, which conſiſt of a flower-garden, kitchen-garden, and orchard, are kept in great order, and, with the houſe, contain between nine and ten acres.

There are here alſo St. Thomas's hoſpital, in which old decayed citizens and their widows are maintained, and have their own chaplain; and a maiden hoſpital, a neat building cloſe to the college, founded and endowed for the relief and education of the female orphans of decayed freemen. Another hoſpital of the ſame kind has been lately founded by the tradeſmen and artificers of Edinburgh.

A royal infirmary has likewiſe been erected here, after the example of thoſe of London, Bath, &c. by the liberal contribution of many well diſpoſed perſons; to this work the proprietors of quarries contributed ſtone and lime, the merchants timber, the farmers engaged to carry materials gratis, and even the journeymen maſons and labourers contributed a certain portion of their labour.

The city is governed by a provoſt, whoſe office is much the ſame with that of the lord mayor of London; four bailiffs, who, beſides the power of aldermen in the government of the city, have that of ſheriffs; there is alſo a common-council, which uſually conſiſts of twenty-five perſons, but on extraordinary occaſions of thirty-eight. All theſe are choſen annually; and the provoſt, dean of guild, and treaſurer, are to be merchants; or if any inferior tradeſman be choſen, he muſt quit his trade, and not return to it without leave of the magiſtrates and town-council.

There are fourteen incorporated trades, each of which has its deacon, or maſter of the company; theſe are the ſurgeons, goldſmiths, ſkinners, farriers, hammermen, wrights, maſons, taylors, bakers, butchers, cordwainers, weavers, wakers, or fullers, and bonnet-makers. But none of the merchants or traders are to make any by-laws, without the conſent of the magiſtrates and town-council, except to chooſe their own deacons at the appointed time, to make perſons free of their trade, or to try their work.

The trained-bands of the city conſiſt of ſixteen companies; beſides which they have a ſtanding company of town-guards.

There is in Edinburgh a very uſeful kind of blackguard boys, who attend at taverns, coffee-houſes, and other places to go on errands, and know every body of any note in the town. Though they are in rags, and lie every night in the ſtreets, or upon the ſtairs of the houſes, yet they are conſiderably truſted, and ſeldom prove unfaithful. They are ſubject to a kind of magiſtrate, called the conſtable of the cawdies, who generally puniſhes them for any neglect or miſdemeanor by a fine of ale or brandy; but ſometimes corporally. Moſt of them are very acute, and execute whatever employment is aſſigned them with great ſpeed and addreſs.

Now leaving Edinburgh, we ſhall take a view of the other places in this county moſt worthy of notice.

Leith, which is the port of Edinburgh, is a large flouriſhing town in the fifty-fifth degree fifty-eight minutes north latitude, and in the ſecond degree fifty-nine minutes weſt longitude, two miles to the north of Edinburgh. It lies on the firth of Forth, upon a river called the Water of Leith, which falls into the firth on the weſt ſide of the town. The river runs through the middle of the town, and over it is a ſtately ſtone bridge of one large arch, to which ſhips of burthen may come, and at high-water lay their ſides cloſe to the ſhore. Here is a very fine quay, well wharfed with ſtone, and fenced with piles. At the mouth of the harbour is a very long and well built pier, which runs out a great way beyond the land, and prevents the entrance of the harbour being filled with ſand. It is alſo ſecured by ſtrong ranges of piles, or counter-piers; and a beacon or maſt is ſet up at low-water mark, for the convenience of navigation. The buildings on the ſouth ſide oppoſite to the water are very lofty and handſome, they being generally about ſix ſtories high, with large ſaſh windows. Here are commodious cellars and ware-houſes for laying up goods, the merchants of Edinburgh having the bulk of all their commodities here in order to be ready for carriage either by land or ſea: ſo that Leith is very properly called the ware-houſe, as well as the port of the city. Here are likewiſe glaſs-houſes and ſaw-mills.

North Leith, which lies on the other ſide of the harbour, has docks for building and repairing of ſhips; with the ruins of a citadel built by Oliver Cromwell, and in part demoliſhed by Charles II. The citizens of Edinburgh often come to Leith in coaches, or a-foot, for a walk on the mole, or other recreations; and at the numerous inns are good accommodations, at a reaſonable rate.

Dalkeith is a pretty large and pleaſant town, defended by a caſtle; it ſtands at the confluence of the two rivers Eſk, ſix miles to the ſouth-eaſt of Edinburgh, and is the ſeat of a preſbytery that contains ten pariſhes. Here is a noble palace built by the late ducheſs of Buccleugh; this is ſaid to be the model of that which belonged to king William at Loo, in Guelderland, only this is of ſtone and that of brick. It ſtands on a riſing ground by the North Eſk, and commands the view of a large park, beautified with a canal and water-works. The front is adorned with columns of the Corinthian order, and it has a double wing at each end. Between the palace and park is a ſpacious court, ſurrounded with iron baluſtrades between pillars of free-ſtone. The grand ſtaircaſe of the houſe is ſupported by marble columns, and every ſtair curiouſly inlaid with walnut-tree. This ſtaircaſe leads into a noble room adorned with the pictures of all the beauties of the age, at whole length, in pannels. The offices of the palace join to the town.

We ſhall conclude this ſection with a deſcription of the iſland of Baſs, which ſtands within the Forth, about a mile from the ſouth ſhore, forty-five miles to the eaſt of Edinburgh. It is about a mile round, and is on every ſide a ſteep rock, itbeing only acceſſible by one at a time. It riſes high above the ſea in the form of a cone. At the top was a fort mounted with cannon; but ſince the Revolution it has been neglected. In the lower part the force of the tide has worn a hole almoſt through.

This rock is reſorted to in May and June by incredible flocks of fowls, and then the ſurface of it is almoſt covered with their neſts, eggs, and young birds. The beſt taſted of theſe different ſorts of wild-fowl is the Solan geeſe. Before theſe birds come it is ſaid they ſend ſome before to fix their manſions, for which reaſon they are called ſcouts. The inhabitants take care not to diſturb them till they have built their neſts, after which no noiſe will fright them. They lay but one egg in a year, and fix it ſo dexterouſly to the rock by one end, that if it be removed it is impoſſible to fix it again. They are ſaid to hatch it with their foot, and ſcarce leave it till that be done. They are of an aſh colour, but the old ones are all white. Their neck reſembles that of the crane, and they have a ſtrong ſharp bill, between three and four inches long, which they ſtrike through their prey with ſuch

ſuch violence, that it often ſticks ſo faſt in a board baited with a herring, that being unable to pull it out again, they are taken. They leave this place in September, but whither they retire in winter is unknown. People make great profit of the young ones, which are taken from their neſts by a man let down the rock with a rope. When they come to be as big as ordinary geeſe they are very good meat, and yield a conſiderable profit by their fleſh and feathers, which are uſed for beds.

SECT. V.

Of the Shire of Roxburgh, Roſsburgh, or Teviotdale; its Situation, Extent, Diviſions, Face of the Country, Produce, and principal Places.

THIS is a ſheriffdom hereditary in the family of Douglas, by the title of ſheriff of Teviotdale, it being thus called from the river Teviot running through it. It is bounded on the eaſt by Northumberland, on the ſouth-eaſt by part of Cumberland, on the ſouth and ſouth-weſt by Anandale, and on the weſt by Tweedale; extending thirty miles in length from eaſt to weſt, and fifteen in breadth. It is divided into Teviotdale, Liddeſdale, and Euſdale, or Eſkdale, and has three preſbyteries, to which belong twenty-five pariſhes; and, with the Mers, makes up a provincial ſynod of ſix preſbyteries and ſeventy-one pariſhes.

This diſtrict has many mountains, of which the moſt famous is Cockraw, from whence runs a chain of hills weſtward, dividing Scotland from England, and in many places impaſſable; ſome of them are very high, but furniſhed with excellent graſs, and have plenty of lime and free-ſtone. In ſhort, this country produces good corn, particularly oats, great quantities of which are ſent from hence to England: it has alſo excellent paſturage, and abounds with large black cattle, ſheep, and horſes.

The principal towns in this ſhire are Kelſo and Jedburgh.

Kelſo, which is a burgh of barony, is a large and very handſome town, pleaſantly ſeated by the river Tweed on the borders of England, two hundred and fifty-ſix miles to the north-north-weſt of London. It is the ſeat of a preſbytery, and a great thorough-fare from Edinburgh to Newcaſtle. It has the beſt trade of any town in this part of the country, and has a very good market kept in a large ſquare of handſome houſes: it has alſo ſome good ſtreets, and a pariſh-church, that is the remains of an abbey of Ciſtercian monks. The duke of Roxburgh, who is ſtiled lord of the town, has a houſe in it, and a noble ſeat called Fleurs, with pleaſant gardens, near the influx of the Teviot into the Tweed.

Jedburgh is a royal burgh, ſeated near the confluence of the Tefy and the Jed, from whence it takes its name, thirty miles from Edinburgh. It is a pretty large town, well inhabited, and the ſeat of a preſbytery. It has a handſome church and town-hall, where the ſheriff keeps his courts; with a good market for corn and cattle. It gives title of lord to the eldeſt ſon of the marquis of Lothian; and many perſons of quality have ſeats in its neighbourhood.

The town of Roxburgh, which gives title of duke to the chief of the noble family of Ker, was antiently a royal burgh; but in the wars between England and Scotland its caſtle was razed, the town ruined, and its royalty tranſmitted to Jedburgh.

Melroſs, or Mailroſs, ſtands on the Tweed about nine miles from Jedburgh, and is the ſeat of a preſbytery and a royalty belonging to the earl of Haddington. An abbey was founded here in 1136, and poſſeſſed by the Bernardine monks, and appears by its ruins to have been one of the nobleſt abbeys in Europe: the window over the great gate of the abbey, which is ſtill intire, is larger that that of York minſter, and round the top are the ſtatues of our Saviour and the twelve apoſtles. The choir of the church, which is ſtill viſible, is a hundred and forty feet long.

SECT. VI.

Of the Shire of Selkirk; its Situation, Extent, Produce, and a conciſe Deſcription of the Town of Selkirk.

THIS county is bounded on the north by Tweedale, in Peebleſhire, and Mid-Lothian; on the eaſt and ſouth by Teviotdale, in Roxburghſhire; on the weſt by Teviotdale, and part of Anandale, in the ſhire of Dumfries. According to Cambden its diameter is ſixteen miles every way; but, according to others, it extends twenty-two miles in length, and only ten where broadeſt.

This county is alſo called the ſheriffdom of Ettric foreſt, from the river Ettrick, which runs through it, and is one of the principal rivers in the country; its other rivers moſt worthy of notice are the Yarrow and the Gallo-water.

The hills in Selkirkſhire feed great herds of black cattle and flocks of ſheep, with which the inhabitants carry on a good trade to England, and the meadows on the banks of the rivers produce corn and hay. It is ſaid that in Glangebar-water in this county, and in other places, pieces of gold have been found in the ſhape of birds eyes and eggs. Here are ſeveral gentlemen's ſeats, and the chief families are the Pringles, Scots, and Kers.

Selkirk, which gives name to the ſhire, is a royal burgh on the banks of the river Ettrick, thirty-three miles to the ſouth of Edinburgh, and gives title of earl to a branch of the noble family of Hamilton. It is the ſeat of a preſbytery, which has eleven pariſhes under its juriſdiction, and here the ſheriff keeps his court. The town has a handſome pariſh-church, a weekly market, and ſeveral fairs. The chief employment of the inhabitants is the making of boots and ſhoes.

In this ſhire are likewiſe Philiphaugh and Gallaſhields, each of which has a weekly market.

SECT. VII.

Of Peebleſhire, or Tweedale; its Situation, Extent, Air, Mountains, Lakes, and Rivers; with a Deſcription of the Town of Peebles.

THE ſhire of Peebles is called alſo Tweedale, from the river Tweed, which riſes at a place called Tweed's-croſs, and runs from weſt to eaſt through this country. Peebleſhire is bounded on the eaſt by the ſhire of Selkirk; on the ſouth by Anandale, in the ſhire of Dumfries; on the weſt by Clydſdale; and on the north by Mid-Lothian; extending about twenty-eight miles in length, and eighteen where broadeſt. It contains ſeventeen pariſh-churches, which are all included in the preſbytery of Peebles.

It enjoys a temperate and clear air. It is generally ſwelled with hills, many of which are as verdant as the downs of Suſſex, and intermixed with pleaſant vallies, fruitful in corn and graſs. The chief mountain here is Braidalb, from whence may be ſeen the ſeas on both ſides of the iſland. This ſhire has plenty of limeſtone; the grain is chiefly oats and barley: the inhabitants have black cattle, milk, cheeſe, and butter. The ſheep feed in vaſt flocks on the hills, and are much prized both for their fleſh and wool.

Several rivers which fall into the Tweed ſupply the country with plenty of ſalmon; and a lake, called the Weſt Water-loch, ſo abounds with eels, and other fiſh, in the month of Auguſt, that, during the weſt wind, they are ſaid to enter the river Yarrow, which runs from the lake, in ſuch ſhoals, that they are ready to overturn the people who go in to catch them. There is another lake called Lochgenen, from its being ſeated on a hill named Genen, and from it a river runs that falls from a precipice into Anandale, the height of two hundred and fifty paces, ſo that fiſh are frequently killed by the fall of the water.

The only town of note here is Peebles, a royal burgh and market-town, ſeated in a very pleaſant plain on the

banks of the Tweed, over which it has a ſtone bridge of five arches, and near a river of its own name, upon which it has two bridges. It ſtands twenty-two miles to the ſouth of Edinburgh, and was formerly remarkable for its three churches, three gates, three ſtreets, and three bridges; but the town is at preſent ſmall, not very well built or inhabited, though it has ſome good houſes, as well as a handſome pariſh-church, and is the ſeat of a preſbytery.

SECT. VIII.

Of the Shire of Lanerk, or Clydſdale; its Name, Situation, Extent, Diviſions, Rivers, and Produce; with a particular Deſcription of the City of Glaſgow, and the other Places worthy of Notice.

THIS ſhire, which is called Lanerk from its ſhire town, and Clydſdale from the river Clyde, is bounded on the eaſt by the ſhire of Linlithgow; on the ſouth-eaſt by Anandale; on the ſouth by Dumfrieſshire; on the ſouth-weſt by that of Aire; on the north-weſt by that of Renfrew; on the north by that of Dumbarton; and on the north-eaſt by Sterlingſhire. It is generally reckoned forty miles in length, about twenty-four where broadeſt, and ſixteen in the narroweſt part. It is divided into two wards, the Upper and Nether ward; the one called the ſhire of Lanerk, and the other the barony of Glaſgow: the one hilly, heathy, and fit for paſture; and the other level, and proper for corn.

The river Clyde, which runs through this ſhire into its own firth, ariſes in Errick-hill, in the Upper ward; and from the ſame hill riſe the river Anan, which runs into the Iriſh ſea, and the Tweed, which near the mouth of the firth falls into the German ocean.

This is a pleaſant fruitful country, and, though in ſome places mountainous and in others woody, is well inhabited, eſpecially near the Clyde. It abounds with coal and limeſtone, and has ſome profitable lead mines; gold has alſo been found in great quantities, though it does not appear that any of that valuable metal is ever found at preſent; and abundance of lapis-lazuli is dug up there, particularly in Crawford-moor.

The principal places in this ſhire are the following:

Glaſgow, the ſecond city in Scotland, is pleaſantly ſeated on the ſide of a hill ſloping to the river Clyde, in the fifty-fifth degree thirty two minutes north lat. and in the fourth degree five minutes weſt longitude, thirty-five miles to the weſt of Edinburgh. It has a noble and beautiful ſtone bridge over the river, which ſometimes overflows its banks; and as one third of the city lies in a flat next the river, it is then overflowed. In the centre of Glaſgow is the Tolbooth or town-houſe, a very magnificent ſtructure of hewn ſtone, lately rebuilt, with noble apartments for the magiſtrates, and a very lofty tower, with bells which chime every hour. From this town houſe and the adjacent market place run the four principal ſtreets of the city in the form of a croſs, dividing the city into four equal parts, each adorned with ſeveral public buildings, and each ſaid to be larger and finer than any one ſtreet in London; the houſes being uniformly built of free ſtone, ſix ſtories high, and ſome more: they are for the moſt part adorned with columns of the Doric order, have beautiful piazzas, and are well ſaſhed. From the centre the whole city may be ſeen; and the ſtreets are ſpacious, ſtraight, and well paved.

In the higher part of the city, and at the end of one of the ſtreets, ſtands the cathedral, a vaſt pile dedicated to St. Mungo, who was biſhop here about the year 560. It is divided into two churches, one over the other, called the upper and lower; and its ſeveral rows of pillars and exceeding high towers, with the tall ſpire, the higheſt in Scotland, riſing from one of the towers, ſhew the extraordinary ſkill of the architect. Here are five other very good churches, all of them neatly built, with handſome ſteeples. Beſides theſe places of worſhip there are convenient apartments for the meeting of the preſbytery, which conſiſts of nineteen pariſhes, and for the provincial ſynod, which conſiſts of 127.

Near the cathedral is a ruinous caſtle, which in the time of Epiſcopacy was the palace of the archbiſhop, who was lord of the city, and gave it its firſt charter. It is fenced in with a very high wall of hewn ſtone, and has a fine proſpect of the whole city.

The glory of the city is its univerſity, which indeed conſiſts of only one college; but it is by far the beſt, the moſt ſpacious, and the fineſt built in Scotland. It conſiſts of two large ſquares of noble and lofty ſtone buildings, adorned with a high tower, and many fine turrets, and is ſeparated from the reſt of the town by a very high wall. The front towards the city is a noble piece of architecture. This univerſity was founded by king James I. in 1453. By the firſt foundation it was under the government of a rector, a dean of the faculty, a principal or warden, who was to teach theology, three profeſſors of philoſophy, and afterwards ſome of the clergy taught the civil and canon law. King James VI. granted it a new charter, and in 1617 eſtabliſhed a principal, three profeſſors of philoſophy called regents, four purſers, a ſteward or ſurveyor to furniſh the table, &c. and ſeveral of the ſucceeding kings ratified its privileges, and were benefactors to the univerſity. The library is furniſhed with many curious printed books and valuable manuſcripts. The precincts of the college are enlarged by ſome acres of ground, purchaſed by the king and parliament; theſe are converted into well planted walks and gardens, one of which is for medicinal plants. The univerſity makes uſe of the ſame arms as the city, which are a ſalmon with a gold ring in its mouth; an oak, with a red bird upon it, and a bell. The ſcholars wear ſcarlet gowns, and here lodge in the college, which at Edinburgh they do not. The principal, regents, and maſters, have all handſome apartments, and good ſalaries.

Though the river is navigable for ſmall veſſels up to the town; yet New-Glaſgow at the mouth of the Clyde, is the harbour for all thoſe that are of conſiderable burthen, it having a good quay and a cuſtom houſe for all the coaſt; ſhips are alſo laid up here and refitted, and the goods are brought from thence to the city in lighters. The merchants of Glaſgow annually ſend about fifty ſhips to Virginia, New England, and other Engliſh colonies in America. They have alſo a very conſiderable trade in herrings, which they export to Spain and Portugal. The city has likewiſe a manufacture of plaids and muſlins. It gives title of earl to the honourable family of Boyle; and in this city has been lately erected a noble foundation under the name of the Glaſgow charitable marine ſociety, in order to provide for ſuch ſeamen as ſhall become old and diſabled in the merchants ſervice, and to afford relief to their widows and children.

Hamilton is ſeated near the confluence of the Avon and Clyde, eleven miles to the ſouth-weſt of Glaſgow, and is a well built town, with a bridge over the Avon, and a handſome pariſh church. It is larger than moſt of the royal burghs, and the houſes, which are built with free ſtone, are ſupported on pillars: but its principal ornament is the noble ſeat of the duke of Hamilton, which has a magnificent front intirely of free ſtone, adorned with different orders of architecture, and very deep wings. The apartments are truly noble, and the pictures, furniture, and other decorations, are exquiſitely fine. The offices of this ſtructure join the town; it has a very beautiful garden, conſiſting of ſeven terrace walks down to the river ſide; with a wood on the oppoſite ſide. In ſome of the walks are grottos and banquetting houſes. The great park is about ſeven miles in compaſs, and well planted with lofty oaks, firs, pines, &c. It is walled round with ſtone, and ſtocked with deer. The leſſer park is alſo well planted with trees.

Lanerk is a royal burgh in the diviſion called the Upper ward; it is ſituated on the Clyde, nine miles to the ſouth-weſt of Hamilton, and is the ſeat of a preſbytery which conſiſts of thirteen pariſhes.

It has a remarkable bridge, built by the inhabitants at a great expence; but was ſubject to ſuch frequent repairs on account of the rapid current of the water, that they have been obliged to obtain an act for making all who paſs over it pay a ſmall toll.

A little below the town the river Douglas falls into the Clyde, and gives the name of Douglaſdale to the lands near it. In a vale near this river ſtood a very old caſtle, which had been the paternal ſeat of the family of Douglas for above a thouſand years: but though the apartments were very fine, the frequent additions to the building rendered the whole ſuch an irregular maſs, that at a diſtance it rather reſembled a little town than a ſingle ſtructure; but in December 1758 this ancient caſtle was conſumed by a fire which began in a room where nobody ſlept, and was got to ſuch a height before it was diſcovered, that it was impoſſible to prevent its progreſs; whence the family, who were waked out of their ſleep, with difficulty ſaved their lives, but moſt of the fine paintings and valuable furniture were deſtroyed.

SECT. X.

Of Dumfries-ſhire, including Annandale and Nithſdale; its Situation, Extent, Rivers, Produce, and principal Towns.

DUMFRIES is bounded on the north by part of Clydſdale, Tweedale, and Teviotdale; on the weſt by Teviotdale, and Eſkdale; on the ſouth by Solway firth; and on the weſt by Galloway and Kyle; extending about thirty-five miles in length, and thirty-four in breadth.

Annandale, which ſignifies the dale or valley on the river Annan, lies in the eaſt part of the ſhire between Nithſdale on the weſt, and Eſkdale on the eaſt; extending twenty-four miles in length, and fourteen in breadth. The river Annan runs through the middle of the ſhire, and falls into Solway firth, after a courſe of twenty-ſeven miles, in which it has received ſeveral ſmall rivers, that run on both ſides through pleaſant woods and fruitful fields abounding with paſture. This diviſion is a ſtewartry, that gives title of marquis to the family of Johnſton.

Nithſdale, or Nidisdale, on the weſt ſide of Annandale, is ſo called from the Nith or Nid, which runs through it; it has both paſture and arable lands; for though it is encompaſſed on all ſides with a ridge of rocks, the bottoms produce abundance of corn.

The river Nith or Nid iſſues out of a lake called Lochcure, and runs into Solway firth.

Nithſdale is divided into the Overward, which contains the pariſhes in the preſbytery of Pent-pont; and the Netherward, containing thoſe of Dumfries preſbytery. Here were formerly woods and foreſts, which are now much exhauſted; and pieces of gold have after great rains been found in ſome of the brooks.

Annand, the chief town of Anandale, was an ancient royal burgh and ſea-port at the mouth of the Annan, where it falls into Solway-firth, ſeventy miles to the ſouth of Edinburgh. It had once a caſtle and a pretty good trade; but being often taken by the Engliſh, and burnt to the ground in the reign of Edward VI. moſt of the merchants removed to Dumfries, and it has never ſince recovered itſelf. It has however a weekly market, with a handſome bridge over the river.

Dumfries, the chief town of Nithſdale, and the capital of the ſouth-weſt part of the kingdom, is a pleaſant and thriving place, whence it has been called the Liverpool of Scotland: it ſtands eight miles from the mouth of the Nith, in the fifty-fourth degree fifty minutes north lat. but the tide flowing up brings ſmall ſhips quite up to the quay, and about four miles lower, the largeſt ſhips may ride in ſafety. It has ſpacious ſtreets, with a ſtately church, and a caſtle, which, though old, is pretty ſtrong. It has alſo four gates and a noble bridge of free ſtone over the river, leading to Galloway: this bridge has thirteen arches, and is eſteemed the fineſt in Britain next to thoſe of Weſtminſter, London, and Rocheſter. In the middle of it is a gate which bounds the ſhire of Dumfries and the ſtewartry of Galloway. A ſtreet leads from it by an eaſy aſcent to the caſtle, which is on the eaſt ſide of the town, and commands a proſpect of the town and the adjacent country; and from the caſtle a ſpacious high ſtreet runs by an eaſy deſcent to the church, which is half a mile diſtant. On each ſide of the high ſtreet are good ſtone buildings, thoſe on the north ſide having gardens next the river; and about the middle of it are the exchange and the town-houſe. It has likewiſe a large market place, with a noble croſs. The town gives title of earl to the ancient family of Crichton. It is the ſeat of a preſbytery, to which belong eighteen pariſhes, and is the place where the provincial ſynod meets, which conſiſts of four preſbyteries, that have under them fifty-four pariſhes.

The country round the town is very pleaſant, and adorned with many ſeats of gentlemen, all finely planted with trees.

Drumlanric lies ſeventeen miles to the north of Dumfries; it has a weekly market, and gave title of earl to the duke of Queenſberry, who has here a noble palace, adorned with twenty-eight turrets, grand avenues, gardens, and terrace walks, beſides a ſtately ſtone bridge over the river Nith. Like Chatſworth in Derbyſhire, it ſtands in a wild rocky country, and is environed with mountains. It is a ſquare free-ſtone building, and has hanging gardens cut out of the rock down to the river, adorned with water-works and grottos, with a plantation of oaks ſix miles in length.

SECT. XI.

Of the Stewartry of Kircudbright, or Lower Galloway; its Situation, Extent, Produce, and principal Towns.

THIS and the Stewartry of Orkney and Shetland differ only from the ſhires in the title of the chief officer, who is here called the ſtewart, and in the other the ſheriff. Galloway is divided into two parts; this ſtewartry, which is towards the eaſt, being called Lower Galloway; and the weſtermoſt Upper Galloway, or Wigtown. Lower Galloway begins at the middle of the bridge of Dumfries, and lies between Nithſdale on the eaſt, and the water of Cree on the weſt; and is bounded on the north by a part of Kyle in the ſhire of Aire; and by the Iriſh ſea on the ſouth. According to Templeman, it extends forty-three miles in length, and thirty-two in breadth.

The country ſeems one continued heath, except here and there a grove of trees; yet vaſt herds of ſmall black cattle, and flocks of ſheep, are grazed here, and ſent in great numbers to England.

Kircudbright, which gives its name to this ſhire, ſtands in a bay at the mouth of the river Dee, eighty-three miles to the ſouth-weſt of Edinburgh, and is an ancient royal burgh, the ſeat of a preſbytery, to which belong ſixteen pariſhes, and the place where the ſtewart holds his courts. It has a weekly market, and a good ſalmon fiſhery on the river Dee, which riſes in the mountains near Carrick; and it is ſo full of turnings and windings, that though it is not above ſeventy miles in a line, it runs near two hundred. It has a commodious harbour ſufficient to hold all the Britiſh navy, and the largeſt firſt rates may caſt anchor by the church-yard. It is alſo land-locked from all winds, which, together with the waves, are broke by Roſs iſland at its mouth. The town ſtands in a perfect amphitheatre, like Trent on the confines of Italy: not ſurrounded with high mountains, but with a rocky and ſtony cruſt, which in this country is called crags; a diſtinction being here made between mountains, hills, and crags: the firſt are very high, rocky, and covered with heath; the hills are high, but not rocky, and covered with graſs, which affords good paſture, and the crags are ſtony rocks, not high, and very thinly covered with graſs. In the midſt of this craggy country is ſeated this little town, which conſiſts of tolerable good ſtreets, and all the houſes are built with ſtone: but neither its buildings, nor the manners, dreſs, or the countenance of the people reſemble the Engliſh: the common ſort wear bonnets inſtead of hats, and it is ſaid, that though ſome of the townſmen have hats, they wear them only upon Sundays and extraordinary occaſions. There is nothing of Engliſh gaiety, but a ſedate gravity, which is viſible in every face; and notwithſtanding the excellence of their harbour, they have no notion of trade.

New Galloway is a royal burgh on the river Ken, fourteen miles from Kircudbright, with a good weekly market, well frequented for corn and other proviſions; and it has a good ſalmon-fiſhery in a lake called Loch-ken, which abounds not only with ſalmon, but other fiſh: this lake is about five miles long, and in ſome places about a mile broad, containing ſeveral iſlands.

SECT. XII.

Of Upper Galloway, or the Shire of Wigton; its Situation, Extent, and principal Towns.

UPPER Galloway extends from the water of Cree, which divides it on the eaſt from Lower Galloway, to the point called the Mull of Galloway and the Iriſh ſea. According to Templeman, it is thirty-ſeven miles in length, and twenty-ſix in breadth; but is much indented by Loch-rian on the north, and the bay of Glenluce on the ſouth.

This is a hilly country, more fit for breeding cattle than bearing corn. The inhabitants follow fiſhing, not only in the ſea, but in the rivers and lakes that lie every where under the hills; in which, about the middle of September, they catch an infinite number of eels. Though the people have been cenſured for not applying to commerce, they having ſeveral good harbours on the coaſt, yet they are not idle, for they are great huſbandmen and graziers; and, including horſes, they annually ſend about fifty thouſand head of cattle every year to England. Galloway had anciently its own princes, but it now gives title of earl to a branch of the family of Stuarts.

The principal towns of this ſhire are the following:

Wigton, a royal burgh, a market town, and the capital of the country, is ſeated near the mouth of a river, on a bay of its own name, ninety-five miles to the ſouth-weſt of Edinburgh. This bay is eleven miles in length and breadth: it is a good port, which has a very narrow entrance. At this town the ſheriff holds his courts, and it is the ſeat of a preſbytery that conſiſts of ten pariſhes. It gives title of earl to the chief of the ancient and noble family of Fleming.

Port-Patrick is a market town beyond the river Loſſie, a hundred and ten miles to the ſouth-weſt of Edinburgh, and has a ſafe harbour called the Rine or Beak of Galloway. It lies oppoſite to Donaghadee, in Ireland, and is a dirty poor place, where the packet-boats go for Belfaſt, and other ports of that kingdom, to which coaſt it is but a ſhort paſſage, and of which there is a full view all the way: but little uſe is made of the harbour, except for the packet-boats and a few fiſhing veſſels. A neighbouring hill affords a plain view of Ireland to the ſouth-weſt; of the coaſt of Cumberland and the Iſle of Man to the ſouth-eaſt; with the Iſle of Ilay and the Mull of Kintyre to the north-weſt.

SECT. XIII.

Of the Shire of Aire; its Situation, Extent, Diviſions, Produce, and principal Towns.

THE ſhire of Aire is bounded on the north by that of Renfrew; on the ſouth by Galloway; on the eaſt by Clydſdale; and on the weſt by the frith of Clyde. It is divided into Carrick, Kyle, and Cunningham, which are eſteemed the three great baileries, and are thus called from their being governed by bailiffs. According to Templeman, there are ſeven hundred and ninety-five ſquare miles in the baileries of Kyle and Carrick, and two hundred and twenty-nine in the diviſion called Cunningham.

In this county is a conſiderable lake called Dun, ſix miles long, and two broad, with an iſland in it, upon which is an old houſe called Caſtle-Dun. Upon the water Dun, or Dawn, iſſuing from this lake, is a bridge of one arch ninety feet wide, which is much wider than the Rialto at Venice, or the middle arch of the great bridge at York.

We ſhall begin with Carrick, which is bounded on the north by Kyle, on the eaſt by Kyle and Galloway, on the ſouth by the latter alone, and on the weſt by the Frith of Clyde; extending thirty-two miles along the frontiers of Galloway, where it is longeſt, from eaſt to weſt, and twenty-five, where broadeſt, from north to ſouth.

The land is here more fruitful and better cultivated than that of Galloway, and is leſs mountainous; but has not ſo many cattle, eſpecially ſheep and horſes. It gives one of the titles of honour to the prince of Wales.

The chief rivers of this diſtrict are the Stincher and the Girven, which abound with ſalmon and other fiſh. Here are alſo many lakes and woods. Though there is no conſiderable port in this part of the country, the people towards the coaſt are great fiſhermen, and are employed by the merchants of Glaſgow and other places to catch herrings for them.

The principal town in the earldom of Carrick is Bargeny, which has a market, and gives title of lord to a branch of the family of Hamilton.

Kyle is ſeparated from Carrick by the river Dun, and from Cunningham by the Irwin; it has Cunningham on the north; part of Clydſdale on the eaſt; Nithſdale, Carrick, and part of Galloway on the ſouth; and the frith of Clyde on the weſt; extending thirty-four miles from eaſt to weſt, and twenty-ſix from north to ſouth. It is divided by the river Aire into two ſtewartries: that on the ſouth ſide as far as the river Dun is called King's Kyle, and is under the juriſdiction of a ſheriff; and Kyle Stuart, which is under the prince of Wales.

The river Aire has the longeſt courſe of any in the county; its banks are adorned with woods, caſtles, and gentlemen's ſeats; and the river, after running (beſides its many turnings and windings) twenty-four miles from eaſt to weſt, falls into the ſea.

Aire, the chief town of this diviſion, and the capital of the whole country, is ſeated at the mouth of the river of its own name, ſixty-five miles to the ſouth-weſt of Edinburgh. It has a good harbour near the firth of Clyde, and is well ſituated for trade. It is an ancient town diſtinguiſhed by its privileges, its juriſdiction extending ſixty-four miles from the mouth of the Clyde to the borders of Galloway. The river turns ſeveral mills in the middle of the New Town; this is joined to the Old Town, which ſtands on the ſouth ſide of the river, by a ſtone bridge of four arches. The Old Town is ſeated in a ſandy plain, amidſt pleaſant fertile fields, with delightful greens, that afford a good proſpect winter and ſummer. It was formerly reckoned next to Glaſgow, the principal market town in the weſt of Scotland, and has a ſtately church. It is the ſeat of a preſbytery, to which belong twenty-eight pariſhes, and, with Glaſgow, conſtitutes a provincial ſynod: but its trade is ſaid to be much decayed.

Cunningham, the laſt diviſion of this county, is bounded on the eaſt by Renfrew and Clydſdale, on the ſouth by Kyle, and on the weſt and north by the firth of Clyde. Its greateſt length from the ſouth-eaſt to the north-weſt is about twenty-nine miles, and its greateſt breadth from eaſt to weſt about twelve. It is divided from Kyle by the river Irwin, and is a much finer country and leſs mountainous than that.

Irwin is the beſt town of this diſtrict; it ſtands at the mouth of the river of the ſame name, ſixty-three miles to the ſouth-weſt of Edinburgh; but its port is ſo ſhallow, and ſo choaked up with ſand, that it is only capable of receiving ſmall veſſels: yet it has much more buſineſs than Aire, and conſiſts of two pretty good ſtreets, with well built houſes, and a quay from whence the inhabitants carry on a coal trade to Dublin. There is a handſome ſtone bridge over the river; and in 1736 an act was paſſed for reſtoring the harbour, and repairing the town-houſe, church, jail, &c. This town gives title of viſcount to the family of Ingram. On the twenty-ſixth of November, 1740, there was here ſuch a ſtorm of thunder and lightning, that the people who were not ſtruck down by the lightning fell to the ground, apprehending that the day of general judgment was come.

SECT.

SECT. XIV.

Of the Shire of Renfrew, or Reinfraw; its Situation, Extent, Produce, and principal Towns.

THIS county is called the barony by way of eminence; it having given the title of baron to the prince of Scotland before the Union, as it does now, together with Snowden, to his royal highneſs the prince of Wales. It is bounded on the ſouth by Cunningham, on the eaſt by Lanerkſhire, on the north by Lenox, and on the ſouth by the ſhire of Dumbarton; it extending, according to Templeman, thirty miles from north to ſouth, and thirteen where broadeſt from eaſt to weſt.

That part of the county next to the Clyde is fruitful and pleaſant, with only a few ſmall eminences; but that to the ſouth, ſouth-weſt, and weſt, is more barren and mountainous: it abounds with all neceſſaries, enjoys a healthful air, and at the ſame time the convenience of the frith of the Clyde, in which there is very ſafe riding upon all the coaſt, has much improved theſe parts, which are populous, and adorned with many gentlemen's ſeats. It is watered by ſeveral ſmall rivers, the chief of which are the White-cart and the Black-cart, which unite their ſtreams before they fall into the Clyde.

The principal towns of this county are the following:

Renfrew, the ſhire town, and a royal burgh, is ſeated on a branch of the Clyde, called the Cathcart, forty-ſix miles to the weſt of Edinburgh. It is a ſmall but ancient town, where the ſheriff holds his courts.

Paſley, or Paſlay, is ſeated on the river White-cart, ſix miles to the weſt of Glaſgow, where is a pearl-fiſhery; and though no royal burgh, is much bigger than Renfrew, and is the ſeat of a preſbytery compoſed of ſixteen pariſhes. Here is a bridge over the Cart, and there are ſtill to be ſeen the remains of an abbey founded in the year 1160: the remains of which, together with its church, gardens, orchard, and a little deer-park, are encloſed by a ſtone wall, about a mile in compaſs.

On a high ground in the lands ſtiled New-yards, at a ſmall diſtance from Paſley, is a ſpring famous for its ebbing and flowing with the tide.

Greenock, a handſome well built town on the firth of the Clyde, twenty-ſix miles to the weſt of the Clyde, has a good road for ſhips that come into and go out of Glaſgow. It is the chief place in the weſt of Scotland for the herring-fiſhery; and the merchants of Glaſgow, who are concerned in it, employ the veſſels of the inhabitants for catching and curing the fiſh, and for carrying them abroad to market afterwards. Here are many rich trading families, and the town is noted for good ſeamen and excellent pilots.

SECT. XV.

Of Dumbartonſhire, or Lenox; its Situation, Extent, Produce, and principal Towns.

THIS county, which lies on the other ſide of the Clyde above Glaſgow, runs far north among a cluſter of hills, and is bounded on the ſouth by the firth and river of Clyde; on the eaſt by Menteith and Sterlingſhire, it being ſeparated from the latter by the water of Blane; on the north by the Grampian-hills; on the north-weſt by Argyleſhire; and on the weſt by the lake called Loch-long, and a water of the ſame name that falls into it. According to the editor of Camden, it extends only twenty-four miles in length, and twenty in breadth; but Mr. Templeman makes it forty-one miles long, and twenty-ſeven broad. Its bounds were formerly larger than they are at preſent, eſpecially on the eaſt ſide; and it has now only twelve pariſhes.

The lower part of Dumbartonſhire, which lies to the eaſt, is very fruitful in corn, eſpecially towards the rivers; and the upper, which is hilly, is fit for paſture, eſpecially at the beginning of the Grampian-hills, and feeds numerous flocks of ſheep. It has alſo a noble herring-fiſhery in two bays, named Loch-long and Loch-fyn, that break into it from the mouth of the Clyde.

Levinia, the Latin name for Lenox, is derived from the river Levin, which runs from Loch-lomond into the Clyde. This loch, or lake, ſpreads between the mountains, twenty-four miles in length, and eight in breadth, though at the narroweſt part it is but two. It abounds with fiſh, particularly with a delicious ſort of the eel kind, called pollac, that is ſaid to be peculiar to this lake, whence its banks are lined with the cottages of fiſhermen. It contains thirty iſlands, three of which have churches, and many of the reſt are inhabited, particularly Inchmurin, which is fruitful in corn and graſs, and abounds with deer. Several of them are called floating iſlands: theſe are ſaid to be artificial, and formed of beams faſtened together and covered with earth and turf; upon ſome of theſe are forts, into which the natives uſed to retire in time of war. The ſhire of Lenox, together with the town of Richmond in Yorkſhire, give the title of duke to the family of Lenox, deſcended from king Charles II.

Dumbarton, the principal town of this ſhire, from which it takes its name, is ſeated at the confluence of the Leven and the Clyde, fifteen miles to the north-weſt of Glaſgow, and was once conſiderable for its trade, which is now much decayed; but is ſtill remarkable for its caſtle, which is thought to be one of the ſtrongeſt in Europe; it being ſeated on the top of a craggy rock, very ſteep on all ſides, except to the Clyde. It has only one narrow ſteep aſcent, where ſteps are cut out of the rock, paſſable by only one man at a time. The river Leven on the weſt, and the Clyde on the ſouth, ſerve it for ditches; and to the weſtward lies a moraſs, which is overflowed by every tide. As this is at one of the great ſtrong paſſes between the low country and the highlands, a governor and a garriſon are conſtantly kept in it.

SECT. XVI.

Of the Shire of Bute and Caithneſs; their Situation, Extent, Produce, and principal Places.

THE ſhire of Bute contains Bute and Arran, two of the Weſtern iſlands, and is now joined with Caithneſs in ſending one member to the parliament of Great Britain alternately.

Theſe iſlands are tolerably fertile, and their produce much the ſame as that of the other Weſtern iſlands. They lie in the firth of Clyde, and have Argyleſhire on the north; Cantyre on the weſt; and Renfrew, Cunningham, and Kyle on the eaſt. The iſland of Bute, which is about twelve miles in length, and five in breadth, with an area of twenty-ſeven miles, is ſeparated on the north by two narrow ſtreights from Argyleſhire, and on the weſt from the iſle of Arran; it lies ſix miles to the weſt of the coaſt of Cunningham, and but half a mile from Argyleſhire.

The northern parts of this iſland are mountainous, but afford good paſtures and ſome wood. The others produce oats, barley, and peas. The iſland has a quarry of red ſtone. It enjoys a healthful air, and its inhabitants live to a great age. There is a conſiderable herring and cod-fiſhery on the coaſt. The earl of Mont-Stuart is its chief proprietor and heretable coroner.

The chief town of the ſhire is Rothſay, which ſtands near the middle of the iſland, on the eaſt ſide, ſeventy miles to the weſt of Edinburgh; the inhabitants ſubſiſt chiefly by fiſhing and agriculture. It is a royal burgh, and has two forts, one called the caſtle of Rothſay, the other the caſtle of Kermes.

The iſle of Arran lies about four miles from the ſouth part of the iſle of Bute, and ſix to the eaſt of Cantyre, extending, according to the General Atlas, twenty-four miles from north to ſouth, and nine, where broadeſt, from eaſt to weſt; but Mr. Mackay, a native of the iſland, in his journey through it, ſays it is but twelve in circuit. The air is cold and moiſt, but cleared by frequent breezes from the mountains. The iſland is fruitful in grain, and has good paſtures. The middle of the iſland is mountainous, and the higheſt part, called Capra, abounds with deer. Here are many horſes and black cattle, both of a middling ſize, with abundance of ſmall ſheep and goats;

land and ſea fowl. Here are alſo found fullers-earth, and cryſtal. On the coaſt are ſeveral caves, one of which is large enough to hold a hundred men; and at the farther end of it is a pillar cut out of the rock, with a deer and a double hilted ſword carved upon it; and the natives pretend that Fune Machkowle, a giant, who diſtinguiſhed himſelf by his great exploits, lodged in theſe caves with his attendants. A miniſter ſometimes preaches in one of them to ſuch as live at a diſtance from the church. Here are many large ſtones, from ſix to fifteen feet high, ſet up on end, ſome ſingly, and others in a circular form, ſuppoſed to have been the remains of pagan temples, or of places for adminiſtering juſtice.

This iſland has ſeveral rivers which abound with ſalmon, as the ſea all round does with cod, herrings, ling, whitings, and ſhell-fiſh. But the adjacent ſea is tempeſtuous and dangerous, eſpecially when a ſtrong ſouth or ſouth-weſt wind blows.

The inhabitants are generally of a brown complexion, healthy, vigorous, and ingenious. In the iſland are five churches, with ſeveral caſtles; among which the moſt noted is Brodich, a pleaſant ſummer ſeat at the north-eaſt corner of the iſland. Theſe, and almoſt the whole iſland, belong to a branch of the noble family of Hamilton.

The ſhire of Weik, or Caithneſs, though united in ſome meaſure to Bute, by ſending a member alternately to parliament, is as far diſtant from the iſlands juſt deſcribed as poſſible, it being ſeated in the north-eaſt extremity of Scotland: it has therefore the Northern ocean on the eaſt, Strathnaver and Sutherland on the ſouth and ſouth-weſt, and on the north is divided from the Orkney iſlands by Pentland frith. It comprehends all the country beyond the river Neſſe and the lake into which it flows, and extends thirty-five miles from north to ſouth.

The land is much indented by the many windings and breakings of the ſhore, and the whole coaſt, except the bays, conſiſts of high rocks and many promontories. The ſea is here very dangerous, eſpecially in calm weather, except at ſtated times, on account of the many vortexes, owing to the repulſe of the tides from the ſhore, and their paſſage between the Orkney iſlands. The inland country is mountainous; but towards the coaſt it is low, and produces corn enough both for the natives and for exportation; but the ſoil being moiſt and clayey, their harveſt is late, and the corn not ſo good as that of Roſs and Sutherland. There is plenty of paſture in the fields and valleys, with good fowling and hunting on the mountains, and fiſhing in the lakes and rivers, as well as the ſea. In the foreſts of Moravins and Berridale is great plenty of red deer and roebucks, and many cows, goats, and ſheep. In ſeveral parts are copper, iron, and lead ore; but the inhabitants chiefly ſubſiſt by grazing and fiſhing.

This county is populous, and has many little towns and villages, with a preſbytery of twelve pariſhes, and gives title of earl to a branch of the ancient and noble family of Sinclair; but the earl of Braidalbin, who has a great eſtate in the county, is hereditary ſheriff.

Proviſions, eſpecially corn, cattle, and fiſh, are ſo plentiful here, that this is ſaid to be the cheapeſt market in the world, and that a man can live better here for fifty pound a year, than he can in the ſouth of Scotland for two hundred: but the firing is turf, for want of coals. The rocks on the coaſt are much frequented by eagles, hawks, maws, herons, and other fowl of various kinds, like thoſe of the Orkney and Shetland iſlands; and the people take the young fowls from their neſts by a hook and line. There is a particular ſort called ſnowfleets, which reſort to this country in February by thouſands in a flight, and go away in April. They are of about the ſize of a ſparrow, but exceeding fat and delicious eating. They have alſo great plenty of moor fowls and plovers.

The inhabitants are ſo induſtrious, that in ſome places, where there is no harbour or bay, but a continued hard rugged rock, they have procured harbours by art and dint of labour, and made paſſages in many places by forming ſteps or ſtairs from the top of the rock to the bottom, where their fiſhing boats lie; and at the top of the rock have their houſes, to which they carry up their fiſh, and there ſalt and dry them for the market.

The principal towns in this county are Wick, or Weik, and Thurſo.

Weik, from whence this is called the ſhire of Weik, is a royal burgh, and market town, where the courts are kept. It ſtands on the eaſt ſide of the county at the mouth of Murray frith, where it falls into the north ſea; but it is not much frequented.

Thurſo lies oppoſite to it on the weſt ſide of the county, about twelve or fourteen miles from Weik, and is ſo defended by the promontory called Holborn-head, that it is a ſecure place for ſhips to ride in. It is more populous, and better built than Weik, and has the beſt church in the ſhire. A ſmall river called the water of Thurſo, runs by the eaſt ſide of the town, in which is a good fiſhery for ſalmon, which keep in this river all the year; ſo that they are to be had in winter by breaking the ice.

SECT. XVII.

Of Sterlingſhire, or Striveling; its Situation, Extent, and Produce; with a Deſcription of the Towns of Sterling and Falkirk.

THIS country is bounded on the weſt by part of Lenox and Clydſdale; on the north by Menteith; on the ſouth and ſouth-eaſt by Lothian; extending twenty miles in length and twelve in breadth.

The ſouth part is mountainous; but that which lies upon the Forth is very fertile, and alſo abounds with coal. The produce of this ſhire conſiſts of corn, graſs, black cattle, ſheep, and horſes; beſides ſalmon and other fiſh, with which it is ſupplied by the rivers. The Forth, which is the moſt famous, though not the largeſt river in Scotland, riſes near the foot of the mount Lomond, and runs from weſt to eaſt into the Firth of Edinburgh.

Sterling, the capital of the county, to which it alſo gives name, ſtands thirty miles to the north-weſt of Edinburgh, upon the deſcent of a deep rock, at the foot of which runs the Forth; and takes its name from the Saxon word *ſter*, which ſignifies a hill, and *lin*, a water.

The ſituation of Sterling is much like that of Edinburgh, with a caſtle on an eminence, and the town extending up the aſcent, with a principal ſtreet that is large and handſome. It is incloſed with a wall, except towards the north, where it is waſhed by the river Forth, over which is a bridge of hewn ſtone, with an iron gate, and four ſtately arches, to which ſhips come up at full tide, and a little below it is the haven. The caſtle is ſtrengthened on every ſide with batteries and ramparts, and has a conſiderable number of great guns for defending the paſſage of the bridge: for in times of trouble the chief magazine of the nation is uſually conveyed hither, it lying upon a conſiderable paſs between the north and ſouth parts of Scotland, and almoſt in the centre of the kingdom. It is indeed the only place to which people can come from all parts of the nation, except from the iſlands, without croſſing ſome bay or frith of the ſea, which has rendered it of ſuch importance, that it is always kept in a good condition, and the garriſon generally conſiſts of two hundred men, beſides officers. It has ſix rooms of ſtate, which are extremely noble, from their extraordinary height, length, and breadth, adorned with fine carved work on the wainſcot and ceiling. At the top of it the late earl of Mar made a very convenient apartment of twelve rooms on one floor, for the governor's lodgings. It has a large park walled round; but it has little or no wood in it. This caſtle has been the reſidence of the kings of Scotland, at which time parliaments were frequently held in it.

Sterling has a ſpacious church in the upper part of the town, which has a very high tower. It has alſo a ſpacious market place and a handſome town-houſe. Oppoſite to it is the late earl of Mar's fine palace, on the top of the hill: the duke of Argyle has alſo a fine ſeat near the caſtle, from whence to the bottom of the town, it is above half a mile, all upon the deſcent, with good houſes. As Sterling ſtands in a commodious ſituation for commerce, ſo it has one way a fine proſpect of Edinburgh frith and caſtle, and of the mountains of Argyle-

ſhire and Dumbartonſhire another, as well as of the various windings of the Forth. It is the ſeat of a preſbytery, which conſiſts of twelve churches, and has a conſiderable manufacture of ſerges. Joining to the church is a neat hoſpital for decayed merchants. It was founded by James Cowen, merchant, and richly endowed. His ſtatue as big as life is at the top of the gate, and in the garden of the hoſpital is a pleaſant bowling-green.

Falkirk is a handſome ancient town, ſeated on the ſouth ſide of the Forth, eight miles to the ſouth of Sterling, and is a clean market town, noted for being the place where the rebels defeated the king's forces on the 17th of January, 1746.

SECT. XVIII.

Of Linlithgow, or Weſt-Lothian; its Situation, Extent, Produce, and principal Towns; with a conciſe Account of the Roman Wall built acroſs this Part of Scotland.

WEST-Lothian is bounded on the north by the Forth; on the eaſt and ſouth by Mid-Lothian; on the weſt by part of Clydſdale; and on the north-weſt by Stirlingſhire; extending about fourteen miles in length, and thirteen in breadth.

It is in general a pleaſant country, and abounds with corn and paſtures, coal, limeſtone, and ſalt; with great plenty of fiſh, with which it is ſupplied by the ſea and rivers. In the reign of king James VI. a mine was diſcovered here which yielded a great deal of ſilver.

The principal places in this county are the following:

Linlithgow, from which the ſhire takes its name, is ſituated on the ſide of a lake, ſixteen miles to the weſt of Edinburgh, and is remarkable for its ancient palace, ſeated on an iſland in the midſt of the lake, which has an aſcent of ſeveral ſteps in the form of an amphitheatre. The palace was magnificently built of hewn ſtone by ſeveral kings, and completed by James VI. The porch bears the name and arms of King James V. incircled with the orders of the Garter, St. Andrew, St. Michael, and the Golden Fleece, of all which James V. was a companion. In the inner court, which is larger than that of Hampton Court, is a fountain adorned with ſeveral ſtatues, and at each of the four corners a tower, with fine apartments. Adjoining the palace is St. Michael's church, a noble ſtructure with a lofty ſteeple.

In the town is alſo a quadrangular court adorned with a curious fountain: on the ſouth ſide is the Tolbooth or town-houſe, neatly built of hewn ſtone, with a very high ſteeple, in which are bells and a very fine clock. In this ſtructure the ſheriff and magiſtrates of the town keep their courts. This place is the ſeat of a preſbytery conſiſting of nineteen pariſhes. There is a large ſtreet half a mile in length, from the one end of the town to the other, adorned with handſome buildings, from each ſide of which ſeveral lanes open a paſſage to pleaſant gardens.

The lake itſelf is a mile in length and a quarter of a mile over, and abounds with perch and other ſort of fiſh; and on the north ſide is a park belonging to the palace.

The town has the appearance of great trade, with a harbour for ſhips near the caſtle of Blackneſs, where is a large cuſtom-houſe, with other houſes for the uſe of merchants. Here is a manufacture of linen, which the water of this lake is reckoned ſo extraordinary for bleaching, that a great deal of it is brought from other parts hither to be bleached.

Blackneſs is a ſtrong caſtle in a peninſula on the coaſt. It belongs to the crown, and has been often uſed for a priſon of ſtate; but is at preſent neglected, and is ſaid to reſemble at a diſtance a great ſhip unrigged.

Queen's Ferry is a royal burgh on the ſouth ſide of the river Forth, ten miles to the weſt of Edinburgh, where the queens of Scotland generally embarked when they went to their palaces on the other ſide of the Forth; and it is now a common paſſage at all times of tide from Lothian to Fife.

Severus's or Adrian's wall, which extended acroſs this part of Scotland, began at the Forth near Queen's Ferry, and extended thirty-ſix Scots miles to Dumbarton at the firth of Clyde, for covering the provincial Britons againſt the incurſions of the Picts. It was built with ſtone ten feet thick, and had watch-towers within call of one another, where centinels kept watch day and night; it had alſo a court of guard to lodge a ſufficient number of ſoldiers againſt any ſudden alarms, and ſtrong forts able to receive a whole army; with a good ditch of twelve feet wide before it.

SECT. XIX.

Of the Shire of Perth; its Situation, Extent, Produce, Rivers, Diviſions, and principal Towns.

THIS is a large, plentiful, and rich country, bounded on the eaſt by Angus; on the ſouth-eaſt by Kinroſs-ſhire and Fife; on the ſouth by Clacmannan-ſhire, Stirlingſhire, and the river and firth of Forth; on the weſt and ſouth-weſt by Argyleſhire, Lenox, and Dumbartonſhire; on the north-weſt and north by Lochaber and Badenoch; and on the north-eaſt by Marr. According to Camden, it extends fifty-two miles in length from eaſt to weſt, and about forty-eight in breadth from north to ſouth. It contains Perth Proper, part of Gowry, Strathern, Athol, Braidalbin, and Menteith, in which are five preſbyteries, and eighty-eight pariſh churches.

This county, whoſe hereditary ſheriff is the duke of Athol, is fruitful both in corn and paſture, the former in the low lands and the latter on the high grounds; and is interſperſed with fruit-trees, groves, lakes, and rivers.

The principal rivers of this county are the Tay, which is the longeſt in all Scotland, and riſes in the mountains of Braidalbin; and after ſpreading itſelf into a lake of the ſame name, fifteen miles in length, and near ſix in breadth, it runs near forty miles, excluſive of its turnings and windings, into the firth of Tay. The Keith, which is famous for its ſalmon fiſhery, and has a cataract near the Blair of Dromond, the noiſe of which is ſo loud as to ſtun thoſe who come near it. The river Ern riſes from the lake called Lochern, which is about ſeven miles in length, and one broad, in the mountainous country of Strathern, and falls into the Tay, after a courſe of thirty-four miles from eaſt to weſt, and being joined by ſeveral rivers in its paſſage.

Perth Proper, the firſt diviſion of this ſhire, has the Carſe of Gowry on the north-eaſt; Angus on the eaſt; Strathern on the weſt; Athol on the north; and the Firth of Tay on the ſouth. It is about twenty miles from the north-weſt to the ſouth-eaſt, and fifteen where broadeſt. The principal places in this diviſion are the following.

Dunkeld ſtands on the north ſide of the Tay, after it has received the Almund, twelve miles to the north of Perth, and about forty from Edinburgh. It is ſeated at the foot of the Grampian hills and is ſurrounded with woods. This is the chief market-town of the Highlands, and has been much adorned with ſtately buildings by the duke of Athol. It is the ſeat of a preſbytery containing twenty pariſhes.

Perth is a royal burgh, and the county-town where the ſheriff keeps his courts. It is frequently called St. John's town, from a church built there dedicated to St. John, and ſtands thirty miles to the north of Edinburgh, agreeably ſeated between two meadows on the ſouth bank of the Tay, and at a full tide veſſels of burthen may come up to it. Parliaments have often been held there, and it is at preſent the ſeat of a preſbytery containing twenty-one pariſhes. Here is a fine town-houſe. St. John's church, which ſtands in the middle of the town, is divided into two. The inhabitants carry on the linnen manufacture, and the merchants have a conſiderable trade to the Baltic. About a mile from Perth is Scone or Scoon, which is ſeated on the north bank of the Tay, and is thought to be in the centre of the kingdom. It was anciently famous for its abbey, founded by king David I. for the monks of the order of St. Auguſtine, where the kings of Scotland were crowned. There is

alſo a fine palace, belonging to the crown, the front of which towards the chapel is two hundred feet long, the dining-room forty feet in length, and all the apartments ſpacious and magnificent, but built after the ancient manner. The gallery of this palace is one hundred and ſeventy-five feet long, and the ceiling painted above two hundred years ago. It was in the chapel belonging to this palace that king Charles II. took the covenant.

The Carſe of Gowry, the next diviſion, is eſteemed the beautifulleſt ſpot in Scotland: it extends fourteen miles in length, and from two to four in breadth, on the north ſide of the Tay, from Dundee to Perth, which is all a perfect garden.

Strathern, the third diviſion, has Menteith and part of Fife on the ſouth; Braidalbin and Athol on the north; part of Menteith on the weſt; and Perth Proper on the eaſt; extending above forty miles from eaſt to weſt, and twenty from north to ſouth. It takes its name from the river Ern running through it. The Ochil hills, which extend along the ſouth part, abound with metals and minerals, particularly copper, lapis calaminaris, and lead; there is here alſo excellent peat, and abundance of wood. What is properly called Strathern, is a fine valley, about four miles broad, between the mountains, extremely fruitful, and ſtrewed with gentlemen's ſeats, which ſtand on the ſide of the hills, and with their plantations of trees render the valley more agreeable.

Abernethy ſtands in the ſouth-eaſt corner of this diviſion, at the confluence of the Ern and Tay, ſomewhat above twenty-four miles from Duplin. It is an ancient town, and is ſaid to have been the ſeat of the Pictiſh kings, as well as of an archbiſhop, afterwards removed to St. Andrews.

There are two caſtles on the banks of the Ern, one of them Tullibarbin, the ancient ſeat of the Murrays, which gives title of marquis to the eldeſt ſon of the duke of Athol; and the other is Duplin caſtle, the ſeat of the earl of Kinnoul, to whom it gives title of viſcount; the houſe is adorned with the fineſt paintings and carving, and his lordſhip has a park well planted with trees, and walled round.

Menteith, the next diviſion, is bounded on the north by Braidalbin and Strathern; on the eaſt by Fife; on the ſouth by Lenox and Stirlingſhire; and on the weſt by Lenox; extending forty-four miles from eaſt to weſt, and twenty-eight where broadeſt. This territory is ſaid to derive its name from the river Teith, and reaches to the mountains that encloſe the eaſt ſide of Loch-lomond.

The only place of note in this diviſion is the pleaſant little town of Dumblain, on the weſt ſide of the river Allan, where king David once erected a biſhopric, and the ruins of the biſhop's houſe and that of the regular canons are ſtill to be ſeen. There was alſo a magnificent church, part of which remains entire. The town is a perfect amphitheatre, in a fine bottom ſurrounded with hills, and gives title of viſcount to the duke of Leeds.

The fifth diviſion is Braidalbin, a country among the Grampian-hills, bounded on the north by Athol and Lochaber; on the eaſt by Athol; on the ſouth by Strathern and Menteith; and on the weſt by Lochaber, Lorn, and Knapdale; extending above thirty-two Scots miles from eaſt to weſt, and about thirteen from north to ſouth. It is inhabited by the Highlanders, who retain their ancient language.

Athol, the moſt northern diviſion, is bounded on the north by Badenoch; on the weſt by Lochaber; on the eaſt and ſouth-eaſt by Marr and Gowry; on the ſouth by Strathern and Perth Proper; and on the ſouth-weſt by Braidalbin; extending in length from the north-weſt to the ſouth-eaſt forty-three miles, and thirty-one where broadeſt. Here are many mountains, and the valleys are full of woods. It gives title of duke to the noble and antient family of Murray; but contains no place of importance.

SECT. XX.

Of Kincardinſhire, or Mearns; its Situation, Extent, Produce, and principal Towns.

THIS county is bounded on the eaſt by the Northern ocean; on the ſouth by the North Eſk; on the weſt by the Granſbain-hills; and on the north by Aberdeenſhire, from which it is divided by the river Dee; extending about twenty-ſeven miles in length, and twenty in breadth.

The country is pretty level, and enjoys a rich ſoil fruitful in corn and paſture. There are ſaid to be about five millions of fir trees in this county; beſides a prodigious number planted by the gentry about their ſeats. Upon the ſea-coaſts are ſeveral convenient creeks and ſome good harbours.

Kincardin, once the county-town, ſtands on the river Dee, eighteen miles to the eaſt of Aberdeen, and is the ſeat of a preſbytery conſiſting of fifteen pariſhes.

Stonehive, the preſent county town, has a very good harbour, ſecured by a ſtone pier. Near this town is Dunnotyre, where once ſtood a caſtle fortified with ſtrong walls and towers upon a high inacceſſible rock, waſhed by the ſea on three ſides, and joined to the land by a narrow iſthmus. By the entrance of the harbour is a huge rock near forty ells high, which ſeems every moment ready to fall; and at a ſmall diſtance is a dropping cave, where the water petrifies. This caſtle was for a long time the ſeat of the Keiths, the hereditary earl marſhals of Scotland.

Fourdon, or Mearns, ſtands twenty-one miles from Kincardin, and is the ſeat of a preſbytery conſiſting of ſixteen pariſhes. In the times of popery it was famous for the reliques ſuppoſed to have been depoſited there of St. Palladius, the firſt biſhop in Scotland, who was ſent over by pope Celeſtine in the year 431 to preach the Goſpel to the Scots, and confute the Pelagians.

SECT. XXI.

Of Aberdeenſhire; its Situation, Extent, Diviſions, Produce, and principal Towns.

THIS county is bounded on the ſouth by the river Dee and the Granſbain-mountains, which divide it from Angus, in the ſhire of Forfar, and Kincardinſhire; on the eaſt by the Northern ocean; on the north by part of Murray; on the north-weſt by Bamff; and on the north by Murray; extending, according to Templeman, ſeventy-three miles in length, and twenty-eight in breadth. It contains Mar, with its appurtenances, Strathdee, Strathdon, the braes of Mar and Cromar, with the greateſt part of Buchan, Garioch, and Strathbogy. The ſouth part contains Mar, with its ſubdiviſions, from whence it was formerly called the ſhire of Mar.

This county would be in general pretty fruitful, was it properly cultivated. It produces corn, particularly rye, and oats in great abundance, with ſome beans, peas, roots, and herbs, both for food and phyſic. The hilly parts, eſpecially the craigs of Pennau, where the eagles build their neſts, are covered with woods of oak and fir, and have plenty of game and paſture, therefore feed abundance of black cattle, ſheep, deer, and horſes. There are here alſo quarries of ſpotted marble, limeſtone, and ſlate, with a ſpecies of ſmall ſtones peculiar to this country, called elf-arrow-heads, which ſeem of a flinty kind, and are of different ſhapes; but moſt of them reſemble the head or point of an arrow or ſpear. In the rivers are found muſſels, which contain large pearls of a fine colour and ſhape. Here are ſprings of allum-water, and veins of ſtone from which allum is boiled.

The air of this country is cool, but healthful; and the fuel of the inhabitants is peat, turf, and wood. The winter is much leſs ſevere than might be expected ſo far north, and the inhabitants are reckoned of a mild temper, though with as much good ſenſe as their neighbours.

Aberdeen, a city and univerſity, has its name from the Don, it ſtanding at the mouth of that river, in the fifty-ſeventh degree ſix minutes north latitude, and the firſt degree fifty-eight minutes weſt longitude, eighty miles from Edinburgh. There are two towns, the Old and New. Old Aberdeen was the ſeat of a biſhop, it having a large and ſtately cathedral, generally called St. Machar's. On the ſouth ſide of it ſtands King's-college, in

which is a principal and ſub-principal, with three other regents or profeſſors of philoſophy. There are alſo profeſſors of divinity, civil law, phyſic, the mathematics, and the oriental tongues. Cloſe to the church is a library well furniſhed with books. This college is not inferior to any in Scotland. The church, with its turret or ſteeple, is of hewn-ſtone, and the top vaulted with a double croſs arch, ſurmounted by an imperial crown.

New Aberdeen is about a mile diſtant from the Old, and is ſeated at the mouth of the river Dee. It is the county town, and conſequently the ſeat of the ſheriff's courts. It exceeds all the cities in the north of Scotland in extent and beauty. Aberdeen ſtands in a wholeſome air, has a great revenue from its ſalmon-fiſhery, and the inhabitants are in general gay, rich, and courteous. It is ſeated on three hills, the main parts upon the higheſt; the ſkirts of it extending into the plain. The market-place is beautiful and ſpacious, and the houſes, which are neatly built, are generally four or five ſtories high, with handſome ſaſh windows, and have for the moſt part gardens and orchards belonging to them, which render the city pleaſant and healthful, and the proſpect of it beautiful at a diſtance. The ſtreets are extremely well paved.

Beſides the other public buildings, there is in the High-ſtreet a church neatly built of free-ſtone. The church of St. Nicholas is alſo a handſome edifice of free-ſtone, with a lofty ſteeple reſembling a pyramid: it was formerly divided into three churches; and the body of it is adorned with a tower and a ſteeple with pinnacles. The people of Aberdeen, and indeed of almoſt all this part of the country, are generally of the Epiſcopalian perſuaſion; ſo that were it not for the legal eſtabliſhment, the Preſbyterian preachers would have but ſlender incomes: almoſt every pariſh has a meeting-houſe, where the liturgy is read: at Aberdeen they have beautiful chapels, and even organs.

The principal of the public buildings is the college, founded by George Keith, earl marſhal, in 1593, and from him called the Marſhallian college; but ſince his time the city has adorned it with ſeveral additional buildings. In this college, which is an univerſity of itſelf, are a principal, four profeſſors of philoſophy, a profeſſor of divinity, a profeſſor of mathematics, and a profeſſor of medicine. It has a good library, which was founded by the city, and enlarged by the gifts of ſeveral learned men, and is alſo furniſhed with mathematical inſtruments.

In this city is alſo a grammar-ſchool, founded by Dr. Dune, which has a maſter and three uſhers. There is alſo a muſic-ſchool. Here are likewiſe a priſon and work-houſe, three hoſpitals, and an alms-houſe. Near the harbour ſtands the cuſtom-houſe.

The bridge over the Don conſiſts of one immenſe arch of ſtone, ſprung from two rocks, one on each ſide, which ſerve as abutments; ſo that it may be ſaid to have a foundation coeval with nature, and that will laſt as long. The other bridge is upon the river Dee, a mile to the weſt of New Aberdeen, and has ſeven ſtately arches. This city gives title of earl to an ancient branch of the family of Gordon.

There is very good anchoring in the bay, from ſeven to nine fathom water. It is a tide-haven, with a very difficult entrance; for though the river is large, the channel is narrow, and the bar often ſhifting, ſo that no ſhip of any conſequence ventures in without a pilot.

The quantity of ſalmon and perch taken in both rivers is aſtoniſhing. The proprietors of this fiſhery are united into a company, there being ſo many ſhares, of which no perſon can enjoy above one at a time. The profits are very conſiderable, the ſalmon being ſent abroad into different parts, particularly into England, France, and the Baltic. As to the herring-fiſhery, it is a common bleſſing to the whole eaſtern ſhore of Scotland; and enables the Aberdeen merchants to carry on a profitable trade to Dantzic, Konigſberg, Riga, Narva, Wybourg, and Stockholm.

This city has alſo a good manufacture of linen, and alſo of worſted ſtockings. Its pork is reckoned the beſt cured for long voyages of any in Europe, and they export a good deal pickled and packed up in barrels, which they ſell chiefly to the Dutch, for victualling their Eaſt India ſhips and men of war.

Peterhead, which ſtands on the ſouth ſide of the water of Ugie, is a market-town and ſea-port of conſiderable trade in the north-eaſt part of the county, upon the promontory called Buchannoſs, and is noted for the Pretender's landing there in 1715, and has a road which will hold a hundred ſail of ſhips.

Garioch is the ſeat of a preſbytery, conſiſting of fifteen pariſhes, and gives name to a diſtrict that extends near fourteen miles from eaſt to weſt, and eight from the north-weſt to the ſouth. It lies in a valley watered by two large and ſeveral ſmaller rivers, with ſeveral fertile hills on both ſides; particularly Mount Bennachy, which riſes ſo high as to be ſeen at ſea, though it is near fourteen miles from the coaſt.

Strathbogy, which ſignifies the valley upon the Bogy, ſtands twenty-four miles from Aberdeen, and has a market, with a bridge over the Dovern near its confluence with the Bogy. It is the ſeat of a preſbytery, containing eleven pariſhes. This valley, which is fruitful in corn and paſture, has black cattle, ſheep, and horſes, not only for the uſe of the inhabitants, but for exportation; and is remarkable for the fine linen yarn ſpun by the women here, and ſold to the merchants.

SECT. XXII.

Of the Shire of Fife; its Situation, Extent, Produce, and principal Towns.

THIS county conſiſts of a fine peninſula incloſed between the Forth and the Tay, bounded on the eaſt by the Northern ocean; on the ſouth by the firth of Forth; on the weſt by the Ochil-hills, Kinroſs-ſhire, and Perthſhire; and on the north is divided by the firth of Tay from Gaury and Angus; it being commonly reckoned thirty-two miles in length, and about ſeventeen in breadth.

The eaſt part is the moſt level, and the weſt the moſt mountainous. The north and ſouth parts are very fruitful in corn, and full of towns which have good bays and harbours; while the middle of the country is more fit for paſture, and has plenty of cattle, eſpecially ſheep, whoſe wool is much eſteemed; as are alſo the hides of their black cattle, deer, and goats. On the ſouth ſide are coal-pits, and much ſalt is made. The Ochil-hills on the weſt alſo afford good paſture, and the pleaſant and fruitful vallies between them have fields of corn. There is a quarry of excellent free-ſtone at Dalgate; near the water of Ore are lead-mines; and at the Bin and Orrock are many fine cryſtals of ſeveral colours.

There are here alſo ſeveral mineral waters at the ſpaw at Kinghorn and Ballgrigy. The principal rivers are the Leven and the Edin, which abound with ſalmon and other fiſh.

This coaſt is well planted with little towns that are nurſeries for ſeamen; and the ſea, beſides herrings and other fiſh, which are taken in great quantities in Auguſt and September, yields abundance of oyſters and other ſhell-fiſh.

The earl of Rothes is hereditary ſheriff. No county of Scotland ſends ſo many members to parliament, or is inhabited by a greater number of the nobility.

The principal towns are the following:

Bruntiſlan, or Burnt Iſland, a royal burgh, ten miles to the north-weſt of Edinburgh; it lies oppoſite to Leith, and a paſſage-boat goes thither from hence every day. The town ſtands in the middle of the north ſide of the river Forth, and enjoys a fine proſpect of Leith road, and of the city and caſtle of Edinburgh, with a ſafe harbour, where ſhips lie with their heads to the very houſes. It is ſo land-locked, that ſuch as are driven up the firth by ſtorms, or contrary winds, come hither for ſafety; and ſhips trading on this coaſt often winter here, the water being commonly eighteen, and at ſpring-tides twenty-ſix feet deep within the harbour, which has room enough for a hundred ſail of ſhips, and is capable of receiving and careening the largeſt men of war. The

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town has a handſome church, with a large town-houſe and priſon; and a conſiderable manufacture of linen cloth.

Kirkaldy is ſeated on the ſame coaſt, ten miles north of Edinburgh, and is a market-town and royal burgh, the ſeat of a preſbytery, containing ſeventeen pariſhes. It is larger and better built than the former, it extending a mile in length. It conſiſts of two pariſhes, and is a place of good trade, here being ſome conſiderable merchants and large dealers in corn, who export great quantities of it both to England and Holland; others trade with linen to England, and make returns in the neceſſary foreign manufactures. Here is a convenient yard for the building and repairing of ſhips; ſeveral houſes for the making of ſalt; and in the neighbourhood are coal-pits.

St. Andrews had its name from St. Andrew, whoſe bones are ſaid to have been brought hither from Patras, a town in Peloponneſus. This is an ancient, and was once a flouriſhing city, the metropolis of all Scotland; the ſeat of its firſt univerſity, and, before the Revolution, was the ſee of an archbiſhop. It is ſituated thirty miles to the north-eaſt of Edinburgh, and is ſurrounded with extenſive corn-fields, abounding in excellent wheat and barley; with the pleaſant downs called the Links lying on the ſea-ſide towards the north. The town formerly conſiſted of four large ſtreets, which extend from eaſt to weſt, almoſt parallel to each other: but the northernmoſt, formerly the principal, is entirely ruined, and not a houſe remaining; each of the other three terminates to the eaſtward on the cathedral, which is now in ruins. This was eſteemed one of the largeſt and moſt beautiful Gothic ſtructures in the world, it being three hundred and ſeventy feet in length from eaſt to weſt, the croſs from ſouth to north a hundred and eighty, its breadth ſixty-five, and its height a hundred feet: the beauty of its pillars, with the ſymmetry and proportion of the whole building, have been greatly admired.

Near the ruins of the cathedral are ſtill remaining the wall of the moſt ancient chapel of St. Rule, with the ſpire, a hundred and five feet high, which is ſtill entire. On the north ſide of the city are the ruins of its ancient caſtle, of which nothing remains but the walls.

Though the town was formerly about two miles in circumference, there are now hardly a thouſand houſes; and of theſe near two hundred are become ruinous. The number of the inhabitants ſtill amounts to above four thouſand. It is a place of no trade, and its harbour is capable of receiving only ſmall veſſels. Near the town is plenty of free-ſtone, of which all the houſes are built.

Here is only one pariſh church, that of the Holy Trinity, remaining, and two chapels. This church is an ancient ſtately edifice, built with fine free-ſtone, in the form of a croſs, with a handſome ſpire in good repair. In it is a fine monument of archbiſhop Sharpe, who was aſſaſſinated upon a moor as he was coming home in his coach.

This city is particularly famous for its univerſity, conſiſting of three colleges, of which, during the continuance of epiſcopacy, the archbiſhops were chancellors. The rector is choſen annually, and by the ſtatutes ought to be one of the principals of the three colleges, which are called St. Salvator's, St. Leonard's, and the New-College.

St. Salvator's college was founded by James Kennedy, biſhop of St. Andrews, in 1448, who erected the edifice, furniſhed it with coſtly ornaments, and endowed it with ſufficient revenues for a doctor, a bachelor, and a licentiate in divinity, four profeſſors of philoſophy, and eight poor ſcholars. It has alſo a good library, founded by Dr. Sheen. The edifice itſelf is a ſtately pile of fine hewn ſtone; it has a large vaulted chapel covered with free-ſtone, and over it is a lofty ſpire. The common hall and ſchools are very large; and the cloiſters and private lodgings for the maſters and ſcholars have been very magnificent, but the college revenue is not ſufficient to keep it in repair.

St. Leonard's college was founded by John Hepborne, prior of St. Andrews, in the reign of James V. with ſalaries for a principal or warden, four profeſſors of philoſophy, and eight poor ſcholars; another profeſſor of philoſophy has ſince been added, with a handſome ſalary, and alſo a library. By an act which paſſed in the twentieth year of the reign of his late majeſty, theſe two colleges were united.

The New College was founded by archbiſhop Bethune, uncle to the cardinal of that name, with endowments for a principal, a profeſſor, and ſome ſtudents in divinity, which is only taught in this college. As the two laſt colleges have a better revenue than that of St. Salvator, they are in much better repair. In the latter king Charles I. held a parliament, in a ſpacious room able to ſeat four hundred perſons in regular order; and it ſtill retains the name of the parliament-room.

The laſt place we ſhall mention in this county is Falkland, which is a pretty neat large town, almoſt in the center, ſeated at the foot of Lomond-hill, which is ſaid to be full a mile in height, and covered with the fineſt paſtures for ſheep. From the top there is not only a proſpect of Fifeſhire, but of the country all round it, to the ſouth beyond Edinburgh and the Lothians almoſt to Berwick; to the weſt as far as the hills by Stirling; and to the north into Perthſhire and Angus. Near this town James V. built a palace, which, by its ruins, eſpecially the two ſides yet ſtanding in the inner ſquare, appears to have been a large and noble ſtructure. It conſiſts of two ſtories, adorned with rows of round marble pillars ſet in ſockets of ſtone; it has baſſo relievos between every window, and on the top of every pillar a ſtatue as big as the life. The entrance to it is like that of Holyrood-houſe, between two ſtately towers; and on the right hand is a chapel, with niches on the outſide, in which are ſtatues as big as the life. Here were alſo ſpacious gardens, and a park eight miles round, well planted with oak and ſtocked with deer.

SECT. XXIII.

Of the Shire of Angus, or Forfar; its Situation, Extent, Produce, and principal Towns.

THIS county is divided on the north from the brae of Mar by the ridge of the Brinchinnin-mountains; on the eaſt it is bounded by Mearns; on the ſouth by the firth of Tay and the Northern ocean; and on the weſt and north-weſt by Perthſhire; extending thirty-four miles in length, and twenty-ſix in breadth.

The ſhire of Angus, as it is generally called by the Scots, produces wheat and all other ſorts of grain, and is diverſified with large hills, lakes, foreſts, paſtures, and meadows. It is a good country along the coaſt, but is there very narrow; yet ſpreads wide among the mountains, which are inhabited by Highlanders, and abound with harts, hinds, roebucks, and fowl. They have alſo ſome mines of lead and iron.

The principal towns of this county are Forfar, Dundee, and Montroſe.

Forfar is a royal burgh, a market-town, and the ſeat of a preſbytery containing ten pariſhes. It ſtands fourteen miles weſt of Montroſe, is governed by a provoſt and bailiff, and was anciently the ſeat of ſeveral parliaments, and had a royal palace, though ſcarce any remains of it are now left.

Dundee is ſeated in a pleaſant plain at the foot of a hill on the north ſide of the Tay, near its entrance into the ocean. It is a pretty town and a royal burgh, the ſeat of a preſbytery, containing ſeventeen pariſhes. This is eſteemed the beſt town in the ſhire for ſtrength, ſituation, and trade. The town is two miles in compaſs, and better built than moſt in Scotland. Its market-place, from whence run four large ſtreets, inhabited by many merchants, is almoſt as ſpacious as that of Nottingham, it being the largeſt and fineſt in North Britain, except that of Aberdeen, and has a town-houſe built with free-ſtone. It has a great church, formerly collegiate, which is an exact croſs, larger than that of St. Giles's at Edinburgh; it is a lofty ſquare building, and a great ornament to the town. The weſt end next the ſteeple was beat down by Cromwell's army, and the other three parts

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are now divided into three ſeparate churches. The ſteeple has a fine tower, like that at Wrexham in Wales, and very lofty. The church-yard is without the town, and adorned with fine monuments. There are here alſo one or two meeting-houſes for the Epiſcopalians.

The town is populous, and one of the gayeſt in Scotland. The houſes are not high, but well built, chiefly of ſtone, in a very beautiful manner, which, together with its fine ſituation, and the ſplendor in which the inhabitants live, have given it the name of Bonny Dundee. The inhabitants, who carry on a foreign trade, are generally rich, and for thoſe that are fallen to decay there is a large handſome hoſpital, with gardens that run down to the rivers.

The harbour, which is two or three leagues within the mouth of the Tay, has three entrances; it has alſo two or three ſmall piers, and is capable of containing two or three hundred ſail of ſhips of ſmall burthen. From the harbour is a pleaſant walk paved with flag-ſtones, and ſhaded with rows of trees on each ſide, which ſerves for an exchange to the merchants and maſters of ſhips; and on one ſide are alſo large ware-houſes for goods and granaries for corn. The river itſelf is a good harbour, with ſafe riding, good ground, and deep water.

As this is one of the beſt ports for commerce in all Scotland, it has a conſiderable inland trade, eſpecially for corn and linen, which the merchants buy up for exportation, and which enriches all the adjacent country.

Montroſe is ſeated at the mouth of the river Eſk, on the Northern ocean, forty-ſix miles to the north-eaſt of Edinburgh. It is well ſituated for trade, and has a harbour for ſhips of conſiderable burthen; hence the inhabitants carry on a good foreign trade, particularly to Norway. The town is adorned with many fine buildings, and principally conſiſts of one long handſome ſtreet, which runs parallel with the ſhore. It gives the title of duke to the chief of the family of Graham, and is famous for the eſcape of the Pretender, who took ſhipping here privately in 1716, for fear of a viſit from the late duke of Argyle and general Cadogan.

SECT. XXIV.

Of Inverneſsſhire; including Badenoch, Lochaber, with a ſmall Part of Roſs and Murray; their Situation, Extent, and Produce; with a Deſcription of Inverneſs, and ſome Account of Fort William and Fort Auguſtus.

INVERNESS-SHIRE, which was formerly much more extenſive than it is at preſent, is bounded on the north by Roſs and Cromarty; on the eaſt by Murray-land; on the ſouth by Lorn, Broadalbin, and Athol; and by the Weſtern ſea on the weſt; extending about ſixty miles from eaſt to weſt, and forty-five, where broadeſt, from north to ſouth.

This ſhire abounds with iron ore; it has ſome woods fifteen miles long, and large woods of oak. It alſo contains ſeveral remarkable lakes: one of the moſt extraordinary of theſe is ſeated upon a very high mountain; it extends about thirty fathoms in length, and ſix in breadth; yet no ſtream is obſerved to run either to or from it, it being entirely fed by its own ſprings, though ſo deep that it has never been fathomed. It is equally full at all ſeaſons of the year, and, though the water is always cold, it never freezes. About ſeventeen miles to the weſt, on the north ſide of a mountain called Glenintea, is a lake called Lochanwyn, or the Green-lake, which is covered with ice all the year round.

Badenoch has part of Murray on the north, Lochaber on the weſt, Athol on the ſouth, with part of Murray and the Braes of Mar on the eaſt, extending, according to Templeman, forty-nine miles in length, and twenty-two in breadth in the wideſt part. This tract particularly abounds with deer.

Lochaber is bounded on the north by Badenoch, on the eaſt by Athol and part of Badenoch, on the ſouth by Lorn and Broadalbin, and on the weſt by a mountainous tract towards the coaſt; extending, according to Mr. Templeman, fifty-ſeven miles in length, and fifty one in breadth.

This extenſive tract abounds with paſtures, woods, deer, and goats; and has ſome veins of iron, but not much corn; for though very pleaſant, it is reckoned one of the moſt barren countries in Scotland.

Inverneſs, from which this county has its name, is its principal town, and is ſeated at the bottom of the firth of Murray, where it receives the Neſs, a hundred and ſix miles to the north of Edinburgh: from that river and Euner, which in the ancient Scots tongue ſignifies an harbour, the town derives its name. It is a royal burgh, a market-town, the ſeat of a ſheriff, and of a preſbytery containing thirteen pariſhes. It ſtands on the ſouth ſide of the Neſs, over which it has a bridge of hewn-ſtone, with ſeven arches, that leads into what is properly called the North Highlands. It is conveniently ſituated for trade, of which it has a conſiderable ſhare, with a harbour for ſmall ſhips, a church for the Highlanders, and another for the Lowlanders, and the ruins of a caſtle in which the kings of Scotland formerly reſided, and ſtanding on a hill that affords a fine proſpect of the town and the adjacent country, which is very fertile. It is reckoned a well built, clean, and pleaſant town; it has in particular two very good ſtreets, with coffee-houſes and taverns, and the people are more polite than in moſt towns of Scotland. For Oliver Cromwell, who erected forts, and, like the Romans, placed his ſtationary legions in the moſt eminent parts of the country for keeping the people in awe, built a ſtrong citadel here, in which he left a garriſon; the ſoldiers of which ſettling in the country after the peace, and applying themſelves to the culture and improvement of the land, there is here ſpoken leſs of the broad Scots dialect than farther to the ſouth, and is more of the Engliſh method of huſbandry; but it only reaches a little way, for the mountains interſecting the pleaſant valleys, the rudeneſs of the Highlanders ſoon ſucceeds. Though Oliver's fort was demoliſhed after the Reſtoration, it was reſtored after the Revolution, and king William III. always kept a garriſon in it, on account of its being one of the moſt conſiderable paſſes between the Low-countries and the Highlands.

Innerlochy, Inverlochy, or Fort William, ſtands in the center between the North and Weſt Highlands, at the mouth of the river Aber, a hundred miles to the north-weſt of Edinburgh. It is a regular fort erected after the Revolution, and received the name of Fort William in honour of William III. It is intended as a curb on the Highlanders, and has a large garriſon. It is ſo ſituated that if it be ever ſo much ſtraitened by a blockade, or ſiege by land, it may receive conſtant ſupplies by ſea.

Fort Auguſtus is a regular fortification built by general Wade near the ſouth end of Lochneſs, to awe the Highlanders, and to prevent their diſturbing the ſoldiers he employed in making a road here, which, with extraordinary pains, they carried through mountains and moraſſes that ſeemed almoſt impaſſable. By this road the king's forces may eaſily enter and traverſe the country, which was before inacceſſible to all but the Highlanders.

SECT. XXV.

Of Argyleſhire, or Inverary, including Argyle Proper, Cawal, Lorne, Knapdale, and Cantyre; with the Situation, Extent, and Produce of each, and a Deſcription of the principal Iſlands belonging to Argyleſhire.

ARGYLESHIRE is bounded by Lochaber on the north-eaſt, by Perthſhire on the eaſt, by the Iriſh ſea and the firth of Clyde on the ſouth, and by ſeveral iſlands on the weſt and north. It extends a hundred and twenty miles in length, and forty in breadth.

This county comprehends Argyle Proper, Cawal, Lorne, Knapdale, Cantyre, and many of the Weſtern iſlands. It is the ſeat of a provincial ſynod, containing five preſbyteries and forty-nine pariſhes, and gives title of duke to the noble family of Campbell. It abounds with caſtles and gentlemen's ſeats, moſt of which belong to branches of that family, which are famous for having ſuffered for their ſtedfaſt adherence to the Proteſtant religion and the liberties of their country, par-

ticularly from the time of the Reformation to the Revolution.

The country is mountainous, and the inhabitants, who ſpeak Erſe, the ancient language of Scotland, live moſtly by hunting and fiſhing; for it has ſeven great lakes, with other leſſer ones, that abound with fiſh. The coaſt is covered with high rocks, and bleak mountains covered with heath, which feed great numbers of black cattle, deer, and other wild beaſts; for their cattle generally run wild, but are excellent meat.

The diſtrict of Argyle Proper has Knapdale and Cowal on the ſouth, Lenox and the Grampian hills on the eaſt, Lochaber on the north, and Lorne on the weſt. It lies between Loch-fyn, which is ſixty miles long and about four broad, and Loch-aw, a freſh-water lake, twenty-four miles in length, and one in breadth. This laſt lake contains twelve iſlands, and from it runs a river named Aw, which, after a courſe of ſix or ſeven miles, enters Loch-ediff, which abounds with ſalmon, and falls into the Weſtern ſea near the iſle of Mull.

Cowal, the next diviſion, lies between Loch-fyn on the weſt, the firth of Clyde on the eaſt, the iſle of Bute on the ſouth, Argyle Proper and the Grampian-mountains on the north, and abounds with lakes and bays.

The principal place it contains is Deroan, formerly a ſeat of the biſhop of Argyle, and now of a preſbytery conſiſting of eight pariſhes.

Lorne, the third diviſion, is a level country, the pleaſanteſt and fruitfulleſt part of Argyleſhire, eſpecially in barley; and it has alſo many lakes. It is bounded on the eaſt by Broadalbin; on the ſouth by Loch-leaven, a lake of great extent; on the weſt by the Weſtern Iſlands; and on the north by Lochaber; extending about thirty miles in length from north to ſouth, and about nine, where broadeſt, from eaſt to weſt.

In this diſtrict Lochaber runs ſo far into the land from the Weſtern ſea, that it is only disjoined from Loch-neſs, which runs into the Eaſtern ocean, by a very narrow ridge of hills which run between them.

Knapdale is bounded on the eaſt by Loch-fyn, which ſeparates it from Cowal, on the ſouth by Cantyre, on the weſt by the Weſtern Iſlands, on the north by Lorne, and on the north-eaſt by Broadalbin. It is twenty miles from north to ſouth, and thirteen where broadeſt from eaſt to weſt. It is joined to Cantyre by a neck of land ſcarce a mile broad. This part is alſo full of lakes, in ſome of which are iſlands with caſtles; but it is in general fitter for paſture than corn.

The principal town in this diviſion is Inverary, which is ſeated on Loch-fyn, ſeventy-five miles to the north-weſt of Edinburgh, and forty-five from Glaſgow. It is a royal burgh, a market town, and the ſeat of a presbytery conſiſting of twelve pariſhes. Near it is a fine large caſtle, adorned with gardens and a park, and is the chief reſidence of the duke of Argyle.

Cantyre, or Kintire, which ſignifies the Land's Head, is the moſt ſouthern diviſion of this ſhire, and is a peninſula that extends thirty-ſeven miles from north to ſouth, and ſeven in breadth. From the point of land, called the Mull of Cantyre, it is ſcarce ſixteen miles to the Fair Foreland in Colerain, on the north-eaſt of Ireland. It is a very fruitful populous tract, inhabited both by Highlanders and Lowlanders, and for the moſt part by the former, brought hither by the Argyle family, who have taken extraordinary care in civilizing the inhabitants.

The principal place here is Campbell-Town, which is ſeated on the lake of Kilkerran, on the eaſtern coaſt, ninety-ſeven miles from Edinburgh, and thirteen from the Mull of Cantyre. It has a weekly market, is the ſeat of a presbytery conſiſting of ten pariſhes, and has a ſafe harbour.

The principal of the Weſtern Iſlands belonging to Argyleſhire are Iſla, or Ilay, Jura, and Mull.

Ilay, or Iſla, is ſeated fifteen miles from Cantyre, and is reckoned the moſt weſterly of all the iſlands of Britain. It extends twenty-four miles in length, and from eight to eighteen in breadth; is not ſo healthy as Jura; but abounds with corn, black cattle, and deer; has ſeveral rivers and freſh-water lakes. The lake called Loch-finlagen, in the center of the iſland, is three miles round, and diſcharges itſelf into the ſea. In this lake is a ſmall iſland, called The Royal Seat of the great Macdonald, who was crowned and anointed king of the Iſles by the biſhop of Argyle and ſeven prieſts, in the preſence of all the heads of the tribes of the iſles and continent. The ruins of his palace, and the houſes of his courtiers and guards, are ſtill to be ſeen. Here are alſo many caves, one of which is big enough to contain two hundred men. Here are alſo ſix churches and a chapel. There are a multitude of little iſlands on the coaſt, ſome of which are inhabited.

Jura is twenty-four miles long, and ſeven broad. It is ſeparated by a narrow ſtreight from Ilay, one mile in breadth, and is reckoned one of the moſt healthful places in Scotland; it has a clear air from the middle of March till Michaelmas, and the inhabitants live to a great age. It belongs to the duke of Argyle, and the eaſt coaſt is well inhabited. It is famous for its medicinal waters, and its rivers which abound with ſalmon. The eaſt coaſt is well inhabited, and abounds with deer, horſes, black cattle, ſheep, goats, wild and tame-fowl; and on the weſtern ſhore are found coral and coroline. In the middle of the iſland are four very high mountains, the two higheſt of which are called by ſeamen The Paps of Jura; they are covered with heath and ſome graſs that affords paſturage for the cattle. Between the north end of Jura and the little iſle of Scarba is a whirlpool, that has an impetuous current not to be paralleled any where about the iſland of Great Britain; yet the ſmalleſt fiſhing-boat may croſs it at the laſt hour of tide without the leaſt danger. There is only one church in the iſland. The inhabitants are all Proteſtants, but ſpeak Erſe, and wear the Highland habit.

Mull, the largeſt of theſe iſlands, lies at a ſmall diſtance to the north of Jura, and is twenty-four miles in length, but in the broadeſt part is as much in breadth, and is divided from Lochaber by a channel not half a league broad. The air is temperately cold and moiſt. A ridge of mountains run through the middle of the iſland, and one of them is ſo high, that it is ſeen from all the weſtern iſlands and from a great part of Scotland. The iſland is well watered with rivulets, and affords good paſturage: the horſes and black cattle are ſmall but ſprightly, and the latter very good meat. It has alſo a great number of ſheep, goats, deer, and wild fowl; with barley, oats, great variety of plants, ſome wood, and plenty of turf and peat. The coaſt, eſpecially Lechleffin bay, abounds with herrings, cod, ling, oyſters, cockles, muſſels, clams, &c. Here are alſo ſeals and otters. Several of the rivers abound with ſalmon and pearl muſſels, and ſome freſh-water lakes have plenty of trouts and eels. The iſle of Mull has ſeveral bays, and places for anchorage, of which that of Duart, on the eaſt ſide, is moſt frequented. It has three caſtles, of which caſtle Duart, on a promontory near the ſouth-eaſt corner of the iſland, is the principal.

The inhabitants, who, except a very few, are Proteſtants, have, according to Mr. Martin, only two pariſh-churches, and a little chapel. The late duke of Argyle became its proprietor, upon its being forfeited by the family of Maclean.

On the weſtern coaſt of Mull are many little iſlands, among which is Jona, which is but two miles long and one broad; yet on ſeveral accounts is worthy of notice. Marble is found upon it of various colours, with very beautiful veins. The eaſt ſide is all arable and plain, abounding in corn and graſs, and has nine ports for landing; but the weſtern coaſt is exceeding bad, and full of rocks; the tides here are alſo very violent.

This iſland had two monaſteries, and has a church famous for the burial of the kings of Scotland, of whom here lie no leſs than forty-eight; and is alſo famous for being the reſidence of Columbus, the apoſtle of the Picts, from whoſe cell this iſland, ſays Bede, was called Columb-hill. After the Scots left the iſle, a biſhop's ſee was erected in Sodor, a little village, from which all the iſlands within his dioceſe were called Sodorenſis. Its church, firſt dedicated to St. Columbus, now called St. Mary's, was formerly the cathedral, and is a beautiful ſtructure: the ſteeple is large, the doors and windows curiouſly

curiouſly carved, and the altar of the fineſt marble. There are likewiſe two other churches in the iſland. Here are what are termed black ſtones, though their real colour is grey. On theſe black ſtones, it is ſaid, Macdonald king of the Iſles kneeled, and with hands lift up to heaven, delivered the rights of their lands to his vaſſals in the iſles and continent, ſolemnly ſwearing that he would never recal the privileges he then granted.

SECT. XXVI.

Of the Shires of Nairn and Cromarty; their Situation, Produce, and principal Towns.

NAIRN is in ſome meaſure united to Cromartyſhire, by their ſending alternately one member to parliament. Nairn is bounded on the north by Murray firth; on the eaſt by Elgin; and on the weſt and ſouth by Inverneſs comprehending the weſt part of Murray, which lies between the river Findorn and Nairn; extending in its greateſt length twenty miles, and in its greateſt breadth fourteen.

The air is very wholeſome, and the winters pretty mild. The lower part of the country bears much corn, which is ſoon ripe; but the high country is fitter for paſture. It has many woods of fir and other trees, eſpecially in the ſouth-weſt part of the ſhire, on the banks of the river Nairn. It has many lakes and mountains, yet abounds with little towns and villages.

Nairn, the principal town, is a royal burgh, one hundred and four miles from Edinburgh, and had formerly a harbour, which is now choaked up with ſands that cover the ruins of an ancient caſtle.

Cromartyſhire is but a ſmall country in a peninſula, ſeparated on the ſouth from Nairnſhire by a part of Murray firth which runs up to Inverneſs; and on the north from Roſsſhire by the firth of Cromartie; it being bounded on the weſt by the ſhires of Inverneſs and Roſs; and only twelve miles long and three where broadeſt.

Cromarty, the capital, is delightfully ſeated fourteen miles from Inverneſs, on the branch of the Murray firth called the firth of Cromarty; a road where the whole royal navy might ſecurely anchor, and have ſea room enough; though it is not much uſed either by the natives, or by any one elſe. At the entrance to this firth are dangerous rocks called the Craigs: and at this town is a ferry which croſſes into Roſsſhire, from which the inhabitants are ſupplied with peat for fuel. It is a market town, and has ſpacious links, or a level green ſtrand. It gave title of earl to an unfortunate nobleman, who was alſo hereditary ſheriff of the county: but both titles are now fallen to the crown.

SECT. XXVII.

Of the Shire of Bamf; its Situation, Extent, Produce, and principal Towns.

THE ſhire of Bamf comprehends that part of Buchan north of the river Ugie, with the diſtricts of Strathavern, Euzie, Boyne, Balvenie, Strathyla, and Strathavin. On the north it is bounded by Murray firth; on the eaſt by the river Dovern and the northern ocean; on the ſouth by the river or water of Ugie, which ſeparates it from Aberdeenſhire; on the ſouth-weſt by the Braes of Badenoch and Braemer; and on the weſt by the water of the Spey and Elginſhire. Its dimenſions are variouſly given: but, according to Templeman's ſurvey, it is fifty miles in length from eaſt to weſt, and its greateſt breadth eighteen.

The climate and ſoil are nearly the ſame as in the neighbouring country of Aberdeenſhire.

That part called Buchan, extends north from the river Ugie to the ſea, and weſt as far as the river Dovern, that is, nine miles from north to ſouth, and twenty from eaſt to weſt. It is watered by abundance of brooks and rivers, and conſiſts of corn-fields and little hills; it being the moſt extenſive tract in the whole kingdom free from mountains. The Boyne is a little diſtrict that extends along the firth of Murray, and is fruitful near the ſhore, but in other parts mountainous, and has large quarries of ſpotted marble.

Balveny is a mountainous tract on the weſt ſide of the ſhire; it extends along the river Spey, and abounds with paſtures and woods. It is famous for a rock that produces hones and whetſtones ſufficient to ſerve the whole iſland; ſo that the people uſe them as ſlates, for covering their houſes. Here are alſo ſprings of alum water, and veins of a ſtone from which alum is extracted.

Strathyla, which lies to the north-eaſt of Balveny, is fruitful in corn and graſs, and ſuch plenty of limeſtone, that the inhabitants build their houſes with it. They are alſo conſiderable gainers by ſelling their lime for cattle and fine linen yarn at a weekly market in the village of Keith, on the river Dovern.

Strathavin is a diſtrict ſeated on the river Avon; Strathdovern alſo receives its name from its extending along the river Dovern.

The principal places in this county are the following:

Bamf, the county-town, is ſeated at the mouth of the Dovern, one hundred and ten miles to the north of Edinburgh; but has no port, and conſequently little trade, except for corn and ſalmon: for the townſmen are fonder of tillage than of commerce. It is a royal burgh, and here the ſheriff holds his courts. It has the ruins of a caſtle, and of an abbey which belonged to the Ciſtercian monks.

Tureff is ſeated ſeven miles from Bamf, on a river that falls into the Dovern; it is a market town, and the ſeat of a preſbytery. The adjacent country is very pleaſant, and abounds with gentlemen's ſeats.

Fraſerburgh, is a ſea-port on the coaſt of Murray firth, fifteen miles from Bamf, and is reckoned the chief town of the diſtrict of Buchan; it has two piers of free-ſtone, which renders the harbour ſo ſafe and commodious, that thirty ſhips may ſecurely winter here at a time.

Upon the banks of the Spey, which runs through this county, is Gordon caſtle, the nobleſt palace in the North, it being the duke of Gordon's chief ſeat, adorned with pleaſant gardens, a great park, and fine canal, with an agreeable fountain and ſtatues. The caſtle is ſo large, that it appears more like a little town than a nobleman's ſeat.

SECT. XXVIII.

Of the Shire of Sutherland; its Situation, Extent, Produce, and principal Towns.

THIS county, including Strathnaver, has Caithneſs and the Northern ocean on the eaſt; Roſs on the ſouth; the country of Aſſynt to the weſt; and the Northern ocean to the north; extending, according, to Mr. Templeman, eighty-eight miles in length, and forty-two in breadth.

The country is very mountainous, but leſs ſo than Roſs, and according to Camden, is more fit for breeding of cattle than bearing of corn. The valleys, however, are pleaſant, fertile, and well inhabited. It abounds with black cattle, ſheep, deer, and wild-fowl; and it is ſaid that all the deer bred on the mountain Arkil have forked tails. It has three remarkable foreſts, and many other woods that afford hawks and plenty of game, which the inhabitants are fond of hunting. Here are hills of white marble, and a great deal of free-ſtone, lime-ſtone, iron-ſtone, and good ſlate. It is remarkable, that though this county is ſeated ſo far north, ſaffron grows in it very well.

There is one ſort of bird ſaid to be peculiar to theſe moſt northern diſtricts, which the inhabitants call a knag: it reſembles a parrot, and digs its neſt with its beak in the trunk of trees.

In this county are above ſixty lakes, abounding with ſwans, geeſe, ducks, and other fowl of various kinds, and are full of fiſh. The largeſt is Loch-fin, which is fourteen miles long. In many of them are very pleaſant iſlands. In ſhort, this country is ſo full of bays, rivers, and lakes, that there is ſcarce a town in it that is not waſhed with ſalt or freſh water, and both its bays and coaſt

coaſts abound with ſeals, ſalmon, and ſhell-fiſh of all ſorts. It gives title of earl to the chief of the noble family of Sutherland, who has the titles of hereditary ſheriff and admiral. It has many commodious harbours, from which the inhabitants export barley, ſalt, coal, beef, hides, tallow, ſkins, wool, butter, cheeſe, ſalmon, &c.

The north part, called Strathnover, is ſeparated from the reſt by mountains, and bounded on the north and weſt by the ocean; on the eaſt by Caithneſs; and on the ſouth by Aſſynt and Sutherland. It is ſo called from the river Navern, which runs thro' it; it extends thirty-four miles from eaſt to weſt, and twelve from north to ſouth; but in others no more than ſix.

The ſnow lies a long time upon the high mountains. It has good harbours and many woods, with great herds of black cattle, ſheep, horſes, and goats. The inhabitants take their fat cattle and colts to the neighbouring fairs; but export their ſalt beef, hides, ſkins, tallow, butter and cheeſe. Here is alſo great plenty of veniſon, and the inhabitants deſpiſe thoſe who do not delight in hunting.

It is obſerved that the people of this and the neighbouring countries are ſtrong, courageous, frugal, capable of fatigue, civil to ſtrangers, chearful, and ſincere.

The day here in ſummer is computed at eighteen hours, and when the ſun is ſet, it is much more than twilight till it riſes again; but the nights are as long in the midſt of winter: however, the air is even then illuminated by the aurora borealis, or the northern lights. It is alſo obſerved, that the winters here are in general more temperate than they are farther to the ſouth, and that ſome of the rivers, particularly the Neſs, never freeze; which is aſcribed by naturaliſts to the ſalt and mild vapours from the neighbouring ſea, which fill the air, and as it were ſheathe the acute particles of the cold; and for the ſame reaſon the ſnow in the vallies neither lies ſo deep, nor ſtays ſo long on the ground, as in other places.

Dornoch, the capital of the county, is ſeated on the bank of the firth of Murray, one hundred and thirty miles to the north of Edinburgh, and was formerly the ſee of a biſhop; here was alſo a cathedral for the dioceſe of Caithneſs, with a caſtle for the earl of Sutherland, and the family burying-place. Dornoch is the ſeat of a preſbytery containing nine pariſhes, and has four annual fairs, which are much frequented. It has, however, at other times little or no trade, and is now remarkable for nothing but its antiquity.

Brora is a burgh of barony at the mouth of a river of its own name; in the neighbourhood are mines of excellent coal, and a great deal of ſalt is here made and exported.

SECT. XXIX.

Of the Shire of Clackmanan; its Situation, Extent, Produce, and principal Places.

CLACKMANANSHIRE is bounded on the north by the Ochill-hills, on the ſouth by the firth of Forth, on the eaſt by part of Perthſhire, and on the weſt by part of Sterlingſhire. It is about eight miles long, and where broadeſt but five,

This is a plain fertile country toward the firth; but the reſt is fitter for paſture; however, the lands below the Ochill-hills abound both with corn and paſture. About Alloa and Clackmanan are many coal-pits; and the inhabitants export great quantities of coal, not only to Edinburgh, but even to England, Holland, and France; for it yields the beſt and the greateſt quantity of coal of any part of Scotland, it being that diſtinguiſhed in England by the name of Scots coal. This county joins with the ſhire of Kinroſs in alternately ſending a member to parliament, though Kinroſs is generally included in Fifeſhire.

Clackmanan, the county town, ſtands on a riſing ground, upwards of thirty miles from Edinburgh, and has a noble caſtle, adorned with fine gardens.

But the moſt conſiderable place is Alloa, or Alloway, a ſea-port, five miles to the eaſt of Sterling, and the laſt on the Forth, where that river falls into the arm of the ſea called the Firth. This town, though a village, is larger and better built than moſt of the borough towns in the kingdom. There is in particular one ſtreet that runs down to the harbour, the broadeſt and beſt paved of any next to Edinburgh, with rows of lime-trees on each ſide, as at Dundee and in the towns of Holland. Alloa has a very conſiderable foreign trade, and ſeveral manufactures are erected there, all of which have ſome relation to navigation. They particularly make excellent ſail cloth, which is ſaid to be as good as that of Holland. There is a large rope-walk and ware-houſe of naval-ſtores, as hemp, tar, &c. imported from Ruſſia, Livonia, Norway, &c. from which laſt place deals are alſo imported, and here are ſeveral ſaw-mills employed in cutting or ſlitting them. A factory has likewiſe been ſettled here for the merchants of Glaſgow, who have erected ware-houſes for ſtowing their tobacco, ſugar, and other goods imported from the Britiſh colonies in America, in order to be ready for exportation to Holland, Hamburgh, Bremen, the Baltic, London, or where-ever they are wanted; and alſo for ſtowing ſuch commodities as they import from Sweden, Ruſſia, &c. The river is here as broad as the Thames at London-bridge, the water deep, and the tide flows ſo ſtrong, that ſhips may lay their ſides to the wharf, and load and unload their goods without the leaſt difficulty. There are ſalt-houſes all along the ſhore for boiling of ſalt, which is fetched away in great quantities by ſhips that bring other goods from Hamburgh, Bremen, or the Baltic.

The earl of Mar had a ſeat here, formerly called Alloway-caſtle, encompaſſed with fine plantations; the gardens taking up forty-two acres, and the wood, with the viſtos cut through it, a hundred and fifty. The entrance from the town on the weſt is by a pair of fine gates, through a ſpacious avenue, which leads to the area fronting the houſe, in the midſt of which is a gladiator, and on the right hand of the area a ſpacious garden, with a fine terrace and bowling-green, adorned with lofty evergreens. On the ſouth ſide of the houſe is a ſpacious parterre, beautifully adorned with ſtatues and vaſes; and from thence to the river runs a fine avenue, from which and from the parterre are thirty-two different viſtos, each terminating on a remarkable ſeat, or mountain, at ſome miles diſtance; one of them ſhews Sterling-caſtle, which though but four miles from hence by land, yet from the various windings of the river is twenty-four by water. In the middle of the terrace is a fine baſon of water, in the midſt of which is a group of Cain killing Abel; and at the end of the river is a pair of pyramidical gates, where a ſhip of three hundred tons burthen may unload. There is a very long and wide avenue to the eaſt through the wood, and between each viſto from the parterre are wilderneſſes and little grottos. The earl of Mar loſt this fine ſeat by his rebellion in 1715, and the government, to whom it was forfeited, ordered it to be kept in good order.

SECT. XXX.

Of the Shire of Roſs; its Situation, Extent, Produce, and principal Towns and Iſlands; as Sky, Lewis, and Harris.

THE ſhire of Roſs in general, including Tayn and Cromarty, for the laſt, though a ſmall county of itſelf, is alſo conſidered as a part of Roſsſhire, has the Weſtern ſea and the iſle of Sky on the weſt, Strathnaver and Sutherland on the north and north-eaſt, Cromarty and Murray firth on the eaſt, and Inverneſs on the ſouth. The form is very irregular, it being much contracted on the north-eaſt and ſouth by the neighbouring counties; but according to Mr. Templeman, it is eighty miles in length, and ſeventy-eight in breadth.

This extenſive country is for the moſt part mountainous and woody towards the Weſtern ocean; but on that ſide next to the German ſea it is better cultivated, more fruitful in corn, fruit, and herbs, than could be expected in a country ſo far north, and abounds in paſture. The ſtraths, or valleys near the rivers, are covered with woods, particularly upon the Charron and the water of Braau; and near Alfarig are woods of fir, fifteen

or twenty miles in length. It feeds great numbers of black cattle, horſes, goats, and deer; has abundance of land and ſea fowl, and is well ſupplied with freſh water fiſh by its lakes and rivers. The lochs, or lakes, on the weſt coaſt, in the proper ſeaſon, abound with herrings, particularly Loch-eu, which is divided into two parts, one a bay of the ſea, and the other a freſh-water lake, extending about nine miles in its greateſt length, and three where broadeſt. There are extenſive woods on its ſides, where abundance of iron was formerly obtained. Loch-bryan, on the ſame coaſt, is another bay, that runs ten miles up the country; is three miles broad at its mouth, and is alſo famous for herrings. It receives ſeveral rivers, and on the north ſide are many villages.

Coygach and Aſſynt are two mountainous diſtricts north from hence, but abound with deer, and have huge rocks of marble, with ſeveral gentlemen's ſeats towards the coaſt.

The middle part of the county, called Ardroſs, is mountainous and ſcarce inhabited; but affords ſome paſtures. The north-eaſt parts, on the rivers Ochill and Carron, and the firth of Tayn, are pretty fruitful, and abound with villages. This firth runs near twenty-five miles up the eaſt ſide of the county, dividing Roſs from Sutherland, and is ſeven miles broad at its mouth; but its quickſands render it unſafe for navigation.

Another diſtrict, called Ardmeanach, forms a part of a peninſula which lies between the bays of Cromarty and Murray, extending thirteen miles and a half from eaſt to weſt, and five and a half, where broadeſt, from north to ſouth. It has high mountains, ſome of which are both pleaſant and fertile.

There is likewiſe an inland tract called Strathcarron, from a river which divides it. This is a woody country, eſpecially in firs, and abounds in horſes and black cattle.

This county has ſome mountains ſo high, that they are covered with ſnow all the year round.

The principal places it contains are the following:

Channeriy, or Chanoury, a market-town ſo called from a college of regular canons that flouriſhed there. It ſtands on the peninſula between the bay of Cromarty and Murray, among pleaſant and fertile hills, and has a ferry over the firth into Murray. It was anciently the ſee of a biſhop, and had a large cathedral, a part of which is yet remaining, and a caſtle in which the biſhop reſided. It is at preſent the ſeat of a preſbytery, conſiſting of ſeven pariſhes; and has a ſtately houſe belonging to the earl of Seaforth.

Dingwell, a market-town and royal burgh, ſeated at the bottom of the firth of Cromarty, fifteen miles weſt of the town of Cromarty, is the ſeat of a preſbytery, containing thirteen pariſhes.

Tayne, a royal burgh and market-town, ſtands in a fruitful country, twelve miles to the north of Cromarty, and is the ſeat of a preſbytery, containing nine pariſhes. It is pretty well inhabited, and has a tolerable good trade, from its communication with the Weſtern iſlands and its herring-fiſhery.

We ſhall now give an account of the principal of the Weſtern iſlands generally included in the ſhire of Roſs.

Skie, or Sky, the largeſt but one of all the Weſtern iſlands, is divided from Roſsſhire by a ſtreight thirty-five miles in length, but in ſome places ſo narrow, that a man may be eaſily heard from one ſide to the other, eſpecially if the wind be favourable. It extends ſixty miles in length, and about twenty in breadth; and the coaſt is cut into a great number of gulphs and promontories. The ſoil is generally a black mould, though there is ſome of a red colour, in which iron is found. In ſome places there is fine white marble, black and white marcaſites, agate, and variegated ſtones of all colours, cryſtals alſo of different colours, plenty of free-ſtone and limeſtone, and after great rains ſtones of a purple colour rowl down the rivulets.

Though the channel which ſeparates it from Scotland is navigable by the largeſt men of war, yet the current is ſo violent, that no ſhip is able to ſail againſt it, be the wind ever ſo fair: yet in the narrow ferry, called the Kyle, they make cows ſwim over; for this purpoſe they tie a withy about the cow's lower jaw, and thus bind five of them together, after which a man in a boat holds the withy that ties the foremoſt, and thus rows over; and in this manner takes over three or four hundred cows in the ſpace of a few hours.

It is very high land both on the coaſt and within the country, where are ſeven high mountains, that lie near each other almoſt in the center of the iſland. The ſoil is fruitful enough in the lower grounds, and produces corn and cattle, as horſes, cows, ſheep, goats, and hogs; but the black cattle have ſeldom any thing to feed upon in winter except ſea-weeds, and therefore watch the ebb very ſtrictly; by this means, and by their being expoſed to the rigour of the coldeſt ſeaſons, the cows become ſuch ſkeletons in the ſpring, that many of them are unable to riſe from the ground without help; but as the graſs grows up they recover their ſtrength. The iſland ſupplies the neighbouring continent with barley and oats. Cod and ling are common upon the coaſt, and herrings in great abundance, for the taking of which they have many convenient bays and harbours, with about thirty ſmall rivers that afford ſalmon and other fiſh, and abundance of freſh-water lakes well ſtored with trouts and eels. They have land and water-fowl in great abundance, and among the reſt eagles and hawks. They have likewiſe otters and ſeals, and of the former are a large ſpecies with a white ſpot on the breaſt; but theſe are very ſcarce, and hard to be killed. They have likewiſe ſerpents of ſeveral kinds.

The iſland is divided into three parts, belonging to three different proprietors; is the ſeat of a preſbytery, and has ten pariſh-churches. Both the proprietors and all the people are Proteſtants, except ſome of the meaner ſort, who are of the Romiſh religion.

Lewis and Harris, which have been ſuppoſed to be two iſlands, form only one, which lies ſixty-eight miles weſt of the main-land of Scotland, and twenty-two in the ſame direction from the Iſle of Sky. It is ſubdivided into Lewis and Harries, or Harris, by a narrow channel, which runs ſo far within the country, that it is only joined by a ſmall neck of land: the whole extending near a hundred miles in length from north to ſouth, and ten or twelve in breadth, it being commonly called the Long Iſland. It is healthy, eſpecially in the middle. The ſoil is arable for about ſixteen miles on the weſt coaſt, and in ſome places on the eaſt; but it is generally ſandy, except the muirs or heaths, which are partly of red and partly of black clay; of which the women here make veſſels for boiling their meat, and for preſerving their ale. It produces barley, oats, rye, flax, and hemp. Their manure is ſea-weeds, ſoot, and peat-aſhes. The iſland alſo abounds with cows, horſes, ſheep, goats, and hogs: their black cattle are ſmall, but very prolific, and make excellent meat: their horſes are likewiſe ſmaller than on the main-land, but as ſerviceable for all domeſtic uſes, and live very hard, having little to feed on in winter but ſea-weeds.

All the coaſt and numerous bays abound with cod, ling, herrings, and every other kind of fiſh taken in the Weſtern iſles: but the fiſhery is very much interrupted by whales, the young ones of which are eaten by the common people, who reckon their fleſh very good food. They yield alſo plenty of ſhell-fiſh, as ſcallops, oyſters, cockles, muſſels, lympits, periwinkles, and ſpout-fiſh; of which laſt they are ſaid to have ſuch multitudes every ſeventh year, that the inhabitants manure the ground with them. On the ſhore are many caves, which ſhelter vaſt numbers of ſea and land-fowl, otters, and ſeals; and the laſt they eſteem nouriſhing food.

The inhabitants are of a good proportion and ſtature, generally of a ruddy complexion, healthy, ſtrong, and long-lived. The ſmall-pox proves very fatal to the young people; but ſeldom comes among them. The moſt common diſeaſe here is a cough. They are in general very acute and ſagacious, have a mechanical genius, and when they have an opportunity ſhew that they have no deſpicable turn for the ſciences: ſome of both ſexes are ſkilled in poetry and muſic, and ſome elegant ſpecimens of the former have been tranſlated and publiſhed in Engliſh from the original Erſe. The natives are likewiſe very dexterous at ſwimming, and are ſuch ſtout mariners, that they will tug at the oar a whole day with no other refreſhment

refreſhment than only a little bread and water, except their favourite ſnuff: but the ſea on their coaſt is very tempeſtuous, and ſubject to ſudden ſqualls, by which the light veſſels they uſe in viſiting the neighbouring iſlands are frequently overſet. The natives are extremely hoſpitable, but poor. Once every ſummer they viſit the neighbouring iſlands, to purchaſe fowls, eggs, down, and feathers; and, as ſoon as they come on ſhore, turn round with the ſun, uncover their heads, and return thanks to God.

Here are ſeveral natural and artificial ſorts, with heaps of ſtones upon the heaths, ſuppoſed to be monuments of perſons of note, or a general memorial for all who fell there in battle; and in the village of Claſſerneſs is a druidical temple, as is ſuppoſed. It conſiſts of a circle of twelve obeliſks, each ſeven feet high, and ſix feet diſtant from each other. In the center ſtands a ſtone thirteen feet high, exactly reſembling the rudder of a ſhip: directly ſouth from the circle ſtand four obeliſks, running out in a line: another like this goes due eaſt; and a third to the weſt: the number and diſtances of the ſtones being the ſame in the wings. But towards the north is a kind of avenue in two ſtraight ranges of obeliſks of the ſame ſize, and at the like diſtance as thoſe of the circle: yet the ranges themſelves are eight feet aſunder, and conſiſt of nineteen ſtones each, the thirty-ninth being at the entrance of the avenue. It is obſerved, that this temple ſtands aſtronomically, as denoting the twelve ſigns of the zodiac, and the four principal winds on the wings ſubdivided each into four more; by which, and the nineteen ſtones on each ſide the avenue, repreſenting the cycle of nineteen years, it appears to have been dedicated to the ſun, and ſubordinately to the elements and ſeaſons, particularly the winds and the ſea, as is manifeſt from the rudder in the middle.

SECT. XXXI.

Of the Shire of Elgin; its Situation, Extent, Climate, Produce, and principal Towns.

THIS county comprehends the weſt parts of Murray, and is bounded on the eaſt and ſouth-eaſt by the river Spey, by Aberdeenſhire and Badenoch on the ſouth, and by the ſhire of Nairn and the Northern ocean on the weſt and north, it being about twenty-four miles in length, and twenty-one in breadth. The ſouth ſide is called the Braes of Murray, and the ſouth-eaſt the Strath or valley of Spey.

The air is ſalutary, and the winter mild; for Murray-land, which includes this ſhire, Nairn, and a part of Inverneſs-ſhire, is thought to enjoy the beſt climate and ſoil of all the north of Scotland; ſo that the inhabitants boaſt that they have forty clear days in a year more than their neighbours.

The ſouth ſide of the country is mountainous, but abounds with paſture, as the low country does with corn, which is ſoon ripe. Here are ſeveral woods of firs and other trees, that extend ten miles in length, with ſome large woods of oak. The ſoil is generally ſand mixed with clay, and very fruitful when manured: whence it produces whatever is to be found in the other parts of the kingdom, none being more plentifully provided with bread, meat, fruit, and fiſh. The common drink here is ale; they have alſo French wine, and ſpirituous liquors of their own making.

The chief rivers of this county are the Spey, which next to the Tay, is the moſt conſiderable in the north of Scotland, and the moſt rapid in the whole kingdom. It riſes in Badenoch, and after a courſe of ſeventy-ſix miles, beſides its turnings and windings, falls into the North ſea. It has an excellent ſalmon fiſhery, and in the heat of ſummer is obſerved to ſwell by a weſt wind, though there be no rain.

The Neſs, which has likewiſe a good ſalmon fiſhery, riſes from a lake called Caich, near the Iriſh ſea, and is for ſome miles called Coich, after which running north-eaſt it falls into the lake called Loch-garrif, afterwards into a lake called Eawic, and then turning to the ſouth-eaſt, falls into the Loch-neſs, which is twenty-four miles in length, and of an unknown depth. It is obſerved that this river never freezes, but ſmokes, and diſſolves ice thrown into it during the greateſt froſt; the ſame is obſerved of the lake from which it riſes.

The Loſſie riſes a few miles above Elgin, and falls into the ſea, a few miles below it. It abounds moſt with ſalmon of any river in the iſland, except the Dee and the Don, eighty or a hundred laſts being unnually pickled and exported, all taken in a few ſummer months and within the ſpace of one mile. It abounds with fiſh indeed up to its ſource, but moſt of theſe are uſed for home conſumption, and taken either with ſpears by day, or in wicker baſkets, or little boats covered with hides, by night.

The principal places in this county are the following:

Elgin, a royal burgh ſeated in a pleaſant plain, one hundred and four miles to the north of Edinburgh. It is waſhed on the eaſt and north by the river Loſſie, over which it has a bridge, and conſiſts of one very long ſtreet, and ſeveral ſhorter, with a neat church in the middle. The houſes are almoſt all built upon arches, which, with their intermediate pillars, form agreeable piazzas, and ſerve to defend the inhabitants from the rain, wind, or ſun. It is alſo famous for the ruins of one of the moſt ſtately cathedrals in the kingdom: moſt of the end walls are ſtill ſtanding, and many noble pillars which ſhew its former grandeur. At the other end of the town are the ruins of an ancient caſtle, though demoliſhed by the Danes. Theſe ruins are upon a large mount, which affords a fine proſpect all over the town, and of the adjacent country even to the ſea, and of the winding courſe of the river. The ſheriff keeps his court here. It has a weekly market, and is the ſeat of a preſbytery, conſiſting of thirteen pariſhes. The highland gentry come to reſide here every winter; and in this part of the country there are ſome commoners of the beſt eſtates in all Scotland; it being a rich country almoſt all the way from hence to Strathern.

Forres, a market town and royal burgh, pleaſantly ſeated on the weſt ſide of the county on a river that falls into the Findern, ten miles from Elgin, and at the end of ſeveral ridges of mountains, and conſiſts of one long ſtreet, with a church, a tolbooth or town-houſe, and the ruins of an old caſtle, in which it is ſaid, the kings of Scotland uſed to reſide. It is the ſeat of a preſbytery, containing ten pariſhes. Near the town is a large pillar of one ſtone adorned with baſſo relievos, much obſcured by time; this is a monument of a victory obtained by Malcolm Mackenneth over Sweno king of Denmark.

SECT. XXXII.

Of the Iſles of Orkney and Shetland. Their Situation, Extent, Climate, Soil, and Produce, with the Manners, Cuſtoms and Trade of the Inhabitants.

THE Orcades or Orkney iſlands, with thoſe of Shetland, make one ſtewartry, and ſend one member to parliament; the former lie north of Dungſby-head, in Caithneſs-ſhire, the moſt northern promontory of Scotland, between fifty eight degrees twenty-ſeven minutes, and the fifty nineth degree, ten minutes, of north latitude, and between the firſt degree thirty minutes, and the ſecond degree fifty minutes weſt longitude. They are divided from the continent by the ſtreight called Pentland firth, which is twenty four miles long, and from twelve to ſixteen in breadth. They are reckoned about thirty in number, and, according to Mr. Templeman, contain an area of ſix hundred ſquare miles; but they are not all inhabited, a conſiderable number, which are called Holms, being only uſed for paſture for ſheep and goats.

The longeſt day among them exceeds eighteen hours by ſome minutes, and for the greateſt part of June, one may ſee to read at midnight without a candle. The winters have leſs ſnow than rain, which ſometimes falls in violent ſpouts, and the wind is often very boiſterous. But nothing can be a finer ſight in calm weather, than to ſee the ſea in the narrow ſounds and paſſages between the iſlands; where the different tides run as from a ſluice,

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as well one way as the other, and the boats flying along thoſe rapid currents, like an arrow out of a bow; it being as impoſſible to row againſt them, as to ſhoot London bridge againſt the ſteep fall at low water.

In Pentland firth, behind the iſland Swinna, are two great whirlpools called the Wells of Swinna, which ſwallow up any veſſel that comes within their draught, and the paſſage of that ſtreight itſelf is very dangerous, from the many ſtrong tides, which are no leſs than twenty-four, and upon the leaſt contrary wind, make the ſea run very high.

As theſe iſlands are larger, and have more towns and inhabitants than thoſe of Shetland, ſo the ſoil is alſo better, and more improveable. The fields in ſummer every where abound with a variety of plants and roots, the latter of which are generally very large; but in winter and ſpring, when graſs is ſcarce, their horſes are fed with ſea-weeds: but there is ſcarce a tree or ſhrub except myrtle, juniper, wild roſes, heath, and ſome fruit trees, with others in their gardens. Theſe iſlands produce corn in abundance, but the chief of it is oats, barley, and beer; for they have no wheat, rye or pulſe, except in the gentleman's gardens. Their corn land is every where incloſed; but their ſheep, ſwine, and moſt of their cattle feed at large, without a herdſman to look after them.

Their ews commonly bring forth two lambs at a time, and ſome three or four; but they often die of a diſeaſe occaſioned by a little animal about half an inch long breeding in their liver. Their horſes are very ſmall, but hardy and ſerviceable. They have all ſorts of wild fowl, as partridges, moor-fowl plover, ducks, teal, widgeon, &c. with numbers of eagles and kites, and the former are ſaid to ſeize ſometimes upon young children and carry them a great way; and therefore if any one kills an eagle, he may, by law, claim a hen from every houſe in the pariſh where it is killed. Hawks and falcons have neſts in ſeveral parts of the iſland, and the king's falconer comes annually and takes the young, for which he has a ſallary of twenty pounds, and a hen or dog out of every houſe in the country, except ſome houſes that are privileged. The country alſo abounds with ſwans, geeſe, ducks, and ſolan geeſe; but there are no venomous animals, and it is ſaid that if any be brought here they immediately die.

There are many ſmall whales round the coaſt, with thoſe amphibious animals otters and ſeals. They have alſo an amazing plenty of herrings and other ſea fiſh, with abundance of oyſters, muſſels, crabs, cockles, &c. Though it cannot be expected that they ſhould have any large rivers in a country divided into ſo many ſmall iſlands, yet there are ſome rivulets full of trouts, and many lakes; but they are of no other uſe than to ſupply their cattle with water, and turn their mills.

As to minerals, there are ſome mines of ſilver, tin, lead, and perhaps of other metals, but none of them are improved. There are in many places quarries of freeſtone, with grey and red ſlate, and ſome marble and alabaſter.

The inhabitants are well proportioned, and of a healthy conſtitution; but as they feed very much, eſpecially the poorer ſort, upon ſalt meat and fiſh, they are ſubject to the ſcurvy: but living with great frugality, they generally enjoy life to a great age, and ſeldom die of the doctor. The generality of the people ſpeak Engliſh, with the Scots accent, but many of them uſe the Daniſh or Norwegian tongue among themſelves, which they have retained ever ſince the Norwegians firſt peopled theſe iſlands. The people of diſtinction are hoſpitable and obliging, and even the vulgar are generally civil. They dreſs like the Lowlanders, only ſome of them wear a kind of ſandals made of ſeal ſkin, which they tie about their feet with leather thongs. They are able and ſtout ſoldiers; and the common people, who are very laborious, undergo great hazards as well as fatigues at ſea. To prevent the frequent incurſions of the Norweigans, and thoſe of the weſtern iſlands, each village was formerly obliged to fit out a large boat well manned; and all the inhabitants were forced to appear in arms upon an alarm from the beacons that were ſet on the top of the higheſt hills and rocks.

Several gentlemen have eſtates in theſe iſlands; but the king is proprietor, and one half of the whole belongs to the crown, beſides the biſhop's rates, which amount to about nine thouſand marks ſcots per annum. There is here a yearly roup, or ſale by auction, of Orkney rents, and the higheſt bidder is preferred to be the king's ſteward for the time, and as ſuch is principal judge of the country.

The churches of both the Orkney and Shetland iſlands were formerly under the government of a biſhop, whoſe cathedral was St. Magnus, in Kirkwall. There are in all thirty-one churches, and about a hundred chapels in the country, making up in the whole about eighteen pariſhes.

The trade of the Orkneys differs from that of Shetland, only in not depending on the reſort of ſtrangers, but on their own produce. They annually export a very great quantity of corn, black cattle, ſwine, and ſheep, as alſo of butter, tallow, and ſalt, together with ſelch ſkins, otter-ſkins, lamb and rabbit ſkins, &c. great quantities of down, feathers, quills, hams, and wool. Their corn, in particular, is ſold as far as Edinburgh, from whence they bring what goods they want in exchange. But the chief of their commerce conſiſts in their fiſhing for herrings and white fiſh, and in their corn and cattle. But as they have not merchants to export their fiſh, when taken, they moſt commonly fiſh for the Dutch, and the merchants of Inverneſs; and though this ſometimes obliges them to go far from home, yet being an adventurous hardy people, they make no difficulty of fiſhing in the darkeſt nights, at a diſtance from the iſlands, and in boats that are none of the beſt.

The principal of the Orkney iſlands are the following.

Hoy is about twelve miles long, and ſix where broadeſt. The eaſt part called Waes, is fertile and well inhabited, and it has ſome good harbours, with freſh-water lakes and rivers abounding with trout and other fiſh. About the ſummer ſolſtice the reflection of the ſun may be ſeen all night, as if covered with a cloud. There are here valleys ſo deep and gloomy as to ſtrick terror into the mind of a traveller, the rocks riſing to a prodigious height, and meeting ſo near at the top, that very little of the ſky can be ſeen below. In one of the valleys is a ſtone called the Dwarf-ſtone, thirty-ſix feet long, eighteen broad, and nine thick, in which is a ſquare hole about two feet high for an entrance, with a ſtone of the ſame ſize for a door. Within this entrance is the reſemblance of a bed, with a pillow cut out of the ſtone, big enough for two men to lie on. At the other end is a couch, and in the middle a hearth, with a hole cut out above for a chimney. It lies in a heath about a mile from any houſe, and is ſuppoſed to have been an hermitage. On the tops of the mountains are wild ſheep, and in a promontory here called Lyne-head, a bird called a lyre, builds its neſt: it is about the ſize of a duck, very fat, and ſuch delicious eating, that the natives climb for it at the hazard of their lives; and, like the bird-catchers we have mentioned in treating of Norway, are let down by ropes two hundred fathoms in ſearch of the neſts and the young ones, which when they find, they put in a bag, and ſell for a very good price. Here are alſo hares as white as ſnow. The miniſter of Hoy has two churches, one at Hoy, and the other at Gramſey, a pleaſant iſland about one mile long to the north of this; and the miniſter of Waes, in the eaſtern part of the iſle, has alſo two churches, one at Waes, and the other in the little pleaſant iſland of Flotta.

Pomona is the largeſt of all the Orkney iſlands, and on that account is called the main-land. It is twenty-four miles in length, and from ſix to nine broad. It has nine pariſh-churches, ſeveral mines of white and black lead, and has four remarkably good harbours, Kirkwall, Deic Sound, Grahamſhall, and Kairſton. The eaſt part, called Deirneſs, is a peninſula joined to the other by a ſmall neck of land. The iſland is, in general, very fertile, and both parts pleaſant and well inhabited. It has lakes and rivulets abounding with ſalmon and other fiſh, and ſeveral bays and promontories. The cape at the north

north end, called the Mule, is very high, and the ſea in a tempeſt beats againſt it with ſuch force, that it riſes higher than its top. In this iſland are two temples, where the natives believe the ſun and moon were worſhipped: theſe are one on the eaſt and the other on the weſt ſide of a lake. The largeſt is a hundred and ten paces in diameter, and the other is ſemi-circular.

The only good town in the Orkneys is Kirkwall, which is ſeated forty-five miles from Dungſby-head, and is a royal burgh, narrow, but near a mile long. The houſes are of ſtone covered with ſlate, and the inhabitants are governed by a provoſt, four bailiffs, and a common-council, like the other burghs of Scotland. Its cathedral, called St. Magnus, is now a pariſh-church, built of free-ſtone, and is larger than St. Giles's at Edinburgh. Its roof is ſupported by fourteen pillars on each ſide, and its ſteeple, in which is a good ring of bells, by four large pillars. The three gates of the church are chequered with red and white poliſhed ſtones, emboſſed and elegantly flowered. There is here a public grammar-ſchool, and ſeveral others for reading and writing. The ſeat of juſtice is kept here for all the reſt of the iſlands; and here the the ſteward, ſheriff, and commiſſary keep their ſeparate courts. Its ancient privileges are ſtill kept up, and they have a power to arreſt by their own officers, to impriſon, to make by-laws, to chuſe their own magiſtrates, &c. yet they cannot try in capital cauſes, that part of juſtice being left to the lords of juſticiary. This iſland has a large ſafe harbour in a bay on the north ſide of the iſland.

Beyond theſe, and ſtill farther to the north, lies Sanda, the ſoil of which is very dry, and exceeding ſandy, from whence it received its name. It is eleven or twelve miles in length, but very narrow, and well ſtored with corn. It is in ſhort reckoned the moſt fruitful and beautiful of all the Orkney iſlands. Here is not only variety of fiſh, but of black cattle, ſheep, corn, hay, and paſture, plenty of rabbets, which, next to fiſh, are the chief food of the natives; but they are in great want of fuel. Here are many buildings, two churches, and two paſtors.

Fair is an iſland ſeated nine leagues from the Orkneys, and five from Shetland, and is ſeen from both. It is fruitful in corn and cattle, and abounds in all ſorts of fiſh. This iſland has three very high rocky promontories, inacceſſible, except on the north-eaſt, where the land is lower, and forms a ſafe harbour. Its hawks are reckoned the beſt that are to be found, and go as far as the Orkneys for moor-hens and other prey. On the north-weſt ſide is a vaſt rock, which riſes like a tower, is covered with graſs, and feeds many ſheep. The iſland has but few inhabitants, they being often plundered by the mariners who come this way to fiſh. The Dutch Eaſt India ſhips that chuſe to come north-about paſs by this iſland, where they often find men of war ſent from Holland to wait for and convoy them home.

We now come to the Shetland or Zetland iſles, which are about forty-ſix in number, with many holmes, or little uninhabited iſlands, on which cattle are fed, and barren rocks. They lie to the north-eaſt of Scotland, between the fifty-ninth degree fifty minutes and the ſixtieth degree forty-eight minutes north latitude, and between fifty minutes eaſt and one degree fifty minutes weſt longitude.

There are only about twenty-ſix of theſe iſlands inhabited, and of theſe there are only three or four of note, whoſe principal towns are little better than villages, frequented by the many ſtrangers employed in the fiſhery: yet ſome learned men have contended for theſe being the Ultima-Thule of the ancients, in which they placed their Elyſian Fields; and the ſurpriſing length of the days during the months of June and July, when the people can ſee to read by the midnight-lights, probably raiſed an opinion, that the inhabitants enjoyed everlaſting day. In the mean time it muſt be obſerved, that theſe iſlands, which, during four months in the year, enjoy almoſt perpetual day, are during our winter involved in darkneſs, and encompaſſed by ice, ſtorms, and tempeſts: not a ſhip is to be ſeen near them, their ſea not being navigable in moſt of the ſounds; but when the ſun returns to their coaſts with his warm enlivening beams about the middle of May, or the beginning of June, a moſt chearful ſcene ſucceeds this ſolitary gloom; the ſea is covered with ſhips and boats, two thouſand ſail frequently crouding into their ports; and as it were covering the ſea, ſpreading their nets for the herrings in all the ſounds and channels among the iſlands. It is to this concourſe of foreigners, and particularly of the Dutch, who often come with fifteen hundred, and ſometimes with two thouſand buſſes, all the trade of Shetland is owing. The Dutch, for the ſake of trade, ſet up booths on ſhore, as in a fair, where they ſell many uſeful things, eſpecially wine, brandy, and ſpices; and, in return, receive fleſh and vegetables. During this fair, as it may be called, the iſlanders enrich themſelves by ſelling ſeveral ſorts of Scots manufactures to the Dutch ſeamen, as well as all ſorts of proviſions; and alſo by fiſhing with their own barks and cobles, and taking great quantities of fiſh on their own accounts, which they ſell to the Engliſh or Dutch.

Though the air of winter is extremely cold, yet many of the natives live to a great age. Whatever were the original inhabitants, they are ſaid to be at preſent mixed with Scots Lowlanders, dreſs like them, and talk Engliſh. They are a plain good-natured people, and often make feaſts to compoſe quarrels. The people in general ſeem to be of a religious diſpoſition, and are almoſt all of them Proteſtants. The ſhortneſs of their days, with the length of the nights in the winter, and the tempeſtuous ſtate of the weather at that ſeaſon, render them generally ignorant of whatever paſſes in the world from October till May: thus they knew nothing of the revolution which happened in November 1688, till May 1689, when being told of it by a fiſherman, they put him in priſon for high-treaſon; but the news was confirmed ſoon enough to reſtore the poor man to his liberty.

The natives live ſo much upon ſalt-fiſh, that they are very ſubject to the ſcurvy, againſt which nature has furniſhed them with plenty of ſcurvy-graſs; and they cure the jaundice by mixing powder of ſnail-ſhells in their drink; for they have neither phyſicians nor ſurgeons. No corn agrees with the ſoil ſo well as barley, and therefore barley-bread is moſt in uſe. Their common drink is whey, which the natives barrel up, and keep in cold cellars: ſome drink butter-milk mixed with water; but thoſe in more affluent circumſtances have beer, ale, and wine. They make their oil, which they burn during their long winter nights, of the livers of fiſh. The inhabitants of the leſſer iſles maintain themſelves in ſummer by catching fowl, and taking their eggs; and get conſiderably by ſelling their down and feathers. They catch them by climbing the rocks, at which they are very dexterous, and alſo by being let down from the top by ropes, while they ſit in a baſket. Their fuel is turf, peat, and heath. They make coarſe cloth, knit ſtockings and gloves for their own uſe and for ſale to the Norwegians; but their moſt profitable export is fiſh.

They have abundance of little horſes, called ſkeltries, fit both for the plough and ſaddle, being naturally pacers, very ſprightly, and ſtrong enough to carry double, though they have ſmall legs, and are ſo light that a man may lift them from the ground. They are of two ſorts, the pyed and the black; but the latter are the beſt. They are never houſed, and when they have no graſs, live upon ſea-weeds, which can only be had at the tide of ebb; yet live to thirty years of age, and are all the while of ſervice.

They have fowl of many ſorts, particularly geeſe and ducks of ſeveral kinds; but though Shetland abounds with heath, yet heath-cocks and other fowl that frequent heaths will not live there. There are ſometimes ſuch numerous flights of ſea-fowl, that they darken the air. The ſeveral ſpecies of them build and hatch apart. Theſe commonly arrive in February, and after they have hatched their young, and find they can fly, go away together to ſome unknown place.

The chief iſland, called Shetland, and alſo the Mainland, is above ſixty miles in length, and twenty where broadeſt; but is much indented by bays. It is for the moſt part full of bogs and mountains, except on the ſhores, and is therefore fitter for paſture than corn, with which the inhabitants are chiefly ſupplied from the Orkneys; but they have barley and oats of their own.

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The principal town is Lerwick, on the eaſt ſide of the iſland, which is encreaſed by the fiſhing-trade to about three hundred families.

On the weſt ſide is a ſmall town called Scalloway, the inhabitants amounting to only about a hundred: yet this is the only place for adminiſtring juſtice, and had anciently a caſtle, which is fallen to decay. This little town has likewiſe the only preſbytery in all the Shetland iſles.

Braſſa, to the eaſt of the Main-land, and oppoſite to Lerwick, is five miles long, two broad, and has ſome arable land, and two churches. It is famous for the herring-fiſhery in its ſound. The Hamburghers and people of Bremen come hither about the middle of May, ſet up ſhops and exchange linen, muſlin, bread, &c. for fiſh, mutton, fowls, ſtockings, &c. The natives are at this time conſiderable gainers by letting out their houſes and ground to the ſeamen for ſhops.

The Skerries are two dangerous little iſlands, on which ſhips are often caſt away; they lie about ſeventeen miles to the north-eaſt of the Main-land.

Yell is ſixteen miles in length, and the coaſt is indented in ſuch a manner, as to make it reſemble a figure of eight; it alſo lies north-eaſt from the Main-land, and has three churches, with ſeveral little chapels; but the country is ſo mooriſh, that the miniſter is obliged to go near eight miles to church wading almoſt up to the knees in mire.

SECT. XXXIII.

A Deſcription of the moſt remarkable of the Weſtern Iſlands not included in the Shires of Scotland; with a particular Deſcription of St. Kilda.

THE Weſtern iſlands were by the ancients called Æbudæ and Hebrides, and have been computed at three hundred in number. No country abounds more with the neceſſaries of life, they having fleſh and fiſh in prodigious plenty. Their cattle of all ſorts, as cows, ſheep, hogs, and goats, are exceeding numerous and prolific, ſmall indeed, as are their horſes, but of a delicious taſte, as are their deer, which freely range on the mountains. The natives ſalt their beef in cow-hides, which they think contribute to preſerve it, and give it a better taſte than caſks; they ſend a great deal of it to Glaſgow, where it is barrelled up and exported to the Weſt Indies.

Here are large eagles and hawks, which are very deſtructive to the lambs and fawns; but no place in Europe can compare with them for tame and wild-fowl, as pheaſants, moor-fowl, ſwans, tarmagans, plovers, pigeons, with many ſorts extremely beautiful and rare, or utterly unknown elſewhere; among the latter is a fowl called colk, ſomewhat leſs than a gooſe, that has beautiful feathers, or rather down, of various colours; it has a tuft on its head, and its tail is longer than that of a houſe-cock. There is another named gawlin, which is ſomewhat leſs than a duck, and is ſaid to ſing always before good weather; and ſome of the Highland pipers have formed an agreeable tune of its notes. Another, called a rain-gooſe, is ſaid always to make a doleful noiſe before rain. Another extraordinary bird is called the biſhop of Catara; it is as large as a gooſe, and has a white ſpot on its breaſt; it is party-coloured, and its fat is uſed by the natives againſt the ſciatica. Another bird is called ſcreachanaitin, which ſhreaks moſt hideouſly: it is as big as a large mull, but longer in the body, of a blueiſh colour, and its bill of a carnation: it is obſerved to be extremely fond of its mate, for when either the cock or hen is killed, the other makes a lamentable noiſe about the place for eight or ten days after. A bird called ſaſkidor, about the ſize of a ſea-mew, flies very ſwift after other birds, forcing them to drop their food, which it catches before it falls to the ground.

Theſe birds are very common in moſt of the Weſtern iſlands, particularly in thoſe we are going to deſcribe.

The principal of thoſe properly called the Weſtern Iſlands, are a range of narrow iſlands, extending from north to ſouth, namely, Lewis and Harris, already deſcribed, as making a part of Roſs-ſhire, and Viſt, which is divided into North and South; and behind them, farther to the weſt, the iſle of St. Kilda, which, though ſmaller than the other, merits a more particular deſcription.

Viſt, which lies to the ſouth of Harris, is a long ſlip indented with ſeveral bays. North Viſt is nine miles in length from north to ſouth; it is in part mountainous and heathy, yet ſerves for paſturage; but the weſt ſide being plain and arable, is exceeding fruitful in barley, oats, and rye, and feeds abundance of cows and ſheep. This, with the iſland of Benbecula and South Viſt, are by ſome geographers eſteemed one iſland, becauſe at low water there is an eaſy paſſage from one to the other, either upon dry ſands or by wading; and together they are about thirty-three miles in length, and contain ſuch a multitude of freſh-water lakes, bays, and iſlands, that it is ſaid to be impoſſible to number them, and moſt of the lakes abound with fowl and fiſh. North Viſt has an excellent harbour on the ſouth-eaſt ſide in a bay called Lochmaddy, famous for a great fiſhery of cod and ling, and where ſuch quantities have been taken, that four hundred veſſels have been loaded with them in one ſeaſon.

North Viſt is ſeparated from a little iſland named Benbecula on the ſouth by ſeveral rocks, and a channel about three miles broad. This ſmall iſland is only three miles long, and the ſame broad; but has a harbour for ſmall veſſels, and ſeveral freſh-water lakes, well ſtocked with fiſh and fowl; but in its neighbourhood are ſeveral dangerous iſlands.

South Viſt is ſeparated from Benbecula by a channel, which, though two miles broad, is at ebb not above knee-deep. It is twenty-one miles in length, and three or four miles in breadth: the eaſt ſide is mountainous; but the weſt, being level, bears good crops of barley, oats and rye, and abounds with cattle. The natives live to a very great age, and ſpeak the Erſe tongue in perfection.

We now come to St. Kilda, a little iſland that may be ranked among the greateſt curioſities of the Britiſh empire; and therefore, notwithſtanding its ſmall extent, deſerves particular notice, on account of the genius of its inhabitants, their manners and cuſtoms, and the conſtitution of their little commonwealth.

All the territories belonging to the inhabitants of St. Kilda are no more than three ſmall iſlands, and five naked rocks. The principal iſland, together with the reſt, is ſituated in about fifty-eight degrees thirty minutes north latitude, eighteen leagues to the weſt of North Viſt, juſt deſcribed. The length of the whole iſland is not much more than nine miles, and its breadth does not much exceed ſix. It is encompaſſed by an inacceſſible barrier of rocks, two places excepted, one to the north-weſt, and the other to the north-eaſt. The latter has a large bay, formed by two promontories, the firſt running out to the north-eaſt ſide of the iſland, and the other to the ſouth end.

The hand of Nature has divided this iſland into four diſtinct parts by five mountains, which to the ſea-ſide are faced with frightful precipices; particularly that which riſes gradually from the head of the bay, and may not improperly be called the Britiſh Teneriff. Its top in a clear day commands a proſpect of land and ſea above a hundred and forty miles in length. On the north ſide it hangs over the deep in a moſt frightful manner; where a view of it from the ſea fills a man with aſtoniſhment, and a look over it from above ſtrikes him with horror; yet a St. Kildian will ſtand or ſit on the very brink of this ſtupendous precipice with the moſt careleſs indifference; though its perpendicular height is no leſs than eighteen hundred yards.

The ground of St. Kilda, like the greateſt part of that of the Highlands, is much better calculated for paſture than tillage, and all the arable land ſcarcely exceeds eighty acres; but a great deal more might be added, was induſtry and a deſire of improvement ſufficiently encouraged: but all the lands already cultivated lie very com-

pactly together within the precincts of the village in which the whole community dwells. In the lower grounds are many excellent plots of graſs, which is in ſome places intermixed with a beautiful variety of the richeſt plants, on which the cattle feed luxurioufly during the ſummer ſeaſon; and here yield more than ordinary quantities of milk. All the arable land is divided into many unequal plots, and each of theſe is incloſed by the ſtones picked out of the land; theſe boundaries are eſteemed ſacred, and have been kept up for many ages; whence it would be impoſſible for a St. Kildian, however cunning or avaricious, to encroach on his neighbour's farm. Every inch of ground within theſe incloſures, is cultivated; which they thus perform; after turning up the ground with a ſpade they rake or harrow it very carefully, picking out every ſtone, every noxious root or weed that falls in their way, and pound to duſt every clod with a mallet. They then ſow their little fields, ſtrew them over with a manure of turf and peat aſhes, and having harrowed them over again, leave them, to ſpeak in their own ſtile, in the hands of Providence, with a firm perſuaſion that their honeſt induſtry will be amply rewarded.

Tho' this iſland is ſituated ſo far north, the harveſt is commonly over before the beginning of September, and ſhould it fall out otherwiſe, the whole crop would be almoſt deſtroyed by the equinoctial ſtorms, which, with the exceſſive quantity of rain that falls generally throughout ſeven or eight months in the year, are the moſt diſadvantageous circumſtances of their ſituation.

Thus they raiſe their oats, and their barley, which is larger than in any other of the Weſtern iſlands: but they have not one tree in all the iſland. Their horſes and cows, though very ſmall, are alſo ſomewhat larger than in the adjacent iſlands.

The St. Kildians owe a great part of their felicity to their ſheep and wild fowl. They have conſiderable flocks of ſheep; which are all of the ſmalleſt kind, and their wool is ſhort and coarſe. Every one of them has two horns, and many of them four.

The wild fowl appear here in innumerable flocks, and according to the Rev. Mr. Macaulay, from whoſe hiſtory we have extracted this account, it is literally true, without any exaggeration, that in ſummer time ſeveral of the rocks are totally covered with ſolan geeſe and other fowls, and appear at a diſtance like ſo many mountains covered with ſnow. The neſts of the ſolan geeſe are ſo cloſe, that when one walks between them, the hatching fowls on either ſide can always take hold of one's cloaths, and they will often ſit ſtill till they are attacked, rather than expoſe their eggs to the danger of being deſtroyed by ſea gulls; at the ſame time an equal number fly about and furniſh food for their mates that are employed in hatching. The ſolan geeſe repair hither in the month of March, and continue till after the beginning of November. Before the middle of that month, they and all the other ſea fowl that are ſo fond of this coaſt, retire much about the ſame time, into ſome other favourite regions; ſo that not a ſingle fowl is to be ſeen from the beginning of winter to the middle of February.

Another ſea-fowl highly eſteemed in this iſland, is the tutmer, which the inhabitants ſay, furniſhes oil for the lamp, down for the bed, the moſt ſalubrious food, and the moſt efficacious ointment for healing wounds. It is of the ſize of an ordinary barn-door fowl, but its legs and wings are much longer. The back, wings, and tail, are of a light grey; round the breaſt and neck of a lighter colour: his head is round, his neck ſhort and thick; his bill is made for ſtrength, bending inwards, pointed like that of an eagle, and in length about an inch and a half. He is a moſt ravenous fowl, and feeds only on ſorrel and the fat of fiſh. Pieces of whale and ſeal blubber are often found in his neſt. The young tutmer is no ſooner attacked in his neſt, than he endeavours to diſconcert the fowler by ſpouting a quantity of oil out of his wide noſtrils directly into his face and eyes: which frequently gives him an opportunity of making his eſcape. But thoſe who are verſed in this diverſion take all poſſible precautions to ſurprize him; for thinking his oil incomparably precious, they exert all their ſkill and dexterity to ſave it. Every tutmer yields near a pint of this liquid ſubſtance, which drops out of the noſtrils of the fowl while warm, and a conſiderable quantity of it is annually preſerved. Of the fowls themſelves every family has a great number ſalted in caſks for winter proviſions.

The third ſpecies are the lavie, which being the earlieſt viſitants in February, no ſooner appear, than the moſt conſiderable perſons in this ſtate aſſemble together to congratulate each other, on ſeeing theſe harbingers of plenty and happineſs; and to divide the people into parties made up of their ableſt fowlers. The lavie in ſize reſembles a duck, though rather longer. He is black above, but the whole breaſt and belly white, with a circle of the ſame colour round the neck; the bill is black and ſharp at the point, and the egg beautifully variegated with black, white and red, blue, green and yellow; but ſcarce any two are alike. This fowl builds no neſt, and like ſeveral other ſpecies of water fowl, lays but one egg, which ſhe fixes in ſo nice a manner, that if once touched, one will find it impoſſible to fix it in the ſame place again; and if the fowls are ſurprized ſo as to ſtart away in a hurry, they tumble down into the ſea in thick ſhowers.

Theſe are caught by letting down a man with ropes into the well-known ſhelves of the rocks, each having a broad piece of linen, or any thing remarkably white fixed on his breaſt. This is done in the night, when the bird miſtaking an object ſo conſpicuous for a part of the rock, endeavours to cling to it, and is immediately caught and diſpatched. Thus employed the fowler continues till the dawn, when making the wonted ſignal by pulling the rope, his companions pull up, by another rope, the prey he has taken, which ſometimes conſiſts of four hundred lavies, and then pull up the fowler, whom they careſs for his courage and dexterity.

They have alſo a great number of puffins; and too frequently a large ſea-gull which is deteſted by every St. Kildian, it deſtroying every egg that falls in its way, very often the young fowl, and ſometimes the weakeſt of the old. It is hardly poſſible to expreſs the hatred with which thoſe otherwiſe good-natured people endeavour to exterminate theſe gulls; if one happens to mention them, it puts their whole blood into a ferment. To eat any of its eggs, though amongſt the largeſt and beſt the iſland affords, would be moſt a flagitious action; they therefore extract the meat out of the ſhell, and leaving it empty in the neſt, the gull ſits upon it till ſhe pines away.

Among the land birds are very large ravens, a few eagles, with herons, curlews, plovers, pigeons, ſtarlings, larks, wrens, and ſparrows.

Every one of the natives of St Kilda who is poſſeſſed of a bit of land there, has a proportionable ſhare of the rocks in which the fowls hatch. The diviſions are made with ſingular exactneſs, and the ſmalleſt encroachment on a St. Kildian's property in theſe rocks, is by an ancient cuſtom ſeverely puniſhed.

The whole body of this little people live together like the inhabitants of a town or city, their houſes being built in regular rows forming a ſtreet: theſe habitations are built with ſtone without either lime or mortar, from eight to nine feet high. All their dwellings are divided into two apartments by partition walls. In the diviſion next the door, which is much the largeſt, they have their cattle ſtalled during the winter ſeaſon; the other ſerves for kitchen and bed-chamber. There are alſo a prodigious number of little cells diſperſed over the iſland; theſe conſiſt intirely of ſtones, and in them they ſecure their eggs and wild fowl.

The men are ſtout and hardy, ſhort, thick and clumſy; but are remarkably ſtrong, will carry heavy burthens, and tug at the oar for many hours, with an almoſt undiminiſhed vigour: but the women are moſtly handſome: their complexions are freſh and lively, and their features fine and regular.

The cloathing of the people is quite coarſe, and made for warmth. All the colours known among them, till of late, were black, white, grey, and brown, the natural colours of their ſheep; and yellow was their only artificial one. All the linen manufactured among them

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is a mere trifle, and extremely coarſe: one holiday ſhirt will ſatisfy the ambition of the greateſt beau among them; and what they wear next their ſkin, on ordinary occaſions, is made of wool. The weavers are but indifferent workmen. Every man is the taylor and ſhoe-maker of his own family: all the leather in the iſland, and thoſe neareſt to it, is tanned with the tormentil root, and done to great perfection.

The St. Kildians ſpeak a corrupt dialect of the Galic, with a little mixture of the Norwegian: their manner of pronouncing is very ſingular, for every man, woman, and child, has an unconquerable liſping.

Theſe people are extremely fond of muſic, whether vocal or inſtrumental; to a bad violin indifferently played they will dance with rapture, and even the old women will bear a part in theſe aſſemblies. They delight much in ſinging, and their voices are abundantly tuneful. The women, while cutting down the barley in the field, or grinding their corn with their hand-mills in the houſe, are almoſt conſtantly employed that way; and the men, if pulling at the oar, exert all their ſkill in animating each other by ſinging ſome ſpirited ſongs adapted to the buſineſs in hand; and indeed ſome bright ſparks of fire, and ſome noble flights of fancy, may be diſcovered in their otherwiſe homely compoſitions. The ſubjects handled by the bards of St. Kilda, in their odes, are the beauty and accompliſhments of their favourites among the fair-ſex, the heroic actions of their friends, their dexterity in climbing rocks, their ſuperior ſkill in fiſhing, their extraordinary vigour, ſkill, and conſtancy while at the oar; beſides the common topics of perſonal advantages, and intellectual merit.

They all in general poſſeſs the virtue of hoſpitality in an eminent degree, and behave with the utmoſt generoſity, humanity, and reſpect, to the ſtrangers who come among them.

They marry early, and their gallantries are generally innocent: impurities faſhionable elſewhere, if committed here, are never unattended with infamy; and, as Tacitus obſerves of the ancient Germans, "No one makes "a jeſt of vice; to debauch, or be debauched, is not "called the way of the world." Here wives with great portions never rule their huſbands: here a cruel ſtepmother never perſecutes her guiltleſs ſtep-ſon for the ſake of pelf: here the nuptial tie is always held ſacred. An honeſt deſire of preventing or removing the inconveniences of a ſingle life, or pure diſintereſted love, are the ruling paſſions in the advances they make to matrimony. If a young fellow be poſſeſſed of a ſpade, rake, creel, and fowling-rope, he marries without the leaſt fear or ſolicitude, will maintain himſelf, his wife, and children, live contentedly on a ſmall ſpot of ground, and pay his rents to the proprietor's ſteward with barley and feathers.

Drunkenneſs is not yet introduced here; but the St. Kildians have a moſt violent paſſion for tobacco. They buy an annual ſtore of this favourite plant from the ſteward; which, in ſpite of their fondneſs for it, they muſt manage with the moſt exact œconomy, as it is impoſſible to procure a new ſupply, till the market of another year returns with him. For this univerſally bewitching article, and for ſome other goods indiſpenſably neceſſary, particularly ſalt, iron, and timber, they barter away their cows, ſheep, grain, and feathers. Their riches conſiſt in theſe commodities; they have ſcarce any wants, and conſequently ſcarce any deſires of the pecuniary kind.

It appears that Chriſtianity was very early introduced into this iſland. The largeſt church was dedicated to Chriſt, and called his temple. It was built of ſtone without any cement. It is twenty-four feet in length, and its breadth fourteen. This was in former times the principal place of worſhip in the iſland, and here they continue to bury their dead. At the diſtance of a mile from the village is a chapel, which has an altar within, and ſome monkiſh cells without. The people have for ſome time been Proteſtants of the church of Scotland, and a miniſter from thence is ſent thither. They are devout; attend Divine worſhip regularly every Sunday; but, with all their virtues, make no ſcruple of lying, and uſing all the arts of cunning to deceive the ſteward, when he makes them his annual viſit to receive a heavy tax they are obliged to pay him in proportion to the ſtock of various kinds they poſſeſs; and, among other things, every ſecond he lamb, every ſeventh fleece, and every ſeventh ſhe lamb.

The preſent proprietor is a gentleman named Norman Macleod, whoſe anceſtors have poſſeſſed the iſland for at leaſt two hundred years. He has given a leaſe of this iſland, and of every thing belonging to it, to a cadet of his own family, for the yearly rent of about eleven pounds ſterling. This is the perſon called the ſteward, who before this, or his own rent can be made effectual, muſt be at the annual expence of fitting out a large Highland boat, to bring his grain, feathers, or any other perquiſites that fall to his ſhare, or any commodities he buys from the people, to Harris, where he generally reſides.

To conclude the moral character of theſe people; being at a diſtance from the ſeats of juſtice, they are abſolute ſtrangers to the chicanery and delay of the law. And though they are ignorant, and ſo illiterate, that few of them can read, they firmly believe the exiſtence and providence of a Supreme Being, the immortality of the human ſoul, the obligations of morality, righteouſneſs, and temperance.

CHAP.

CHAP. XXXI.

Of IRELAND.

SECT. I.

Of IRELAND *in general.*

Its Situation, Extent, Air, Soil, Produce, Rivers, and Lakes.

THIS is a large, and in general a fertile iſland, ſeated to the ſouth of the little iſles juſt deſcribed; to the weſt of England and Scotland, from which it is divided by St. George's Channel and a ſtreight about fifteen miles broad, which ſeparates it from part of Scotland: it has the mouth of St. George's Channel on the ſouth; and the great Atlantic ocean, which lies between it and the frozen region of Newfoundland and Labrador, or New Britain, in North America, on the weſt. It is ſeated between the fifth degree ten minutes and the tenth degree thirty-ſeven minutes weſt longitude from London, and between the fifty-firſt degree ſixteen minutes and the fifty-fifth degree fifteen minutes north latitude. It is allowed to be above half as large as England, and is two hundred and eighty-five miles from Fairhead, the north point of Antrim, to Miſſenhead, the ſouth point of Cork, which is its greateſt length; but it is much indented on the ſouth-eaſt by St. George's Channel; and on the weſt and north by the Atlantic ocean, which renders its length very unequal. The greateſt breadth, which is from the eaſt part of Down to the weſt part of Mayo, is a hundred and ſixty miles: but in the middle, from Dublin on the eaſt, to the weſt of Gallway, it is only a hundred and forty-ſix.

The air is much the ſame with thoſe parts of England that lie under the ſame parallel; only in ſome parts it is more groſs and unhealthy, eſpecially to ſtrangers, on account of its many lakes, bogs, and marſhes; but in this particular alſo it agrees with England; where the marſhes of Kent, Cambridgeſhire, and Suſſex, are at leaſt equally unhealthful. It has been obſerved, that the air is warmer in winter and cooler in ſummer than in England, but the difference in this reſpect is not very great. The air is alſo allowed to be more moiſt than in England; but this is probably true only of Dublin, and the other places near the ſea and the lakes, which occaſion more frequent rains.

In general it is a level country, watered by many lakes and rivers, and the ſoil is in moſt places very good and fruitful; even thoſe where the bogs have been drained are good meadow ground. Their paſtures feed prodigious numbers of cattle; but in ſeveral parts they are not ſo large as in England, on which account a bounty has long been given for the importation of Engliſh bulls, and large ſtone-horſes, which have mended the breed. Indeed the far greateſt part of the land is uſed for grazing, whence they are enabled to ſupply the ſhips of all the European nations, particularly the Engliſh and Dutch, with beef and butter; but advantageous as this trade is, it is carried to an exceſs that is very prejudicial to Ireland, as it cauſes agriculture to be neglected, which would employ many more hands, and prevent their being frequently obliged to purchaſe great quantities of corn from England; from whence it is alſo not uncommon to purchaſe ſhip loads of potatoes, which in many places ſupply the want of bread. They alſo raiſe flax and hemp; and the gardens of Ireland produce all the fruits and vegetables fit for the kitchen, that are to be found in Great Britain, though fine fruit is dearer there than in England.

It ought not to be omitted, now we are treating of the ſoil, that there are ſome bogs in this country ſo deep, as entirely to ſwallow up a man and horſe, who ſink an unknown depth, though they are covered with turf which ſeems to promiſe ſolid ground; however, roads have been made for horſes and carriages over theſe dreadful bogs, by ranging rows of faggots faſtened together, and covered with earth, which forms a kind of bridge that ſhakes under the feet of the paſſenger. There are other bogs that have too ſtrong a cruſt of turf to be eaſily broken, and are conſtantly paſſed in ſafety, though they ſhake and quiver at every ſtep of the foot.

The turf which grows upon many of the bogs is taken off, dried, and ſold for fuel; and is of great uſe where coals are ſcarce. There are, however, ſeveral pits of excellent coal, and navigable canals are forming in order to convey it by ſea to Dublin, and all the other towns on the coaſt. This country has likewiſe quarries of ſeveral kinds of beautiful marble, alſo free-ſtone, a beautiful kind of hard white ſtone fit for building, full of ſhining particles which glitter in the ſun, and ſlate; with mines of copper and iron.

The principal rivers of Ireland are the following:

The Shannon, which riſes in Loch-Allen, in the province of Connaught, which it divides from Leinſter and Munſter, and running from north to ſouth, after forming ſeveral lakes, turns to the weſt and falls into the Atalanic ocean, after a courſe of one hundred and forty-five miles. This river is in moſt parts wide and deep, and has within it ſeveral fine and fruitful iſlands, with a fertile ſoil on both its banks: but it is not navigable above fifty miles for ſhips, on account of a cataract.

The Suir, the Neor, and the Barrow, riſe from branches of a mountain named Slieu-Bloom. The Suir has its ſource in the branch called Bein-Duffe, in the county of Tipperary, and making firſt a ſouth-eaſt, and then a ſoutherly courſe for upwards of forty miles, it turns to the north and afterwards to the eaſt, and at length unites its ſtreams with the Neor and the Barrow.

The Neor riſes out of the ſame branch, and taking a ſouth-eaſt courſe, unites its ſtream with the Barrow.

The Barrow riſes out of the ſame mountain in Queen's county, and after taking a northerly courſe, turns to the ſouth, and before it arrives at Roſs is joined by the Neor, from whence it continues a ſoutherly courſe under the name of the river of Roſs, and being joined by the Suir, they all loſe themſelves in the ſea at the mouth of the harbour of Waterford.

The Black-water, ſometimes called the Broad water, riſes out of a mountain in the county of Kerry, from whence being ſwelled with many ſtreams, it takes firſt a ſoutherly, and then an eaſterly courſe, till at length turning ſuddenly to the ſouth, it purſues that courſe till it falls into the bay of Youghall. There are ſeveral other rivers in Ireland called the Black-water, one of which falls into the Boyne, another into the Shannon, and another in the county of Wexford, falls into the ſea.

The river Bann, famous for its pearl fiſhery, but more ſo for its ſalmon, ariſes from the mountains in the county of Down, from whence it flows northward, and after a courſe of about thirty miles, falls into the lake called Lough-neagh, and paſſing through it, continues its courſe to the north, dividing the counties of Antrim and Londonderry, and falls into the ſea a little to the north-weſt of Colerain.

The Lee riſes out of a lake in the county of Cork, and taking an eaſterly courſe of about twenty-ſix miles, is enlarged by its receiving ſeveral rivers and rivulets, till at length paſſing by Cork, it diſcharges itſelf into the ſea.

The Liffey is only remarkable for having the metropolis of the kingdom ſeated on its banks. It riſes in the county of Wicklow, and making a circling courſe through that county and the counties of Kildare and Dublin, diſcharges itſelf into Dublin bay, a little below that city;

A New MAP of IRELAND. from the best Observations.

English Miles
15 30 45 60

8 30 9 30 10 30 11 30 12 30 13 30 W. from London

55 54 53 52 51 N

IRISH SEA

ST. GEORGES CHANNEL

BRITAIN

ULSTER
MUNSTER
CONNAUGH
LEINSTER

Counties: Donegal, Londonderry, Antrim, Tyrone, Fermanagh, Down, Monaghan, Armagh, Cavan, Sligo, Leitrim, Mayo, Roscomon, Longford, Louth, W. Meath, Meath, Dublin, Kings, Kildare, Wicklow, Queens, Catherlagh, Kilkenny, Wexford, Tipperary, Limrick, Clare, Galway, Waterford, Corke, Kerry

Seas, Bays, Loughs: Lough Foyle, Bay of Lough Foyle, Lough Swilly, Dunnagall Bay, Sligo Harbour, Galway Bay, Bay of Galway, Dingle Bay, Valentia Bay, Swirwick Haven, Dunmanus Bay, Bantry Bay, Castle Haven, Cork Harb., Kinsale Bay, Old Head, Longhill Bay, Dungarvan Bay, Waterford Haven, Tuskard, Carlingford and Bay, Dundalk Bay, Lough Neagh, Lough Erne, Lough Ree, Lough Derg, Lough Corrib, Lough Mask, Lough Conn, Lough Gara, Lough Allyne, Lough Sheelin, Lough Gowna, Lough Ramor, Lough Sillan, Lough Owel, Lough Lene, Lough Ennell, Lough Derravaragh, Lough Sewdy, Lough Iron, Lough Gill, Lough Arrow, Lough Key, Lough Melvin, Lough Macnean, Lough Oughter, Lough Kilglass, Lough Allen, Lough Boderg, Lough Funshinagh, Lough Rea, Lough Hackett, Lough Atalia, Lough Derg, Lough Graney, Lough Inchiquin, Lough Leane, Lough Currane, Lough Naneagh, Lough Muckross, Lough Swilly, Lough Foyle

Islands: Rathlin I., N. Islands of Arran, S. Islands of Arran, Tory I., Inishowen, Islands of Achil, Clara I., Enishtick, I. Bothin, Doghead, Omna I., Bunowen, Gallway, Karonakil, Clare I., Inishmore, Inishmaan, Inishere, Valentia I., Dursin I., I. Wenis, Durris I., Cape Clear I., Fastnet Rock, Calf of Man, Lambay I., Ireland's Eye, Howth, The Bar, Skerries, Rockabill, Dalkey I., Burrow I., Green I., Copeland I., Saltee I., Tuskard, Abill Rock, Germans T., Hook Head, Dunmore Head, Mizenhead, Crook Head, Old Head, Kinsale Head, Brandon Hill, Carrick Mt., Slieve Donard, Mourne Mts., Cuchulin Mts., Mt. Brandon, Mangerton Mt., Knockmeldown Mts., Galtee Mts., Slieve Bloom Mts., Wicklow Mts., Dublin Mts., Kilmorerish, Arklow, Castle Mc. Adam, Wicklow, Newcastle, Sugerloafbay, Howth, Lambay I., Abill Rock, Germans T., Dundalk, Carlingford and Bay, Newry, Mourne, Down, Dromore, Belfast, Carrickfergus Bay, Antrim, Glenarm, Ballymony, Fairhead, Rathlin I., Aghave, Ardoirn, Londonderry, Dunnagall, Maherowelly, Tory I., Swins Ade C., Raghlin Hd., Dunagill Bay, Enishmurry, The 3 Tuns, Emloghrash, Enish Karker, Islands of Achil, Clara I., Enishtick, I. Bothin, Doghead, Omna I., Bunowen, Gallway, Morish, Karonakil, South I. of Arran, Liscanor, Ennis I., Ennis Kerry I., Valentia I., Valentia Bay, Dursin I., I. Wenis, Durris I., Bantry Bay, Dunmanus B., Mizenhead, Swirwick Haven, Dunmanus Inch, Ventry, Dingle Bay, Tralee, Killarney, Kenmare R., Bantry, Kinsale, Cork, Youghal, Dungarvan, Tuskard, Waterford, Carrick, Clonmell, Tipperary, Limrick, Ennis, Killaloe, Nenagh, Roscrea, Birr, Philipstown, Trim, Athlone, Longford, Cavan, Monaghan, Clogher, Enniskilling, Belturbet, Lisnaskea, Lanesborough, Ballymore, Mullingar, Kells, Navan, Drogheda, Dundalk, Louth, Ardmagh, Charlemont, Omagh, Strabane, Raphoe, Lifford, Tyrone, Donegal, Letterkenny, Killybegs, Ballyshannon, Sligo, Ballina, Castlebar, Westport, Killala, Belmullet, Erris, Achil, Clifden, Roundstone, Galway, Athenry, Gort, Ennis, Kilrush, Tarbert, Kerry, Dingle, Killorglin, Killarney, Tralee, Listowel, Abbeyfeale, Rathkeale, Adare, Kilmallock, Limrick, Askeaton, Glanmire, Cork, Youghal, Dungarvan, Lismore, Cashel, Tipperary, Thurles, Roscrea, Nenagh, Portumny, Banagher, Shannon R., Liffey R., Boyne R., Barrow R., Nore R., Suir R., Blackwater R., Lee R., Bann R., Foyle R., Erne R., Moy R., Corrib R., Mask R., Conn R., Gara L., Allyne L., Sheelin L., Gowna L., Ramor L., Sillan L., Owel L., Lene L., Ennell L., Derravaragh L., Sewdy L., Iron L., Gill L., Arrow L., Key L., Melvin L., Macnean L., Oughter L., Kilglass L., Allen L., Boderg L., Funshinagh L., Rea L., Hackett L., Atalia L., Derg L., Graney L., Inchiquin L., Leane L., Currane L., Naneagh L., Muckross L., Swilly L., Foyle L.

Towns: Dunnagall, Londonderry, Antrim, Belfast, Carrickfergus, Glenarm, Ballymony, Fairhead, Aghave, Rathlin I., Ardoirn, Coleraine, Tyrone, Omagh, Strabane, Raphoe, Lifford, Letterkenny, Killybegs, Donegal, Ballyshannon, Sligo, Ballina, Castlebar, Westport, Killala, Belmullet, Erris, Achil, Clifden, Roundstone, Galway, Athenry, Gort, Ennis, Kilrush, Tarbert, Kerry, Dingle, Killorglin, Killarney, Tralee, Listowel, Abbeyfeale, Rathkeale, Adare, Kilmallock, Limrick, Askeaton, Glanmire, Cork, Youghal, Dungarvan, Lismore, Cashel, Tipperary, Thurles, Roscrea, Nenagh, Portumny, Banagher, Birr, Philipstown, Trim, Athlone, Longford, Cavan, Monaghan, Clogher, Enniskilling, Belturbet, Lisnaskea, Lanesborough, Ballymore, Mullingar, Kells, Navan, Drogheda, Dundalk, Louth, Ardmagh, Charlemont, Newry, Mourne, Down, Dromore, Belfast, Carrickfergus, Glenarm, Ballymony, Fairhead, Rathlin I., Aghave, Ardoirn, Coleraine, Londonderry, Dunnagall, Maherowelly, Tory I., Swins Ade C., Raghlin Hd., Dunagill Bay, Enishmurry, The 3 Tuns, Emloghrash, Enish Karker, Islands of Achil, Clara I., Enishtick, I. Bothin, Doghead, Omna I., Bunowen, Gallway, Morish, Karonakil, South I. of Arran, Liscanor, Ennis I., Ennis Kerry I., Valentia I., Valentia Bay, Dursin I., I. Wenis, Durris I., Bantry Bay, Dunmanus B., Mizenhead, Swirwick Haven, Dunmanus Inch, Ventry, Dingle Bay, Tralee, Killarney, Kenmare R., Bantry, Kinsale, Cork, Youghal, Dungarvan, Tuskard, Waterford, Carrick, Clonmell, Tipperary, Limrick, Ennis, Killaloe, Nenagh, Roscrea

city; being navigable for barges no higher than the tide reaches.

The Boyne is a much more conſiderable river than the Liffy: it riſes in the King's county, is famous for its excellent ſalmon, and falls into the ſea at Drogheda.

In Ireland are more lakes than perhaps in any other country of the ſame extent; and theſe abound more in the provinces of Ulſter and Connaught, than in any other parts of the kingdom. They are properly ranked under two denominations, freſh-water lakes, which have no acceſs of the tide or mixture of the ſea, and ſalt lakes, into which the ſide flows twice a day, and may more properly be called inlets of the ſea.

Of the freſh water lakes, one of the moſt extraordinary is Lough-lene, in the county of Kerry, which is remarkable for its ſingular beauties. It is about ſix miles in length, and, at a medium, near half as much in breadth; and is interſperſed with a variety of beautiful iſlands, many of them rich in herbage, and well inhabited. Eagles and oſprays are here in great numbers, and the iſlands and rocks around the lake are adorned with groves of the arbutus, which for the greateſt part of the year bears a ſcarlet fruit, like the ſtrawberry, with bloſſoms, leaves, and berries, green or yellow, according to the different ſtages of their approach to ripeneſs. The trunks of theſe trees are frequently four feet and a half in circumference, and nine or ten yards high. In ſhort, the beauties of this lake are not to be deſcribed or ſeen without rapture.

Lough-erne and Lough-neagh are by much the largeſt in Ireland. The former is divided into two branches, the upper and lower, which are ſeparated by the water being contracted into the compaſs of a conſiderable river for ſome miles, after which enlarging itſelf, it forms the lower lake. This lough, in both its branches, takes its courſe through the whole length of the county of Fermannagh, from the ſouth-eaſt point to the north-weſt, dividing it almoſt into two equal parts, extending about thirty miles in length, but of an unequal breadth. It is diverſified with ſo many little pleaſant fertile iſlands, that they are ſaid to amount to about four hundred, moſt of them well wooded; ſeveral of them inhabited by huſbandmen, and others covered with cattle. It likewiſe abounds with a great variety of fiſh, as pike of a prodigious ſize, large bream, roach, eels, and trout; but it is chiefly valued for its ſalmon, which are caught in great draughts by nets, in the river which flows out of the lake, the fiſhing of which is valued at five hundred pounds a year.

Lough-neagh is ſomewhat of an oval form, but indented on every ſide. It is eſteemed the largeſt lake in Ireland, and is exceeded by few in Europe; it being twenty miles long from the north-weſt point to the ſouth-eaſt, near fifteen miles from the north-eaſt to the ſouth-weſt, and ten or twelve broad at a medium. Within theſe dimenſions is not included a ſmall lake called Lough-beg, or the Little-lake, which is joined to the north-weſt end by a narrow channel, and is four miles long and as many broad. Lough-neagh communicates its benefits to five ſeveral counties, Armagh, Tyrone, Londonderry, Antrim, and Down; the latter of which it only touches by a ſmall point on the ſouth-eaſt ſide. It receives ſix conſiderable rivers, four of leſſer note, and ſeveral brooks; yet has but one narrow out-let to diſcharge this great flux of water. This lake is remarkable for its ſalutary effects in curing ulcers and running ſores on thoſe who bathe in it; and for incruſting the wood which lies in it with ſtone. On the ſhores of this lake have been found a variety of beautiful pebbles, cryſtals, cornelians, and agates. It alſo abounds with fiſh of various kinds, in innumerable quantities, and of a large ſize. It is particularly remarkable for two ſorts of trouts, one called the dologhan, which is ſaid to be from fourteen to eighteen inches in length, which it never exceeds, and always ſpawns in the rivers that ſupply the lake: the other is called the bodach, or churl, ſome of which have been taken that weigh thirty pounds weight.

There are a conſiderable number of ſuch lakes as may more properly be called inlets of the ſea; among theſe are,

Loch-foyle, a large oval lake, about fourteen miles long, and from ſix to eight miles broad, into which the ſea flows by a channel not much more than a mile over.

The lake of Strangford, in the county of Down, which extends from Newtown in the north to Strangford in the ſouth, about thirteen Iriſh miles; and in ſome places it is three, in others four, and in others five miles broad. There are diſperſed in it fifty-four iſlands, ſmall and great, known by particular names, and others nameleſs. On the ſide of it, near the coaſt of the barony of Dufferin, is a group of ſmall iſlands called the Scatterick iſlands, ſome of which are noted for reſtoring and fattening diſtempered horſes; others are ſtocked with rabbits, and to others reſort a multitude of ſwans, wild-geeſe, widgeon, teal, and four or five ſorts of divers.

There is perhaps no country in the world that abounds more with ſpacious and commodious harbours than Ireland; yet there are few countries to which leſs benefits ariſe from trade: but theſe harbours will be mentioned in treating of the ſeveral provinces and counties of this kingdom.

SECT. II.

The Perſons, Character, Habits, Genius, Temper, Dreſs, Religion, Government, and Trade of the Iriſh.

THE Iriſh are in general a ſtrong-bodied, nimble, active people; many of both ſexes are tall, handſome, and genteel; but this is far from being a characteriſtic of that nation, ſince a ſtill greater number are deficient in theſe natural endowments, and are as clumſey, as ill-ſhaped, and have as diſagreeable features as the majority of other nations. The men are bold, hardy, and far from being deficient in true bravery and manly courage: but thoſe who are well-bred have an aſſured addreſs, a fluency of ſpeech, and a flow of compliments, eſpecially when in the company of the ladies, that is not eaſily acquired by the more baſhful Engliſh; who are too apt to want that graceful aſſurance which is neceſſary to ſet their own merit in a proper light. It will not be doing injuſtice to the character of the Iriſh to ſay, that they are haughty, vain-glorious, quick in reſenting a ſuppoſed affront, and violent in all their affections. On the other hand, they have generally a fund of good-nature, and all ranks are particularly remarkable for their hoſpitality. However, the morals of children are leſs attended to in their education, than they generally are in thoſe of people of the middle rank in England; and hence a diſregard for truth, and many other faults, are too often ſuffered to take root in their ductile minds; thoſe at leaſt of the lower claſs have been frequently charged with having little or no regard to the ſacredneſs of an oath. Indeed evil diſpoſitions often ariſe from trivial cauſes; it is cuſtomary in the meaner trades, if any thing be miſſing, for the maſter to make each of his journeymen ſwear that he has not taken it, by handing the Bible or the maſs-book to each, and for a drunken fellow, when ſeverely lectured by his wife, to take up his maſs-book and kiſſing it, ſwear never to enter a public-houſe for a ſtated time; theſe reſolutions are ſeldom kept; and thus perjury, being rendered familiar, all idea of the awful ſolemnity of an oath is entirely loſt, and the unhappy wretch is prepared, for the ſake of the ſmalleſt profit, to practiſe in a court of judicature what he has too often performed at home. But, notwithſtanding this, there are in Ireland many perſons of the ſtricteſt integrity, humanity, virtue, and honour,

The Iriſh have been reproached for want of genius, and by the ignorant have been frequently termed a nation of blunderers; but theſe aſperſions are very unjuſt, ſince Ireland has produced many perſons whoſe genius and learning would have done honour to any nation: among which are the learned Dr. James Uſher, that great philoſopher, the honourable Mr. Robert Boyle, ſeveral of the earls of Orrery, Mr. Molineaux, the friend of the great Mr. Locke, Sir Richard Steel, dean Swift, &c.

The ancient habit of the Iriſh was a doublet and cloſe breeches, over which they wore a frize cloak, with a fringed or ſhaggy border. The women wore a kind of mantle, or a blanket called a caddah over, their head and

ſhoulders, and underneath a long gown; and both men and women had a kind of ſhoe without a heel made of half tanned leather, called a brogue: but at preſent all ſorts of perſons conform to the Engliſh dreſs, except in the brogue, which is worn by the poor in the country, and ſometimes the caddah. But it is very common for the loweſt of the people to wear neither any ſort of ſhoes, nor ſtockings, except when they are dreſſed: particularly when they travel on foot, they uſually walk without their ſhoes and ſtockings, which they put on before they enter any town, and pulling them off, when they have left it, put them in their pocket. This they alledge keeps their feet cool, and prevents their loſing their time by picking their way through the dirt, or going round to eſcape croſſing a rivulet.

The Iriſh tongue bears ſome affinity to the Welch and Erſe; and all three are ſuppoſed by ſome to be only different dialects of the ſame language, more particularly the firſt and the laſt. Some of the Iriſh characters are very different from ours; however, very few of thoſe who ſpeak the language very fluently, are able either to write, or even to read it. Buſineſs is principally tranſacted in Engliſh, and in the great towns the chief traders are deſcended from the Engliſh and Scots, and are intirely ignorant of the Iriſh tongue.

The eſtabliſhed religion in Ireland is the ſame as in England. The church is under the government of four archbiſhops, namely, the archbiſhop of Armagh, who has the title of primate of all Ireland; the archbiſhop of Dublin, who is ſtiled primate of Ireland; and thoſe of Caſhel and Tuam. Under theſe four archbiſhops are nineteen biſhops; namely, under Armagh are the biſhops of Meath, Clogher, Down, Kilmore, Dromore, Raphoe and Derry. Under the archbiſhop of Dublin, the biſhops of Kildare, Oſſory and Ferns. Under the archbiſhop of Caſhel, the biſhops of Limerick, Waterford, Cork, Cloyne, and Killaloe. Under the archbiſhop of Tuam, Elphin, Clonfert, and Killala. Theſe ſeveral prelates have their deans, and other dignitaries, except Meath, which has neither dean, chapter, nor cathedral; but the archdeacon is the head officer of the dioceſe, the affairs of which are tranſacted by a ſynod in the nature of a chapter, who have a common ſeal, which, by a vote of the majority, is annually lodged in the hands of one of the body.

Diſſenters of all denominations are tolerated in Ireland, particularly Preſbyterians, Baptiſts, and Quakers. But the far moſt numerous body are the Papiſts, who have their biſhops and other dignitaries like the eſtabliſhed church; but neither they, nor the inferior clergy of that communion, have any other revenues than the voluntary contributions of the laity. It is ſuppoſed that throughout Ireland there are about eight Papiſts to one Proteſtant; but in the capital the diſproportion is only as four to one.

For the promotion of learning in Ireland, there is one univerſity, and ſeveral free-ſchools erected for the education of youth; and for promoting the principles of real Chriſtianity among the poor Popiſh natives of Ireland, and enuring them from infancy to induſtry, and obedience to their ſovereign, is inſtituted the incorporated ſociety for promoting Engliſh Proteſtant working ſchools.

With reſpect to the conſtitution of the Iriſh government, it is nearly the ſame with that of England. The power of the lord lieutenant, who repreſents the king, is in ſome meaſure reſtrained, and in others enlarged, according to the king's pleaſure, or the exigencies of the times. On his entering upon this honourable office, his letters patent are publicly read in the council chamber; and having taken the uſual oath before the lord chancellor, the ſword, which is to be carried before him, is delivered into his hands, and he is ſeated in the chair of ſtate, attended by the lord chancellor, the members of the privy council, the peers and nobles, the king at arms, a ſerjeant at mace, and other officers of ſtate, and he never appears publicly without being attended by a body of horſe-guards. Hence with reſpect to his authority, his train and ſplendor, there is no viceroy in Chriſtendom that comes nearer the grandeur and majeſty of a king. He has a council compoſed of the great officers of the crown, namely the chancellor, treaſurer, and ſuch of the archbiſhops, earls, biſhops, barons, judges, and gentlemen, as his majeſty is pleaſed to appoint.

The parliament here, as well as in England, is the ſupreme court, which is convened by the king's writ; but the repreſentatives of the people enjoy their ſeat in the houſe during life, or till the death of the king. The laws are made in Ireland by the houſe of lords and commons, after which they are ſent to England for the royal approbation; when, if approved by his majeſty and council, they paſs the great ſeal of England, and are returned. Thus the two houſes of parliament make laws which bind the kingdom; raiſe taxes for the ſupport of government, and for the maintenance of an army of twelve thouſand men, who are placed in barracks in ſeveral parts of the kingdom. The houſe of lords conſiſts of the four archbiſhops, thirty-five earls, forty-five viſcounts, eighteen biſhops, and thirty-five barons; and the houſe of commons of three hundred members.

For the regular diſtribution of juſtice there are alſo in Ireland, as well as in England, four terms held annually for the deciſion of cauſes; and four courts of juſtice, the chancery, king's-bench, common pleas, and exchequer. In the firſt the king's chancellor and keeper of the great ſeal alone preſides; but in the courts of king's bench and common pleas, are three judges in each; and in the exchequer, a treaſurer, chancellor, and three barons, and in all of them ſeveral ſubordinate officers. Here is likewiſe a court of Exchequer chamber for correcting errors in the other courts; in which the lord chancellor and lord treaſurer preſide, with other aſſiſtant judges. Here are alſo judges of aſſize and jail delivery; theſe are thoſe of the ſupreme courts, who take their circuits twice a year, into the ſeveral counties, that of Dublin excepted, for the trial of priſoners, and ſuits of niſi prius between party and party; as alſo a court of admiralty, which has juriſdiction, in maritime affairs, and is adminiſtered by commiſſion from the admiralty of England.

Beſides theſe there are ſpiritual courts; as the courts of prerogative, where a commiſſary, judges of the eſtates of perſons deceaſed, whether in eſtate or by will; and in every dioceſe is a conſiſtory court, from whence appeals lie to the ſupreme court of prerogative, and from thence to a court of ſpecial delegates appointed by the king.

There are likewiſe governors of counties, and juſtices of the peace, appointed by the king's commiſſions, through the ſeveral counties, to preſerve the peace in the place where they reſide; and alſo high and petty conſtables, and other officers, inſtituted for the ſame purpoſe: but the chief officer of every county is the high ſheriff, who was formerly choſen in the county court by the ſuffrages of the people, but is now nominated by the chief governor.

With reſpect to the trade of Ireland, the diſcouragement laid upon it by the act of navigation and other laws made in England, are ſo numerous, that it cannot be expected it ſhould flouriſh to ſuch a degree as its natural ſituation, extended coaſts, commodious harbours, bays, and rivers ſeem to promiſe; a diſcouragement that will ever continue, till the Engliſh ſhall become ſenſible that it is for their intereſt to allow Ireland a free trade, which will probably be one time or other the caſe, as it will be for the advantage of both kingdoms; ſince this will enable Ireland to pay greater taxes, and the wealth of that country muſt in a great meaſure center in this. The chief exports of Ireland conſiſt of linen cloth and yarn, lawns and cambricks, which are manufactured to great perfection, and exported to conſiderable advantage; the Engliſh laws giving great encouragements to this branch of trade, which, with a few exceptions, may be ſaid to be the ſource of all the wealth in Ireland. To theſe may be added wool and woollen yarn exported to England only; beef, pork, green hides, ſome tanned leather, calf-ſkins dried, great quantities of butter, tallow, candles, ox and cow horns, ox hair, a ſmall quantity of lead, copper ore, herrings, dried fiſh, rabbits-ſkins, and furr, otter-ſkins, goat-ſkins, ſalmon, and a few other particulars. Wool and yarn are allowed to be exported only to England, but from the thirſt of gain, all hazards are run to ſend them by ſtealth to France, to the great detriment of the Engliſh woollen trade; and perhaps the beſt method of preventing it for the future,

would

would be to reſtore the woollen manufacture to Ireland, at leaſt in the coarſe branches of it, and to make it the intereſt of the Iriſh to employ their wool at home.

The Iriſh, notwithſtanding the diſcouragements laid on their woollen manufactories, import conſiderable quantities of broad-cloth, which they certainly might make at home; alſo all kinds of groceries, coals, braſs, hardware, and a great number of other particulars; beſides a conſiderable quantity of wine from France, Spain, and Portugal.

We ſhall conclude this ſection with obſerving, that Ireland is divided into four provinces, which, beginning at the ſouth, are Munſter, Leinſter, Connaught, and Ulſter; the firſt and laſt of which extend from one ſea to the other.

SECT. III.

Of the Province of Munſter, containing the Counties of Cork, Waterford, Tipperary, Limerick, and Kerry; their Situation, Extent, Produce, Rivers, and principal Towns.

THE province of Munſter is bounded on the eaſt and ſouth-eaſt by the province of Leinſter and St. George's Channel, on the ſouth and weſt by the Atlantic ocean, and on the north by the provinces of Connaught and Leinſter. It extends a hundred and thirty miles in length from Waterford haven in St. George's Channel to the weſt point in Kerry, and a hundred and twenty in breadth from the north parts of Tipperary to Baltimore in Cork; but from Baltimore to the north parts of Kerry it is only ſixty-eight miles. The circumference, including the great windings and turnings, is above ſix hundred miles.

It is divided into five counties, namely, Cork, Waterford, Limerick, Kerry, and Clare, which are ſubdivided into fifty-two baronies, containing one archbiſhoprick, and five biſhopricks, ſeven market-towns, eighty pariſhes, and twenty-five boroughs.

It enjoys a mild temperate air, has many excellent bays, havens, and good towns. The ſoil is in ſome parts hilly and woody, mixed with wild ſolitary mountains; but the vallies are adorned with pleaſant meadows and corn-fields. Its principal commodities are cattle, wood, wool, and fiſh, eſpecially herrings and cod.

Cork was formerly a kingdom, and contained all the country between Liſmore and Brandon-hills, in Kerry, where it faces Deſmond to the weſt, and includes a part of it. It is bounded on the eaſt by Waterford; on the weſt by Kerry, where it is alſo waſhed by the ſea; on the north by Limerick; and on the ſouth and ſouth-eaſt by the Atlantic ocean and St. George's Channel. The form is very irregular both in length and breadth.

It is divided into fifteen baronies, and is partly woody and mountainous, and partly fenny; yet it has many good towns, and abounds in fine rivers, and good harbours: the inhabitants are induſtrious, and the county is both rich and populous. A copper mine has been diſcovered near Cork. This county gives title of earl, as well as Burlington in England, to the noble family of Boyle, and ſends twenty-ſix members to parliament, namely, two knights for the ſhire, and two burgeſſes for each of the following towns, the city of Cork, Youghal, Kinſale, Bandon-bridge, Moyallow, Baltimore, Clougwikelty, Shareville, Caſtlemartyr, Middletown, Rathcormach, and Doneraile.

The principal places in this county are the following:

Youghal, a conſiderable ſea-port, ſeated at the mouth of the Broadwater, is not very large, but is walled round, and divided into two parts. The upper part, which extends to the north, and is the largeſt, has a church within the town, and a little abbey without the walls. The lower part towards the ſouth has another abbey. The convenience of the harbour, its good quay, and the fertility of the adjacent country, draw ſo many merchants to it, that the town is pretty populous and rich. It has in particular a good fiſhery; but before the harbour is a bar, which can only be paſſed at high-water.

Cork, a large, populous, and wealthy city, is ſeated on the river Lee, in the fifty-firſt degree forty-five minutes north latitude, and in the ſeventh degree thirty minutes weſt longitude, a hundred and twenty-nine miles north-weſt of Dublin, andis of an oval form, incloſed with walls and the channel of the river, which alſo croſſes it. It is ſaid to contain above eight thouſand one hundred houſes, chiefly inhabited by Engliſh Proteſtants, who, by their induſtry, have ſo far improved their eſtates, and their trade, that it is eſteemed the richeſt city in Ireland, next to Dublin. It ſtands abont ſeven miles up the river from the ſea, where the mouth of the harbour is two miles broad. Large ſhips generally ride at a place called Paſſage, but ſmaller veſſels come quite up to the quay. This is the chief port for merchants in the kingdom; and there is, perhaps, more beef, butter, and tallow, ſhipped off here, than in all the other ports of Ireland put together. Hence there is a great reſort of ſhips to this port, particularly of thoſe bound from England to Jamaica, Barbadoes, and all the Caribbee Iſlands, which put in here to victual and compleat their lading. This city, with its liberties, is about three miles round, and forms a county of itſelf. It has two gates, one to the north, and the other to the ſouth. The cathedral and the red abbey are on the ſouth ſide of the town; St. Francis's abbey and Shandon church on the north ſide. Here is alſo a ſteeple, ſuppoſed to have been built by the Danes, and to have been at firſt uſed by them as a watch-tower; and near the river is a cuſtom-houſe and ſtore-houſe.

Five miles below Cork, the channel of the river dividing, forms a large and pleaſant iſland, on which are ſeveral villages.

Kinſale is a neat, handſome, populous, and rich town, ſeated in a fruitful ſoil, near the mouth of the river Bann, a hundred and eighteen miles from Dublin. It has an admirable harbour, and a good bay, with a light-houſe upon a peninſula called the Old Head of Kinſale, which forms the bay, and guides the ſhips in the night to the mouth of the river. There is a bar before the port, but the pilots find from three and a half to four fathoms water in the ſhoaleſt place upon the bar at low-water, ſo that ſhips of any burthen may go over it when the tide is up; and even at the quay, where is the cuſtom-houſe, is twenty feet water. This is reckoned the ſecond town in the county, many ſhips belonging to it; and great quantities of proviſions are exported from hence to Flanders, Holland, France, and the Engliſh iſlands in the Weſt Indies. Within two miles from the quay, below the town, are two very ſtrong forts, one on each ſide of the river, almoſt oppoſite, which effectually ſecure the harbour from all attacks by ſea; the town is alſo ſo fortified with good lines and out-works, as to be ſafe from any ſudden alarm by land. It gives title of baron to the ancient family of Courcy.

Cape Clear is an iſland ſo called from its Cape, where is a caſtle for the ſecurity of ſhips, which take ſhelter under its cannon; for it is far advanced into the ſea, and is of great advantage from its being an opening to the ſouth coaſt, whence, in war-time, there are generally ſome men of war ſtationed to cruize and keep the coaſt free from privateers; this being the ſouthermoſt iſland, as Mizen-head to the weſt is the ſouthermoſt land of Ireland. Between this and the mouth of the Shannon are innumerable bays and creeks, harbours and roads for ſhipping.

The county of Waterford is ſo ſurrounded by the Blackwater, the Suir, and the ſea, that it forms a peninſula.

It is divided on the eaſt by its haven from the county of Wexford, in the province of Leinſter; on the ſouth it is bounded by the ocean; on the weſt by the county of Cork; and on the north by the river Suir, which ſeparates it from Tipperary and Kilkenny. It extends forty-ſix miles in length, and twenty-four in breadth; though in ſome places it is pleaſant and fertile, yet for the moſt part it is mountainous, and has a very indifferent ſoil. It is ſubdivided into ſix or ſeven baronies, and, as well as Wexford and Shrewſbury, gives title of earl to the ancient and noble family of Talbot. It ſends ten members to parliament, namely, two for the county, and

and two for each of the following towns, the city of Waterford, Liſmore, Dungarvan, and Tallow.

The principal places in this county are the following:

Waterford, the only city in the county, is conveniently ſeated for trade, ſeventy-five miles from Dublin; but has a thick air, and barren ſoil. It lies four miles and a half from the mouth of the river Suir, where it joins with the Nure and the Barrow; theſe together form the haven, which runs about nine miles up the country, and is all the way deep and clear. It is commanded by Duncannon fort, and on the weſt ſide of the town is a citadel. There are likewiſe a block-houſe and ſtore-houſe on the ſouth ſide of the quay. The city and its liberties, which take up a great extent, form a county of themſelves. The town is cloſe built, and has a handſome cathedral. It alſo encreaſes in fine buildings; and as ſhips of burthen come up cloſe to its fine quay, which is a very noble work, it has a very great foreign trade.

Dungarvan is ſeated upon a bay of its own name, twenty-one miles from Waterford, and ninety-two from Dublin. It is a walled town, defended by a caſtle; but though it has a commodious road for ſhips, it has now but little trade, and is a place of no great conſequence. It gives title of viſcount to the earl of Cork.

Liſmore is ſeated on the river Broadwater, thirteen miles from Dungarvan, and is adorned with the chief ſeat of the earl of Cork and Burlington, which has a noble park. It was formerly the ſee of a biſhop, and has a handſome cathedral; but moſt of its poſſeſſions being alienated, it was long ago annexed to the ſee of Waterford. It has alſo a free-ſchool, and an alms-houſe.

Tallow is ſeated near the borders of Cork, in a fine fruitful vale, five miles from Liſmore, and is a handſome, flouriſhing town. It ſtands near the river Bride, which being navigable from hence to Youghal, renders it a place of good trade.

The county of Tipperary is bounded on the eaſt by Queen's-county and the county of Kilkenny, on the ſouth by thoſe of Cork and Waterford, on the weſt by the county of Limerick and the river Shannon, and on the north and north-eaſt by King's-county and the territory of the O'Carrols. It is of a very irregular form, but is computed to be ſixty miles in length, and thirty-ſix in breadth.

This county is ſubdivided into fourteen baronies, and has four boroughs, with ſeveral other market-towns. It ſends eight members to parliament, namely, two for the county, and two each for the city of Caſhel, and the boroughs of Clonmel and Fethard.

The ſouth part of this county being fruitful, produces much corn, and is well inhabited; both that and the weſt point abound in good paſtures, and fine ſheep-walks, which furniſh the greateſt and beſt flocks of ſheep in Ireland; but the north part is barren, and very mountainous.

Caſhel, the only city of this county, and the ſee of an archbiſhop, ſtands eighty miles ſouth-weſt of Dublin. The cathedral is ſeated without the city, on a ſteep rocky hill; but the height of its ſituation expoſes it too much to the wind. In the aſcent to it is a great ſtone, at which, it is ſaid, every new king of Munſter uſed to be publickly proclaimed. The city gives title of viſcount to the family of Moore, but is ill inhabited, and is a place of no conſequence.

Clonmell is a rich, populous, neat, and pretty ſtrong town, ſeated on the Suir, on the borders of Waterford, twelve miles from Caſhel, and eighty-two from Dublin. It is walled round, and has barracks for two troops of horſe. It is the county town, and has a fine court-houſe and jail.

Carrick is alſo a fine town on the ſame river, and has barracks for horſe. It ſtands ten miles from Clonmell, and had one of the ſeats of the late duke of Ormond, with one of the fineſt parks in the world.

The county of Kerry is bounded on the ſouth and eaſt by the county of Cork, and on the weſt by the Atlantic ocean, extending ſixty miles in length, and forty-ſeven in breadth. It is ſubdivided into eight baronies, and ſends eight members to parliament, namely, two for the county, and two for each of the boroughs of Dingle, Trailey, and Ardfert.

It is in general a woody mountainous country, but has in many places good corn and graſs.

The principal places it contains are Trailey and Dingle.

Trailey, or Trally, the county town, where the aſſizes are kept, ſtands near a large bay of the ſame name, four miles from the ſea, and a hundred and thirty from Dublin, and is a thriving place.

Dingle ſtands almoſt at the end of a peninſula, near a bay of its own name, upwards of a hundred and ſixty miles from Dublin. It has a good convenient harbour for trade, is walled round, and is the chief market-town of the county, as alſo the moſt weſterly town of note in the kingdom. The bay, which is one of the largeſt of Ireland, runs twenty-eight miles up the country, is fifteen miles broad, and has ſeveral harbours.

SECT. IV.

Of the Province of Leinſter; containing the Counties of Lowth, Eaſt-Meath, Weſt-Meath, Longford, Dublin, Kildare, King's-County, Queen's-County, Wicklow, Catherlogh, Kilkenny, and Wexford; their Situation, Extent, Diviſions, and Produce; with an Account of their principal Towns, and a particular Deſcription of Dublin.

THIS province is waſhed on the ſouth and eaſt by the ſea, and is much indented by the provinces of Munſter, Connaught, and Ulſter; the two former of which bound it on the weſt and ſouth-weſt, and the latter on the north. It is ſeparated from Connaught by the Shannon, and from a part of Munſter by the Suir; extending in length about a hundred and twelve miles from the moſt northern parts of Eaſt Meath to the ſouthern point of Wexford, about ſeventy in breadth from Wicklow to the moſt weſtern part of the King's-county; and the circuit, including the turnings and windings, is computed at about three hundred and ſixty miles.

This province is divided into the counties of Lowth, Eaſt-Meath, Weſt-Meath, Longford, Dublin, Kildare, the King's county, the Queen's county, Wicklow, Catherlogh, Kilkenny, and Wexford; containing ninety baronies, and nine hundred and twenty-ſix pariſhes, under one archbiſhop and three biſhops, with forty-ſeven parliamentary boroughs. The market towns, and other places of trade, amount to ſixty three.

The principal rivers of this province are the Barrow, the Boyne, the Nure, the Liffey, the Slaine, and the May in Queen's-county, which falls into the Shannon.

This province has a temperate, clear air, with a ſoil fruitful in corn and paſture, and tho' ſome parts of it are woody, it in general abounds with cattle, fowl, milk, butter, cheeſe, fiſh, and thoſe little ambling horſes called hobbies.

The county of Lowth, which was formerly reckoned a part of Ulſter, is waſhed on the eaſt by St. George's channel; and on the ſouth-eaſt by Meath, from which it is parted by the Boyne; on the weſt, it has Monaghan and Eaſt Meath; and on the north Armagh and Carlingford bay. This is the leaſt county in the kingdom, it being only twenty-five miles from north to ſouth, and thirteen, where broadeſt, from eaſt to weſt; but in many places is much ſhorter and narrower. It is divided into four baronies: beſides the town and liberties of Drogheda, which are a diſtinct county, it ſends two members to parliament, namely, two for the county, and two for each of the following burghs, Atherdee, Carlingford, Dundalth, and Dunleer. It is fruitful in corn and paſture. The places of moſt note, as they lie from north to ſouth, are thoſe which follow.

Carlingford, one of the beſt harbours in Ireland, is ſeated on the ſouth ſide of a large bay of its own name, where the road is exceeding good, quite to the ſea, as is alſo the harbour, which has room for the whole royal navy of Great Britain, ſince it extends three leagues up the country, is two miles broad where narroweſt, and has from ten to twenty fathoms water. There is a bar, indeed, acroſs the mouth of the main port or bay, but it

is even there nine or ten feet deep at low water, and two fathom more at high tide. However, the town being a little out of the way of buſineſs, has not a trade equal to the extent of its harbour. It ſtands forty-nine miles from Dublin, has a well frequented market, and is far from being a deſpiſable or poor place, there being ſome merchants here and trade with their own ſhips, built in the dock of this town, and uſe them in the coal trade to Whitehaven, as alſo in the fiſhery, which is the life of trade in all this ſide of Ireland. Carlingford has likewiſe a conſiderable trade in linen and linen yarn. The town is rather neat than fine, and rather large than populous; and though it is not a place of ſtrength, is ſtrong enough to defend itſelf in ordinary caſes, particularly on the ſea-ſide. It has barracks for a company of foot, and is famous for being an important paſs between the northern and ſouthern counties.

Dundalk is ſeated on a large open bay, but its haven is ſo ſhallow at low water, that people may walk over it dry ſhod. It is ſeated forty miles from Dublin, and was formerly walled and defended with fortifications, but is now an open place; it is the county town, and has a good market. It has a manufactory of cambricks, which is brought to great perfection, and corn is frequently ſent from this port to Dublin. An infirmary has been lately erected here. Near the town are ſeveral ſalt works, which employ a great number of hands.

Drogheda is the largeſt town in the county, and ſeated on a bay of its own name, twenty-two miles from Dublin. It has a good harbour, but it is of difficult entrance, and requires the aſſiſtance of a pilot. It is a handſome well built town, is very populous, has a town houſe, and is divided into two parts by the river Boyne, over which is a good bridge. They have a good trade here to the north parts of England, and the inhabitants are ſupplied with a great quantity of coals from Whitehaven, which they ſend by land to all the country round, as well as up the Boyne. It gives title of Earl to the family of Moore.

The county of Eaſt-Meath is bounded on the north and north-eaſt by thoſe of Cavan and Lowth; on the eaſt by St. George's channel; on the ſouth by the counties of Kildare and Dublin; and on the weſt by Longford and Weſt-Meath; extending thirty-two miles from north to ſouth, and twenty-five from eaſt to weſt. It is ſubdivided into eighteen baronies, and ſix boroughs, which ſend two members each to parliament, beſides thoſe for the county; theſe are Trim, Athboy, Navan, Kells, Duleck, and Ratoath.

This is a plain, fruitful, pleaſant, and populous county, which feeds many herds of cattle, and abounds in corn. It gives title of earl to the family of Brabazon.

The principal town in this county is Trim, which has a ſmall market on the Boyne. It had formerly a caſtle, and was walled. It ſtands twenty-three miles from Dublin. This and the town of Navan have each of them barracks for a troop of horſe.

The county of Weſt-Meath is thus called from its being ſituated to the weſt of the former, and extends weſt to the Shannon, which parts it from Roſcommon: it alſo lies between Longford on the North, and King's-county on the ſouth. According to ſome it extends forty miles in length, and twenty in breadth, while others ſay that it is only thirty miles either way. It contains thirteen baronies, and ſends ten members to parliament, namely, two knights of the ſhire, and two burgeſſes each for Mullingar, Fore, Athlone, and Killbeggan.

Mullingar, which lies in the center, is forty miles from Dublin, and is a market-town of conſiderable note, with barracks for a troop of horſe. This is the head of the county by act of parliament, and here the ſeſſions of the county are held.

Athlone is ſeated about fifty miles from Dublin, on the banks of the Shannon, over which it has a bridge, which leads into the county of Roſcommon, in which is part of the town, and is defended by a caſtle. It is a place of conſiderable ſtrength, it being reckoned the key of Connaught. General Ginkle, for the valour he ſhewed at the ſiege of this town, was erected earl of Athlone, by king William, and the title is ſtill enjoyed by his deſcendants.

The county of Longford is bounded on the eaſt and ſouth by Weſt-Meath; on the weſt by the Shannon, which ſeparates it from Roſcommon; on the north-weſt by Leitrim; and on the north by Cavan; extending twenty-ſeven miles in length, and ſixteen in breadth. It is ſubdivided into ſix baronies, and contains twenty-four pariſhes, four boroughs, and ſends ten members to parliament, namely, two for the county, and two for each of the following towns, Longford, Granard, Laneſborough, and St. Johnſtown. It has ſome bogs and fenny paſtures, yet is in the main a rich pleaſant country, and has ſeveral lakes, which abound with fiſh. The principal towns are Longford and Laneſborough.

Longford ſtands on the banks of the Camlin, and is the capital of the county. It has a caſtle and barracks for a troop of horſe.

Laneſborough is alſo ſeated on the Shannon, is ſixty-ſix miles from Dublin, and has alſo barracks. It gives title of viſcount to the family of Butler.

The county of Dublin is bounded on the eaſt by St. George's Channel; on the ſouth by the river Bray, which parts it from Wicklow; on the weſt by the county of Kildare; and on the north by Eaſt Meath and the river Nanny. Its greateſt extent from north to ſouth is twenty-ſix miles, and from eaſt to weſt fifteen.

It is divided into ſix baronies, and ſends two members to parliament, namely, two for the county, two for the city of Dublin, two for its univerſity, two for the borough of Swords, and two for that of Newcaſtle.

The ſouth parts are but little cultivated, being ſomewhat mountainous, but the reſt is level and fruitful, and abounds with fiſh, tame and wild fowl, beſides deer in the noblemen's parks.

Dublin is pleaſantly ſeated at the mouth of the little river Liffey, in the fifty-fifth degree twelve minutes north latitude, and in the ſixth degree fifty-five minutes weſt longitude, ſixty-four miles to the weſt of Hollyhead in Wales, and two hundred and ſixty-eight to the north-weſt of London. This is the mart and center of commerce for the whole kingdom, excepting ſuch ports as are eminent for ſome particular branch of trade; though its harbour is ſo far from being commodious that it has a bar at its mouth, ſo that ſhips of great burthen cannot venture in; nor can thoſe which are able to paſs the bar, come up loaded to the quay, they being obliged to lie at Poolbeg, three miles below Dublin, and to deliver their goods by lighters. Great pains and expence have, however, been beſtowed in order to render this bay as ſafe and commodious as poſſible: banks faced with ſtone have been extended for a conſiderable length on both ſides, and particularly, a new wall has been lately built on the ſouth. By theſe means, a great extent of land which uſed to be overflowed every high tide, has been taken from the bay, in order to render the harbour deeper; and to prevent ſhips leaving the proper channel, a durable row of piles has been fixed, between which ſhips may ſail in the utmoſt ſecurity.

The Caſtle of Dublin, which twenty years ago was an ancient ſtructure, conſiſting of ſeveral round towers of ſtone, mouldering into ruins, has been rebuilt in a magnificent manner; and contains many ſtately apartments. Before it is a handſome area, with a very fine ſtreet, leading down to Eſſex bridge, which has been lately rebuilt after the model of that at Weſtminſter, though the Liffey, over which it is extended, is not more than one fourth as broad as the Thames. Juſt below the bridge, on the ſouth ſide of the river, is a very noble Cuſtom houſe, with the front ſupported by piazzas. Before it is a handſome and ſpacious quay, with conveniencies for landing of goods. Beſides the bridge juſt mentioned, there are ſeveral others of ſtone; but theſe are not worthy of a particular deſcription.

To the eaſtward of the caſtle is a ſpacious area, on one ſide of which is the parliament houſe, the front of which is ſupported by very lofty columns; theſe are extended on each ſide in the wings, which reach to the ſtreet. Theſe columns riſe almoſt to the top of the building,

is only terminated by a very large and grand entablature, that ſeems to want a baluſtrade, which if adorned with ſtatues or vaſes, would render the building compleat, and for want of which it ſeems unfiniſhed; though it muſt be acknowledged to be a magnificent ſtructure. In the area before the parliament houſe, is an equeſtrian ſtatue of king William the Third.

Near the parliament houſe is Trinity college, which was founded by queen Elizabeth in 1591, and made an univerſity by that princeſs. Its revenue has been ſince encreaſed by ſeveral donations. The building conſiſts of two ſquares, one behind the other: in the firſt is a noble library. The univerſity has alſo an elaboratory, and a great number of ſkeletons and curioſities relating to anatomy, particularly a mummy remarkably perfect. The front, and all the old parts of this ſtructure, have been lately rebuilt in an elegant manner with ſtone.

Near the other ſide of the area, behind the houſes which front the parliament houſe, is the round church, which in the inſide is very beautiful, it being covered with a dome, and adorned with a great deal of carved work and gilding. The form of this rotunda has a very pleaſing effect, and its elegant decorations render it ſtill more agreeable to the eye of the beholder.

At a ſmall diſtance to the ſouth, is St. Stephen's Green, a very fine ſquare, in which are many noble buildings, and a large area in the middle. This affords a very pleaſant walk, a mile in circuit.

Among the churches, the cathedral, dedicated to St. Patrick, is a fine old Gothick ſtructure, famous for its curious workmanſhip within, arched roof, and high ſteeple, and alſo for its moveable pulpit, which till the people are ſeated, and divine ſervice is ready to begin, ſtands in a corner of the church; but to the ſurprize of the ſtranger, is removed into the great iſle frequently without being obſerved; and he ſees a miniſter in the pulpit, where a minute or two before was an open ſpace. To this church belong a dean, a chanter, a chancellor, a treaſurer, two archdeacons, and twenty-two prebendaries.

In the heart of the city is the collegiate church, called Chriſt-church, though it was dedicated to the Holy Trinity. This is a handſome ſtructure in the inſide, but it has nothing remarkable without. Thither the lord lieutenant and lords juſtices always go in ſtate, on ſolemn occaſions, though there is a church belonging to the caſtle.

Among the other churches there are ſeveral very beautiful ſtructures.

At the weſt end of the town are the Barracks, which are very handſome and extenſive ſtone buildings, raiſed upon an eminence, and ranged in ſeveral fronts and wings, joined together, with a very beautiful proſpect of the open country before it. A neat chapel, with a ſteeple, has been lately added, where divine ſervice is duly performed.

A little beyond the Barracks is the Phœnix-park, which conſiſts of a pleaſing variety of hills and vales, is planted with trees, and ſtocked with deer. A commodious road extends through it to the ring, where it encircles a very fine Corinthian column, bearing on the top a phœnix in the flames, erected by the earl of Cheſterfield when lord lieutenant of Ireland. Hither a train of the nobility and gentry go in their coaches on the fine ſummer evenings, and make a very ſplendid appearance, there being frequently two hundred coaches and upwards, many of them drawn by ſix horſes, with the ſervants of the greateſt number of them in rich liveries; theſe coaches are drove round the ring, as was formerly the cuſtom in Hyde-park: and as there is room for ſeveral coaches to go abreaſt, perſons frequently converſe together through the windows. In the park there are alſo very handſome ſeats for thoſe who walk.

Oppoſite the Barracks, on the other ſide of the river Liffey, at a conſiderable diſtance, ſtands the Royal Hoſpital, founded by king Charles II. a very noble ſtructure, in which there are apartments for old and diſabled ſoldiers, five hundred of whom are maintained here, with their officers, much after the manner of Chelſea.

At a ſmall diſtance from the above edifice is Stephens's hoſpital, founded by Dr. Stephens and his ſiſter, a maiden lady, for the cure of all ſick and wounded perſons who are objects of charity. This is a neat and elegant ſtructure, and is endowed with a great revenue.

Near it is the hoſpital for idiots and lunatics, erected in purſuance of the will of the late dean Swift, celebrated for his wit and his writings.

Beſides theſe truly charitable and humane endowments, there are three hoſpitals, or infirmaries, for the ſick and wounded, namely, the Charitable infirmary, Mercer's hoſpital, and the Meath hoſpital; with one particularly appropriated to the uſe of incurables; a Lying-in-hoſpital, lately built in a ſuperb manner, and in imitation of which the Lying-in-hoſpitals in the cities of London and Weſtminſter were founded.

One of the moſt conſiderable of the charitable foundations of this city is the Poor-houſe, in which a great number of old and decayed perſons are maintained; infants are alſo received, brought up, educated, and inured to labour. The girls in particular are taught to ſpin, and the boys to dreſs flax. The Blue-coat-hoſpital and Free-ſchool was erected in 1680 by king Charles II. for educating, maintaining, and putting out apprentices to trades or ſea-ſervice the ſons of the reduced citizens of Dublin, and contains about a hundred and ſixty boys.

The city is governed by a lord mayor, who is granted a conſiderable ſum to enable him to ſupport the dignity of his office, and wears a collar of SS. and by twenty four aldermen. Every third year the city and its ſuburbs are ſurveyed by the lord mayor and the twenty-four corporations, which are, 1. The merchants, 2. The taylors, 3. The ſmiths, 4. The barber ſurgeons, 5. The bakers, 6. The butchers, 7. The carpenters, 8. The ſhoemakers, 9. The ſadlers, 10. The cooks, 11. The tanners, 12. The tallow-chandlers, 13. The ſkinners and glovers, 14. The weavers, 15. The ſheer-men and dyers, 16. The gold-ſmiths, 17. The coopers, 18. The felt-makers, 19. The ſtationers, cutlers, and paper-ſtainers, 20. The bricklayers and plaiſterers, 21. The curriers, 22. The hoſiers, 23. The brewers and maltſters, 24. The joiners and wainſcoters. All theſe ſeveral companies vie with each other in making a ſplendid appearance, and ſeveral of them have very fine pageants, conſiſting of large and beautiful carriages, in which are exhibited ſome remarkable particulars, or circumſtances, relating to the company to which they belong. Thus, in that belonging to the ſtationers, of whom the printers make a part, is ſometimes a printing-preſs, in which men work off a poem in praiſe of printing, and throw off every ſheet to the mob: the weavers work at the loom: the ſmiths have their Vulcan: the furriers a man dreſſed in ſkins; and the upholſterers one in feathers.

We now come to the county of Kildare, which has thoſe of Dublin and Wicklow on the eaſt, the King's and Queen's-counties on the weſt, Catherlogh on the ſouth, and Eaſt-Meath on the north; extending twenty-three miles from eaſt to weſt, and thirty-ſeven from north to ſouth; but both are very unequal, it running in a narrow ſlip between the counties of Dublin and Wicklow, and between the latter and Queen's-county.

This is an open, pleaſant, and plentiful country, abounding in corn and paſturage; and is well watered by the Barrow, Liffey, and other rivers. It is divided into ten baronies, gives title of earl to the noble family of Fitzgerald, and ſends ten members to parliament, namely, two for the county, and the ſame number for each of the following towns, Kildare, Naas, Harriſtown, and Athy.

Naas is the county town, but Kildare is the capital of the county. It is ſeated twenty-ſeven miles from Dublin, and is the ſee of a biſhop. It is a pretty good town, and has ſome trade. Near it is a plain called the Curragh, large enough for a camp of ten thouſand men, and in which is a celebrated courſe, where are frequent horſe-races.

The King's-county was formerly called Offaly, but had its preſent name in honour of Philip of Spain, queen Mary's huſband. It is bounded on the eaſt by Kildare; on the ſouth by Tipperary and the Queen's-county; on the weſt by part of Tipperary and Galloway, from which laſt it is ſeparated by the Shannon; and on the north

by West-Meath. According to ſome authors it is thirty-ſeven miles from north to ſouth, and twenty-eight from eaſt to weſt; but, according to others, is forty-eight miles in length, and fourteen in breadth; however, it is very unequal both ways, and runs with a narrow ſlip between Tipperary and Queen's-county. It is a populous and well improved country, divided into eleven baronies, and ſends ſix members to parliament, namely, two for the county, two for Philipſtown, and two for Banagher.

Philipſtown, or Kingſtown, is the capital of the county, and is ſeated twenty-eight miles from Dublin. It has barracks for a company of foot, and gives title of baron to the lord viſcount Moleſworth.

Bir is ſaid to be much the beſt town in the county: it ſtands on the borders of Tipperary, on a river that runs into the Shannon; has a conſiderable trade in wool, and employs a great number of hands in the woollen manufacture.

Queen's-county is ſo called in honour of Mary, the ſiſter of queen Elizabeth, in whoſe reign it was made a county. It is bounded on the eaſt by Kildare and Catherlogh, on the ſouth by Catherlogh and Kilkenny, and on the north and weſt by King's-county and part of Tipperary; extending thirty-five miles in its greateſt length from north to ſouth, and near the ſame from eaſt to weſt. It is divided into ſeven baronies, and ſends eight members to parliament, two for the county, and two each for Portarlington, Maryborough, and Ballynekil.

Maryborough, or Queen's-town, ſtands ſeventy-two miles from Dublin. It was ſo called in honour of queen Mary, and has barracks for a troop of horſe. It gives title of baron and viſcount to the lord Molyneaux.

The county of Wicklow, which was once a part of that of Dublin, is bounded on the eaſt by St. George's Channel, on the ſouth by the county of Wexford, on the weſt by Kildare and Catherlogh, and on the north by Kildare and Dublin; extending thirty-ſix miles in its greateſt length, and twenty-eight where broadeſt.

It is divided into ſix baronies, and ſends ten members to parliament, two for the county, and two each for the towns of Wicklow, Baltinglaſs, Carysford, and Bleſſington. It is pretty mountainous, but the low lands are fruitful, and, among other advantages, contains a copper mine.

Wicklow, the county town, is ſeated twenty-four miles from Dublin, at the mouth of the river Leitrim, and has what is called a caſtle; but it is only a rock, with a ſtrong wall round it. It has no great trade; what it has is chiefly managed in ſmall veſſels, which carry proviſions to Dublin: but the haven, which was in a manner choaked up by ſands, has been deepened, and conſiderable works added to improve it. This place is famous for its excellent ale, and has barracks for three companies of foot.

Arklow is a pretty market-town near the ſea, twelve miles from Wicklow. It has barracks for two companies of foot, and alſo ſends boats loaded with proviſions to Dublin.

The county of Catherlogh, or Caterlough, has Wexford on the ſouth, part of Queen's-county and Kilkenny on the weſt, part of Kildare and Wicklow on the north, and part of Wicklow and Wexford on the eaſt, lying for the moſt part between the rivers Barrow and Slaine. It extends twenty-eight miles from north to ſouth, and eighteen from eaſt to weſt; but is very unequal, it running with a narrow ſlip between Kilkenny and Wexford. It is woody, but pretty fruitful; is divided into five baronies, and ſends only ſix members to parliament, namely, two for the county, and two each for the towns of Catherlogh and Old Leighlin.

Catherlogh, which is the county town, ſtands thirty-eight miles from Dublin. It is ſeated on the river Barrow, and hath a caſtle, with barracks for a troop of horſe. It is well built, and is a pretty trading town, inhabited by the chief gentlemen of the county.

The county of Kilkenny is bounded on the eaſt by Wexford and Catherlogh; on the ſouth by Waterford, from which it is parted by the Suir; on the weſt by Tipperary; on the north-weſt by Upper Oſſory; and on the north by the Queen's-county. Its greateſt extent from north to ſouth is forty miles, and from eaſt to weſt twenty. It comprehends ten diſtricts and baronies, and ſends ſixteen members to parliament; namely, two for the county, two for the city of Kilkenny, and two for each of the following towns, St. Kennis, or Iriſhtown, Gowran, Thomaſtown, Eniſteoge, Cullen, Knocktopher.

This is a plentiful country, ſo populous as to be adorned with more towns and caſtles than any in the kingdom; and, though it is mountainous in the ſouth part, is ſaid to have fire without ſmoke, earth without bog, water without mud, and air without fog: thus having all the four elements in perfection, it is eſteemed an healthful as well as pleaſant country. It is remarkable for its coal mines, as well as for its quarries of marble. Near Oſſory are the mountains called Sliewbloamy, or Bladin hills, out of which ſpring the Suir, the Neor, and Barrow. They deſcend in three ſeveral channels, but join in one before they fall into the ſea. The Neor, or Nure, divides this county into two parts.

The principal places in this county are the following:

Kilkenny, which was once a biſhop's ſee, is ſeated on the Neor, fifty-ſix miles from Dublin. It has two ſtone bridges over the river, and is a large, ſtrong, populous, neat, and well-built city, which has as good a trade as any inland town of Ireland. It is divided into the Engliſh and Iriſh towns, of which the former is the principal, and the latter, as it were, the ſuburbs; but contains the cathedral, which is pleaſantly ſeated on a hill of a gentle aſcent, from which there is a delightful proſpect of the city and the adjacent country. The Engliſh town is much newer, and is remarkable for its ſtreets being paved with marble, and its being fortified with a caſtle by the Butlers, of the family of the earls of Ormond, who made it their principal ſeat, and built and liberally endowed a free-ſchool, which is a fine ſtructure, called the college. Here are barracks for a troop of horſe and four companies of foot.

Thomaſtown is ſeated on the banks of the Neor, and is reckoned the ſecond town in the county; but is a ſmall place, with ſome fortifications.

The laſt county we ſhall mention in the province of Leinſter, is that of Wexford, which is bounded on the north by Wicklow; on the eaſt, ſouth, and ſouth-weſt, by St. George's Channel; and on the weſt by Catherlogh and Kilkenny, extending forty-ſeven miles in length, and twenty-ſeven in breadth. It is divided into eight baronies, and ſends eighteen members to parliament; namely, two for the county, and the ſame number for each of the following boroughs, Wexford, New Roſs, Enniſcorthy, Feathard, Newborough, Banno, Clonmines, and Taghman. It is in ſome places fruitful in corn and paſture, but in others the ſoil is very indifferent.

The principal towns in this county are the following:

Roſs, which is ſituated on the borders of Kilkenny, was once a large, trading, populous city, with a cathedral, and was the ſee of a biſhop, afterwards annexed to that of Cork. It is now a town of trade, by means of its river, formed by the junction of the Neor and the Barrow, which brings up ſhips of very conſiderable burthen to its quay, and has barracks for a troop of horſe.

Duncannon is a fort on the ſame river more to the ſouth, which ſo commands it, that no ſhip can paſs either to Roſs or Waterford without its permiſſion; and there are here barracks for three companies of foot. From hence to the north of the river, a narrow neck of land projects into the ſea, on which ſtands Hook-tower, formerly built by the citizens of Roſs, and now augmented with a light-houſe for the direction of ſailors into the mouth of the river.

Wexford, the chief town of the county, ſtands at the mouth of the river Slaine, ſixteen miles from Roſs, and ſixty-five to the ſouth of Dublin. This is remarkable for being the firſt town in the whole iſland that ſurrendered to the Engliſh, who took poſſeſſion of it in the year 1170, when it was reckoned the principal town in all Ireland. It has a very good harbour for veſſels that do not draw above twelve or fifteen feet water; but it has

has two or three ſand-banks juſt before it, and ſeveral ſhallows within; ſo that all veſſels which draw more water are obliged to lade and unlade in a creek three miles from the town, where there is water enough, but no ſhelter from the ſouth-weſt wind. Here are barracks for two companies of foot. This town has a conſiderable trade in corn and butter, and is famous for its fine ale.

SECT. V.

Of the Province of Connaught; containing the Counties of Thomond or Clare, Gallway, Mayo, Roſcommon, Sligo, and Leitrim; their Situation, Extent, Diviſions, Rivers, Produce, and principal Towns.

THIS province is ſeparated from that of Leinſter by the Shannon, which alſo parts it on the ſouth and ſouth-eaſt from Munſter, and is bounded on the north and weſt by the Ocean. It is one hundred and thirty miles in length from Cape Lean, the moſt ſoutherly point of Thomond, to the north parts of Leitrim; about eighty-four in breadth, from the eaſt point of Leitrim to the Black-Harbour in the weſt part of Mayo; and about five hundred in circumference.

In ſome places this province is extremely pleaſant, but in others is gloomy and ſubject to great fogs, on account of its many bogs, woods, and lakes. The ſoil is very fruitful, and abounds with cattle, deer, hawks, and honey. It has many convenient bays and creeks for navigation, but few rivers of conſiderable note, except the Shannon. The chief are the Moy, in the county of Mayo, which, for a ſmall diſtance, divides it from Sligo, and falls into the ocean by Mayo and Killala. The Suck divides Roſcommon from Gallway, and falls into the Shannon near Clonfert. The Droſos, a river in the county of Clare, which falls into the Shannon to the eaſt of Clare; and the Gyll, a ſmall river in Gallway, which runs into the bay of that name.

This province contains one archbiſhopric, five biſhopricks, ſeven market-towns, eight places of trade and commerce, twelve boroughs that return members to parliament, and three hundred and ſixty-ſix pariſhes; with ſix counties, which are ſubdivided into fifty-one baronies. Theſe counties are Thomond or Clare, Gallway, Mayo, Roſcommon, Sligo, and Leitrim.

Thomond, or the county of Clare, was formerly joined to Munſter, but has been annexed to Connaught. On the eaſt and ſouth ſides, it is parted by the Shannon from Tipperary, Limerick, and Kerry in Munſter; on the north it is bounded by the county of Gallway; and on the weſt by the Atlantic ocean. It is about fifty-five miles in length, and thirty-eight in breadth; and is ſuppoſed to contain ten thouſand houſes. It is divided into nine baronies, in which are two market-towns, and but one borough, which is that of Ennis; it therefore ſends but four members to parliament.

It is a hilly, irregular country, but is not deficient in good paſtures, which produce the beſt horſes in Ireland. The ſoil alſo bears corn and rape.

Ennis, the county town, is ſeated about one hundred miles from Dublin. It ſtands near a lake formed by the Shannon, has a market, and is by much the beſt town in the county.

Killalo, the other market-town, ſtands on the Shannon, on the borders of Tipperary, eighteen miles from Ennis, and ten to the north-eaſt of Limerick. It is the ſee of a biſhop, and was once a very conſiderable place; but is at preſent decayed. There is here a cataract in the Shannon, which ſtops veſſels from going farther up.

The county of Gallway is bounded on the eaſt and ſouth-eaſt by part of Roſcommon, King's-county, and Tipperary, from which laſt it is parted by the Shannon; on the ſouth-ſide by the county of Clare; on the weſt by the Atlantic ocean; and on the north and north-eaſt by Mayo, Meath, and Roſcommon. It is eighty-two miles in length, and forty-two in breadth; and is divided into ſeventeen baronies, containing one hundred and thirty-ſix pariſhes, about fifteen thouſand four hundred and twenty houſes, and ſends eight members to parliament; namely, two for the county, two for the town of Gallway, two for Athenry, and two for Tuam. The river Shannon here forms a lake ſeveral miles in length; and Lough Corrib, which runs into the bay of Gallway a little above the city, is twenty miles long, and in ſome places five broad. As this country abounds with a warm lime-ſtone ſoil, which rewards the induſtry of the huſbandman and ſhepherd, it in general abounds with corn, paſture, and cattle; but the ſouth and eaſt parts are beſt inhabited. The weſt ſide runs out in the form of a peninſula. It is much indented with little bays, and bordered all along with a mixture of verdant iſlands and rugged rocks, among which are four iſlands called South Arran, which give title of Earl to the family of Gore.

Gallway, the county town, ſtands on an iſland, by the fall of the Lake Corbes, or Lough Corrib, into the bay of its own name, one hundred miles to the weſt of Dublin, and thirty-ſeven to the north of Limerick. It is a very ſtrong, neat, and rich city, the capital of all the weſt part of Ireland. In beauty and compactneſs it is inferior to none but Dublin. It is extremely well ſituated for commerce, and has a large, ſafe, and excellent harbour, called the Bay of Gallway, which is ſheltered at the mouth by the ſouth iſles of Arran, thro' which are three paſſages for ſhips, beſides the north-paſſage at the mouth of the bay, and is capable of containing a vaſt fleet of ſhips. The buildings, eſpecially the public ſtructures, are generally of ſtone, very handſome and lofty, and inhabited by ſubſtantial merchants and ſhopkeepers. It is encompaſſed by a wall, and has barracks for ten companies of foot. This city was once the ſee of a biſhop, but it is now included within the archbiſhopric of Tuam.

Tuam has been the ſee of an archbiſhop, ever ſince the beginning of the ſixth century. It ſtands ſeven miles from the borders of Mayo, and was once a famous city, but is now greatly reduced; however, it has ſtill ſome trade.

Mayo is bounded on the eaſt and north-eaſt by Roſcommon and Sligo; on the ſouth and ſouth-eaſt by Gallway; and on the weſt and north by the Atlantic ocean; extending ſixty-two miles in length, and fifty-two in breadth. It is divided into nine baronies, in which there is but one borough town, and it ſends only four members to parliament; two for the county, and two for Caſtlebar. It has ſeventy-three pariſhes, and is ſaid to contain upwards of thirteen thouſand houſes. It is rough and mountainous on the ſide next the ſea; but in other parts has paſture, and is well ſtocked with cattle and deer; it is watered with many large lakes and rivers, and gives title of viſcount to the family of Bourke.

Mayo, the chief town, was once a biſhop's ſee, but is ſince annexed to Tuam. The town ſtands at the mouth of the river Moy, on the borders of Sligo, one hundred and fifteen miles from Dublin, and was once a flouriſhing place; but it is now much decayed.

Roſcommon is bounded on the eaſt by Longford and Eaſt-Meath; on the north by Sligo and Leitrim; on the ſouth by Gallway and Mayo, and on the weſt by another part of Gallway and Mayo; extending fifty miles in length, and twenty-eight in breadth. It is ſubdivided into ſix baronies, in which are three boroughs, fifty-nine pariſhes, and about eight thouſand ſeven hundred and eighty houſes. It ſends eight members to parliament; two for the county, and two each for Roſcommon, Boyle, and Tulſk. It is, for the moſt part, a level and fruitful country, that with little cultivation yields plenty of corn and graſs, which feeds large herds of cattle. On the north-ſide of the county, are the Curlew mountains, which were ſteep, and impaſſable, till with much difficulty a way was cut through them.

Roſcommon, which gives name to the county, was formerly defended by a caſtle, which is now in ruins. It is a mean place, conſiſting chiefly of one ſtreet, with great part of the houſes thatched; yet here is kept the ſeſſions-houſe and jail, and it gives title of Earl to the family of Dillon.

Boyle is a good market town and corporation, by the lake Key, near the borders of Sligo. It is a place of ſome trade, and is remarkable for an old abbey, of which only

only the ruins now remain. It has alſo a fine ſeat which belonged to the late lord Kingſborough.

Sligo is bounded on the eaſt by the county of Leitrim; on the ſouth and ſouth-weſt by Roſcommon and Mayo; and on the north and north-weſt by the Atlantic ocean; extending thirty-five miles in length, and as much in breadth. Great part of this county is mountainous, and covered with bogs; but the lower grounds have a good ſoil, proper for grazing. It is ſubdivided into ſix baronies, and contains forty-one pariſhes, and about five thouſand nine hundred and ſeventy houſes. It has but one borough, and ſends four members to parliament, two for the county, and two for Sligo, the capital town.

Sligo, the county town, is ſeated on a bay of the ſame name, a hundred and ten miles to the north-eaſt of Dublin, and is the only town of note in the county. It has a very commodious harbour, and ſhips of two hundred tons burthen may come up to the quay. Here is alſo a good caſtle. The town is populous, but not large; nor is the trade conſiderable, though much better than in any other places beyond it.

A mile from Caſtle-connor, in this county, is a round hill, an entrance into which was diſcovered in 1646, leading to quadrangular chambers, arched over. The caves of the rock of Corin are equally remarkable, where, within a ſteep and almoſt inacceſſible entrance, are many ſtrange receſſes. Before theſe caves is a path, about a hundred paces in length, alſo cut out of the rock. This work, which is called the Giants-houſe, is ſuppoſed to be formed either by the Iriſh or Danes.

The county of Leitrim is bounded by Sligo on the weſt and ſouth-weſt; by Donegal bay on the north; by Longford, in Leinſter, on the ſouth-eaſt; and by the counties of Fermanagh and Cavan on the eaſt and north-eaſt. It is forty-four miles in length, but only eighteen in breadth, and is a wild mountainous country, but abounds in graſs, which feeds a prodigious number of cattle. It is divided into five baronies, and contains twenty-one pariſhes, about four thouſand houſes, two boroughs, and ſends ſix members to parliament, two for the county, and two each for Jameſtown and Doumruſk.

Leitrim, the county town, ſtands near the Shannon, which riſes in this county; but the town is decayed, and of little conſequence.

SECT. VI.

Of the Province of Ulſter; containing the Counties of Down, Armagh, Monaghan, Cavan, Fermanagh, Tyrone, Antrim, Londonderry, and Donegal; their Situation, Extent, Lakes, Rivers, Soil, Produce, Mountains, and principal Towns; with a particular Deſcription of the Giant's Cauſeway.

THIS province is encompaſſed on three ſides by the ſea, it being bounded on the eaſt by St. George's Channel, on the north by the Northern ocean, on the weſt by the Atlantic ocean, on the ſouth-weſt by the province of Connaught, and on the ſouth by that of Leinſter; it being about a hundred and ſixteen miles in length, and a hundred in breadth. It is ſubdivided into fifty-five baronies, and contains ten counties, twenty-nine boroughs, three hundred and ſixty-five pariſhes, and about a hundred and fifteen thouſand five hundred inhabitants, with one archbiſhopric, and ſix biſhoprics.

The air is temperate and ſalubrious, being cooled by various winds in ſummer, and qualified by moderate rains in winter. It has many great lakes and rivers that abound with fiſh, many woods, plenty of corn and graſs, and a great number of black cattle and ſome ſheep.

The principal rivers and lakes are the following: the river Rann, which riſes in the county of Down, receives the river Tanwagee, paſſes through Lough-neagh, and, after dividing the counties of Antrim and Londonderry, falls into the Northern ocean a little below Colerain.

Lough-foyle, which paſſes by St. John's-town and Londonderry, forms a bay of the ſame name at its entrance into the Northern ocean.

The Swilly, in the county of Donegal, alſo falls into the ſame ocean, with a kind of lake.

Lagan-water, in the county of Down, paſſes by Dromore, Liſburn, and Belfaſt, into the bay of Carrickfergus.

Newry-water parts Down from Armagh, and falls into Carlingford bay.

With reſpect to the ſoil of this county, it ought farther to be obſerved, that it is apt to run into wood, unleſs conſtantly kept open, and the low grounds, where the drains are neglected, ſoon degenerate into bogs; but by the induſtry of the inhabitants it produces good crops of oats, and, where marl is found, barley. The ſtaple commodity of this county is the linen manufacture, which has been of the greateſt benefit to all ranks of people. Hence this province may be ſaid to be in general populous, flouriſhing, and daily encreaſing in the number and wealth of its inhabitants.

Its higheſt mountains are thoſe of Mourne, the baſe of which terminates on the ſea-ſhore. Among theſe that named Slive-Donagh is three miles in gradual aſcent, and half a mile in perpendicular height. Theſe are reckoned among the higheſt mountains in Ireland, and are uſeful land-marks for ſailors. They afford variety of plants, and many ſprings: beſides, a multitude of cattle graze on them in ſummer. In one of them are quarries of milſtones, and in another are found cryſtals. Theſe mountains are famous for the goats whey preſcribed by phyſicians for ſcorbutic and nephritic ailments and diſorders of the lungs; and in April, May, and June, are much frequented by the gentry of both ſexes, many of whom have found relief; theſe ſhrubs and medicinal herbs affording the fitteſt nouriſhment to thoſe animals. There has been a pearl-fiſhery on the river Bann, but it is not now much purſued.

This province is divided into the nine following counties, Down, Armagh, Monaghan, Cavan, Fermanagh, Tyrone, Antrim, Londonderry, and Donegal.

The county of Down is bounded on the eaſt and ſouth by St. George's Channel, on the weſt by the county of Armagh, and on the north by the county of Antrim. It lies oppoſite to the Iſle of Man, Cumberland, and Weſtmoreland; and the north part of it fronts the Mull of Galloway, which is viſible at about five leagues diſtance. It is about forty-four Engliſh miles in length, upwards of thirteen in breadth, and divided into ſeven baronies, which contain about nineteen thouſand two hundred and ſeventy houſes, ſeventy-two pariſhes, and ſends fourteen members to parliament, namely, two for the county, and twelve for the ſix following boroughs, Newry, Downpatrick, Newtown, Killeleagh, Bangor, and Hillſborough.

Newry is a borough and market-town on the ſide of a ſteep hill, at the bottom of which runs the Newry-water, having over it two ſtone bridges, one on the road from Dublin, from which it is forty-nine miles diſtant, and another in the way to Armagh. The turnpike-road from Dublin to Belfaſt, Antrim, and Armagh, go through the town; and here is a lock of the new canal, lately formed by parliamentary encouragement; and over this canal is a third bridge. The town has ſuffered greatly by the rebellions that have happened in this province; and was burnt down by the duke of Berwick in 1689: but it is now ſo much improved in its trade and buildings, that it is the largeſt town in the county. At one end of it is a ſpacious church ſeated on a hill, and at the other a ſchool-houſe near the river. It has the moſt trade of any town in the county, to which the increaſe of the linen manufacture has greatly contributed. It has alſo a manufacture of earthen-ware, and houſes for baking of ſugar. It is likely to receive farther buſineſs by means of the navigable canal juſt mentioned. In its neighbourhood is plenty of a hard gritty free-ſtone, which is eaſily cut into ſquares, and is uſed for building. There is alſo a caſtle built on an eminence, to command the head of the bridge, which was formerly a conſiderable paſs, to ſecure the road through the bogs and mountains between Dundalk and this town. It is almoſt encompaſſed with mountains, except to the north, where it opens into a good country, through which the New Canal is carried.

Roſtrevor is a ſmall town, with a church, on the north ſide of Carlington harbour, defended from the winds by the hills, which are cloathed with wood; and an arm

of the ſea forming a noble baſon at the foot of theſe hills, affords an agreeable proſpect. Here is a quay for ſhips, which ſafely ride at anchor within a few yards of the ſhore, a ſalt-houſe, and a pottery for white earthen-ware, made of the fine potters clay found near Carrickfergus.

Rathfryland, or Rathon-iſland, probably ſo called from Rath, a high fort on an iſland, it riſing above all the neighbouring grounds. It ſtands on a hill where four great roads, laid out in almoſt ſtraight lines, lead up to it, and meet in the center of the town, at one end of which is the church, built on a rock of free-ſtone, and at the higheſt point of the hill are the ruins of a caſtle, and on its ſide is a warren well ſtocked with excellent rabbits. This is one of the greateſt marts for linen in this county. Two miles from it is a ſmall pleaſant lake, which hath on the verge of it a large plantation of young foreſt trees, called Ballyrony.

Killogh, or Port St. Ann, is a town with a commodious harbour on the north-eaſt ſide of St. John's Point. A rock ſtands in the middle of the entrance of the harbour, which is covered at half flood; but there is a ſecure paſſage, either to the eaſt or weſt of it. A mile within that rock, on the weſt ſide, is a quay and baſon for ſhips, where they may lie defended from all winds. In this town is a neat chapel, barracks for two troops of dragoons, a Proteſtant charter working ſchool for the linen manufacture, &c. and ſalt works: but its principal trade at preſent ariſes from the exportation of barley, and the importation of moſt ſorts of commodities conſumed in the adjacent country.

Downpatrick, which ſignifies Patrick's-Mount, ſtands five miles from Killogh, and is eſteemed one of the moſt ancient places in the kingdom. It is a market-town and biſhopric, erected in the fifth century by St. Patrick; but is now united to the ſee of Connor. Within two hundred paces of the town, on the aſcent of a hill, are the ruins of an old cathedral, remarkable for a tomb, which contained the body of St. Patrick, St. Bridget, and St. Columb; and there were anciently four religious houſes, beſides the cathedral, in and near the town. It is ſituated on a branch of the lake of Strangford, and is adorned with ſeveral handſome public buildings; the pariſh-church is lately rebuilt, and it has a ſeſſions-houſe, the dioceſe ſchool, and an alms-houſe for old and decayed Proteſtants, with an Engliſh ſchool for forty children, who are clothed and educated in the Proteſtant religion; the two laſt built and endowed by Edward Southwell, Eſq; principal ſecretary of ſtate for Ireland: an alms-houſe for three clergymen's widows, with good gardens, and twenty pounds per annum for each of them; a barrack for a troop of dragoons, and a large market-houſe. From this place the family of Dawny have the title of viſcount.

Here is a variety of fine proſpects from the ſouth branch of Strangford lake. Among the hills and many iſlands are flights of ſwans and other water-fowl, and the lake abounds with good ſalmon, mullets, and other ſea-fiſh. Over a branch of the lake, upon the road to Killeleagh and St. Field, is a handſome ſtone bridge of ſix arches. About a mile from the town is St. Patrick's well, to which, at certain ſeaſons of the year, many thouſand people reſort, ſome in expectation of receiving benefit from the water bleſſed by that ſaint, others to perform a penance enjoined by the Popiſh prieſts.

Strangford is a ſmall but ancient town, belonging to the earl of Kildare, ſeated on the river of Strangford, five miles from Down, and is ſo called from the great rapidity of the tides here, it being reckoned the ſtrongeſt current in Europe. It gives title of viſcount to the family of Smythe. The ſea runs here both at flood and ebb like a ſluice, at the rate of ſix knots, or miles, an hour. The lake is near four miles broad at a medium, and about ſeventeen long. It abounds with many kinds of excellent fiſh, as baſs, mullet, whitings, large ſea trouts, oyſters, lobſters, ſhrimps, &c. and there are great quantities of kelp burnt on the iſlands in the lake, and on the ſtony flat coaſts.

Bangor, a market town on Carrickfergus bay, ſix miles from Carrickfergus, is governed by a provoſt and twelve burgeſſes who elect the members of parliament. It is remarkable for a very old abbey, and the firſt church built of ſtone in the province of Ulſter, alſo for being the landing place of duke Schomberg, when ſent againſt the rebels in 1689. The town contains about two hundred houſes, has little trade, but ſpins conſiderable quantities of fine linen yarn. It has ſome noble ruins of an ancient abbey, and the walls of an old cuſtom-houſe.

Belvoir, a pleaſant ſeat of the honourable Arthur Hill, Eſq; three miles from Belfaſt. The avenue to it is large and handſome; the gardens adorned with regular canals, caſcades, ſlopes, and terraces: the kitchen garden is encloſed with eſpaliers; part of the garden lies over the Lagan river, and at a ſmall diſtance is a neat church.

Killeleagh is ſeated on an arm of the lake of Strangford, ten miles from Newtown, and is agreeably built upon a riſing ground, commanding a proſpect of part of the lake. The caſtle ſtands at the head of the ſtreet; and at the lower end is a little ſafe bay, where ſhips lie ſheltered from all winds. On one ſide is a ſmall river running under a ſtone bridge into the ſea. Adjoining to the caſtle are gardens and plantations. This borough is governed by a provoſt, who, with twelve burgeſſes, elect their repreſentatives in parliament. Here the linen manufacture has ſpread to advantage, and it is remarkable for its fine white thread. Here is a barrack for a troop of dragoons, a handſome church, and a good parſonage houſe. This town gave birth to that eminent naturaliſt and phyſician Sir Hans Sloane, preſident of the royal ſociety, and who may be juſtly termed the founder of the celebrated Muſeum in London.

Hillſborough, a market town, finely ſituated on a heathy gravelly ſoil, in view of the Maze courſe, and the town of Liſburn. The chief magiſtrate here is called ſovereign, who with twelve burgeſſes elect repreſentatives in parliament. Here are good gardens, and fine plantations, with the ruins of a noble houſe, deſtroyed by an accidental fire, belonging to the family of Hill, to which Hillſborough gives the title of Viſcount. The pariſh church is a ſpacious and well contrived building, ſeated on a riſing ground, near the riuns of an old manſion houſe.

Dromore takes its name from its ſituation, it ſignifying the back of a great hill. It ſtands twelve miles from Belfaſt, and is a market town, and the ſee of a biſhop, the cathedral of which was founded by St. Coleman, who flouriſhed in the ſixth century. Here is a decent church with a ſteeple, but it has no revenue for the ſupport of the cathedral ſervice; the miniſter of the pariſh, who is treaſurer of Dromore, diſcharging the duties of it. Here are two alms-houſes for clergymen's widows of the dioceſe, erected by the contributions of the biſhop and clergy. The dioceſe ſchool is kept here, and near it is an Engliſh proteſtant ſchool, where poor children are trained up in the proteſtant religion, and ſome of them ſet to work; twelve of them are cloathed at the expence of the pariſh. The river Lagan divides the town, at the eaſt end of which is a Daniſh mount, which is always green, and has its top encircled with a rampart, between eighty and ninety feet over, having a ſtrong battlement, and a ſpacious parapet. The trenches are between ten and twelve feet wide, terminating on a precipice, with two arms embracing a ſquare fort, about one hundred feet in diameter, whoſe rampart is forty feet high, with a large battlement; and from the Lagan water to the fortification, upon the eaſieſt aſcent at the precipice, is a covert way about two hundred and ſixty feet long, ſeven wide, and nine deep. In and near the town are many linen weavers.

The county of Armagh, or Ardmagh, is ſeparated in part from that of Down by the river Newry; it is bounded on the ſouth by Lowth; on the weſt by Tyrone and Monaghan; and on the north by Lough-Neagh, extending thirty-two miles in length, and ſeventeen in breadth; and is divided into five baronies. It ſends ſix members to parliament; two for the county; two for the city of Armagh; and two for the borough of Charlemont.

Armagh is ſeated near the river Kalin, thirty miles to the ſouth of Londonderry. It gives name to the county of Armagh, and is the ſee of an archbiſhop, who has the title

title of primate of all Ireland. It was a very ancient and conſiderable city, it being once the metropolis of the whole kingdom, yet is now a ſmall place, but has ſome good houſes, with a very ſpacious church ſeated on the top of a hill, and the ruins of a monaſtery, priory, and the archbiſhop's palace. The hill on which the church is ſeated, affords a view all round of a very delightful country.

The county of Monaghan is bounded on the north by Tyrone; on the ſouth by Cavan; on the ſouth-eaſt by Lowth and part of Eaſt-Meath: on the eaſt by Armagh; and on the weſt by Fermanagh. It is thirty-two miles in length from north-weſt to ſouth-eaſt; and thirty from eaſt to weſt. It abounds with hills, woods, and marſhes; is divided into five baronies; but ſends only four members to parliament, two for the county, and two for the town of Monaghan.

Monaghan, the county town, is a ſmall neat place, and has a ſeſſions houſe in which the aſſizes are held. Here are ſold conſiderable quantities of linen, and it has in other reſpects a pretty trade.

The county of Cavan is bounded on the north by Fermanagh; on the eaſt by part of Monaghan, Meath, and Lowth; on the ſouth by Longford and Weſt-Meath; and on the weſt by Leitrim; extending forty-ſeven miles from the ſouth-eaſt to the north-weſt, and twenty-five from eaſt to weſt in the broadeſt part. It is divided into ſeven baronies, and gives title of earl to the noble family of Lambert. It ſends ſix members to parliament, two for the county, two for Cavan, and two for Belturbet. It contains thirty-ſeven pariſhes, and about eight thouſand three hundred and twenty houſes. It has ſeveral pleaſant lakes, and much fenny paſture; but in other parts has a rich fertile ſoil, well planted and improved.

Belturbet is ſeated three miles from Lough-ern, and ſtands on the river of that name. It is a ſmall place, but has a conſiderable fair for linen cloth.

Cavan, the county town, ſtands ſeven miles from Belturbet, is larger than that town, but is a place of no great trade.

The county of Fermanagh is bounded on the north and north-eaſt by Tyrone; on the eaſt by Monaghan: on the ſouth by Cavan; on the ſouth-weſt by Leitrim; and on the north-weſt by Donegal; extending thirty-eight miles in length, and twenty-four in breadth. It is divided into eight baronies, in which there is not one market town, and but one borough, which is named Enniſkilling; ſo that it returns only four members to parliament.

This county is full of woods and bogs, a third part of it being filled with Lough-ern, the greateſt lake in all this part of Ireland, of which we have already given an account in deſcribing the lakes in general.

Enniſkilling is ſeated in the middle of the lake, where the waters are contracted into the breadth of an ordinary river, and thus continue for ſix miles. At this town is a ſtrong fort, it being a paſs of the greateſt importance, from the north part of Ireland to the ſouth; and is famous for its obſtinate defence againſt queen Elizabeth's army in 1595, and that of the proteſtants in 1689 againſt king James's forces.

The county of Tyrone, or Tir-Oen, is bounded on the north by Londonderry; on the eaſt by part of Antrim, from which it is divided by Lough-neagh; on the ſouth and ſouth-weſt by part of Fermanagh, Monaghan, and Armagh; and on the weſt by the river Liffer, which divides it from Donegal and part of Fermanagh. It is forty-ſix miles in length, and thirty-ſeven in breadth. Though great part of it is rough and mountainous, yet in other parts it is not inferior to many counties in the kingdom for the richneſs of its ſoil, and the goodneſs of its paſtures. It is divided into four baronies, which contain thirty pariſhes, about twelve thouſand ſix hundred and eighty houſes, and ſends ten members to parliament, two for the county, and two each for Dungannon, Strabane, Clogher, and Augher.

Lough-neagh, in this county, is about thirty miles in extent, full of fiſh, and the banks variegated with ſhady groves, meadows always verdant, and rich corn-fields, adorned with gentle hills and pleaſant brooks.

Clogher is a city and the ſee of a biſhop, ſeated in Lower Tyrone, founded by St. Patrick, and well endowed; but the town is ſmall, and much decayed.

Dungannon, which is reckoned the county town, is a place of ſome ſtrength, ſituated upon a hill ſeventy-two miles from Dublin, and has a conſiderable trade in linen and linen yarn.

The county of Antrim, which is the moſt northern part of all Ireland, is bounded by St. George's Channel on the eaſt; the county of Down on the ſouth-eaſt; part of Armagh on the ſouth; Londonderry on the weſt, from which it is ſeparated by the river Bann; and the Northern ocean on the north; extending forty-ſix miles in length, and twenty-ſeven in breadth. It gives title of earl and baron to the ancient family of Mac Donnel. It is ſubdivided into eight baronies, and contains fifty-ſix pariſhes, about eighteen thouſand one hundred houſes, and ſends ten members to parliament, two for the county, two for Liſburn, two for Belfaſt, two for Antrim, and two for Randalſtown.

The moſt remarkable curioſity in this county, and indeed, in all Ireland, is the Giants Cauſeway, a ſurprizing ſtructure of ſtones, extending a great way into the ſea, where the ſame work ſeems to have been begun on the oppoſite ſhore of Scotland. This ſtupendous cauſeway was ſuppoſed to be the work of the giants, undertaken in order to form a communication between Ireland and Scotland. Nor is it at all wonderful that ſuch a ſuppoſition ſhould obtain credit among the vulgar; ſince though it is a work far above human ſtrength, yet it has the greateſt appearance of art. The ſea cliffs are very high in the place where the cauſeway begins; and what is commonly called the cauſeway, is a low head extending from the foot of the cliffs, like a mole, into the ſea. This head, when conſidered attentively, ſeems a ſtupendous production of art; and Dr. Pococke, late biſhop of Oſſory, and fellow of the Royal Society, informs us that he meaſured the moſt weſterly point at high water, to the diſtance of three hundred and ſixty feet from the cliff; but was told that at low water, it extended ſixty feet farther upon a deſcent, till it was loſt in the ſea. Upon meaſuring the eaſtern point, he found it five hundred and forty feet from the cliff; and ſaw as much more of it as of the other, where it winds to the eaſt, and is like that loſt in the water.

The cauſeway is compoſed of pillars of all angular ſhapes, from three ſides to eight. The eaſtern point, where it joins the rock, terminates in a perpendicular cliff, formed by the upright ſides of pillars, ſome of which are, thirty-three feet four inches high. Each pillar conſiſts of ſeveral joints or ſtones, lying one upon another, from ſix inches to about a foot in thickneſs; and what is very ſurprizing, ſome of theſe joints are ſo convex that their prominences are nearly quarters of ſpheres, round each of which is a ledge which holds them together with the greateſt firmneſs, every ſtone being concave on the other ſide, and fitting in the exacteſt manner the convexity of the upper part of that beneath it. The pillars are from one to two feet in diameter, and generally conſiſt of about forty joints, moſt of which ſeparate very eaſily, and one may walk along upon the tops of the pillars, as far as the edge of the water.

But this is not the moſt ſingular part of this extraordinary curioſity, the cliffs themſelves being ſtill more ſurprizing. From the bottom, which is of black ſtone, to the height of about ſixty feet, they are divided at equal diſtances by ſtripes of a reddiſh ſtone, that reſembles a cement about four inches in thickneſs; upon this there is another ſtratum of the ſame black ſtone, with a ſtratum five inches thick of the red. Over this is another ſtratum ten feet thick, divided in the ſame manner; then a ſtratum of the red ſtone twenty feet deep, and above that a ſtratum of upright pillars: above theſe pillars lies another ſtratum of black ſtone twenty feet high; and, above this again, another ſtratum of upright pillars, riſing in ſome places to the tops of the cliffs, in others not ſo high, and in others again above it, where they are called the chimneys. The face of theſe cliffs extends about three Engliſh miles.

About

About a quarter of a mile to the ſouth-eaſt of the cauſeway, is ſeen what is called the Organs, compoſed of the ſame kind of pillars as thoſe we have already deſcribed. Notwithſtanding the great appearance of art, it is certain that all theſe are merely the work of nature, ſince if this cauſeway had been built by human beings, they muſt likewiſe have built not only theſe cliffs but alſo the rocks, which even at ſeveral miles diſtance from the ſea are formed in the ſame manner of convex and concave ſtones, nicely fitted to each other.

The principal towns in this county are the following:

Antrim is a conſiderable thriving market-town and corporation, thirteen miles to the weſt of Carrickfergus, and is pleaſantly ſeated on both ſides of what is called the Six-mile Water, over which is a handſome bridge. Here is a harbour for boats, and a ſtately manſion-houſe which belonged to the late lord viſcount Maſſareen, with a fine park.

Carrickfergus, or Knockfergus, is a rich and populous borough, ninety miles from Dublin, ſeated on a bay of its own name, where it has an excellent harbour, with a ſtrong caſtle on a high rock, and had an ancient palace converted into a magazine for arms. It is a fortified place walled round, and has ſome modern outworks. The town and liberties have the privilege of being a diſtinct county, yet the aſſizes and quarter-ſeſſions for the county of Antrim are kept there.

Belfaſt is ſeated at the bottom of the bay of Carrickfergus, three leagues from that town, and is the chief place of trade, as well as of beauty, in all this part of Ireland. It has a very long ſtone-bridge over the river, and ſhips come up the Cormoyl-road, which is a ſafe commodious harbour below the town, with good depth of water. There are here many rich merchants, and a very conſiderable trade from this part to Scotland, particularly to Glaſgow; the town and moſt of the adjacent county being inhabited by the Scots, who have their regular preſbyteries, kirk-ſeſſions, and other judicatures here as in Scotland, tho' not with equal authority.

The county of Londonderry, or Colerain, is bounded on the north by a part of Donegal and the Northern ocean; on the eaſt by Antrim, from which it is ſeparated by the river Bann; on the ſouth and ſouth-weſt by the county of Tyrone; and on the weſt by Donegal; extending thirty-ſix miles in length, and thirty in breadth. It is ſubdivided into four baronies, which contain thirty-eight pariſhes, about thirteen thouſand ſix hundred houſes, and ſends eight members to parliament, two for the county, and two for each of the towns of Londonderry, Colerain, and Newtown-Amivady.

It is a pretty champaign country, and very fruitful, its boggy and heathy ground being manured by ſhells brought from the ſea-coaſt. Its chief river is the Bann, which is remarkable for its beauty and clearneſs: it riſes out of the Mourne hills in the county of Down, and after loſing both itſelf and name for about thirty miles in the lake called Lough-neagh, recovers its name again at Tome-caſtle, from whence, being ſhaded with woods on both ſides, it paſſes to the ſea. There is a ſmaller river of the ſame name, and therefore this is called the Great Bann; though it is not very large.

This county, which was formerly wild and uncultivated, has been greatly improved by the citizens of London, to whom king James I. by letters patent, granted this county, with the city of Londonderry, and the town of Colerain by the name of 'The ſociety of the governor and aſſiſtants of London of the new plantation of Ulſter, in the realm of Ireland, in conſideration of their ſettling a colony there.'

Londonderry, the ſee of a biſhop, and the capital of the county, is ſeated on the weſt ſide of the river Foyl, one hundred and four miles north-weſt of Dublin, and is the center of trade for this part of the country, though its river is not ſo large as that at Colerain; but it has a much better port; for ſhips of the greateſt burthen go up without interruption; and though it is twenty miles up the river, very large ſhips ſail up even to the quay, where it is from four to five fathoms deep. It is a modern place, built by a company of London-Adventurers, in the reign of James I. and has three or four caſtles on the north bank of the river, beſides a fort, which lies below the town: it is likewiſe encompaſſed by a ſtrong wall; and beſides the above forts, there are ſome out-works. This city is not very large, but is handſomely built: the ſtreets are wide, well paved, and all the houſes of ſtone. The church is very large and well built, and king William III. cauſed a town-houſe to be erected for the inhabitants, in conſideration of their brave defence againſt his enemies. There are a great number of ſhipping belonging to the city; and the merchants not only carry on a great trade in the herring-fiſhery, but have a conſiderable ſhare in many other branches of foreign trade; eſpecially to the Weſt-Indies, for which they are very advantageouſly ſituated; for, being open to the Northern and Weſtern ocean, they are not expoſed to the dangers and delays which frequently attend a paſſage through the Channel. The city of Londonderry is inhabited entirely by Proteſtants.

This city has rendered itſelf remarkable by the bravery of its inhabitants in three ſieges, in each of which they were driven to the greateſt extremity; but obliged the enemy to retire. The laſt gallant defence was made againſt the French and Iriſh troops of king James II. from the ſeventh of December, 1688, to the laſt day of July 1689, which was the more remarkable from its being beſieged at a time when it was neither well fortified, nor had any garriſon, or ſtores of proviſion or ammunition, and when relief was ſo long coming from England that many died for want, beſides what were killed in defence of the town, in making ſallies. But while the people were reduced to the utmoſt diſtreſs by famine, two ſhips with proviſions bravely forced their way to the town, notwithſtanding a boom being laid acroſs the river and the fire of the enemy's cannon from ſeveral forts.

Colerain lies on the eaſt ſide of the mouth of the Great Bann, three leagues from Londonderry, and is a neat, handſome, populous, and walled town; and a place of good trade, particularly in that kind of linen called Coleraine; but the river, though of a long courſe, and bringing with it the water of all the rivers that diſcharge themſelves into the great Lough-neagh, being confined within a narrow channel, pours its waters out with ſuch a furious current, that the tide is hardly ſtrong enough to ſtem it, ſo as to promote its navigation: hence it is very difficult for veſſels to make their way in; nor can any ſhips of great burthen go in at all. Beſides the linen trade, it has a ſalmon-fiſhery, which is very beneficial. This town gives the title of baron to the family of Hanger.

The county of Donegal, or Tyrconnel, is bounded on the eaſt by the counties of Londonderry, Tyrone, and part of Fermanagh; on the ſouth by the bay of Donegal and Fermanagh; and on the weſt and north by the Atlantic and Northern oceans. It extends ſixty-four miles from the ſouth-eaſt to the north-weſt, and is ſubdivided into five baronies, in which are contained forty pariſhes, with about ten thouſand eight hundred houſes, and it ſends twelve members to parliament, two for the county, and two for each of the following towns; St. Johnſtown, Donegal, Ballyſhannon, Kilbeg, and Lifford.

Ballyſhannon is ſeated on a river that runs out of Lough-Ern into Donegal bay, where it has a harbour and a tolerable trade. It is pretty well inhabited, conſidering that this part of the country abounds with bogs and large lakes.

Donegal, from whence the county has its name, ſtands nine miles from Ballyſhannon, at the bottom of a ſpacious bay which has many good roads and harbours, but no trade; nor is there any thing conſiderable in the town itſelf. The harbour is ſpacious, but the entrance has ſuch dangerous ſhelves and rocks, that it is not ſafe to attempt entering without a pilot.

Lough-Swilly, into which runs a river of the ſame name near Letterkenny, a little market-town, is a ſalt-water lake that runs about twenty miles ſouth into the country; it is about five miles broad at the mouth, has an iſland called Inch, and abounds with fiſh. A thouſand ſail of ſhips may ride ſafe here for twenty miles together. There are many villages and gentlemens ſeats

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on its banks, and yet it has no trade, there being only a few fiſhing-boats which reſort there to catch herrings and ſalmon, of which there is a prodigious plenty.

Lough-Dirg is famous for an iſland, in which is a cell where the popiſh friars uſed formerly to make their votaries believe St. Patrick had his purgatory; and that he obtained it from God by his prayers, in order to convince unbelievers of the immortality of the ſoul and future torments. It was anciently much frequented by people of the Romiſh church, as well foreigners as natives, who came thither in pilgrimage, to do penance, and perform religious ceremonies, though it was invented ſome ages after St. Patrick's death. Certain friars reſided on the iſland, who, after having made the pilgrims watch and faſt till their minds were prepared to receive any impreſſions, amuſed them with ſtories of the ſtrange apparitions they ſhould behold there, and ſhutting them up left them for ſome hours in the dark; and thus, when let out, their diſordered imaginations made them tell ſtrange ſtories of what they had ſeen and ſuffered. The cell was, however, demoliſhed in the year 1497, by the authority of pope Alexander VI; but was afterwards reſtored, and again viſited by pilgrims; but in the latter end of the reign of James I. ſome gentlemen being ſent by the government to ſearch into the affair, found that this pretended entrance into purgatory was only a little cell hewn out of a rock, ſo low that a tall man could but juſt ſtand upright in it, and of ſuch ſmall extent, that it could not contain more than ſix or eight perſons; but when the door was ſhut, was quite dark: upon which the lords juſtices baniſhed the friars, demoliſhed their houſes, and had the cell laid open.

CHAP. XXXII.

Of ICELAND and GREENLAND.

SECT. I.

Its Situation, Extent, Climate, Face of the Country, Minerals, Volcanos, and remarkable hot Springs: its Vegetables and Animals.

ICELAND, which received its name from its exceſſive coldneſs, and the great flakes of ice ſeen near it, is a large iſland in the Northern ocean, about four hundred and eighty miles diſtant from the coaſt of Norway, and four hundred to the northward of Scotland, lying between the eleventh and twenty-ſeventh degree of weſt longitude, and between the ſixty-third degree forty-five minutes and the ſixty-ſeventh degree of north latitude. It extends four hundred miles in length, and a hundred and fifty in breadth.

This iſland is ſeated ſo far to the north, that, during two months of the ſummer, the ſun never goes entirely below the horizon, one-half remaining above it from ten at night till two in the morning, when it riſes entirely; and about the winter ſolſtice, for two months, it never riſes wholly above the horizon, one-half of it being only to be ſeen from ten in the morning till two in the afternoon.

They have always a ſhort ſpring and autumn in Iceland before and after the ſummer ſeaſon. The cold is ſevere in winter, and the heat very intenſe in ſummer, on account of the length of the days, and there being no night to cool the air: but neither of them is inſupportable, at leaſt to the inhabitants, or the Norwegians and Danes. The air is alſo ſalubrious, and agrees very well with foreigners as well as the natives.

Iceland properly conſiſts of a prodigious range of mountains running from eaſt to weſt, on the declivities of which, and in the vallies lying between them, the inhabitants live. Several of theſe high mountains are always covered with ice and ſnow: but on others, ſeated near the coaſt, are plains covered with verdure, ſeveral miles in extent, that produce fine graſs. Though the country is ſo mountainous, there are roads paſſable for horſes in every part of the iſland, and even carriages were formerly uſed, but they are now laid aſide, on account of the trouble attending them; and every year ſome hundreds of pack horſes come over the mountains from the north to the trading places in the ſouth parts of the iſland, loaded with butter, woollen manufactures, &c. which are bartered for other commodities.

In the rocks of Iceland cryſtals are ſometimes found, many of which repreſent an object viewed through them double; but theſe are properly only a ſpecies of talc. There are likewiſe evident ſigns that the mountains contain iron, copper, and even ſilver ore, near which are found two kinds of agate, which will burn like a candle; a ſpecies of bitumen, black, ſhining, and pretty hard; with another ſort of black earth, that is ſtill harder, and breaks into thin diaphanous laminæ; this laſt is not inflammable, but vitrifies in the fire. In one part of the iſland ſulphur is dug out of the ground, but the ſulphur trade is now diſcontinued.

Though this iſland is ſeated ſo far to the north, earthquakes and volcanoes are more known than in many countries in much warmer climates: the former have ſeveral times laid the country deſolate, particularly in the years 1734, 1752, and 1755, when fiery eruptions broke out of the earth, and produced very fatal conſequences. Many of the ſnowy mountains have alſo gradually become volcanoes. Of theſe burning mountains Hecla is the beſt known, eſpecially to foreigners. It is in the ſouth-eaſt part of the iſland, not far from the ſea. This mountain has frequently ſent forth flames and a torrent of burning matter. The inhabitants formerly imagined, that this is the place where the ſouls of the damned are tormented. Its eruptions have been very frequent, eſpecially in 1693, when they were moſt dreadful, and occaſioned terrible devaſtations, the aſhes being thrown all round the iſland to the diſtance of a hundred and eighty Engliſh miles; but ſince that time it is ſaid that Hecla has been free from eruptions. This mountain takes up four hours to aſcend from its foot to the ſummit, and on the north-weſt ſide is a vaſt chaſm, reaching from the top almoſt to the bottom; and it is remarkable, that while flames and ignited matter iſſued from this chaſm, the huge maſſes of ice and ſnow, with which the other ſide was covered, were not melted, though the heat was ſo intenſe as to calcine large ſtones and other ſubſtances.

Notwithſtanding the eruptions of Hecla have been ſtopped for a conſiderable time, others have ſince broke out. The huge mountain of Crabla in particular began on the ſeventeenth of May, 1724, to eject, in a terrible manner, ſmoke, fire, cinders, and ſtones, which were followed by a fiery ſtream like fuſed metal. The lava continued to move ſlowly on, for about eight or nine miles, as far as the lake of Mynat, into which it diſcharged itſelf; but did not ceaſe till the end of September, 1729, when the eruptions of the mountain ſubſided. They were, however, ſoon followed by the eruption of three of the adjacent mountains; and it is a common obſervation among the inhabitants, that when the ice and ſnow are ſo accumulated on one of the mountains that formerly ejected fire, as to ſtop the clefts and chaſms, which were the ſpiracles whence proceeded ſmoke and flame, a new eruption is not far diſtant. In 1756 a mountain, named Cotligiau, which had twice before caſt forth fire and ſmoke, began again to flame.

It is alſo remarkable, that ſprings naturally warm, and even thoſe that are hot, are frequently found in Iceland, with others that have a mineral taſte. About mount Hecla are ſeveral ſmall baſons of warm water, which ſometimes emit a copious ſteam, though at others this vapour is not ſo viſible. Theſe hot ſprings are of three ſorts; ſome are a little more than tepid, ſo that a perſon may hold his hand in the water without any inconvenience: others are ſo hot as to riſe in ſmall bubbles, like water ſimmering over the fire; but in other the ebullition is ſo ſtrong as to force the waters up to a conſiderable height. The laſt ſort are obſerved to be either periodical or variable in their ebullitions; particularly in a diſtrict named Reyker-harbour, are three hot ſprings, about thirty fathoms diſtance from each other, which bubble up alternately; and this ebullition generally happens in each of them about three times in a quarter of an hour. Though theſe wells lie in a plain, they ſpring from a hard ſtony bottom, where two of them eject the water from the interſtices between the ſtones, about an ell in height; but in the bottom of the third is a round aperture, through which, in its turn, it throws the water five or ſix ells high. After this it ſubſides about two ells, and one may go down, during that interval, and take a ſurvey of this wonderful ſpring. Its ebullition has three gradations: during the firſt, the water riſes half way up the cavity; afterwards it fills to the top; and the third time ſhoots up to the above-mentioned height. When the water is ſubſiding it abſorbs any light ſubſtance, as a piece of wood; but at the return of the ebullition ejects even the heavy ſtones that are thrown into it.

Gyſer, a ſpring in the valley of Hacadel, riſes in a hollow rock at the foot of a mountain. Mr. Olave, who ſaw it in 1746, ſays the cavity is about twenty fathoms in circumference, and three in depth. There is a ſmall aperture at the bottom, though which the water generally riſes till it runs over the baſon: then follows a terrible noiſe like the diſcharge of ſmall arms, which ſhakes the very rock. After this noiſe has been repeated four or five times, the water, which is hot, emits a thick ſteam, like ſmoke, is violently agitated, and ſprings up to the height of ſixty fathoms, in ſuch quantities as to form ſeveral hot rivulets on every ſide of the rock. The riſing and violent agitation of the water ceaſes in ſix or ſeven minutes, and the cavity, or baſon, becomes empty. This aſtoniſhing phænomenon happens once a day, and is periodical, returning at a certain hour: but whether the agitations of this ſpring correſpond with the tides in the neighbouring ſea, has not been determined.

In ſeveral of theſe hot ſprings the inhabitants who live near them boil their victuals, only by hanging a pot, in which the fleſh is put in cold water, in the water of the ſpring: they alſo bathe in the rivulets that run from them, which, by degrees, become luke-warm, or are cooled by their being mixed with rivulets of cold water. The cows that drink of theſe ſprings are ſaid to yield an extraordinary quantity of milk; and it is likewiſe eſteemed very wholeſome when drank by the human ſpecies. The hot ſpring near Cryſevig emits a very ſtrong and fetid ſulphureous vapour; and ſome of theſe ſprings are ſaid to be ſo intenſely hot, as to calcine bones.

Salt ſprings are not known here; however, ſalt has been found at the foot of the burning mountains; and that ſalt might be made here by art is unqueſtionable, from the ſucceſs of former trials.

There are but few woods in the iſland, though here and there a ſmall wood is to be ſeen; but great numbers of large and ſmall trees are driven hither by the ſea, eſpecially on the north coaſt, where they generally lie and rot, the inhabitants having no ſhips to convey the wood for ſale to their countrymen. There are here a great quantity of ſhrubs, on which grow all ſorts of berries, as juniper, blackberries, &c. and theſe are burnt every year for charcoal, which is uſed by the natives in their forges. The common fuel of the country is turf, ſome of which has a very ſtrong ſulphureous ſmell, and in ſome parts of the iſland they even burn fiſh bones.

Very good graſs grows not only in the vallies, which border on the lakes and rivers, but alſo in the hollows between the mountains, and ſometimes on their ſummits. The fineſt paſtures are in the northern parts of the iſland, where the graſs ſprings up very faſt to a great height. The cattle are generally driven to graze among the mountains, where they find good paſture; but the graſs that grows near the habitations of the Icelanders is reſerved for winter fodder.

Here are alſo many ſalubrious and medicinal herbs, as ſcurvy-graſs, ſamphire, angelica, which is much uſed by the inhabitants, and berg-graſs, a kind of odoriferous moſs that is very nouriſhing, great quantities of which are laid up by the inhabitants for occaſional uſes. Hitherto few eſculent vegetables have been cultivated in Iceland; but as all kinds of culinary herbs thrive in the gardens at Beſſeſtader, and thoſe of the epiſcopal palaces, it is probable that, with proper culture, they would alſo grow in moſt parts of the iſland.

The inhabitants are entirely diſcouraged from purſuing agriculture, as they have not yet been able, in this ſoil, to bring any corn to maturity; yet ſome parts of the iſland are known, by ſeveral evident traces, to have been formerly cultivated.

Bread is but little known among the common people, for though a large quantity of meal and bread is annually imported into the harbours of Iceland, the lower claſs of people can purchaſe but little or none of it, on account of the price. They, however, make a kind of meal, and bread, of a ſort of wild barley, which grows there; and in times of ſcarcity have recourſe to a ſea vegetable, called in Latin *alga marina ſacrarifera*, which is dried before the fire, and ſold at half the price of dried fiſh. The cattle feed on this ſea-weed at low water, and prefer it to any other marine vegetables.

Bears are frequently driven on this iſland with the large flakes of ice from Greenland; but the inhabitants are ſo vigilant and dexterous in deſtroying them, that the only ſpecies of wild beaſts to be found in Iceland are foxes, ſome of which are brown and others white.

The horſes here, as in all other northern countries, are ſmall, but ſtrong and full of mettle, and, except thoſe broke for the ſaddle, lie in the open air all the year round. In winter they ſubſiſt only on what fodder they can ſcrape from under the ice and ſnow. Such horſes as the owners have no immediate occaſion for, are turned out among the mountains; and when wanted they go in queſt of them, every one knowing his own horſe by certain marks.

Great numbers of ſheep are to be ſeen in Iceland, and where the inhabitants are chiefly employed in grazing, it is not uncommon for a man to be maſter of a flock of four or five hundred of them. In the winter ſeaſon they drive their flocks to ſhelter at night, and in very ſevere weather alſo keep them under cover in the day-time. The grazing countries lie chiefly in the northern and eaſtern parts of the iſland; for the inhabitants of the ſouthern, being moſtly employed in fiſhing, leave their flocks abroad both in ſummer and winter. Nature, however, ſeems to have provided a ſhelter for them, there being large caves into which they are ſure to retire in ſevere weather. In winter, when the ſnow is not very deep, and the weather is inclinable to be fair and mild, the ſheep are turned out to pick what they can find under the ſnow: when if they happen to be ſurprized by its falling in a great quantity, they inſtantly form themſelves into a cloſe compact body, by laying their heads together in the center. In this poſture they are quite covered with the ſnow, and are ſometimes ſo benumbed with cold, as not to be able to help themſelves till their owner happening to find them, clear their way out. This is often a work of ſome days, and frequently the weight of the incumbent ſnow is ſo great, that they are cruſhed down by it, and killed before their maſters can come to their relief. When they paſs ſome days under the ſnow, the ſheep, in the extremity of hunger, have been known to eat one another's wool; but this is apt to diſorder them very much; on which account, when the inhabitants have any apprehenſions of bad weather, they take care to keep their flocks at home.

The wool of their ſheep is very coarſe; but a ſomewhat finer ſort lies under the other. Thoſe writers are miſtaken who obſerve, that all the ſheep in this iſland have

more

more than two horns: a few of them indeed have five, ſome have four horns, but they have generally only two. As for goats they have no great number of them. Some of the Iceland cows and oxen have no horns; and in the ſouthern parts they are fed with fiſh bones, and the water in which fiſh has been boiled. Here are no hogs. As to domeſtic animals, there are a ſufficient number of dogs, and but very few cats.

The keeping of poultry and all other tame fowl is ſo expenſive, that very few of them are to be ſeen here: but they have plenty of ſwans, wild geeſe, and ducks, among which may be reckoned the eider, the eggs and feathers of which are much valued. There are likewiſe ſnipes, woodcocks, and other wild-fowl. At certain times an incredible number of eggs of ſea-fowl, of which the inhabitants are very fond, are found along the ſea-coaſt.

The birds of prey are the eagle, hawk, raven, and falcon: ſome of the laſt are entirely white; others are partly of that colour, and others brown. In every diſtrict are certain falconers, who are alone empowered to catch falcons: theſe carry them to the king of Denmark's falconry at Beſſeſtader, where the king's falconer, who annually viſits that place, picks out the beſt. The governor of Iceland pays the falconers fifteen rix-dollars for every white falcon, ten for one that is partly white, and ſeven for every brown falcon that is choſen; beſides which the falconers receive a gratuity of five or ſix rix-dollars when they firſt bring them in.

The rivers, lakes, and bays, with the other parts of the ſea, ſupply the Icelanders with prodigious quantities of various kinds of fiſh.

SECT. II.

Of the Perſons, Food, Dreſs, Employments, Language, Religion, Government, and Trade of the Icelanders; the Diviſions of the Country, and Number of Inhabitants.

THE Icelanders are naturally of a robuſt and vigorous conſtitution; but are often worn out by the continual fatigues and hardſhips they undergo at ſea in their fiſheries; and when about fifty years of age become afflicted with various diſeaſes, eſpecially thoſe of the breaſt and lungs; whence few of them arrive at an advanced age. In caſe of ſickneſs they entirely reſign themſelves to nature and Providence, for there is not one phyſician or ſurgeon in the whole iſland. Indeed a few perſons keep medicines by them, with which they are ſupplied from Denmark; but they are not very well acquainted with their virtues, or the method of adminiſtering them.

The uſual food of the inhabitants is freſh and dried fiſh, milk, oat-meal, and fleſh; but they chiefly live on dried fiſh with butter. They eat all their proviſions without ſalt. Their common drink is milk, which, when ſweet, they drink by itſelf; but when it turns ſour, mix it with water. They are very fond of beer and ſpirituous liquors, and the moſt wealthy among them ſometimes purchaſe red and white French wines.

The Icelanders are wiſely contented with what apparel their own country furniſhes. The cloth which they wear is called wadmal; beſides which they alſo uſe a garment of cloſe linen. However, ſome of the gentry are fond of appearing in cloths and ſtuffs made in Denmark, though a ſtuff manufactory has lately been ſet up at Beſſeſtader. Their fiſhing-dreſs is made of untanned leather, which is kept pliable by being rubbed with the liver of fiſhes.

As they are obliged to buy their timber of the Daniſh company eſtabliſhed here, they build their houſes as cheap as poſſible; ſo that they are neither very commodious nor handſome.

The Icelanders are chiefly employed in fiſhing and grazing, and when they are not engaged in either of theſe, eſpecially in winter, both the men, women, and children knit woollen waiſtcoats, ſtockings, gloves, and the like; and alſo employ themſelves in weaving Iceland cloth. Their looms indeed are but very indifferent; but thoſe made in Denmark now begin to be introduced among them.

The Iceland language is the ſame with the old Norwegian, though it is not at preſent quite pure and uncorrupted. They are not wanting in mental endowments, which is evident from the learned men and ingenious artiſts this iſland has produced. Several of their authors have written very accurate and elegant diſſertations relating to the northern hiſtory. They even began to cultivate the ſtudy of letters ſo early as the year 1130.

The only religion tolerated in Iceland is the Lutheran. The churches of the eaſt, ſouth, and weſt quarters are under the juriſdiction of the biſhop of Skaalholt, and thoſe of the north quarter are ſubject to the biſhop of Hoolum. The biſhops of Iceland cultivate the eſtates annexed to their reſpective ſees, and their annual produce is about two thouſand rix-dollars; but out of theſe revenues a ſtated ſum is appropriated to the rectors and aſſiſtants of the ſchool, and the miniſters of the cathedral: beſides this, a certain number of ſcholars muſt be lodged and clothed, and alſo the biſhop's palace, &c. muſt be kept in good repair out of the ſame revenues; and after theſe deductions the remainder is the biſhop's income. Some of the preachers are liberally provided for; others but indifferently; and many of them very ſcantily: among the latter not a few of them are obliged to be ſatisfied with the poor pittance of four rix-dollars, which amounts to about eighteen ſhillings a year.

The ſecular government of this iſland under the king of Denmark, is lodged in the general governor of Iceland and Faroe, who uſually reſides at Copenhagen, and deputes under him a prefect, who lives in the king's palace at Beſſeſtader. Here is alſo a collector, who levies all the king's revenues in the iſland, and paſſes his accounts at the treaſury.

The revenues of Iceland ariſe, Firſt, from the farms of the ports or harbours, which annually amount to above ſixteen thouſand rix-dollars. Secondly, from the taxes and tithes, which according to the cuſtom of the country are accounted for in fiſhes, and farmed to private perſons. Thirdly, from the farmers of the ſequeſtered convents and crown lands. Fourthly, from the king's boats; and, fifthly, from the hundred and thirty-eight ells and a half, and ninety-two pair of ſtockings, delivered in annually by every diſtrict, called a ſyſſel, and likewiſe one hundred and ſeventy-two pounds of fiſh payable by ſome ſyſſels. There are eighteen of theſe ſyſſels or diſtricts in Iceland.

With reſpect to the diſtribution of juſtice, here are two ſuperior judges, one of whom preſides over the ſouth and eaſt quarters, and the other over the north and weſt; each of theſe has uſually under him a deputy or inferior judge. There are alſo twenty-one ſyſſelmen, who are a kind of inferior officers, who, beſides levying the king's revenue farmed in their reſpective ſyſſels, hold ſeveral courts of judicature to which belong certain diſtricts; but an appeal lies from theſe to a provincial court. Every ſuperior judge determines the cauſes belonging to his diſtrict, and has eight aſſiſtants. The ſupreme court on the iſland is under the prefect, aſſiſted by twelve ſuperior judges. But if the cauſe amount to a certain ſum, an appeal lies from this court to the ſupreme court at Copenhagen.

For the regulation of eccleſiaſtical affairs, here is a provoſt court conſiſting of the provoſt and two aſſiſtants. The next is a conſiſtory, which, as well as the others, is held at Oxera, for the dioceſe of Skaalholt, to which belongs one hundred and ſixty-three pariſhes. In this conſiſtory the prefect, as the repreſentative of the governor, ſits as preſident; the provoſt and miniſters, and even the biſhop himſelf, being only aſſiſtants. In the dioceſe of Hoolum, which contains one hundred and forty pariſhes, a conſiſtory is held in autumn at a ſeat called Flige Myre, where the prefect deputes another to repreſent him as preſident. From the conſiſtories an appeal lies to the ſupreme court at Copenhagen.

The capital puniſhments inflicted on male criminals in Iceland is beheading with an ax, and hanging to a wooden beam fixed in the cliff of a rock; but females who have forfeited their life are put in a ſack and then drowned.

With reſpect to the commerce of Iceland it muſt be obſerved, that the company that farms it was eſtabliſhed in 1733 by a royal charter, and ſtiled The Iceland Company of Copenhagen. This company ſends twenty-three ſhips every year, with their factors and ſub-factors, who viſit all the ports on the iſland. Theſe ports and harbours are divided into fleſh and fiſh ports; the former are but eight in number, and lie on the north and eaſt coaſts of the iſland; but the latter are fourteen, and theſe lie on the ſouth-weſt ſide. There are alſo ſome ports from which both fleſh and fiſh are exported. The natives either barter their commodities for thoſe of Denmark, or receive ready money from them in Daniſh crowns and dollars, in proportion to the land tax or rate ſettled by the king's ordinance. The cattle are delivered to the factors at the fleſh ports about the end of Auguſt, and in the fiſh ports they purchaſe all the ſound dried cod, ling, and train oil, according to a fixed rate.

Accounts are kept here, and all calculations made by fiſhes; a fiſh, which is properly two pounds of fiſh, being equal to a lub-ſchelling, and conſequently forty-eight fiſhes are equal to a ſpecie dollar worth about four ſhillings and ſixpence ſterling. Daniſh marks at eight ſub-ſchellings are ſometimes current here, and alſo, though ſeldom, ſome lub-ſchelling pieces. A quarter of a ſpecie dollar, equal to twelve fiſhes, is the ſmalleſt piece of money current in Iceland; ſo that any balance under this not being payable in money, is made up in fiſh and tobacco.

The exports from Iceland chiefly conſiſt in dried fiſh, ſalted mutton, a good deal of beef, butter, and train oil; a great quantity of tallow, coarſe and fine jackets of Iceland woollen cloth, woollen ſtockings and gloves, red wool, ſheep-ſkins and lamb-ſkins, fox tails of ſeveral colours, feathers, and quills. In 1751 the late king Frederick V. in order to enable the Icelanders to improve their manufactures, and to promote trade and commerce, beſtowed on them a bounty of ten thouſand rix-dollars, and lent them five thouſand more. The imports to Iceland are chiefly iron horſe-ſhoes, timber, meal, bread, wine, brandy, tobacco, coarſe linen, a few ſilk ſtuffs, and domeſtic utenſils.

Iceland, according to the general diviſion, conſiſts of four quarters, which derive their names from the four cardinal points towards which they lie: this diviſion is cauſed by ſo many branches of mountains that ſeparate the quarters from each other. Hence the middle of the iſland is not inhabited, the people living only in theſe valleys, which are between twenty and thirty miles broad, and are properly the ſyſſels, juſt mentioned, to which other ſmall valleys among the mountains, where good paſture are found, likewiſe belong. From theſe mountains ſeveral brooks and rivers, ſome of which are very conſiderable, run into the valleys, and afford excellent fiſh.

The number of the inhabitants of Iceland, according to an authentic computation, amounts to about fifty thouſand. Yet there are no towns of any conſequence, though there are a number of trading places at each harbour. The villages are compoſed of thirty, or forty, and ſometimes fifty ſmall dwellings, placed at a diſtance from each other.

SECT. III.

Of GROENLAND, *or* GREENLAND.

Its Situation, Climate, Vegetables, Animals; particularly of the Whale, Fin fiſh, Sea-Unicorn, Sword fiſh, the Morſe, and Seal.

IT is not yet determined to which part of the earth Greenland properly belongs; yet as it extends as far to the eaſt as the laſt mentioned iſland, and is even ſuppoſed to join Spitzberg, which is ſeated in thirty degrees eaſt longitude, it can no where be more properly placed than here. Its full extent and dimenſions are entirely unknown. The moſt ſoutherly part lies in the fifty-ninth degree fifty minutes north latitude, from whence the coaſt ſtretches to the north weſt beyond the ſeventy-eighth degree of north latitude, while the eaſtern coaſt reaches, according to the Daniſh writers, to the eighty-ſecond. The weſt coaſt was firſt diſcovered in 1585 by Mr. John Davis, an Engliſhman, from whom the ſtreights that run between the continent of North America and Greenland are called by his name.

On the eaſtern and ſouthern coaſt vaſt flakes of ice, which may properly be called iſlands, are ſeen, and theſe are driven from Spitzberg towards the ſouth by a very ſtrong current.

The eaſt ſide of Greenland, which is oppoſite to Iceland, is at preſent inacceſſible, on account of the mountains of ice, which riſe to an aſtoniſhing height, with which the ſea is covered: this part is therefore unknown; but ſailing between theſe and Iceland, ſeveral adventurers have ſafely arrived there; and this courſe the Dutch, in particular, have actually ſteered.

The weſt ſide of Greenland towards Davis's Streights is, however, better known. On that ſide the coaſt is defended by rocks and ſeveral large and ſmall iſlands. It has alſo wide and deep bays, which run a great way into the land, ſome of which are the mouths of large rivers, and others form good roads and harbours. The main-land conſiſts of little more than confuſed heaps of rocks, the ſummits of which are always covered with ice and ſnow; as are alſo ſome of the valleys.

The climate as far as the Daniſh colonies have penetrated is not inſupportable; but the weather is very changeable and unſettled. During the ſummer ſeaſon, which laſts from the end of May to the middle of September, the ſun ſhines bright and very warm, and on the main-land, above which no cloud can be ſeen, the weather is very pleaſant and always clear: but a cold damp fog that intercepts the ſun-beams continually hovers over the iſlands, except in the month of Auguſt, which is the only time in the whole year when the vapours are diſſolved. The rains that fall here are neither frequent nor heavy. In this climate it ſeldom thunders, and ſtorms, which are very rare, are of no long continuance; but the moſt violent guſts of wind come from the ſouth. The winters, as far as the ſixty-fourth degree of latitude, are generally reckoned by the Danes and Norwegians pretty temperate, to which the calm and clear weather may greatly contribute. But when a north-eaſt wind blows, which comes from mountains covered with ice and ſnow, it is extremely ſevere; the air being thick and filled with clouds of icy particles, which cauſe a moſt piercing froſt. The ſnow falls in leſs quantities in that part of Greenland known to the Danes, than it does in Norway; for in the former, eſpecially near the rivers in the inland parts, the ſnow does not exceed half an ell in depth.

This account of the weather is true only of the ſouthern parts of this country ſubject to the Danes; for to the northward of the ſixty-eighth degree of latitude, the cold is in winter ſo exceſſive, that the moſt ſpirituous liquors, as French brandy, will freeze near the fire-ſide. As the weather is in this climate very calm, the ice in the bays between the iſlands is not diſturbed till the end of Auguſt; and even in the creeks it does not begin to thaw till the cloſe of May, when it is gradually waſhed away by the agitation of the waves. From June to Auguſt the ſun is continually above the horizon, and conſequently during that term they have no night; but in winter the ſun is inviſible to the Greenlanders, and their day is nothing more than the morning and evening twilight, which do not laſt above two hours.

In the valleys and plains the ſoil conſiſts of moor and turf-land, and in ſome few ſpots, particularly in the ſouth parts, in about ſixty-one degrees of latitude, grow fine graſs, with yellow flowers, the roots of which ſmell in the ſpring like roſes, angelica, ſcurvy-graſs, wild roſemary, and ſome good eſculent herbs. Indeed that part of the county which lies between the ſixtieth and ſixty-fourth degree of latitude has the beſt ſoil; ſo that in ſome places cabbages and turneps thrive very well, and the latter are remarkably ſweet. There is not a tree of any kind to be ſeen in the country, except on the ſides of a bay, ſixty Norway miles to the ſouth of Hope-colony, where a little coppice of birch trees grow; but their trunks

trunks are no thicker than a man's leg. Some ſhrubs are diſperſed here and there; as ſmall juniper, gooſeberry and bilberry buſhes, brambles, &c.

No trial has yet been made of what minerals are contained in the Greenland mountains. There are, however, rocks of aſbeſtos, from which conſiderable quantities have been hewn. Some mountains alſo conſiſt of an imperfect kind of variegated marble, of which the inhabitants make kettles and other utenſils.

On the main land are found ſome hares; but theſe, which are very ſmall, are grey in ſummer, and perfectly white in winter. Here is alſo a ſpecies of rein-deer; but they are very different from thoſe of Lapland. The foxes are white, brown, and grey; but are ſmall. White bears are ſometimes found here, and towards the north are very numerous; theſe differ from the bears of other countries, their heads being long like that of a wolf, which they much reſemble in form; but the Greenlanders are very daring and active in deſtroying them.

The only domeſtic animals found here are dogs that never bark, but ſnarl and howl: they are timorous and unfit for the chace; yet if not tamed when young, become wild and very miſchievous. The Greenlanders kill and eat theſe dogs, and alſo often uſe them to draw their ſledges, yoking four, ſix, and ſometimes eight or ten to a ſledge, loaden with five or ſix of the largeſt ſeals, with the maſter ſitting upon them, who drives as faſt with them as we can do with good horſes, for they often travel ſixty miles in a winter day upon the ice. Neither ſnakes nor any other venomous creatures can live in this climate; nor are they plagued with beetles, rats, mice, or the like.

The land-fowl in this country are the ryper, a ſort of large parrot, which is grey in ſummer and white in winter; but builds his neſt very high in the cliſts of the rocks; with eagles, falcons, large ſpeckled owls, ravens, different ſorts of ſparrows, and, in ſhort, all the kinds of land and ſea-fowl known in Norway are ſeen here in amazing numbers. Among the inſects the moſchettos, or gnats, ſwarm in this country, and are extremely troubleſome; but they have neither ants nor bees.

The freſh water in Greenland has been highly recommended for its ſalubrity and palatableneſs. The rivers afford plenty of trout, cray-fiſh, and ſalmon; and the ſea yields an inexhauſtible variety of all kinds of fiſh, except oyſters; but it abounds with excellent muſcles, and very large ſhrimps, or prawns. The ſmaller ſpecies of fiſh are dried here for winter ſtore, eſpecially the lodden, a ſort of ſmall herring. Here are alſo great plenty of cod, haddock, thornbacks, and the holybutt, by ſome called the turbot of the North, which is ſo big that it will fill a large caſk.

The Greenland ſea, and other parts of the Northern ocean that lie under the north pole, contain a very great number of the largeſt ſpecies of fiſhes, which there ſwim in vaſt ſhoals. In theſe regions the great Creator has dealt out their food with a liberal hand, and of all climates this is the beſt adapted to their hot conſtitutions and enormous bodies, which are, as it were, encloſed in fat. This ſpecies of fiſh differ from all other kinds in many particulars; for in their internal parts they reſemble land animals. They breathe with lungs, and conſequently cannot remain long under water. They alſo copulate like quadrupedes, bring forth their young alive, and ſuckle them with their milk. The fins of other fiſh conſiſt of bones, or cartilages, faſtened together by thin membranes running between them; but the whale has articular bones, like the fingers of a human hand, with their proper ligaments covered with a thick ſkin like that of the other parts of its body. By means of this mechaniſm the whale can move and turn about with greater eaſe than he could with fins of the common form, and ſecure himſelf from falling precipitately upon the rocks when he dives to the bottom of the ſea; for which end he lays his thick tail horizontally on the ſurface of the water, which is of great ſervice to him in this motion.

The whales are of ſeveral kinds, and may be divided into ſuch as have apertures in the head, and ſuch as have noſtrils for reſpiration. Some of the former have two holes or apertures; as the whale properly ſo called, the fin-fiſh, &c. others have only one, as the cachellotte, or ſpermaceti whale: but thoſe that reſpire through the noſtrils are ſeldom to be met with. This ſpecies may alſo be divided into thoſe that have plain, and thoſe that have prominent backs.

The Greenland whale with a flat back is thick and unwieldy, its head taking up one-third part of its bulk. Theſe are from ſixty to ſeventy feet in length, the fins on their ſides from five to eight feet, and the tail, which is in a horizontal poſition, or bent a little upwards on both ſides, is from three to four fathoms broad. When the whale is in danger, he turns upon his ſide and brandiſhes his tail, which it is dangerous to approach: the tail alſo ſerves him for an oar, with which he rows himſelf forward with ſurprizing ſwiftneſs. The ſkin of the back is black and ſmooth, but in ſome places variegated or marbled. Next to the ſkin, which is not thicker than ſtrong writing-paper, or thin parchment, is the rind, which is near an inch thick; and between this and the fleſh lies the fat, to the thickneſs of nine, and ſometimes twelve inches. Under the fat is the fleſh, which is dry and very red. In its upper jaw on both ſides are the ſpicula, or whale-bone, which ſerves him for teeth; and the largeſt of theſe, which are placed in the middle, are ſeven or eight feet in length, and ſometimes more. On each ſide are generally two hundred and fifty of theſe ſpicula; ſo that they amount in all to five hundred. The tongue is very fat, and ſo large that it fills ſeveral caſks. The eyes of the whale, which are no bigger than thoſe of an ox, are in the hind part of the head, where it is broadeſt, and are defended by eye-lids and eye-brows. This fiſh is very quick of hearing, though it has no external ears, and has only a black ſpot under the upper ſkin behind the eye, and under that ſpot a narrow duct, which ſeems to convey the ſound to the tympanum, or drum. They generally bring forth only one at a birth, though they have ſometimes two, and their milk is like that of a cow. Their uſual food is a ſmall, black, round inſect, of about the ſize of a horſe-bean, which abound in theſe ſeas, and of which the whale ſucks in prodigious ſwarms with his vaſt mouth, and afterwards grinds them with his ſpicula. The nord-caper, ſo called from the vaſt number of them ſeen about the North Cape in Norway, is much ſlenderer and ſmaller.

The fin-fiſh equals the whale in length, but not in thickneſs, and has a fin on his back, from whence he receives his name. He throws water higher than a whale of his ſize; has brown lips, which are twiſted like a rope; and his body in colour much reſembles a tench. He is extremely nimble, as well as ſtrong.

The narval, or ſea-unicorn, is chiefly remarkable for its long horn, which reſembles ivory, but is generally more ſolid and ponderous. This fiſh is ſmooth like an eel, its colour white, ſprinkled with black ſpots, and its eyes ſmall. It has two fleſhy fins, and a ſemi-circular hole on the top of its head, from whence it ſpouts water, like a whale. The horn, from which it receives its name, grows ſtraight forwards from the middle of its upper jaw, is curiouſly wreathed, and terminates in a point. With this it attacks the largeſt whale, and can ſtrike with ſuch violence as to pierce the ſide of a ſhip. The horn of this fiſh has a place in the cabinets of the curious, where it has been ſhewn for that of the unicorn.

The ſword-fiſh, ſo called from their ſharp pointed upper jaw, which reſembles a ſword, purſues the whale and fin-fiſh with great eagerneſs. They are of a ſlender form, of various ſizes, from three to twenty feet in length, and their eyes ſtand far out of their head. A few of them will diſpatch a large whale, and when they have killed him they feed chiefly on his tongue.

Among the amphibious animals are the morſe and the ſeal. The morſe is as large as an ox, with four feet, a thick round head, and a ſhort neck, in which lies his principal ſtrength. He has red eyes, ſmall ears, and large noſtrils, from whence he ſpouts water. His ſkin is very thick, and covered with hair, and from his upper jaw proceed two long teeth, as white as ſnow, and more eſteemed than ivory, as they keep their colour better.

This creature is very bold, making towards the boat as ſoon as attacked, and endeavouring to overſet it.

The ſeals are of the ſize of a large dog, and are moſtly black, but ſome grey, with very fine ſmooth hairy ſkins. The old ones make a noiſe like the howling of dogs, and the young ones like the bleating of lambs. Their head and body are ſhaped much like thoſe of a dog, whence they are by ſome called ſea-dogs. Theſe are the moſt ſerviceable of all animals to the Greenlanders, for their fleſh ſerves them for food, and the ſkin for clothing and for making their boats: of its entrails and membranes they alſo make ſails and windows; its ligaments ſerve them for thread and cords; and of the bones they make all kinds of domeſtic utenſils and implements of hunting.

SECT. IV.

Of the Perſons, Language, Dreſs, Houſes, Furniture, and Boats of the Greenlanders; their Method of catching Whales, Seals, and Salmon; their Manners, Cuſtoms, Religion and Trade.

THE Greenlanders of both ſexes are generally ſhort, but fat, plump, and well proportioned. Their faces are ſomething flat, their hair black and lank, and their complexion of a browniſh red. They are ſtrangers to the ſmall-pox, and are ſeldom afflicted with epidemical diſeaſes; but the ſcurvy is the reigning diſtemper, and on this occaſion their common remedy is ſcurvy-graſs and other ſimples. They have neither ſurgeon nor phyſician among them; but readily rely on certain impoſtors who pretend to foretel future events, and to be ſkilled in phyſic. They have ſome inſtances among them of longevity, and theſe perhaps would be more frequent did not their manner of life expoſe them to numberleſs dangers.

Their language has ſomething very ſingular in it, and is difficult to be learned, yet it is ſaid to have many elegant phraſes. Mr. Egede has publiſhed a dictionary of it, and for the inſtruction of the Greenlanders, the four Goſpels, with ſeveral ſmall tracts, have been tranſlated into the Greenland tongue, and printed at Copenhagen. The Greenland dialect is moſtly the ſame throughout the whole country known to the Danes, except ſome little difference in the pronunciation. The women have alſo a particular manner of pronouncing their words, which generally terminate in an *n*.

Their clothing is made of the ſkins of their deer, the dog-fiſh, and of certain birds, ſewed together with the ſmall guts of the dog-fiſh. There is very little difference between the dreſs of the two ſexes.

The men's dreſs conſiſts of a coat or jacket, with a cap or hood ſewed to it, that covers the head and ſhoulders. This coat reaches down to the knees. Their breeches are very ſmall, and ſit cloſe; they wear no linen, and the hair of the ſkins the coat is made of, is turned inward, to keep them warm. Over this coat they put a large frock made of ſeal-ſkins, dreſſed and tanned without the hair, in ſuch a manner as to keep out the water. Between the leathern frock and the under coat they wear a linen ſhirt, or for want of linen, one made of ſeals guts, which alſo helps to keep out the water from the under coat. Thoſe ſeated near the ports frequented by the Danes and Dutch, have ſhirts of ſtriped linen, with coats and breeches made of red and blue ſtuffs, which they buy of the Daniſh or Dutch merchants, but after their own faſhion, and theſe they wear upon extraordinary occaſions. They formerly wore ſtockings made of rein-deer or ſeal-ſkins; but now they have worſted ſtockings of different colours, as white, blue, and red, which they buy of the Danes: their ſhoes and boots are made of ſeal-ſkins well dreſſed or tanned.

The women's coats are higher on the ſhoulders, and wider than the men's, with higher and larger hoods. The married women who have children have much larger coats than the reſt, on account of their carrying their children in them upon their backs, for theſe are their only ſwaddling cloaths and cradle. They wear drawers, which reach to the middle of their thigh, and over them breeches. The drawers they keep on day and night; but the breeches, which come down to the knee, they only wear when they go abroad in winter, and as ſoon as they come home pull them off. Next to their body they wear a waiſtcoat made of a young fawn's ſkin, with the hairy ſide inward. The coat, or upper garment, is ſometimes made of fine coloured ſwan-ſkins trimmed and edged with white, neatly wrought in the ſeams and about the edges, which look very well. Their ſhoes and boots, with little difference, are like thoſe of the men.

Their hair, which is very long and thick, is braided, and tied up in a knot, which becomes them; they commonly go bare-headed, both without and within doors; and in theſe ſouthern parts ſeldom wear their hoods except it rains or ſnows. Their chief finery conſiſts in wearing glaſs beads of ſeveral colours, corals about their neck and arms, and pendants in their ears; ſome of them alſo wear bracelets of black ſkin ſet with pearls, with which they adorn their cloaths and even their ſhoes. The Greenland women have likewiſe another more extraordinary kind of embelliſhment: they make black ſtreaks between their eyes, on their forehead, upon the chin, arms and hands, by paſſing under the ſkin a needle and thread made black. Hideous as this renders them in the eyes of ſtrangers, they think it extremely ornamental, and ſay, that thoſe who do not thus adorn their faces, will have their heads turned into train oil tubs, that ſhall be placed under the lamps that burn in the land of ſouls.

They have two ſorts of habitations, one of which ſerves for the winter, and the other for the ſummer ſeaſon. The winter dwellings are the largeſt. Theſe are dug deep in the earth, and raiſed a little above the ſurface of the ground with ſtone and turf. In this hut the windows are on one ſide made of ſeals-guts dreſſed and ſewed together, or the maws of holy-butts, which are white and tranſparent. On the other ſide the beds are placed, which conſiſt of benches made with boards, raiſed half a yard from the ground. Their bedding conſiſts of the ſkins of ſeals and rein-deer. On the hearth is a great lamp in the form of a half moon, and over it are hung their kettles formed of a kind of marble, or, where they have the advantages of trade, of braſs or copper, in which they boil their proviſions. The entrance is dug narrow and winding under ground, and the door ſo very low, that they muſt creep on their hands and feet to get in, which is ſo contrived in order to keep out the cold. The inſide is lined with ſeal-ſkins. Some of theſe houſes are ſo large as to afford lodging for ſeven or eight families. Upon the benches where their beds are placed, is the ſeat of the women, who employ their time in ſewing and making up cloaths, while the men belonging to the family, or ſtrangers, ſit on the oppoſite ſide under the windows, upon benches placed there for that purpoſe. It is obſervable, that though in one of theſe houſes there are ten or twenty lamps of train oil kept conſtantly burning, their ſmoke is not perceived to fill the room; which is probably owing to the care they take to prevent it. Dry moſs rubbed very ſmall is laid on one ſide of the lamp, which being lighted, burns ſoftly, and if not laid on too thick does not cauſe any ſmoke. This fire gives ſuch a heat that it not only ſerves to boil their victuals, but alſo heats their rooms to that degree, that they are as hot as a bagnio; however, to thoſe who are not uſed to this method, the ſmell of the houſe is very diſagreeable, as well from the number of burning lamps, all ſupplied with train oil, as from various ſorts of raw meat, fiſh, and fat, heaped up in theſe habitations; but eſpecially their urine tubs ſmell inſufferably.

They betake themſelves to theſe winter retreats in October, and continue in them till the beginning of May. All the warm part of the year they lodge in tents, which are their ſummer habitations. Theſe are made of poles ſet in a circular form, bending to a point at the top, in the form of a ſugar-loaf, fenced by a double cover, the innermoſt of which is of the ſkins of ſeals or rein-deer, with the hairy ſide inward; and the outermoſt of the ſame ſkins, but without hair, and dreſſed with fat, that they may not be penetrated by the rain. In theſe tents they have their beds, lamps to dreſs meat, and a curtain made

made of the guts of ſeals ſewed together, through which they receive the day-light, inſtead of windows. Every maſter of a family has one of theſe tents.

They uſually eat when they are hungry, but their chief meal is at night: their common food is the fleſh of rein-deer and hares; all kinds of land and water fowl; ſeals; ſeveral ſorts of freſh water and ſea-fiſh; and even ſome parts of the whale. Their manner of dreſſing and eating of their victuals is indeed extremely diſguſtful. They are ſaid to prefer the blood of the ſeal to any other drink; but they uſually quench their thirſt with water, yet can drink a great deal of brandy, without being intoxicated.

In their marriages the chief qualifications required in the bride are ſkill in domeſtic affairs, and eſpecially in cutting out and ſewing their garments. On the other hand, nothing recommends a ſuitor more than boldneſs, activity, and ſucceſs, in fiſhing and hunting. But at the marriage feſtivities the bride puts on a ſhew of gravity, and a melancholy air. Here relations never intermarry, even to the third or fourth degree of conſanguinity. They have a reſpectful idea of marriage, and in general every Greenlander has but one wife. They are fond of their children, even to a culpable exceſs; and, inſtead of moderate correction, or checking them for their faults, let them do whatever they pleaſe.

The men are chiefly employed in hunting and fiſhing, for which they have very curious tackle. The boats in which the men row out to ſea are about ſix yards long, and only three quarters of an ell broad in the middle, ending in a very ſharp point at both extremities. They are made of very thin narrow boards faſtened together with whale-bone, and covered with ſeals-ſkins. Only one man goes out in theſe boats, the top of which is covered with ſkin, with only an opening in the middle, which, when the man has entered, is faſtened cloſe round his waiſt; ſo that no water can enter the boat; and thus equipped he will row ſixty or ſeventy miles a day, though he has but one oar, which is ſix or ſeven feet long, and flat at both ends. Theſe boats are eaſily overſet, which they look upon as no great damage if the owner eſcapes with his life. The larger ſorts of boats are uſed chiefly by women. They have alſo a kind of open barges, which are likewiſe pointed at both ends; but are not very deep: theſe are covered with ſeal-ſkins, and are high at the extremities. They make uſe of them in conveying their effects in their emigrations, or when they embark for the whale-fiſhery, and in coaſting from one part to another.

The Greenlanders are more frequently employed at ſea than on ſhore. When they go to catch whales they put on their beſt apparel, fancying that if they were not neatly dreſſed, the whale would ſhun them. Upon theſe occaſions about fifty perſons, men and women, ſet out together in one of the large boats. When they have found the whale they ſtrike him with their harpoons, to which are faſtened lines or ſtraps two or three fathoms long, made of ſeal-ſkins; at the end of which they tye a bag of a whole ſeal-ſkin filled with air like a bladder, that the whale, when he finds himſelf wounded and flies away with the harpoon ſticking in his body, may be the ſooner tired and eaſily found, the air-bag hindering him from keeping long under water. When he loſes ſtrength they attack him with ſpears and lances till he is killed, and then put on their coats made of dreſſed ſeal-ſkin, with boots, gloves, and caps, laced ſo tight together that no water can penetrate them. In this garb they leap into the ſea, and begin to ſlice off the fat all round the body, and are ſometimes ſo daring as to get upon the whale's back, while he is yet alive, in order to make the quicker diſpatch in killing him, and cutting away the fat.

They uſe much the ſame method in killing the ſeals, only the harpoon is leſs, to which is faſtened a line of ſeal-ſkin, ſix or ſeven fathoms long, and at the end of it a bag of ſeal-ſkin filled with air, to keep the ſeal when wounded from eſcaping by diving: but in the northern parts, where the ſea is frozen, they uſe other methods in catching of ſeals. They firſt look out for the holes, which the ſeals themſelves make with their claws, of about the bigneſs of a halfpenny, that they may fetch their breath. On their finding one of theſe holes, they ſeat themſelves near it; and as ſoon as they perceive the ſeal put his ſnout to it for air, immediately ſtrike him with a ſmall harpoon, which they have ready in their hand; to which is faſtened a ſtrap of a fathom long, which they hold in the other hand. After he is ſtruck and cannot eſcape, they cut the hole large enough to get him up through it; and as ſoon as they have got his head above the ice, kill him, and then lift him out.

They have alſo another way of catching ſeals: they make a great hole in the ice; or, in ſpring, find holes made by the ſeals themſelves, through which they get upon the ice, in order to lie and baſk themſelves in the ſun. Near theſe holes they place a low bench, upon which they lie down on their belly, having firſt made a ſmall hole near the large one, through which they ſoftly let down a pole headed with a harpoon, a ſtrap being faſtened to it, which one holds in his hand, while another, lying upon the bench with his face downwards, watches the coming of the ſeal; which when he perceives, he cries Ke, upon which he who holds the pole ſtrikes the ſeal.

They have another method in the ſpring when the ſeals lie upon the ice, near holes which themſelves make to get up and down; the Greenlanders, diſguiſed in ſeal-ſkins, with a long pole in their hands, move their heads forwards and backwards, and ſnort like a ſeal, till they come ſo near him, that they reach him with a pole and ſtrike him.

As their fiſhing is the principal concern of theſe people, we are from thence enabled to judge of their characters and capacities. This is of the utmoſt importance to them, ſince on their ability in hunting and fiſhing depends their whole ſubſiſtence. In fiſhing they make uſe of hooks of iron or bones, their lines are made of whale-bone cut very ſmall and thin, and with this tackle they catch abundance of fiſh. Their way of fiſhing for ſmall ſalmon, or ſea-trout, is as follows: at low water they build ſmall encloſures of ſtone, near a river's mouth, or any other place where the ſalmon comes: when the tide comes in, the ſalmon, which enter the river, paſſes at high water over the encloſure, and remains in the river till the water falls again, when they endeavour to return to the ſea; but the fiſhermen waylay them at the encloſure, and ſtop their paſſage till the time of low ebb, when the ſalmon are left on dry land, and may be caught with the hand: if they are left in holes, they take them with a pole headed with two ſharp hooked bones, or iron hooks.

The Greenlanders are ſtrangers to trades, arts, and ſciences. They have no traffic one among another, and their commerce with foreigners is very inconſiderable. They neither uſe nor have any knowledge of money; but fix a certain value on iron.

When the Greenlanders meet together they expreſs their mirth by drumming, ſinging, and dancing. They are accuſtomed from their very childhood to an unbounded liberty, all of them being on a level. They have indeed little regard to the forms of ceremony and decorum which in other places obtain the name of politeneſs; yet are free, open, and chearful in converſation, nothing pleaſing them better than merry jeſts and raillery. They live very ſociably, and repoſe great confidence in each other. Amorous intrigues of an unlawful kind are ſeldom or never heard of among them; and as they abſtain from theft, rapine, and violence, among themſelves, they are never known upon any pretence to make war on their neighbours. They think themſelves greatly ſuperior to the Danes, and make no ſcruple to pilfer any thing from them, when it can be done with ſafety; but it is probable they have little idea of property; and as they behave with ſuch integrity to each other, it is natural to ſuppoſe that they have learned this pilfering of the Dutch and Daniſh ſeamen. They exerciſe great hoſpitality, and indeed have moſt things in common; ſo that if there be any among them who cannot work, or get his livelihood, they do not let him ſtarve, but admit him freely to their table. They are remarkable for their good-nature and inoffenſive behaviour: hatred and envy, ſtrife and rage, are rarely heard of among them. They have as great an abhorrence

rence of ſtealing from each other, as any nation upon earth, and therefore keep nothing under lock and key; but leave all ſo free that every body may come at it without any fear of loſing it.

They are, however, charged with having no idea of a God, and ſome authors have ſaid that their language has not any expreſſion to denote a Supreme Being; though they themſelves acknowledge, that they are convinced of the immortality of the ſoul, and believe that as ſoon as a perſon dies he goes to the land of ſpirits, and there enjoys the felicity of hunting from age to age; while the body remains behind and moulders in the duſt.

They maintain that there is a ſpirit which they call Torngarſuk, to whom they aſcribe a ſupernatural power, though not the creation of the world. The Angakuts, or prophets, form very whimſical ideas of this being, ſome repreſenting him as without form or ſhape, others giving him that of a bear, and others pretending that he has a large body and but one arm. They aſſign him his abode in the lower regions of the earth, where they tell you is conſtantly fine ſun-ſhine weather, good water, deer, and fowls in abundance. They likewiſe maintain that a ſpirit reſides in the air, whom they name the Moderator, or Reſtrainer; for theſe Angakuts pretend, by his order, to command the people to abſtain from certain things, as preſervatives from evil and danger. They alſo believe that there are ſpirits who govern the elements.

Their notions of the heavenly bodies are alſo very whimſical; they ſay the moon was once a young man, and the ſun a young woman his ſiſter, with whom he was familiar in the dark; but that ſhe being deſirous to find out her lover, rubbed her hands with ſoot, with which ſhe marked his white bear-ſkin coat, and hence they ſay came the ſpots in the moon. The ſun flying from his embraces, aſcended the air, whither the moon followed her, and ſtill continues to purſue, without being able to overtake her; but this is probably only a fiction of their poets, like thoſe of Ovid in his Metamorphoſes, who alſo repreſents the loves of Diana and Endymion.

They do not compute or meaſure their time by weeks or years, but only by months, beginning their computation from the ſun's firſt riſing above their horizon in the winter, from whence they tell the moons, in order to know exactly the ſeaſon in which every ſort of fiſh, ſea-animals, or birds, ſeek the land, that by this knowledge they may regulate their different employments. According to their aſtronomical ſyſtem, the heavens turn around the point of a huge rock.

What ſeems moſt extraordinary in theſe people, thus ſeated in frozen regions, which might be ſuppoſed to damp the genius and extinguiſh the fire of imagination, is their talent for poetry, in which they take extreme delight. The poems they compoſe are a kind of lyric odes, the harmony of which depends both upon rhyme and quantity, there being a viſible regularity in the number of ſyllables of which their verſes are compoſed, and a plain regard to cadence even in their manner of reading them. They uſe this ſort of poetry, which, all things conſidered, is as far from being rude, as it is from being exact, to expreſs all their paſſions, ſuch as love, joy, grief, but more eſpecially anger; for when two people quarrel in this country, it is ſaid they challenge each other, not to fight, for that they never do but in jeſt, or by way of diverſion, but to contend in verſe; and he who firſt wants words to expreſs himſelf in this poetical duel, is held to be conquered, and ſo the controverſy ends without either blood or law-ſuit.

Mr. Egede, who was ſent to Greenland by the Daniſh Society for propagating the Goſpel, lived among this people fifteen years, which he ſpent with the moſt indefatigable zeal and laborious application, by which means he made a great number of converts. He returned to Copenhagen in 1736, and by his ſolicitation a ſeminary was founded in that city for educating able miſſionaries and catechiſts to be ſent to Greenland. The Miſſion-college alſo ſends young lads to Greenland to learn the language, and to be inſtructed by the miſſionaries there, in order to qualify them for that ſtation.

The Greenland trade is at preſent carried on by the Copenhagen company, who ſend thither three or four ſhips every year, and the Dutch are prohibited from coming within ſeveral miles of their colonies. The commodities Greenland affords for commerce are whale-blubber, whale-bone, ſea-unicorns horns, the ſkins of rein-deer, bears, ſeals, and fox-ſkins, which they barter for the following merchandizes; ſhirts made of white, blue, red, and ſtriped linen, coarſe woollen cloth; knives, ſaws, needles, large fiſhing-hooks, and other hard-ware; looking-glaſſes, rafts, poles, deal boards, cheſts, kettles of copper, braſs, and tin, with other articles.

A NEW

A ACCURATE MAP of NORTH AMERICA Drawn from the New Discoveries, with Improvements.

PACIFIC OCEAN

THE PACIFIC OCEAN

Equinoctial Line

Tropic of Cancer

PARTS UNKNOWN

ATLANTIC OCEAN

NORTH SEA

Arctic Circle

NORTHERN MAIN

CANADA

NEW ALBION

NEW MEXICO

NEW NAVARRE

Mexico

Mexico Gulph of

Hudsons Bay

Baffins Bay

Davis's Straits

Bermudas or Summer Islands

Weltem Ilands

Azores or Terceira

Canibas

Florida

Virginia

Carolina

New Britain

Labrador

Quivira

Anian

Jesso

Tartary

Kamtschatka

Japan

California

Terra de Fuego

Magellans Streights

Streights of Anian

Streights of Jesso

Streights of Juan de Fuca

Streights of Le Maire

Streights of Sunda

Streights of Malacca

Streights of Gibraltar

Streights of Dover

Streights of Forbisher

Streights of Hudson

Streights of Davis

Streights of Baffin

Streights of Weltem

Streights of Magellan

A NEW SYSTEM OF GEOGRAPHY.

BOOK IV.

Of AMERICA in general.

WE are now entering upon a country of amazing extent, unknown to the ancients: a country diſcovered ſo lately as the year 1491, by the judgment, the vigilance, the perſeverance, and maritime ſkill of the great Columbus, a Genoeſe; who, by this diſcovery, extended geographical knowledge, perfected navigation, opened new ſources of commerce, and gave a new face even to the affairs of Europe.

America, the fourth grand diviſion of the earth, received its name from Americus Veſpucius, a Florentine, who was far from deſerving that honour, to which he had no other claim than a few inconſiderable diſcoveries, after Columbus had led the way, and his drawing a map of the country; and therefore if it was proper for it to receive the name of any European, it might with more juſtice have been called Columbia, from the great man who made it known to the Europeans.

This New World, as it is emphatically called, extends from the frozen regions of the North, where its limits are ſecured from the obſervation of the curious by the ſhortneſs of the ſummers and barriers of ice, through an extent of country in which ſucceſſively paſs all the climates to be found in the other regions of the earth; till you come on the ſouth to the ſnowy rocks of Terra del Fuego. Thus the continent of America extends from about the eightieth degree north to the fifty-ſixth degree ſouth latitude, and, where its breadth is known, from the thirty-fifth to the hundred and twenty-fifth degree of weſt longitude from London, without including the iſlands; ſtretching between eight and nine thouſand miles in length: but in its greateſt breadth, where certainly known, three thouſand ſix hundred and ninety; though in the middle it is not above ſixty or ſeventy miles over.

It is bounded on the north by the ſeas about the north pole; on the eaſt by Davis's Streights, which ſeparates it from Greenland, and by the great Atlantic ocean, which divides it from Europe and Africa; on the ſouth by the vaſt Southern ocean; and on the weſt by the Pacific ocean, which divides it from New Guinea, probably another very extenſive continent, and from China, Japan, and the eaſt part of Siberia.

It is very remarkable that the climates of North America are many degrees colder than any of the countries in the ſame latitude in Europe: thus New Britain, which is nearly in the ſame latitude with Great Britain, is inſufferably cold to an European: the greateſt part of the frozen country of Newfoundland, the bay of St. Laurence, and Cape Breton, lie oppoſite the coaſt of France: Nova Scotia and New England are in the ſame latitude as the Bay of Biſcay: New York and Penſylvania lie oppoſite to Spain and Portugal. Hence the coldeſt winds of North America blow from the north and the weſt, as they do here from the north and the eaſt.

This vaſt continent is divided almoſt in two by an iſthmus about fifteen hundred miles in length, and in one place ſo narrow as to be, as hath been already intimated, only about ſixty miles over; but being mountainous, it would be impoſſible perhaps to open a communication there with the Pacific ocean, which lies on the other ſide of it. All the continent to the north of this iſthmus, together with the iſthmus itſelf, is ſtiled North America; and all to the ſouth of it, including that even on this ſide the equator, is ſtiled South America.

North America is far from being mountainous, and chiefly conſiſts of gentle aſcents and level plains; the principal hills in this extenſive tract are called the Apallachian or Aligany mountains, which extend on the back of our ſouthern colonies. But in South America is the immenſely long and lofty chain called the Cordillera of the Andes, which in height and length exceed any chain of mountains in the other three parts of the earth; for beginning near the iſthmus of Darien, they extend to the ſtreights of Magellan, cutting the whole ſouthern part of America into two, and running a length of four thouſand three hundred miles.

America is alſo extremely well watered by rivers, not only for the ſupport of animal life, and all the advantages of fertility, but for the convenience of trade, and the intercourſe of the diſtant inhabitants by water. In North America the great river Miſſiſſippi, riſing from unknown ſources, runs above two thouſand miles chiefly from north to ſouth, receiving in its courſe the Ohio, the Ouabache, and other large rivers, ſcarcely inferior to the Rhine or the Danube, navigable almoſt to their ſources, and laying open the inmoſt receſſes of this continent. Near the heads of theſe are extenſive lakes of freſh water, which have a communication with each other, and with the great river St. Laurence, which is navigable for ſhips above four hundred miles from its mouth, where it is ſaid to be ninety miles broad. On the eaſtern ſide of North America are the fine rivers Hudſon, Delaware, Potowmack, Suſquehanna, and ſeveral others of great length and depth.

But in South America are the two largeſt rivers in the known world, the river of Amazons, and the Rio de la Plata: the firſt riſes in Peru, and, after a courſe of above

three thouſand ſix hundred miles, in which it receives a prodigious number of navigable rivers, falls into the ocean between Braſil and Guiana. The Rio de la Plata, or Plate-river, riſes in the heart of the country, and becomes ſo large by the acceſſion of other conſiderable rivers, that it pours ſuch an immenſe flood into the ſea, that it makes it taſte freſh for ſeveral leagues from the ſhore. Beſides theſe there is the Oronoko, and ſeveral other very conſiderable rivers.

A country of ſuch vaſt extent on each ſide the equator, muſt neceſſarily have a variety of ſoils as well as climates; but if we except the moſt northern and ſouthern parts, which here, as every where elſe, are naturally cold and barren; the reſt is an immenſe treaſury of nature, producing moſt of the metals, minerals, plants, fruits, trees, and woods, to be met with in the other parts of the world, and many of them in greater quantities and higher perfection. The gold and ſilver of America has ſupplied Europe with ſuch immenſe quantities of thoſe valuable metals, that they are become vaſtly more common; ſo that the gold and ſilver of Europe now bears little proportion to the high price ſet upon them before the diſcovery of America.

This country alſo produces an immenſe quantity of diamonds, pearls, emeralds, amethyſts, and other valuable ſtones, which are brought from thence into Europe, in ſuch quantities, as have alſo greatly lowered their value. To theſe may be added a great number of other commodities, which, though of leſs price, are of much greater uſe. Of this ſort are the conſtant and plentiful ſupplies of cochineal, indigo, anatto, logwood, braſil, fuſtick, pimento, lignum-vitæ, rice, ginger, cacao, or the chocolate-nut, ſugar, tobacco, banillas, cotton, red-wood, the balſams of Tolu, Peru, and China, Jeſuits-bark, mechoacan, ſaſſafras, ſarſaparilla, caſſia, tamarinds, hides, furs, ambergris, and a great variety of woods, roots, and plants, to which, before the diſcovery of America, we were either entire ſtrangers, or forced to buy at an extravagant rate from Aſia and Africa.

America has alſo a variety of moſt excellent fruits, which here grow wild to great perfection; as pine-apples, pomegranates, citrons, lemons, oranges, malicatons, cherries, pears, apples, figs, grapes, vaſt numbers of culinary, medicinal, and other herbs, roots, and plants. Add to this the ſurprizing fertility with which the ſoil is bleſſed, by which many exotic productions are nouriſhed in as great perfection as in their native ground.

With all this plenty and variety, the vaſt continent of America formerly laboured under the want of many neceſſary and uſeful commodities: for upon the firſt landing of the Europeans, they found neither corn, wine, nor oil; the inhabitants in many places knew not the uſe of corn, but made their bread of pulſe or roots: their drink was the water of the clear ſpring; and, with regard to money, they were ignorant of the uſe of it. Our kind of ſheep, goats, cows, aſſes, and horſes, were not to be found there, though the land abounded with paſtures; and at firſt the ſight of a man on horſeback would throw a whole troop of theſe innocent and ſimple inhabitants into a dreadful panic. But all theſe animals have been brought hither in ſuch plenty, and have increaſed ſo faſt in thoſe fertile paſtures, that the country has no want of them, as appears from the innumerable hides, particularly of oxen, continually exported from thence. However, in the room of theſe domeſtic animals they had others no leſs valuable, and to which we in Europe were utter ſtrangers; theſe we ſhall deſcribe in the countries where they are bred.

The ſame may be ſaid of the vaſt variety of birds to be ſeen there, ſome of which greatly ſurpaſs all that are to be found in any other parts of the world, for their ſurprizing beauty, fine ſhape, bright and glowing colours. The ſeas, lakes, and rivers, are no leſs fraught with the greateſt plenty and variety of fiſh.

Before the arrival of the Europeans they had arts of their own; they had ſome notion of painting, and alſo formed pictures by the beautiful arrangement of feathers of all colours, and in ſome parts built palaces and temples. Though the uſe of iron was unknown, they poliſhed precious ſtones, cut down trees, and made not only ſmall canoes, but boats of conſiderable extent. Their hatchets were headed with a ſharp flint, and of flints they made knives. Thus, at the arrival of the Europeans, they afforded a lively picture of the primitive ſtate of mankind in the infancy of the world. At that period the arts, the ſciences, and all the learning that had long flouriſhed in theſe more enlightened parts of the earth, were entirely unknown. Theſe, which had before travelled weſt from Egypt to Greece, and from thence to Rome, have proceeded in the ſame courſe, and are daily gaining ground where ignorance reigned triumphant; and the time may arrive when America may become the ſeat of mighty empires, and be diſtinguiſhed by cities extenſive as Babylon, and beautiful as Athens and Palmyra.

North America is divided

I. Into the dominions of Great Britain: containing Labrador, or New Britain, with the countries about Hudſon's-bay, Canada, Nova Scotia, New England, New York, the Jerſies, Penſylvania, Maryland, Virginia, Carolina, Georgia, Eaſt and Weſt Florida.

With many rich and fertile iſlands, the principal of which are Newfoundland, Cape Breton, Providence, Jamaica, St. Chriſtophers, Antego, Nevis, Dominica, Barbuda, Anguilla, Montſerrat, Tobago, St. Vincent, Barbadoes, the Granades, and Granada. To which may be added the Bermudas, or Summer Iſlands.

II. The dominions of Spain: containing Louiſiana, Old Mexico, New Mexico, and California, in North America. With the extenſive countries of Terra Firma, Peru, and La Plata, or Paraguay, in South America.

With the valuable iſlands of Cuba, half of Hiſpaniola, or St. Domingo, Porto Rico, Trinidad, and Margaretta, in North America. Chiloe, the Kings or Pearl Iſlands, Juan Fernandes, and the Gallipagos Iſlands, in the Pacific ocean.

III. The dominions of France, by the late peace confined to the farther ſide of the river Miſſiſſippi, are now ſaid to be exchanged with Spain.

The French have, however, the following iſlands: St. Martin's, St. Bartholomew's, Deſeada, Guadalupe, Marigalante, Martinico, St. Croix, and part of Hiſpaniola.

IV. The dominions of Portugal conſiſt of the rich and extenſive country of Braſil, in South America.

V. The dominions of the Dutch conſiſt of Surinam, on the continent of South America; with the iſlands of Curaſſao, Bonaire, and Aruba, near the coaſt of Terra Firma; with Euſtatia and Saba, two of the Caribbee Iſlands.

VI. Thoſe of the Danes conſiſt only of one of the Caribbee Iſlands, named St. Thomas.

VII. The parts ſtill poſſeſſed by the native Indians, which are the countries north-weſt of Mexico; the greateſt part of Guiana, and all the moſt ſouthern part of the continent, as Patagonia, and the iſland Terra del Fuego.

We ſhall begin with the dominions of Great Britain, which are bounded on the north by the ocean and lands near the north pole, on the eaſt by the Atlantic ocean, on the ſouth by the Gulph of Mexico, and on the weſt by unknown lands inhabited by the native Indians.

CHAP.

CHAP. I.

Of the Northern Part of the BRITISH AMERICAN Dominions, particularly of the Countries bordering on HUDSON'S-BAY; with the Iſlands of NEWFOUNDLAND, CAPE BRETON, and St. JOHN.

SECT. I.

Of the Countries bordering on Hudſon's-bay; a particular Account of the Climate, Soil, Vegetables, and Minerals; with a Deſcription of the Beaver.

THE moſt northern part of America ſubject to the Engliſh, particularly the countries bordering on Hudſon's-bay, which are ſituated between the fiftieth and ſeventieth degree of north latitude, and extend between the fifty-firſt and one hundredth degree of weſt longitude, including Hudſon's-bay; are bounded on the north by unknown lands and ſeas about the pole, on the eaſt by the Atlantic ocean, on the ſouth by the Gulph of St. Lawrence and Canada, and on the weſt by unknown lands. Were we to extend the country claimed by Great Britain as far as our mariners have diſcovered to the north, we might ſtretch it to eighty-one degrees thirty minutes north latitude; for ſo far captain Hudſon and captain Baffin have ſailed, and gave their names to the bays ſo called; but we are not ſolicitous to extend the bounds of the countries ſubject to Britain to regions where no Briton has ever ſettled, and which we have neither purchaſed nor conquered.

The knowledge we have obtained of theſe countries is owing to the repeated attempts that have been made to diſcover a north-weſt paſſage to the Eaſt Indies. But though theſe countries, which extend ſixteen hundred miles in length, are claimed by Great Britain, and diſtinguiſhed by Engliſh names, as the eaſt coaſt by that of New Britain, and the weſt by that of New North Wales and New South Wales; yet very little advantage has been made of them, except by the Hudſon's-bay company, who have ſeveral ſettlements on the coaſt of Hudſon's-bay, and therefore an accurate and diſtinct account of them cannot be expected. With reſpect to the climate we ſhall give ſome account of it from Mr. Ellis, who ſailed thither in 1746, and wintered in the country on the weſt ſide of the Bay.

This gentleman wintered in a creek about five miles above York Fort, in the fifty-ſeventh degree thirty minutes latitude, a ſituation ſo far to the ſouth, that the weather might be ſuppoſed to be tolerable; but fearing that they might be froze to death in their ſhips, they built a houſe of thick pieces of timber, with the ſpaces between ſtuffed with moſs, and plaſtered over with clay: the door was low and ſmall, the fire-place was in the middle, and over it a chimney to let out the ſmoke. It was placed on an eminence ſurrounded with trees; about a hundred and fifty yards from the front was a handſome baſon of water, called the Beaver-creek; and they were protected from the north and north-eaſt winds by thick and tall woods. On the ſecond of November the cold was ſo intenſe, that all the bottled beer was froze ſolid, though packed up in tow near a good fire; and on the ſixth the cold became inſupportable abroad. About this time they put on their winter-dreſs, which conſiſted of a robe of beaver-ſkins that reached to their heels, two waiſtcoats under it, a cap and mittins of the ſame lined with flannel, a pair of Indian ſtockings over their yarn ones, with ſhoes of ſoft tanned mooſe or elk-ſkin, under which they wore two or three pair of blanket or thick duffil ſocks; and a pair of ſnow-ſhoes about five feet long and eighteen inches wide, to prevent their ſinking in the ſnow, compleated their dreſs. This, with ſome alterations, is the garb of the Indians, who have taught it the Engliſh. They uſually put at leaſt an horſe-load of wood at a time into their ſtove, which was built of bricks ſix feet long, two wide, and three high. When the wood was near burnt they beat off the embers, threw out the brands, and then ſtopped up the top of the chimney. This cauſed a ſulphureous ſuffocating ſmell, and ſo great a heat, that, notwithſtanding the ſeverity of the weather, they often ſweat; yet if a door or window was but opened, the cold air ruſhed in with great fury, turning the incloſed vapours into ſmall ſnow; nor could all the heat they could raiſe keep the windows, the ſides, and cieling, free from ice: thoſe whoſe bed-cloaths touched the wall were generally froze faſt to it in the morning, and their breath ſettled in a white hoar froſt upon the blankets. This happened ſoon after the fire went out. As the houſe cooled, the ſap that had been thawed in the timbers with the heat froze, ſplitting the wood in cracks, with a noiſe reſembling the report of a muſket.

No liquid can here withſtand the cold; brandy, and even ſpirits of wine, froze; but the latter only to a conſiſtence like oil. All liquors under the proof of common ſpirits became perfectly ſolid, and burſt the veſſels that contained them, whether they were of wood, tin, or even copper. The ice in the river was above eight feet thick, and they could keep their proviſions ſweet as long as they pleaſed, without the aſſiſtance of ſalt; for their game froze the inſtant it was killed. The hairs, rabbits, and partridges, which in ſummer are brown and grey, change in winter to white. Every animal is here furniſhed by nature with extraordinary furs, to reſiſt the cold, which fall off as the warm weather returns; and even this is the caſe with the dogs and cats brought hither from Europe. If the men touched iron, or any other ſolid ſurface, their fingers were froze faſt to it; or if in drinking a dram of brandy out of a glaſs, they touched it with their tongue or lips, in pulling it away the ſkin was left upon it. They buried their beer twelve feet deep in the ground, on a bed of willow and graſs, both under and over it; and then covered it twelve feet deep with a ſoapy earth; yet ſome of the caſks of ſmall beer next to the ſides were frozen, and the ſtrong iron-bound caſks burſt, though the ſpirituous part remained fluid in the heart of the ice, and was ſtrong; but the ice, on being melted, taſted quite vapid; other caſks were not burſt.

From this account of the ſeverity of the winter one would imagine, that it muſt be extremely uncomfortable, and its inhabitants very unhappy; but this is far from being the caſe, for though the weather is cold, they have abundance of furs to ſhelter them from its violence, and many other conveniences that in ſome meaſure put them on a level with thoſe who live in a milder climate; and however extraordinary it may appear, there are Engliſhmen who have lived in the company's ſettlements for ſome years, who prefer that country to any other.

There are here frequently ſeen parhelia or mock ſuns, and halos about the ſun and moon, which are very luminous, and beautifully tinged with all the colours of the rainbow. Our author obſerves, that he has ſeen ſix of theſe parhelia at a time. The true ſun alſo riſes and ſets with a large cone of yellow light perpendicular to it; and no ſooner does it diſappear than the aurora borealis ſpreads a thouſand different lights and colours over the whole concave of the ſky, with ſuch reſplendent beauty, that even the full moon does not efface their luſtre, though they are more apparent when ſhe does not ſhine; for then one may diſtinctly read by them, and the ſhadows of objects are ſeen upon the ſnow tending to the ſouth-eaſt. The ſtars ſeem to burn with a fiery red, eſpecially thoſe near the horizon.

In the ſouthern parts of this country the ſoil is fertile, the ſurface being a looſe dark mould, under which are

layers of different coloured clay. Near the ſhore the land is low and marſhy, covered with trees of various ſorts: and within land are large plains, with little herbage except moſs, interſperſed with tufts of trees, and ſome lakes. In the country are a great variety of ſhrubs and plants, with many of thoſe known in Europe, as the gooſeberry, currant, and cranberry, ſtrawberries, angelica, wild auriculas, ſavine, many of the Lapland plants, and others that are unknown to us. There are great quantities of wild rice by the ſides of the lakes and rivers; there is alſo long graſs and good meadow ground, and at the factories are tolerable gardens, eſpecially at York Fort, Albany, and Mooſe-river, where moſt kinds of Engliſh garden-ſtuff grow very well, as beans, peas, cabbages, turnips, and many kinds of ſallads. Farther within land the country is much more fruitful, the ſummers warmer, the winters ſhorter, and leſs ſevere.

There are many ſorts of minerals here: lead-ore is ſaid to be found in plenty on the ſurface of the earth near Churchill-Fort: iron-ore is likewiſe to be met with, and the natives who live to the northward frequently bring pieces of copper to that factory. There are likewiſe a great variety of talcs, ſpars, and rock-cryſtals of different colours, as red and white, the former reſembling rubies, and the latter, which are very tranſparent, ſhooting into pentangular priſms. In the northern parts is found a kind of coal; the aſbeſtos, or ſtone-flax, is common here; and alſo a ſtone of a black, ſmooth, and ſhining ſurface, that eaſily ſeparates into thin tranſparent leaves, which the natives uſe as looking-glaſſes. The country likewiſe abounds in various kinds of marble, ſome ſpeckled with green, blue, and red; and others perfectly white.

Among the animals are deer, rabbits, beavers, and other beaſts; with a great variety of birds, as ſwans, wild-geeſe, plover, ducks, and many others that fly to the northward in the ſpring to breed, and return to the ſouthward in autumn. There are likewiſe eagles, hawks, partridges, pheaſants, crows, and owls.

As the inhabitants of this country are cloathed in the ſkins of beavers, and as the principal trade conſiſts in thoſe skins, with which they have ſupplied us by means of the Hudſon's-bay company, it will be proper to give here a deſcription of that curious animal. A large beaver is about twenty-eight inches in length, from the hind part of the head to the root of the tail, and weighs ſixty or ſeventy pounds, but their colour is different; in ſome places they are black, in others white, and in others almoſt of the colour of the deer. The beaver lives to a great age; the females generally bring forth four young ones at a time. Their jaws are furniſhed with two cutters and eight grinders; the upper cutter is two inches and a half in length, and the lower ſomething longer. The upper jaw projects over the lower one; the head is ſhaped like that of a rat, and is ſmall in proportion to its body; its ſnout is long, its eyes ſmall, and its ears ſharp and round; its legs are but about five inches in length, with paws formed like a man's hand; but the hind-feet are webbed like the toes of a gooſe. The tail is ſhaped like the blade of a paddle, and is four inches broad where it joins to the body, five or ſix in the middle, and three at the extremity: it is about fourteen inches in length, and about an inch in thickneſs. It is covered with a ſcaly skin, the ſcales being near a quarter of an inch long, and fold over each other, like thoſe of a fiſh.

The ancient writers of natural hiſtory are miſtaken in aſſerting, that the beavers bite off their teſticles when purſued by the huntſmen; for what the phyſicians call caſtoreum, is the inguinal glands of this animal.

The induſtry, foreſight, and good management of theſe animals is extremely ſurprizing, and ſcarce credible to thoſe who never ſaw them. When they want to form a ſettlement, three or four, or more of them, aſſemble together, and firſt pitch upon a place where they may have proviſions, ſuch as the bark of trees, particularly roots, or graſs, with every thing neceſſary for erecting their edifices, which muſt be ſurrounded with water; and if there be neither a convenient lake nor pond they make one, by ſtopping the courſe of ſome brook, or river, with a dam. For this purpoſe they cut down trees, above the place where they are reſolved to build, and take their meaſures ſo well, as always to make the tree fall towards the water, that they may have the leſs diſtance to roll it, when they have cut off the branches. This done they float it to the place appointed, and theſe pieces they cut bigger or leſs to ſuit their convenience. Sometimes they uſe the trunks of large trees, which they lay flat in the water; at others they faſten ſtakes in the bottom of the channel, and then interweaving ſmall branches, fill up the vacancies with clay, mud, and moſs, in ſuch a manner, as renders the dam very tight and ſecure. In theſe works their tails ſerve them for carts and trowels, and their teeth for axes; their paws ſupply the place of hands, and their feet ſerve inſtead of oars.

The conſtruction of their houſes is no leſs admirable; they are generally built upon piles, at ſome diſtance from the ſhore, but ſometimes cloſe to the banks of the rivers; the firſt make holes at the bottom of the water for planting ſix poſts, upon which each of their edifices is built in a moſt curious manner; their form is round, with a flat roof; the walls are two feet thick, and ſometimes more; they are formed of the ſame materials as the dams juſt mentioned, and every part is ſo well finiſhed, that no air can poſſibly enter; about two-thirds of the edifice is raiſed above the water; in this they lodge, and are careful to keep it clean. They have generally three or four different avenues to each houſe, which they enter under water. To provide proviſions againſt the winter, they draw the ſticks they cut from the trees, and thruſting one end into the mud, let them lie under the water to preſerve the bark green and tender for their winter proviſions. There are ſometimes found eight or ten beavers in one houſe; at others not more than three or four; and let them be as numerous as they will, they all lodge upon one floor.

When the ſnows melt and raiſe the ſtream, they leave their dwelling, and ſeparate till the ſeaſon returns for repairing them, or for building new ones, which is in the month of July. The Indians lay traps for the beavers in the paths they frequent, and bait them with freſh-cut poplar boughs, which they are very fond of. Sometimes the Indians open the ice near the beaver-houſes, at which opening one ſtands, while another diſturbs the houſe; when the beaver haſtening to make his eſcape at the opening, ſeldom fails of having his brains beat out the moment he raiſes his head above the water.

The beavers are excellent food, but the tongue and tail are the moſt delicious parts. The Indians ſometimes roaſt theſe animals in the ſame manner as we do pigs, firſt burning off their fur.

The coaſts are frequented by ſeals, and the rivers and lakes have very large ſturgeon, pike, and trout; with two very delicious kinds of fiſh; the one called titymag, the other reſembling an eel, ſpotted with yellow and white, and called by the natives muthoy: theſe are reckoned fatteſt in winter, when they are caught by making holes in the ice, and letting down a baited hook, at which the fiſh greedily bites. At the mouths of the rivers, eſpecially thoſe more to the north, are plenty of fine ſalmon, trout, and a fiſh called a ſucker, which reſembles a carp. There comes in with the flood tide a great number of white whales, which might eaſily be taken.

SECT. II.

The Perſons, Dreſs, Manners, Cuſtoms, and Religion of the Indians on the weſtern Coaſt of Hudſon's bay; with a Deſcription of York Factory.

THE natives are of the middle ſize, and of a copper colour: they have black eyes, and long, lank, black hair; but their features vary as in Europe. They are of a chearful diſpoſition, good-natured, affable, friendly, and honeſt in their dealings.

In ſummer the men are clothed in a cloſe coat made of blanket, which they buy of the Engliſh ſettled in their neighbourhood. They have a pair of leather ſtockings, which reach ſo high as to ſerve alſo for breeches, and they make their ſhoes of the ſame materials.

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The cloaths of the women differ from thoſe of the men only in their generally wearing a petticoat, that in winter comes a little lower than their knees. Their ordinary apparel is made of the skins of deer, otters, or beaver, with the hair or fur on them. The ſleeves of their upper habit are generally tied on with ſtrings at the ſhoulders, ſo that their arm-pits, even in the depth of winter, are expoſed to the cold, which they imagine contributes to their health: their diſeaſes indeed are but few, and thoſe chiefly ariſe from colds caught after drinking ſpirituous liquors, which they buy of the Engliſh; and it is a melancholy truth, that thoſe who live near the ſettlements of the Hudſon's-bay Company, are, by drunkenneſs, become meagre, ſmall, indolent, and hardly able to encounter the hardſhips of the country; while thoſe who live at a diſtance are hardy, vigorous, and active.

They dwell in tents covered with mooſe and deer-skins ſewed together. Theſe are of a circular form, probably on account of its being moſt capacious and convenient for their ſitting round the fire, which is in the middle. They are formed of poles, which are extended at the bottom, and at the top lean to the center, where an opening is left to admit the light and let out the ſmoke. They ſtrew the bottom with the top of pine-trees, and lie with their feet to the fire, and their heads to the ſides of the tent. The entrance is generally on the ſouth-weſt ſide, and they go in by lifting up one of the skins, to which is faſtened a piece of ſtick, to make it flap cloſe.

They have no dependance for ſubſiſtence on the fruits of the earth, but live entirely on the animals they take in hunting or catch in traps. They every ſeaſon make a prodigious ſlaughter among the deer, from the abſurd opinion that the more they deſtroy, the greater plenty will ſucceed; hence they ſometimes leave three or four hundred dead on the plains, taking out only their tongues, and leaving their carcaſſes either to rot or to be devoured by the wild beaſts. At other times they attack them in the water, and bring great numbers on floats to the factories. They alſo live upon birds, and even feed on eagles, hawks, crows, and owls, as well as on partridges, wild-geeſe, and ducks. They generally boil their fleſh, and eat it by itſelf, drinking the water it is boiled in, which they eſteem very wholeſome; and in the ſame manner they dreſs their fiſh.

Theſe ignorant people have many amiable qualities: they are influenced in their behaviour by a natural love of rectitude, that reſtrains them from all acts of violence and injuſtice, as effectually as the moſt rigorous laws. The chiefs of every family, or tribe, who are generally choſen from among the moſt ancient of the people, uſually for their skill in hunting, their experience in trade, and their valour in the wars, in which they frequently engage, direct thoſe who reſide with them in their different employments; but their advice is rather followed through deference and reſpect than any compulſive obligation.

They have, however, ſome cuſtoms which muſt appear very whimſical, and others that are extremely cruel. It is eſteemed a great offence for a woman to ſtride over the legs of a man when he ſits on the ground, and they even think it beneath them to drink out of the ſame veſſel with their wives. They have another cuſtom that muſt appear ſhocking to every humane mind, and in which they are in ſome meaſure imitated by the Hottentots. The latter, as hath been mentioned in treating of California, expoſe their parents, when labouring under the infirmities of old age, to periſh with hunger, or to be devoured by wild beaſts, and theſe wretches ſtrangle theirs; for when their parents grow ſo old as to be unable to ſupport themſelves by their own labour, they require their children to ſtrangle them, and their performing it is eſteemed an act of duty. This is done in the following manner: the old perſon's grave being dug, he goes into it, and after having converſed and ſmoked a pipe, or perhaps drank a dram or two with his children, he informs them that he is ready; upon which two of them put a thong about his neck, then one ſtanding on one ſide, and the other oppoſite to him, pull violently till he has expired; they then cover him with earth, and over that erect a kind of rough monument of ſtones. Such old people as have no children, require this office of their friends; but in this caſe it is not always complied with.

They have alſo a very ſtrange maxim of policy, which is obliging their women to procure frequent abortions, by the uſe of a certain herb, common in that country, in order to eaſe themſelves of the heavy burthen of an helpleſs family. Savage as this cuſtom is, it is leſs barbarous than that anciently practiſed by the polite and civilized Greeks and Romans, as it is ſtill by the Chineſe and Hottentots, of expoſing their children, and leaving them to periſh with hunger or be devoured by wild beaſts.

They acknowledge a Being of infinite goodneſs, whom they ſtile Uckewma, or the Great Chief, whom they conſider as the author of all the bleſſings they enjoy, and ſing a kind of hymns to his praiſe, in a grave and ſolemn tone, that is not altogether diſagreeable; but their religious ſentiments are very inconſiſtent and confuſed. They likewiſe acknowledge another being, whom they call Wittieca, and repreſent as the author of all evil; of him they are much afraid; but it is not ſaid that they uſe any methods to appeaſe him.

Though theſe people ſpend the beſt part of their lives in procuring neceſſaries, and might eaſily lay up a ſtore of proviſions to ſecure them againſt want; yet they take little care of futurity. From their natural generoſity they are very free of their proviſions when they have plenty, and, except drying a little veniſon and fiſh, take no care to have a ſupply againſt winter. The Indians who come in the ſummer to trade at the factories, ſometimes not obtaining the ſuccours they expected, have been obliged to ſinge off the fur from thouſands of beaver-ſkins, in order to feed upon the leather: but when they are thus reduced to the greateſt extremity, they behave with a patience that is eaſier to admire than to imitate. They frequently travel two or three hundred miles, even in the depth of winter, through a wide open country, without meeting with any houſe to receive them, or carrying any tent for their protection. At the approach of night they raiſe a kind of fence with bruſhwood, by the ſide of which they kindle a fire, and having cleared away the ſnow, they lie down upon the ground, and ſleep between the fire and the fence: but when they happen to be benighted where no wood can be obtained, they are obliged to lie down under the ſnow, as is practiſed in Siberia and ſome other countries; and by this means they are in a great meaſure ſheltered from the ſharpneſs of the piercing air.

As York-fort is ſituated on the weſt coaſt of Hudſon's-bay, in the country, the manners of whoſe inhabitants we have juſt deſcribed, and is conſidered as the moſt valuable of the Hudſon's-bay Company's ſettlement, we ſhall here give a deſcription of it. It is ſeated on the ſouthern branch of Port Nelſon-river, called Hays's-river, within five miles of its fall into the ſea, in the latitude of fifty-ſeven degrees twenty minutes, and in the ninety-third degree fifty-eight minutes weſt longitude. This fort and factory is in a clear ſpace, ſurrounded on three ſides by the woods, with an open front to the water. The fort is a ſquare building, flanked with four ſmall baſtions, all of them covered, and at preſent converted either into lodging or ſtore-rooms. There are three ſmall patteraroes placed on each of the curtains; the whole is paliſadoed: a battery of pretty large guns commands the river, and a ſmall breaſt-work of turf is thrown up by way of defence of the battery; but even in time of war the number of people who reſide there amount to no more than between thirty and forty. On the ſouth-eaſt of the fort is a dock for rebuilding or repairing ſloops or boats, between which and the battery is a piece of land called The Plantation, where the Indians who come to the factory pitch their tents; and there are generally one or two tents of old infirm Indians, both men and women, who are maintained by the factory, from which this place is ſeparated by two rows of high paliſadoes: between theſe are ſtore-houſes, the kitchen, and ſome work-ſhops low built; and within the inner paliſadoes are ſmall ſpots ſowed with turnips, colworts, ſallads, and other garden-ſtuff. But however

formidable this fort may appear to the natives, it is incapable of defence, ſhould it happen to be attacked by an European army.

SECT. III.

Of the Perſons, Dreſs, Manners, and Cuſtoms of the different Tribes of Eſkimeaux, or Eſkimows, chiefly ſeated on the Eaſt Side of Hudſon's-bay.

IT would not be difficult, in treating of the countries which border on Hudſon's-bay, to give the names and ſituation of the number of little iſlands, harbours, and creeks, but it is impoſſible to give a good account of any of them, that will either anſwer the purpoſes of inſtruction or entertainment; we ſhall therefore confine ourſelves to the different inhabitants.

The principal inhabitants ſituated to the north of thoſe juſt deſcribed are the Eſkimeaux, which name is derived from an Indian word that ſignifies eaters of raw fleſh; for after thoroughly drying the fleſh of the beaſts they kill, they eat it without any other preparation; and it is evident that to this Indian term is added a French termination; but to adapt it to the Engliſh pronunciation, it ſhould rather have been written by our authors Eſkimows

Theſe people are of ſeveral tribes, and we ſhall begin with thoſe who live on the borders of the ſtreights which enter into Hudſon's-bay. They are of a middle ſize, robuſt, and inclinable to be fat. Their heads are large, and their faces round and ſwarthy; their eyes are black, ſmall, and ſparkling; their noſes flat, their lips thick, and their hair lank and black: they have broad ſhoulders, and their limbs are proportionable; but their feet are extraordinary ſmall.

The behaviour of the Eſkimows is chearful and ſprightly; but ſome nations of them are ſaid to be ſubtle, cunning, and deceitful, great flatterers, and much addicted to pilfer from ſtrangers; eaſily rendered bold by encouragement, but as eaſily frightened; and ſo attached to their own country, that ſome, who have been taken priſoners by the Southern Indians when they were boys, and brought to the factories, have for ſeveral years regretted their abſence from their native country, and the enjoyment of what they loved when they were there: thus one of them, after having been fed on Engliſh diet, being preſent when an Engliſhman was cutting up a ſeal, from which the train-oil ran very plentifully, ſcooped up what he could ſave with his hands, and ſwallowing it, cried, "Ah! commend me to my own dear "country, where I could get my belly-full of this."

The men's cloaths are made of ſeals-ſkins, and ſometimes of the ſkins of land and ſea-fowl ſewed together; their coats have a hood like a capuchin, are cloſe from the breaſt before, and reach no lower than the middle of the thigh: the breeches are cloſe before and behind, gathered like a purſe, with a ſtring, and tied about their waiſts: they have ſeveral pair of boots and ſocks, which they wear one over another, to keep them warm and dry. The difference between the dreſs of the men and that of the women is, that the latter have a narrow flap behind to their jacket, that reaches to their heels. Their hoods are likewiſe larger and wider at the ſhoulders, for the ſake of carrying their children in them at their backs; and their boots, which are a great deal wider, are commonly ſtuck out with whalebone, becauſe when they want to put a child out of their arms, they ſlip it into one of their boots till they can take it up again. A few of them wear ſhifts of ſeals bladders ſewed together. Their cloaths are in general ſewed very neatly: this is performed with an ivory needle, and the ſinews of a deer ſplit fine, and uſed for thread. They diſcover a good deal of taſte in adorning them with ſtripes of different coloured ſkins ſewed in the manner of borders, cuffs, and robings for their cloths, which altogether appear handſome as well as convenient.

One ſingular part of their dreſs is their ſnow eyes, as they properly call them. Theſe are bits of wood, or ivory, formed to cover the organs of ſight, and tied at the back of the head: in each piece are two ſlits of the ſame length with the eyes, but narrower; through which they ſee very diſtinctly. This invention prevents ſnow blindneſs, a very painful diſorder, occaſioned by the brightneſs of the light reflected from the ſnow, eſpecially in ſpring. Their uſe ſtrengthens the ſight, and becomes ſo habitual to them, that when they would obſerve an object at a great diſtance, they commonly look through them, as we do through a perſpective-glaſs.

The ſame ſpirit of invention is obſervable in their inſtruments for fiſhing and fowling, which, in ſeveral reſpects, reſemble thoſe of the Greenlanders. Their darts and harpoons are well made, as are alſo their bows and arrows. Their boats, which are eaſy of carriage, and quick in motion, reſemble thoſe of the Greenlanders, have their frames made of wood or whalebone, covered all over with ſeal-ſkin parchment, except a hole in the middle, which has a ring of wood or whalebone round it, to prevent the water running in from the deck, affording only room for one man to ſit in, his feet being ſtretched forward; and ſometimes the skin is laced about his waiſt at the above-mentioned rim, which effectually ſhuts out the water. They rub the ſeams with a kind of ſize made of ſeals blubber. In theſe boats they carry their little conveniences, and their inſtruments for killing whales, ſea-horſes, ſea-unicorns, ſeals, and the like. They alſo carry in their canoes ſlings and ſtones, with which they can do execution at a great diſtance. Their harpoons are headed and pointed with the teeth of the morſe, one end of it ſerving for a ſpear, and the other for introducing into the body of the fiſh a barb tipped with iron, which remains there, while the other part of the harpoon readily diſengages itſelf and comes out. To this barb is faſtened a thong of the hide of the morſe, at the end of which is a ſeal-skin blown up, which ſerves as a buoy, to ſhew them where the whale is when he goes down, and prodigiouſly fatigues him in ſwimming. As ſoon as he expires, they, with their canoes, tow him aſhore, and ſtrip him of his fat, which not only ſerves them for food, but to burn in their lamps during winter.

As the perſons who traverſed Hudſon's-bay, in order to diſcover a north-weſt paſſage, had no leiſure to examine the countries by which they paſſed, and had ſometimes opportunities of obſerving the natives, they were enabled to deſcribe the latter, without having it in their power to give much account of the former. In Mr. Ellis's voyage, which was attempted in order to find out that paſſage, the ſhip named the Reſolution was driven upon a ridge of ſtones, when ſix boats of Eskimows came off with whalebone, which, notwithſtanding their danger, they bought of them. Theſe people, ſo far from taking advantage of their diſtreſs, behaved with the utmoſt civility, and endeavoured to relieve them: for when the tide had floated them off, an old man, who ſeemed better acquainted with the place than the reſt, had the humanity to paddle before them, to point out the ſhoals, and direct their courſe, by keeping in deep water: thus, by his aſſiſtance, the Reſolution eſcaped being loſt, which is a ſufficient proof that theſe people do not deſerve to be termed artful and thieviſh, ſince they could not avoid being ſenſible that they would have reaped great advantage by the loſs of the ſhip. Our author therefore juſtly obſerves, that whatever others may ſay to their prejudice, it is but juſtice to own, that they behaved not only with humanity, but with great kindneſs and friendſhip. Nothing can be more admirable than the ingenuity and induſtry of theſe people, who, for want of iron, are frequently obliged to make not only the barbs of their harpoons, but alſo their hatchets and knives, of ſtones, ſea-horſe teeth, and ſea-unicorns horns; and it is difficult to conceive the dexterous uſe they make of materials that ſeem ſo very improper for the purpoſes to which they employ them. Theſe ſeem to be originally one people with thoſe juſt deſcribed; but are more affable and friendly, and likewiſe more skilful artiſts. The borders of their habits are generally fringed with cut leather, and are ſometimes hung with the teeth of fawns. The women do not, like thoſe of the other Eskimows, ſtick out the ſides of their boots with whalebone: they alſo differ from them in wearing a cap made of the skin of a buffalo's tail, which,

which, though it has a frightful appearance, is of great uſe in keeping off the musketoes, which are here exceſſively troubleſome. Indeed the hair hanging over their faces ſomewhat obſtructs their ſight, but it is eaſily removed with their hands; and, was it not for this defence, theſe inſects would be inſupportable. Hence their children wear them, while hanging at their mother's backs; and as, thus dreſſed, they make a moſt diſmal figure, it is apt to raiſe a ſhocking idea of the barbarity of theſe harmleſs and inoffenſive people. Their manner of kindling a fire appears very extraordinary, but is nearly the ſame in all countries where they have not the advantage of flints and ſteel: they prepare two pieces of dry wood, and making a ſmall hole in each, fit to them a little cylindrical piece of wood, round which a thong is put; then by pulling the ends of the thong, they whirl the cylindrical piece about with ſuch velocity, that the motion ſets the wood on fire; when lighting a little dry moſs, which ſerves for tinder, they make as large a fire as they pleaſe: but as the little timber they have towards the north of Hudſon's bay, is only what is driven on ſhore, this fails them in winter, and they are obliged, like the Greenlanders, to make uſe of their lamps, for the ſupply of their family occaſions.

Theſe ſimple people were ſo far from being jealous of their wives, that they offered them to the Engliſh ſailors, from an opinion that the children they had by them would be in every reſpect as much ſuperior to thoſe of their nation, as they took the Engliſh to be; for they imagine, ſays our author, that in the moſt literal ſenſe every man begets his like, and that the ſon of a captain muſt infallibly be a captain.

On their going to ſea, in order to catch fiſh, they uſually take in their boats a bladder filled with train-oil, as our people do a dram-bottle, and ſeem to drink the contents with the ſame reliſh; and when their ſtock is out, they have been ſeen to draw the bladder through their teeth with much ſeeming ſatisfaction. They are probably convinced by experience of the ſalutary effects of this coarſe kind of oil in this rigorous climate, which renders them ſo fond of it. They alſo uſe it for their lamps, which are made of ſtone, hollowed out with as much art as can well be expected, conſidering their tools.

We ſhall now leave Hudſon's-bay, which, conſidering its great extent, may as well be called a ſea as the Baltic, and ſeveral others that bear that name; and ſhall only obſerve, that in ſailing to the northward from York-fort every thing dwindles, the men become lower in ſtature, and in the latitude of ſixty-one degrees the very trees ſhrink into bruſhwood.

SECT. IV.

Of NEWFOUNDLAND.

Its Situation, Extent, Climate, Soil, and Produce; with a particular Account of the Manner of preparing the Cod in that Iſland.

NEWFOUNDLAND received its name from Cabot, who diſcovered it in 1497. It is of a triangular form, and ſituated to the eaſt of the gulph of St. Lawrence, between the forty-ſixth degree forty minutes and the forty-ſecond degree ſeven minutes north latitude, and between the forty-firſt degree fifty-two minutes and the fifty-ſeventh degree forty minutes weſt longitude; it being bounded to the eaſtward and ſouthward by the Atlantic ocean, on the north by the ſtreights of Belleiſle, and on the weſt by the gulph of St. Lawrence.

The coaſts are extremely ſubject to fogs, occaſioned by the vapours exhaled from the lakes, ſwamps, and bogs, with which the iſland abounds; yet the air is ſalubrious, and agreeable to moſt conſtitutions. The winters are ſevere, attended with almoſt continual ſtorms of ſnow and ſleet, the ſky being uſually overcaſt.

The ſoil is generally ſuppoſed to be barren, except only the banks of the rivers, which are tolerably fertile. There are however woods of different kinds throughout almoſt all the country for ſeveral miles from the coaſt, which contain abundance of timber fit for ſhip and boat building, as well as for erecting ſtages for curing and drying fiſh; and beyond theſe woods, where the lands are cleared, are in many places good paſturage. The inland parts of the country riſe into high hills, and ſink into bogs and ſwamps; where ſuch parts as are not covered with water, afford only ſhrubs, ſpruce, and white moſs. It however contains many fine rivers, lakes, and rivulets, which abound with beaver, otters, and the like, and afford great plenty of ſalmon and other fiſh. The foreſts are ſtored with deer, mooſe, bears, wolves, and foxes in great plenty; but here are few cattle, ſheep, or horſes; inſtead of the latter, the inhabitants make uſe of dogs for drawing of wood and other neceſſaries. Theſe they manage with great dexterity, fixing them in leather collars, and yoking together what number they pleaſe. There are here great plenty of wild fowl, but the ſtaple commodity of the iſland is cod-fiſh, which are here larger and in greater abundance than in any part of the world yet diſcovered; and a conſiderable part of Europe is at preſent chiefly ſupplied with this article from hence.

Great Britain and North America, at the loweſt computation, annually employ upwards of three thouſand ſail in this fiſhery; on board of which, and on ſhore, to cure and pack the fiſh, are not leſs than ten thouſand hands; ſo that it is at the ſame time, not only a very profitable branch of trade to the merchant, but a ſource of livelihood to ſo many thouſands of poor people, and a moſt excellent nurſery to the royal navy, which is hence ſupplied with a great number of able ſeamen: it might ſtill be greatly enlarged; for notwithſtanding the great trade carried on by the Engliſh here, the French are ſaid to have by far the beſt part.

On theſe coaſts are alſo taken a great number of whales, ſeals, porpuſes, &c. whence above five thouſand barrels of oil, beſides a great quantity of whale-bone, ſeal-ſkins, &c. are annually exported from hence to different parts of the world; all which ſufficiently ſhew the importance of the iſland, notwithſtanding the ſeverity of the climate, and the roughneſs and barrenneſs of the ſoil.

The number of Engliſh inhabitants on the iſland, is uncertain and fluctuating. They are indeed very inconſiderable, if compared with its extent, but there are not half the number in winter that there are in ſummer. The capital of the iſland, which is ſeated on the ſouthern point, contains no more than between three and fourſcore houſes.

As fiſhing is the ſtaple commodity of Newfoundland and the adjacent iſlands, it will not, perhaps, be diſagreeable to our readers, if we here give a conciſe account of the method of curing the cod, and preparing it for the market.

The veſſels employed in this buſineſs are ſmall ſhallops, which come to ſhore every day, where the fiſhermen throw the cod they have taken upon a ſtage prepared for that purpoſe. One of them, who is called the cut-throat, opens the fiſh with a two-edged knife, and cuts off his head; a ſecond hands the fiſh to the carver, who ſtands oppoſite to him at a table erected upon the ſtage, who with a ſingle-edged knife, ſix or eight inches long, and very thick on the back, to encreaſe its weight, ſplits the fiſh open; when it is conveyed to the ſalter, who places it with the ſkin undermoſt in a barrel, and then very ſlightly covers it with ſalt, laying the fiſh regularly one upon another.

After leaving the cod in ſalt three or four days, and ſometimes twice as long, according to the ſeaſon, they put it into a tub, waſh it well, make it up in piles, and, in fair weather, ſpread it out with the ſkin undermoſt, on a kind of ſtage raiſed with wattles about two feet from the ground; before night they turn the ſkin uppermoſt, which they alſo do whenever it rains. When the fiſh becomes a little dry, it is raiſed into larger piles, where it reſts a day or two; after which it is again expoſed to the air, and turned according as there is occaſion, before they again raiſe it into larger piles, where, after this is done, it ſometimes remains fifteen days without

out being moved; after which it is once more expoſed to the air, and when almoſt dry, gathered together again, in order to ſweat, which takes up twenty-four hours or more, according to the ſeaſon: it is then opened and expoſed to the air for the laſt time, and when thoroughly dried, houſed.

Fiſh cured in this manner are not only more fair to the eye, but more grateful to the taſte, than thoſe which are partly prepared at ſea; and that cured in the ſpring before the great heats, is generally the beſt.

SECT. V.

Of Cape Breton, *called by the French* L'Isle Royal.

Its Situation, Extent, Face of the Country, Climate, Soil, and Produce, with the advantages France received from it.

THE iſland of Cape Breton, which is ſeated fifteen leagues to the ſouth-weſt of Newfoundland, is in the forty-ſixth degree north latitude, and in the fifty-eighth degree thirty minutes weſt longitude, it being ſeparated from the continent by a narrow paſſage on the weſt. This iſland is about one hundred and ten miles from the north-eaſt to the ſouth-weſt. Round it are ſeveral harbours and bays, which, from its ſituation in the gulph of St. Lawrence, have made it conſidered as the key of Canada, it being a ſafe retreat for ſhips bound either to or from Canada.

It is of a very irregular figure, and ſo cut through by lakes and rivers, that its two principal parts are held together only by an iſthmus of about eight hundred paces in breadth; this neck of land ſeparates the bottom of Port Touloufe from ſeveral lakes, which are called Labrador. Theſe lakes diſcharge themſelves into the ſea to the eaſt by two channels, formed by the iſlands of Verderronne and la Boularderie.

All its ports open to the eaſt, turning a little to the ſouth, and are within the ſpace of fifty-five leagues, beginning at Port Dauphin, and continuing to Port Touloufe, which is almoſt at the entrance of the paſſage of Fronſac. In all other parts it is difficult to find anchorage. The northern coaſts are very high, and almoſt inacceſſible; and it is not eaſy to land on the weſtern coaſt, till you come to the paſſage of Fronſac, near which, as we have already obſerved, is Port Touloufe, which is between a kind of gulph called Little St. Peter's and the iſland of St. Peter: from hence proceeding towards the ſouth-eaſt is the bay of Gaborie, at twenty leagues diſtance; this bay is a league broad, between iſlands and rocks, and two leagues in depth; but it is not ſafe to come near the iſlands. The harbour of Louiſburgh, formerly called the Engliſh Harbour, is not above a league from the laſt-mentioned bay, and perhaps one of the fineſt in America, it being near four leagues in circumference, and having every where ſix or ſeven fathoms water. The town of Louiſburgh is ſituated on the ſouth-weſt ſide, in latitude forty-five degrees fifty minutes, and in fifty-eight degrees thirty-five minutes weſt longitude. It was pretty ſtrongly fortified, with as much regularity as the ſituation would admit. It had a good rampart, with irregular baſtions, a dry ditch, a covert-way, with an excellent glacis, and before two of the curtains a ravelin, with a bridge to the ſallee-ports; but the chief ſtrength of the place by land conſiſted in the thickneſs of the walls, and the impaſſable moraſſes, that extend from the foot of the glacis to a conſiderable diſtance. There was indeed one part without any walls for about a hundred yards, this being there abſolutely unneceſſary, the ſea flowing cloſe to the town, and therefore a paliſade was thought a ſufficient defence: nor can even ſmall barks approach it for want of ſufficient depth of water; and ſhips muſt keep at a very conſiderable diſtance, on account of the rocks and ſhoals. Beſides, there were two collateral baſtions, which flanked this part to very great advantage. In the center of one of the chief baſtions was a ſtrong building, with a moat on the ſide towards the town; and this was called the citadel, though it had neither artillery, nor was a ſtructure proper for receiving any: indeed the entrance to it was over a draw-bridge, on one ſide of which was a corps de garde, and advanced centinels on the other. Within this building were the apartments for the governor, the barracks for the garriſon, the arſenal, and under the platform of the redoubt a magazine always well furniſhed with military ſtores. The pariſh-church, or rather chapel, was alſo within the citadel, and without it was another belonging to the hoſpital of St. Jean de Dieu, an elegant and ſpacious ſtructure, built with ſtones. On an iſland at the entrance of the harbour was a ſtrong fort, and on the oppoſite ſide a very high tower, ſerving as a light-houſe. Here was a large fortification called the royal battery, and beyond it was another fort built on a point farther within the harbour. When the town of Louiſburgh was laſt taken from the French, it conſiſted of only ſeveral narrow lanes, and had few tolerable houſes in it, they being of wood, with a foundation of ſtone carried about ſix feet above the ground.

There are ſeveral other excellent ports; which are the more neceſſary, as the ſea round the iſland is ſubject to violent ſtorms of wind, with ſnow and ſleet, and ſuch fogs that it is frequently impoſſible to ſee the length of a ſhip: but what is ſtill more extraordinary, theſe fogs will, in the ſpace of one frofty night, caſe over the rigging of ſhips with ſuch thick ice, as to render them impoſſible to be worked till it is beaten off: the quantity beat off from only one of the ſhips employed in the conqueſt of the iſland in 1758, was computed to amount to ſix or eight tons weight; yet this amazing quantity was all congealed on the night of the fifth of May, when warmer weather might have been expected. Theſe circumſtances ſhew the advantages of an iſland filled with ſuch a number of excellent ports, ſeated in ſuch a tremendous ſea.

The ſoil and climate nearly reſemble thoſe of Newfoundland, and conſequently its produce is not very different. A conſiderable part of the land is barren; it, however, produces oaks of a prodigious ſize, pines for maſts, and all ſorts of timber fit for building. The moſt common ſorts are cedar, oak, aſh, beech, maple, aſpin, wild-cherry, and plane-trees. It likewiſe produces ſome ſorts of fruit, particularly apples, with herbs and roots, ſome kinds of grain, with hemp and flax.

It is obſervable, that the mountains may be cultivated up to the tops, and that the good ſoil always inclines towards the ſouth. There are here great numbers of fowl, particularly very large partridges, which in their feathers reſemble pheaſants. There are here likewiſe animals brought from Europe, as horned cattle, hogs, ſheep, goats, and poultry. The lakes, rivers, and bays, abound with beavers, otters, and excellent fiſh in the greateſt plenty; and what is got by hunting, ſhooting, and fiſhing, is ſufficient to maintain the inhabitants a good part of the year.

This induced the French, on their being excluded from Acadia and Newfoundland, to begin a ſettlement here in 1714, which they continued to encreaſe, and fortified it in 1720. They were, however, diſpoſſeſſed in 1745 by the bravery of the inhabitants of New England, with little aſſiſtance from Great Britain; but it was again, by the treaty of Aix la Chapelle, ceded to the French, who ſpared no expence to fortify and ſtrengthen it. However, it was again reduced in 1758 by the Britiſh troops under general Amherſt and admiral Boſcawen, who found in that place two hundred and twenty-one pieces of cannon and eighteen mortars, together with a very large quantity of ſtores and ammunition; and was yielded for ever to the crown of Great Britain by the laſt peace, ſince which the fortifications have been blown up, and the town of Louiſburgh diſmantled.

The importance of this iſland to the French may be eſtimated from the advantages they reaped from it when in their poſſeſſion. Though but a ſmall number of ſhips fiſhed near the harbour of Louiſburgh, in compariſon of thoſe employed in the French fiſheries on the banks of Newfoundland, the gulph of St. Lawrence, and the neighbouring ſhores, bays, and harbours; yet it is ſo ſituated, that all their fiſhing-veſſels could repair to it on any danger, or emergency, eſpecially thoſe which fiſhed in the gulph on the main, or at the north-weſt end of Newfoundland, none of which are above one or two days ſail

at

at moſt from thence; as might alſo thoſe veſſels which loaded with mud-fiſh on the banks; whence this iſland was the center and protection of their whole fiſhery.

According to a computation made by perſons intimately acquainted with every branch of it, the quantity of fiſh they caught in the year before the laſt war was one million one hundred and forty-nine thouſand quintals of dry fiſh, and three million nine hundred thouſand mud-fiſh; the value of both which, including three thouſand one hundred and ſixteen one quarter tons of train-oil, drawn from the blubber, amounts to nine hundred and twenty-ſix thouſand five hundred and ſeventy-ſeven pounds ten ſhillings, according to the prime coſt of the fiſh at Newfoundland; and with the addition of its freight to the ſeveral markets where it is ſold, makes nine hundred and forty-nine thouſand one hundred and ninety-two pounds ten ſhillings ſterling; and if to this be added the conſumption which is made of their coarſe woollens by the men employed in the fiſhery, reckoning for each a blanket, watch-coat, rug, pea-jacket, &c. in the whole thirty ſhillings per man, with the brandy they conſume; and alſo the canvas, cordage, nets, hooks, grapplings, anchors, &c. that the ſhips and ſhallops of this fiſhery muſt expend at ſea and on ſhore, the value of it will amount, at leaſt, to one million ſterling per annum, at which it is generally computed.

But in order to form a juſt eſtimate of the value of this branch of trade to the French, we ſhould alſo take in its beneficial conſequences, which principally conſiſt in the following articles: Firſt, the train-oil produced by it is neceſſary to the French in their woollen manufactory, in which they have already rivalled us with too much ſucceſs; and their ſugar colonies abroad, which cannot do without it, are ſupplied with it from France out of this fiſhery.

Secondly, the trade it opens for them in the Mediterranean, and all the Roman Catholic ſtates, where they carry their fiſh to market; and by this means force a vent for the French manufactures; which has been found ſo beneficial to their commercial intereſt, that they have been indefatigable in the cultivation of it, ſparing no pains nor coſt, and uſing every art to monopolize it.

Thirdly, the great encreaſe of their navigation and ſeamen ariſing from this fiſhery, in which five hundred and ſixty-four ſhips, beſides ſhallops, and twenty-ſeven thouſand five hundred ſeamen, were employed; circumſtances, eſpecially the latter, which, conſidered with regard to their maritime force, were of themſelves as valuable to France, as the revenue of the fiſhery itſelf: hence Charlevoix, in his Hiſtory of New France, juſtly obſerves, "That this fiſhery was a more valuable ſource of wealth "and power to France, than even the mines of Peru or "Mexico would be."

This great branch of trade may be ſaid to have depended upon the poſſeſſion of the Iſland of Cape Breton, on account of its affording them a convenient harbour to ſupply and protect it; but this they have ſince found means to carry on in a very profitable manner to themſelves without it. However, there are other great advantages which the French received from their poſſeſſion of this iſland. France has not one ſea-port for the relief and ſhelter of her trading ſhips, either to or from the Weſt Indies, open to them any where in North America to the northward of the river Miſſiſſippi; and conſequently the whole trade muſt for the future be expoſed to the Engliſh privateers from the northern colonies in time of war, without any place of ſtrength to which they can retreat; but Louiſburgh ſerved them as an harbour for their ſhips employed in this trade to reſort to for wood and water, to clean or repair, for convoy from thence to Old France, and on account of any diſtreſs. To all this muſt be added, that the poſſeſſion of this iſland put it into their power to annoy the trade of the Britiſh northern colonies in time of war, with their privateers from this harbour, to ſuch a degree, that it has ever been called by the Engliſh the Dunkirk of North America.

SECT. VI.

Of the Iſland of St. John.

Its Situation, Extent, and Produce.

THOUGH the iſland of St. John is ſeated in the neighbourhood of Cape Breton, and lies partly between it and the continent, and conſequently has nearly the ſame climate, yet it greatly exceeds the iſlands juſt mentioned, with reſpect to its pleaſantneſs and the fertility of its ſoil. It is computed to be about ſixty miles in length, and has not only a commodious harbour for carrying on the fiſhery, but abounds with a variety of uſeful timber and moſt kinds of game common to the neighbouring country. This iſland is ſo fertile, and was ſo well improved while poſſeſſed by the French, that it was juſtly ſtiled the granary of Canada, which it furniſhed with great plenty of moſt ſorts of corn, as well as great quantities of beef and pork; and, when laſt taken, had upwards of ten thouſand head of black cattle, and ſome of the farmers raiſed twelve hundred buſhels of corn annually. It has ſeveral rivers, which abound with ſalmon, trout, eels, &c. and the ſurrounding ſea affords plenty of ſturgeon, plaice, and moſt kinds of ſhell-fiſh. An iſland of this advantage was at once carefully cultivated, and its importance concealed from the Engliſh, leſt it ſhould induce them to make themſelves maſters of it, and by that means cut off the principal ſupplies from Quebec. In this iſland are yet conſiderable quantities of land uncultivated, which, by a proper improvement, would render it ſtill more valuable.

When this iſland was ſurrendered to colonel Rollo, it had four thouſand inhabitants; and, to the diſgrace of the governor, there were found in his houſe ſeveral Engliſh ſcalps, which were brought there to market by the ſavages of Nova Scotia; this being the place where they were encouraged to carry on this barbarous and inhuman trade.

The important conqueſt of the iſlands of Cape Breton and St. John filled the whole kingdom with exultation; and eleven pair of colours, taken at Louiſburgh, were, by his majeſty's order, carried in a pompous parade, eſcorted by a detachment of foot-guards, from Kenſington-palace to the cathedral of St. Paul, where they were depoſited as trophies, under a diſcharge of cannon, and other expreſſions of triumph and exultation.

Both this iſland and that of Cape Breton are at preſent under the governor of Nova Scotia, as are alſo ſeveral ſmall adjacent iſlands.

CHAP. II.

Of NOVA SCOTIA, CANADA, NEW ENGLAND, NEW YORK, the JERSEYS, PENNSYLVANIA, and MARYLAND.

SECT. I.

Of ACADIA, *or* NOVA SCOTIA.

Its Situation, Extent, Produce, Harbours, and Hiſtory.

ACADIA, or Nova Scotia, is the moſt eaſtern part of the continent of America. It is bounded by the gulph of St. Lawrence and the ſtreights of Canſo, which ſeparates it from Cape Breton, on the eaſt; on the ſouth by the Atlantic ocean; on the weſt by the bay of Fundy and the province of Main, belonging to Maſſachuſet-bay; and on the north by the river of St. Lawrence, which divides it from Canada; extending from the forty-third degree thirty-ſeven minutes to the forty-ninth degree thirty minutes north latitude, and from the ſixtieth degree fifteen minutes to the ſixty-ninth degree weſt longitude. It is ſo indented by what is called the bay of Fundy, that the ſouth-eaſt part, towards the ocean, forms a triangular peninſula, only joined by a ſmall iſthmus to the other part.

It is in general a fine country, the climate being tolerably temperate, though pretty ſevere in winter, when the cold is ſharp and the ſnow lies deep on the ground; but the air is there generally clear, with a bright ſunſhine, and azure ſky: the ſummer is, however, hotter than in England.

The ſoil of this province is various, in ſome places barren, and in others exceeding pleaſant and fertile; particularly round the bay of Fundy, and on the rivers which fall into it, where are large tracts of ground on both ſides theſe rivers, for fifty or ſixty miles into the country, and ſeveral miles from the bay, which were once marſhy, but, by being dyked, are improved to great advantage. The eminences in this province are alſo very pleaſant and fruitful, producing wheat, rye, Indian-corn, peas, beans, hemp, flax, and ſome kinds of fruit in great perfection, as gooſeberries, raſberries, ſtrawberries, which grow in the woods. Several parts yield fine timber, and particularly excellent oak fit for building of ſhips; with fir, ſpruce, birch, &c. It abounds with all the neceſſaries of life, particularly a great number of deer and other game, with plenty of wild-fowl, as teal, herons, wood-cocks, pigeons, buſtards, partridges, wild-ducks, and great numbers of beavers and otters. The rivers abound with ſalmon and other kinds of river-fiſh. There are alſo ſeveral fiſheries erected in the different harbours, which are carried on with great ſucceſs.

The coaſt has the advantage of many bays, harbours, and creeks; and the land is enriched by many rivers, ſome of which are navigated for a long courſe by the native Indians. The harbour of Chebucto, upon which is ſeated the metropolis, may be juſtly eſteemed one of the fineſt in the world, both for ſafety and convenience, it having good anchoring-ground, and water ſufficient for the largeſt men of war. This is therefore made the place of rendezvous for the royal navy in America, it having a royal dock, and conveniences for the largeſt ſhips to heave down and careen. The entrance into it is from the ſouth, with a large iſland of an irregular form, lying on the north-eaſt ſide, named Cornwallis Iſland, from the firſt governor of Hallifax. This iſland, as well as a ſmaller one that lies higher up the harbour, named George Iſland, is very commodiouſly ſituated for a fiſhery, and has conveniencies of all ſorts proper for drying and curing the fiſh.

On the weſt ſide of this harbour is ſeated the town of Hallifax, which, though founded ſo lately as the year 1747, is now a conſiderable place, conſiſting of above one thouſand houſes, laid out in handſome ſtraight ſtreets, and is the capital of the whole province.

There are alſo ſeveral other towns laid out round the bay, and partly inhabited; but the moſt conſiderable ſettlements are upon the bay of Fundy, and the rivers that fall into it.

About two miles up the harbour of Chebucto is a river on the ſouth-weſt ſide, with a ſmall harbour at its entrance. This river, which was called by the firſt ſettlers of Hallifax Sandwich river, is at the mouth about as wide and deep as the Thames at London-bridge, and is ſalt-water for about four or five miles up, when it terminates, where a ſmall freſh water rivulet falls into it from the north. From the mouth of Sandwich river to the oppoſite ſide of the harbour, is about two miles, with good anchoring-ground for the largeſt ſhips in any part of it, and a fine watering-place on the north-eaſt ſide: the land on both ſides is exceeding high, but covered with wood.

Four or five miles to the north of the above river, is a narrow entrance of half a mile, into Bedford-bay, which is about twelve miles in circumference, and has ſeveral creeks at the bottom of it, abounding with the fineſt ſalmon in the greateſt plenty: there are alſo ſeveral iſlands in it, and on the weſtern ſide of it, grow a great number of pines fit for maſts. This bay, with the harbour, and Sandwich river, divide the peninſula from the main-land.

Upon the oppoſite ſhore are ſeveral large rivers, among which that of St. John is the moſt conſiderable. It is ten leagues diſtant from the gut of Annapolis, and has a very long courſe; but has two prodigious cataracts near its mouth, one of them no leſs than thirty fathoms deep, which is ſuppoſed to be chiefly occaſioned by the great head of water above, and the channel being pent up between two ſteep mountains.

The inhabitants may be computed at about twenty thouſand, who export to other parts chiefly lumber, as planks, ſtaves, hoops, joiſts, and fiſh. The latter is, indeed, the ſtaple commodity, and employs a conſiderable number of hands.

The king of Great Britain, who is ſovereign of the ſoil, appoints the governor, the lieutenant-governor, and council, who form the upper-houſe; and the lower-houſe is formed of the repreſentatives of the people, who are choſen by the freeholders.

This country was diſcovered by Sebaſtian Cabot in 1497, but lay long neglected before any conſiderable ſettlement was made in it. The French, however, had landed and built houſes; but in 1614, captain Argal, by order of the governor of Virginia, ſailed thither, and obliged them to depart.

In 1621, king James gave a grant of this province to Sir William Alexander, afterwards earl of Stirling, and ſecretary of ſtate for Scotland, by whom it was called Nova-Scotia. The next year, Sir William ſent a number of people, and all kinds of neceſſaries for beginning a ſettlement; but in 1632, Quebec and Cape-Breton, which had been taken from the French, were, together with this province, ceded to them by a treaty concluded between Charles I. and Lewis XIII. when a number of Engliſh removed out of it, and the French kept it in their poſſeſſion till the year 1654, when Oliver Cromwell ſent major Sedgewick, who took Port-Royal, and obliged the French to quit the country.

Nova-Scotia continued in our poſſeſſion till the reign of Charles II. when it was again ceded to the French by the treaty of Breda. They kept it without moleſta-

tion

tion till the year 1690, when the people of New England, finding the inconvenience of having the French ſo near them, prepared a fleet, with a proper number of land forces, and gave the command to Sir William Phipps, a native of that province; who ſailing from New England, on the twenty-eighth of April 1690, arrived before Port-Royal, now Annapolis, in May following; and ſoon reducing that town, obliged the inhabitants there, and on St. John's river, amounting to about ſix thouſand, either to conſent to ſubmit to the Engliſh government, or to be tranſported to Canada: when moſt of them, for the ſake of keeping their eſtates and habitations, conſented to become Britiſh ſubjects; but ſoon ſhewed that they were ſtill bad neighbours to the people of New England. In 1710 queen Anne liſtening to their repeated complaints, ſent a ſquadron and ſome land forces under colonel Nicholſon, who took Port-Royal, which, in honour of the queen, he called Annapolis; after which Nova Scotia was yielded to Great Britain, by an expreſs article in the treaty of Utrecht. Thoſe of the inhabitants who choſe to remain, were to become Britiſh ſubjects, and freely to enjoy their religion. However, in order to ſecure their obedience, and keep poſſeſſion of the country, a garriſon was kept at Annapolis, and a ſmall one at Canſo: but as no government was yet eſtabliſhed, nor any proper encouragement given to the Britiſh ſubjects to ſettle there, the inhabitants, notwithſtanding their oaths of allegiance, aſſiſted a party of French, in 1744, in the reduction of the fort at Canſo, and made an attempt upon Annapolis, but without ſucceſs; that garriſon being ſeaſonably relieved from New England. They, however, ſtill continued to commit ſecret hoſtilities, and to ſupply and encourage the Indians in their neighbourhood to perpetrate the moſt horrid acts of cruelty and barbarity on the Engliſh, upon the frontiers of New England, whoſe ſcalps, ſays major Rogers, were carried to market to Louiſburgh, Quebec, &c. not only in time of war, but in peace, and there exchanged for powder, ball, or whatever they wanted. By theſe means there were at the concluſion of the peace, in the beginning of the year 1749, no other Engliſh in Nova-Scotia beſides the garriſon of Annapolis, and the inhabitants who lived within a few miles round that place.

The peace was, however, no ſooner concluded, than the earl of Hallifax projected the complete ſettlement of Nova-Scotia by the Engliſh, and uſed his utmoſt endeavours to carry it, in the moſt effectual manner, into execution. He, with the other lords commiſſioners of trade and plantations, having gained his majeſty's approbation, they in March 1749, publiſhed propoſals, offering proper encouragement to ſuch of the officers and private men as, after the concluſion of the peace, had been diſmiſſed his majeſty's land and ſea ſervice, and were willing to accept of grants, in order to ſettle in Nova-Scotia. Fifty acres of land in fee-ſimple were offered to every private ſoldier or ſea-man, free from the payment of quit-rent or taxes for the term of ten years, and at the expiration of that time, they were to pay only one ſhilling a year for every fifty acres. But this was not all, every private ſoldier or ſeaman who had a family, was to have ten acres for every perſon of which his family conſiſted, including women and children; and farther grants were to be made to them on the like conditions, in proportion as their families encreaſed, or to their abilities for cultivating the land.

The next care of the governor was to pitch upon a proper ſpot for the firſt ſettlement, and as the peninſula appeared preferable, both on account of its commodious ſituation, and the fertility of the ſoil, the able-bodied men on board each ſhip were employed in clearing ground in order to build a town at the ſouth point, at the entrance of Sandwich river; but many objections being ſoon found againſt that place, another ſpot was choſen by the governor, at about the diſtance of a mile and a half from it, on the ſide of Chebucto harbour, and on the declivity of a riſing ground that commands the whole peninſula, and would ſhelter the town from the north-weſt winds. The beach they found was a fine gravel, convenient for ſmall boats, the anchorage was every where good for large ſhips, within gun ſhot of the town, and ſmall but navigable rivers of freſh and wholeſome water flowed round it.

Here then they made a ſecond, and more ſucceſsful attempt; and, indeed, it would not have been eaſy to have choſen a more happy ſituation; they therefore cleared the ground in as expeditious a manner as poſſible, and having erected a large wooden houſe for the governor, with proper ſtore-houſes, the ground was laid out, ſo as to form a number of ſtraight and beautiful ſtreets, croſſing each other at equal diſtances, upon a moſt excellent plan, ſaid to have been formed by the earl of Hallifax. The work went on briſkly; the people of New England brought ſeveral ſhips laden with planks, door-caſes, doors, window-frames, and other parts of houſes; and the people being employed in ſhips companies, this created an emulation, that rendered their labours remarkably ſucceſsful; ſo that in about three years time, this town, which was named Hallifax, from that nobleman to whom the ſettlement owed its beginning, was finiſhed, and every family had a good houſe of their own, of which the maſter was landlord. Within the ſame ſpace of time were alſo erected a church, and wharfs, the town was palliſadoed, and other fortifications erected: ſome land was alſo cleared for agriculture, and already planted, notwithſtanding the oppoſition they met with from the French, and their tools the Indians.

To explain this laſt circumſtance, it is neceſſary to obſerve, that in the beginning of the ſettlement, and ſoon after the landing of the Engliſh, a hundred black cattle and ſome ſheep were brought them by land from a French ſettlement at Minas, a town about thirty miles from the bottom of Bedford-bay; and French deputies alſo coming to make their ſubmiſſion, it was propoſed to cut a road thither, thoſe deputies promiſing to contribute fifty men towards carrying on that work. The Engliſh alſo received the promiſe of friendſhip and aſſiſtance from the Indians, their chiefs waiting upon the governor for that purpoſe. But theſe ſubmiſſions, and theſe promiſes, were ſoon broken by the perfidy of the French court, which diſapproved of theſe proceedings, and reſolved to harraſs the Engliſh before their town was built, and their fortifications erected. Inſtructions were therefore communicated to the deſcendants of the French in Nova-Scotia, and the ſcene was inſtantly changed; they engaged the Indians to uſe their utmoſt endeavours to prevent the new colony from proceeding; and the year in which peace was proclaimed, and Cape Breton reſtored, was not expired, when the town began to be frequently attacked in the night, and the Engliſh could not ſtir into the adjoining woods, without the danger of being ſhot, ſcalped, or taken priſoners. They however proſecuted the ſettlement with indefatigable induſtry, and the town was ſoon finiſhed, notwithſtanding all the endeavours of the French to oppoſe it.

It was however impoſſible to clear woods and plough lands, without ſeparating into ſmall parties; and this work was attended with great danger; for though the French and Indians did not dare to attack any conſiderable body of the Engliſh, yet they frequently fell upon ſmall parties; and though they had been often repulſed, they always returned whenever they had an opportunity of doing it to advantage. Complaint of this open war, in a time of peace, was now made to the court of France, when his Moſt Chriſtian Majeſty propoſed that commiſſaries ſhould be appointed to ſettle the bounds of Nova-Scotia. This was done; but thoſe of the French endeavoured by all the arts of ſophiſtry to prove, that the Nova-Scotia ceded to the Engliſh by the treaty of Utrecht, was no more than the peninſula of that country. The Britiſh commiſſaries juſtified our claim to the whole by memorials filled with the ſtrongeſt and moſt evident proofs; and the moſt trifling anſwers being returned to theſe, admiral Boſcawen was ſent to ſeize the French ſhips in North America; and France evidently appearing to have concerted the means of conquering all the Britiſh dominions on that continent, the late war was entered into to prevent it. During all this time, the French of Nova-Scotia continued their cruel and infamous practices, till at the beginning of that war, when

the government being convinced that theſe French rebels, called neutrals, from their having ſworn allegiance to the crown of Great Britain, were more inveterate and dangerous enemies than thoſe who were under no ſuch obligation; and finding that all methods to render them good ſubjects were ineffectual, they were forcibly deprived of their eſtates, and with their families were obliged to leave the province.

SECT. II.

Of CANADA, *or* NEW FRANCE.

Its Situation and Extent; a conciſe Account of its Rivers, Mountains, Vegetables, and Animals.

CANADA, the largeſt province upon the continent, is now bounded on the north-eaſt by the gulph of St. Lawrence and St. John's river; on the ſouth-weſt by lands inhabited by the Indians; on the ſouthward by the province of New York, New England, and Nova Scotia; and on the north-weſtward by lands claimed by the Indians. Quebec, which is its capital, is ſeated near the centre, in lat. forty-ſix degrees forty-five min. and in ſixty-nine deg. forty-eight min. weſt longitude; and the country extends, according to Major Rogers, about five hundred miles in length, from the north-eaſt to the ſouth-weſt, and upwards of two hundred miles in breadth.

The French comprehended under the name of Canada, a much larger territory, taking into their claim great part of the New England provinces, and of the provinces of New York and Nova Scotia; northerly to Hudſon's-Bay; to the weſt as far as the Pacific Ocean; and to the ſouthward extending it to the gulph of Mexico. They even endeavoured to ſupport their claim, by erecting a chain of forts from the mouth of the river St. Lawrence to their ſettlements in Louſiana.

They began the ſettlement of this province in 1605 at Quebec, which is ſeated on the north ſhore of the river St. Lawrence, about three hundred miles from its mouth; and about the ſame time began to form ſettlements upon the iſland of Orleans, which is ſeated in that river, a little below Quebec; likewiſe on each ſide of the river, to its mouth, and on ſeveral ſmaller rivers that fall into it. They ſoon after began a ſettlement called Jecorty, about twenty miles up the river from Quebec, and erected a fort at Chamblee on the river Sorreil, near its influx into the lake Champlain. Soon after this the foundations of Montreal were laid on the iſland of the ſame name, in the river St. Lawrence, two hundred miles above Quebec. Another ſettlement was made at Trois Rivieres, or the Three Rivers, ſo called from a river diſcharging itſelf by three mouths into that of St. Lawrence; and is ſeated about half way between Quebec and Montreal, in a very delightful ſpot, that affords the moſt agreeable proſpect of any in the whole country. There are many other ſettlements on the banks of the river St. Lawrence, and of thoſe which flow into it, as well as on the iſlands formed in it.

While the above ſettlements were forming Sir David Kirk, in 1629, with the Engliſh under his command, took Canada, which was then conſidered as within the limits of the Britiſh dominions, attacked Quebec, and made themſelves maſters of all the French ſettlements. But they were reſtored by the treaty of 1632, and continued in their poſſeſſion till September 13, 1759, when Quebec was ſurrendered to the generals Monckton and Townſend, commanding the Britiſh troops that had been deſtined for the expedition againſt it the preceding ſpring, under the command of general Wolfe; and on the eighth of September, 1760, all Canada was delivered up to the Engliſh in the capitulation of Montreal; but we ſhall give a particular account of the taking of Quebec, after having deſcribed that city.

The climate here is cold, the winters long and tedious, eſpecially in the north-eaſterly parts of the province; notwithſtanding which the ſoil is in general very good, and in many parts both pleaſant and fertile, producing moſt kinds of Engliſh grain and vegetables in great abundance, eſpecially the iſland of Orleans, and the iſlands and lands near it, which are remarkable for the richneſs of their ſoil.

The ſummers of Canada are exceeding pleaſant, and are ſaid to have ſo happy an effect upon the ſoil, that the farmer expects to reap his crop in ſixteen weeks from the time of ſowing his ſeed. The meadow grounds, which are well watered, yield excellent graſs, and breed vaſt quantities of large and ſmall cattle; and where the land is well cultivated, it produces rich crops. The mountains abound with coal-mines. This province has in ſome parts very excellent timber, ſuch as white pines, oak of different kinds, and ſpruce in great abundance.

The rivers branching through this extenſive country are very numerous, and many of them navigable a conſiderable way; but they are all ſwallowed up by the river St. Lawrence. This river is eighty miles wide at its entrance into the ſea at Cape Roſire's, and in its courſe forms a variety of bays, harbours, and iſlands; the moſt pleaſant and fruitful of which is the iſland of Orleans, juſt mentioned, a little below Quebec, the ſoil of which is excellent, and being well improved, produces in abundance all the kinds of grain and vegetables common to the climate, it extending twenty-one miles in length, and three or four in breadth. The French, while in poſſeſſion of this province, induſtriouſly repreſented the navigation of the river St. Lawrence to be difficult and dangerous; but the contrary has been ſince found to be the caſe, ſhips of the line meeting with no difficulty in ſailing to Quebec.

The land in general on both ſides of the river is low and level; but oppoſite to Quebec are two conſiderable mountains, called the Lady Mountains, which run from thence ſouth-weſt through the continent to the country of the Creek Indians, on the north part of the Two Floridas, in one continued ridge; and wherever rivers paſs through them they riſe very ſteep on each ſide to their common height. This ridge of mountains is called the Apalachian hills.

The country affords plenty of ſtags, elks, bears, foxes, martins, ferrets, weazles, ſquirrels, hares, rabbits, and other animals.

The elk is near as large as a horſe, but reſembles the deer, and, like it, annually renews its horns. The Indians have a great veneration for this animal, and imagine that to dream of it portends good fortune and long life. The elk delights in cold countries, feeding upon graſs in ſummer, and moſs-buds, &c. in winter, when they herd together. It is dangerous to approach very near him when he is hunted, as he ſometimes turns furiouſly on his purſuers, and tramples them to pieces. To prevent this, the hunter throws his cloaths to him, and while the deluded animal ſpends his fury on theſe, he takes proper meaſures to diſpatch him.

The wild-cats are great enemies to the elk; and, notwithſtanding their being vaſtly inferior in ſize, often make a prey of him: for he has no other way to diſengage himſelf from them, but by plunging into the water.

The Indians ſcarce undertake any thing with greater ſolemnity than hunting the bear; and an alliance with a noted bear-hunter, who has killed ſeveral in one day, is more eagerly ſought after than that of one who has rendered himſelf famous in war; this chace ſupplying them both with food and raiment. The bears lodge during the winter either in hollow trees or caves; and, as they lay up no proviſions, have no food during that ſeaſon.

The bear is not naturally fierce, except when wounded or pinched with hunger. They run themſelves very poor in the month of July; and it is ſomewhat dangerous to meet them till their hunger is ſatisfied, and they recover their fleſh, which they do very ſuddenly. They are very fond of grapes, and moſt kinds of fruit. When proviſions are ſcarce in the woods, they venture out among the ſettlements, and make great havock of the Indian-corn; and ſometimes kill the ſwine. Their chief weapons are their fore-paws, with which they will hug any animal they ſeize immediately to death.

The ſkunk, or pole-cat, is very common, and called by the Indians the ſtinking beaſt, on account of its emitting a diſagreeable ſmell to a conſiderable diſtance, when purſued

Rooker Sculp.

A View of **QUEBEC** *from the Bason.*

purſued or diſturbed. It is about the ſize of a ſmall cat, has ſhining hair of a grey colour, with two white lines that form an oval on its back. The fur of this animal, with that of the ermin, otter, and martin, make up what is called the ſmall peltry.

The ermin is about the ſize of the ſquirrel; its fur is extremely white, its tail long, and the tip of it as black as jet.

The martin, or ſable, lives principally among the mountains; is as long as a common cat, but very ſlender: their fur is very fine and valuable.

The muſk-rat reſembles the beaver in every part, except its tail, which is round like that of a rat. One of theſe animals weighs about five or ſix pounds. During the ſummer ſeaſon the male and female keep together, but ſeparate at the approach of winter; and each ſeeks a ſhelter in ſome hollow tree, without laying up any proviſions.

The foxes here are of various colours, as black, grey, red, and white; who, by their craft and cunning, make great havock among the water-fowl in the lakes and rivers.

The country abounds with a vaſt variety of fowls; and the rivers and lakes are well ſtored with ſalmon, eels, and a multitude of various kinds of other fiſh.

SECT. III.

A Deſcription of Quebec and Montreal; with a particular Account of the Conqueſt of thoſe Cities, by which all Canada became ſubject to the Crown of Great Britain.

QUEBEC, the capital of Canada, ſeated about three hundred miles north-weſt of Boſton, in New England, is a handſome and large city, ſtrongly fortified. The harbour is flanked with two baſtions, which at high tides are almoſt level with the water. A little above one of them is a demi-baſtion, which is partly taken out of the rock; and above it, on the ſide of the gallery of the fort, is a battery of twenty-five pieces of cannon: above this is a ſquare fort called the citadel, and the ways from one fortification to another are difficult to paſs. To the left of the harbour, on the ſide of the road, are large batteries of cannon, and ſome mortars. It is encompaſſed with walls, and has a caſtle on the brow of a hill, about forty fathoms above the town; but it is irregularly built, and fortified with only two baſtions, and no ditch towards the town. It has alſo another fort at Cape Diamond of ſolid rock, four hundred fathoms high: but it owes its greateſt ſtrength to nature. The firſt place taken notice of upon landing here is a ſquare of an irregular figure, with well-built houſes on one ſide; on the back of which is a rock; on the left it is bounded by a ſmall church; and on the right has two rows of houſes parallel to each other. There is another between the church and the harbour; as alſo another long row on the ſide of the bay. This is called the Lower Town, which is moſtly inhabited by merchants; but it is too much crowded. Between this and the Upper Town is a very ſteep aſcent, in which are ſteps for the foot paſſengers to go up. This has noble edifices, and between two large ſquares is a fort, in which the governor reſides. Oppoſite the fort the Recollects have handſome houſes, and on the right is the cathedral, which is built in a mean ſtile, but has a large, high, and well-built tower, that may be ſeen at a great diſtance. Over-againſt this is the Jeſuits college, which is a fine building; and between them are well-built-houſes. The houſe of the Knights Hoſpitallers is a ſtately ſtructure, with two fine pavilions. In the ſecond ſquare are two deſcents to the river of St. Charles, an hoſpital called Hotel-Dieu is in the midway, and from thence are ſmaller houſes, which reach to that of the intendant. On the other ſide of the Jeſuits college is a pretty long ſtreet, in which is a nunnery. Almoſt all the houſes are built of ſtone, and there are above ſeven thouſand inhabitants. Beſides the Lower and Higher Towns, there is another beyond the latter, on the banks of the river St. Charles, along which are ſeveral noble country ſeats.

In 1711 the Engliſh fitted out a fleet, with a deſign to conquer Canada: but the expedition failed, from the raſhneſs of the admiral, who, contrary to the advice of his pilot, ſailed too near the Seven Iſles, and thus loſt his largeſt ſhips, with three thouſand of his beſt ſailors. But it has ſince been attacked with much better ſucceſs.

It will not be improper to give here a particular account of the taking of this city, one of the moſt difficult enterprizes that was ever effected by the united efforts of prudence and valour. The ſituation of the place, and the fortifications with which it is ſecured; the natural ſtrength of the country; the great number of veſſels and floating batteries the French had provided for the defence of the river; the ſkill, labour, ſuperior force, and uncommon vigilance of the enemy; their numerous bodies of Indians, who continually hovered about the poſts of the Engliſh to ſurprize parties and harraſs detachments; theſe, and many other obſtacles, formed ſuch a combination of difficulties, as was ſufficient to diſcourage and perplex the braveſt and moſt intelligent general.

But the ſpirit of Wolfe was not to be intimidated by danger; embarking the troops on board the tranſports, he paſſed with them up the river; while admiral Holmes made a motion with his ſhips to amuſe the enemy, now poſted along the north ſhore. But the tranſports being extremely crowded, and the weather very bad, the general thought proper to canton half his troops on the ſouth ſhore, where they were refreſhed. As no probability appeared of annoying the enemy above the town, it was agreed to convey the troops farther down in boats, and land them during the night within a league of Cape Diamond, in hopes of aſcending the heights of Abraham, which riſe abruptly with a ſteep aſcent from the banks of the river, that they might take poſſeſſion of the ground on the back of the city, where the fortifications were but indifferent: but the dangers and difficulties attending this undertaking were exceeding great. The ſtream was rapid; the ſhore ſhelving; the bank of the river lined with centinels; the landing-place ſo narrow as to be eaſily miſſed in the dark; and the ground ſo difficult as hardly to be ſurmounted in the day-time, had no oppoſition been expected. Had the enemy received the leaſt intimation from a ſpy or deſerter, or even ſuſpected the deſign; had the embarkation been diſcovered in conſequence of the rapidity of the river, or the ſteepneſs of the north ſhore, near which they were obliged to row; had only one centinel been alarmed, or the landing-place much miſtaken; the height of Abraham muſt have been inſtantly ſecured by ſuch a force as would have rendered the undertaking abortive; confuſion would have neceſſarily enſued in the dark; and this confuſion would naturally have produced a panic, which might have proved fatal to the greater part of the detachment. Theſe objections did not eſcape the penetration of the intrepid Wolfe, though he readily adopted the plan, and even executed it in perſon, though at that time afflicted with a ſevere dyſentery and fever.

Having prepared for this dangerous enterprize, admiral Holmes moved with his ſquadron farther up the river, about three leagues above the intended landing-place, in order to deceive the enemy, and amuſe M. de Bougainville, whom Montcalm had detached with fifteen hundred men to watch the motions of that ſquadron; but the Engliſh admiral was directed to fall down in the night, and protect the landing of the forces; this he punctually performed. On the twelfth of September, at one in the morning, the firſt embarkation, conſiſting of four complete regiments, the light infantry, commanded by colonel Howe, a detachment of Highlanders, and the American grenadiers, was made in flat-bottomed boats, under the immediate command of the brigadiers Monckton and Murray, though general Wolfe accompanied them in perſon, and was one of the firſt who landed: and they began to fall down with the tide to the intended place of diſembarkation, rowing cloſe along the north ſhore, in order to find it the more eaſily. The boats glided gently along without any diſorder; but by the rapidity of the tide, and the darkneſs of the night, they overſhot the mark, and the troops landed a little below the place intended.

This remarkable ſucceſs in landing without the leaſt knowledge of the enemy, was in ſome meaſure owing to the following accident: two French deſerters had been carried the evening before the embarkation on board the Engliſh fleet, and from them the general learned that the garriſon of Quebec expected that night to receive a convoy of proviſions, ſent down the river in boats, from the detachment above, commanded by M. de Bougainville. The knowledge of this particular was of the utmoſt conſequence, and tended to deceive the centinels poſted along ſhore to challenge boats and veſſels, and give the alarm. The firſt boat that contained the Engliſh troops being queſtioned accordingly, a captain of Fraſer's regiment, who had ſerved in Holland, and was perfectly acquainted with the French language and cuſtoms, anſwered without heſitation to *Qui vit*, which is their challenging word, *De la France:* nor was he at a loſs to anſwer the ſecond queſtion, which was much more particular and difficult. When the centinel demanded *A quel regiment?* to what regiment? the captain replied, *De la reine*, which he knew by accident to be one of thoſe that compoſed the body commanded by Bougainville. The ſoldier took it for granted that this was the expected convoy, and ſaying *Paſſe*, allowed all the boats to proceed without farther queſtion.

The troops were no ſooner landed, than the boats were ſent back for a ſecond embarkation, which was under the direction of brigadier Townſhend. In the mean time colonel Howe, with the light infantry and Highlanders, aſcended the woody precipice with admirable courage and activity; for the narrow path that ſlanted up the hill from the landing place had been broken up, and rendered impaſſable by croſs-ditches: and in every other part the hill was ſo ſteep and dangerous, that the ſoldiers were obliged to pull themſelves up by the roots and boughs of trees, growing on each ſide of the path. In their paſſage they diſlodged a captain's guard, which defended a paſſage, by which alone the reſt of the troops could reach the ſummit. After this the whole army mounted without moleſtation, and the general drew up the troops as faſt as they arrived.

M. de Montcalm no ſooner underſtood that the Engliſh had gained the heights of Abraham, than he determined to hazard a battle; and collecting his whole force without delay, marched towards the Engliſh.

Mean while the brave general Wolfe, perceiving that the French were croſſing the river St. Charles, formed his own line; the right commanded by brigadier Monckton, and the left by brigadier Murray, while colonel Howe, who had juſt returned with his light infantry from taking a four-gun battery, was poſted in the rear of the left. M. de Montcalm advancing in ſuch a manner as ſhewed his intention was to flank the left of the Engliſh, brigadier Townſhend was ſent with the regiment of Amherſt, which he formed, preſenting a double front to the enemy, and was afterwards reinforced by two battalions. The reſerve conſiſted of one regiment, drawn up in eight ſub-diviſions, with large intervals. The enemy's right was compoſed of half the colony troops, and a body of Canadians and Indians: their center conſiſted of a column of two other regular battalions; and on the left were poſted one battalion, and the remainder of the colony troops: the buſhes and corn-fields in their front were lined with fifteen hundred of their beſt markſmen, who kept up an irregular galling fire, which proved fatal to ſeveral brave officers, who were ſingled out for deſtruction. This fire was indeed choaked by the advanced poſts of the Britiſh line, who piqueered with the enemy ſome hours before the battle began. Both armies were almoſt entirely deſtitute of artillery; the French having only two pieces, and the Engliſh no more than one, which the ſeamen had with great difficulty drawn up from the landing-place; but this ſingle piece, being well ſerved, galled their columns ſeverely.

The enemy advanced to the charge with great order and vivacity, about nine in the evening, though their fire was both irregular and ineffectual. The Britiſh forces, on the contrary, reſerved their ſhot till the French approached within forty yards of their line, when they poured in a terrible diſcharge, and continued their fire with ſuch ſpirit and deliberation, as could not fail of producing a very remarkable effect. The general himſelf ſtood in the warmeſt part of the attack, at the head of Brag's regiment and the Louiſburgh grenadiers, conſpicuous in the very front of the line, where he was aimed at by the enemy's markſmen, and at laſt received a ſhot in his wriſt, which, however, did not oblige him to quit the field: wrapping a handkerchief about the wound, he continued to give his orders, without the leaſt emotion; and boldly advanced at the head of the grenadiers, with their bayonets fixed, when another ball unfortunately pierced the breaſt of the young hero, who fell at the moment when victory was crowning all his labours with ſucceſs; for at that inſtant every regiment of the Britiſh army ſeemed to exert itſelf for the honour of its own peculiar character. While the right puſhed on with their bayonets, brigadier Murray advanced briſkly with the troops under his command, and ſoon broke the enemy's center; when the Highlanders, ſupported by Anſtruther's regiment, drawing their broad ſwords, fell in among them with irreſiſtible impetuoſity, driving them with great ſlaughter into the city, and the works they had raiſed at the bridge over the river St. Charles. The action was leſs violent on the left and the rear of the Engliſh. Colonel Howe having taken poſt with two companies, behind a ſmall copſe, frequently ſallied out on the flanks of the enemy during the attack, and often drove them into heaps, while brigadier Townſhend advanced platoons againſt their front: ſo that the right wing of the French was prevented from executing their firſt intention. The brigadier himſelf continued at the head of Amherſt's regiment to ſupport this diſpoſition, and overcome a body of Indians poſted oppoſite to the light infantry, waiting for an opportunity of falling upon the rear of the Britiſh army.

General Wolfe being ſlain, and Mr. Monckton dangerouſly wounded at the head of Laſcelles's regiment, where he diſtinguiſhed himſelf with remarkable gallantry, the command devolved on brigadier Townſhend, who haſtened to the center; and finding the troops diſordered in the purſuit, formed them again with all poſſible expedition. He had hardly performed this neceſſary part of his duty, when M. de Bougainville, at the head of two thouſand freſh men, appeared in the rear of the Engliſh. He had begun his march from Cape Rouge as ſoon as he received intelligence that the Britiſh troops had gained the heights of Abraham; but did not reach the field of battle ſoon enough to have any ſhare in the action; for this body no ſooner approached the Britiſh rear, than Mr. Townſhend ordered two battalions, with two pieces of artillery, to advance; but the French prevented an attack by retiring among woods and ſwamps, whither general Townſhend, who had already obtained a complete victory, wiſely declined purſuing them; he having a great number of French officers priſoners, and being in poſſeſſion of a very advantageous ſituation. M. de Montcalm, the French general, was mortally wounded in the battle, and conveyed into Quebec; but before he died wrote a letter to general Townſhend, recommending the priſoners to that generous humanity which diſtinguiſhes the Britiſh nation. His ſecond in command was left wounded on the field, and being conveyed on board an Engliſh ſhip, expired the next day. About a thouſand of the enemy were made priſoners, including a great number of officers; and about eight hundred were ſlain on the field of battle. Among the Engliſh army, it is ſaid that no more than fifty men were killed in gaining this important victory, and about five hundred wounded; but the death of general Wolfe was a national loſs univerſally lamented.

This victory was no ſooner obtained than admiral Saunders, who had all along heartily aſſiſted the land-forces, for the advantage of the ſervice, ſent up all the boats of the fleet with artillery and ammunition; and on the ſeventeenth ſailed up with all the ſhips of war, in a diſpoſition to attack the Lower Town, while the Upper ſhould be aſſaulted by general Townſhend. That gentleman had employed his whole time ſince the action in ſecuring the camp with redoubts; in forming a military-road for the cannon; in drawing up the artillery; preparing

paring batteries; and cutting off the enemy's communication with the country. But on the ſeventeenth, before any battery could be finiſhed, a flag of truce was ſent from the city, with propoſals for a capitulation; which were accepted and ſigned at eight o'clock next morning. By theſe articles it was agreed, that the garriſon ſhould march out with all the honours of war, and be ſent to France: that the inhabitants, on their laying down their arms, ſhould be maintained in the poſſeſſion of their houſes and effects: that the effects belonging to the abſent officers ſhould not be touched: that the exerciſe of the Roman religion ſhould be fully permitted: that the artillery and warlike ſtores ſhould be delivered up; and the ſick and wounded taken care of.

Thus was the city of Quebec taken by a handful of troops, and at the ſigning of the peace was confirmed to Great Britain.

The moſt conſiderable place, next to Quebec, is Montreal, which is ſeated on an iſland of the ſame name in the river St. Lawrence, upwards of two hundred miles above Quebec, and is nearly as large and populous as that city. The iſland of Montreal is exceeding fertile, and well improved, producing great plenty of greens, and ſome fruit. It is about twenty-eight miles in length, and ten in breadth. The town is pretty well fortified, and is much more pleaſantly ſituated than Quebec. The ſtreets are regular, and the houſes well built, commodious, and agreeable. It ſtands by the ſide of the river, on a gradual eaſy aſcent to what is called the Upper Town, whence you may ſee every houſe at one view from the harbour, or from the ſouth ſide of the river. The public buildings exceed thoſe of Quebec for beauty, and are equal to them in number. The Hotel-Dieu, the magazines, and the place of arms, are in the Lower Town, which is alſo the reſidence of the merchants. The ſeminary, the pariſh-church, the houſe of the Recollects, the Jeſuits-college, and nunneries, are in the Upper. There is alſo a general hoſpital, and a church belonging to the Jeſuits, which is large and well built. The principal trade of the inhabitants has long conſiſted in the ſkins and furs they purchaſe of the Indians.

This iſland and city were taken on the eighth of September, 1760, by the generals Amherſt and Murray, without firing a gun, which completed the conqueſt of Canada; for by the terms of the capitulation, all the French forces in that country were to be ſent to France. Montreal has lately ſuffered by a moſt terrible fire, which conſumed great part of the city, the houſes of many of the merchants, and a number of ſtately buildings. This dreadful loſs inſtantly awakened the humanity of the inhabitants of this kingdom, and great ſums have been raiſed in the city of London, to remove the diſtreſſes of theſe new ſubjects to the Britiſh crown.

SECT. IV.

Of the interior Country of North America beyond the preſent Government of Canada; with a conciſe Account of the Rivers and Lakes, their Cataracts, and a Deſcription of the Countries and Indian Nations on their Banks.

THE river of St. Lawrence is repreſented as running through a conſiderable number of lakes, which ſome repreſent in Canada, and others on its ſouthern and weſtern borders; but ſurely nothing can be more improper, than to trace the courſe of a river through a number of lakes of a prodigious extent, merely becauſe thoſe lakes have in ſome part or other of them a communication by a ſtreight.

As theſe lakes are generally deſcribed in treating of Canada, it will be proper here to give ſome account of them, and of the Indians who dwell upon their banks. The fartheſt of theſe lakes, from which the river St. Lawrence is injudiciouſly ſuppoſed to ariſe, is named Nippiſſong, which in the Engliſh language ſignifies a large body of water. It is ſeated to the north-weſt of Lake Superior, in the fifty-ſecond degree of latitude. The northern bank of this lake is a bog, or moraſs, near four hundred miles in length, from the north-eaſt to the ſouth-weſt, and about a hundred and fifty miles broad. To the north of this bog is a ridge of mountains, extending from the north-eaſt to the ſouth-weſt, the whole length of the marſhy country, and beyond it to the weſtward: theſe are very high and ſteep, and are ſuppoſed to be the moſt lofty mountains in North America, whence they are called the Head of the country. To the ſouth-eaſt of theſe riſes a ſtream, which is ſuppoſed to be the head of the river St. Lawrence; on the north-eaſt riſes the river Chriſtino, which runs to the north-eaſtward, till it falls into Hudſon's-bay; and from the ſouth and ſouth-weſt of theſe mountains riſes the Miſſiſſippi, which runs to the ſouthward, and at length diſcharges itſelf into the gulph of Mexico; ſo that by theſe rivers the country is divided into ſo many departments as it were from a center, which may be placed at the above mountains.

The Indians who inhabit the country round this lake are called the Lake Indians, and have about five or ſix thouſand men. They chiefly live upon the weſt, ſouth, and ſouth-eaſt ſides of the lake, and on the iſlands it contains. Their country is of conſiderable extent, but of very difficult acceſs; on which account they have had little or no connection with the Engliſh or French; and as they have no fire-arms, they hunt with bows and arrows. They ſeldom concern themſelves with any other tribe of Indians, and live almoſt as independent as if they had the world to themſelves. They never pretend to plant or improve the land by labour, but live on ſuch food as the lake and the country affords them. From this lake a ſtream runs through a rough, broken, uninhabited country to Lake Superior, having in its courſe ſeveral cataracts, the moſt remarkable of which is about fifteen miles from the lake, where the water falls perpendicularly from a great height. The river here is a quarter of a mile wide, and a rock extending acroſs the ſtream, it falls from thence with a noiſe that may be heard at the diſtance of ſeveral miles. Below theſe falls is great plenty of fiſh, eſpecially of trout, which are very large and good.

At the entrance of this river into the lake is a town of Indians, called the Attawawas, or Souties, which dwell all along by the mouths of the rivers that fall into Lake Superior. They can raiſe about twelve thouſand fighting men, and by carrying on a conſiderable commerce with the French, are more improved than the Nippiſſongs. They live in huts built in the form of cones; the baſe is generally from ſixteen to twenty feet wide, and the top is left open for about two feet for a chimney and a window, their fire being kindled in the center. To render theſe huts a defence againſt the cold, they cover them with mats of ruſhes, which they weave very neatly, and place in ſuch a manner as to render theſe dwellings, which commonly contain ten or twelve perſons, very warm and comfortable.

When theſe people remove from one place to another for the ſake of hunting, fiſhing, or any other convenience, they carry their external covering with them; by which means they are able, in a ſhort time, to erect new towns, which have all the convenience of the old ones. They generally change their habitations in ſpring and autumn; ſpending the ſummer ſeaſon upon the banks of the rivers and lakes, where they fiſh and raiſe corn; and living during the winter among the mountains, ſometimes two or three hundred miles diſtant, for the ſake of meeting with a great quantity of game in hunting. They as yet make but little uſe of ſpirituous liquors; nor do they make any kind of drink, except of the juice of the maple-tree: when in health they live upon the ſimple gifts of nature, and when ſick the woods and lakes furniſh them with all the drugs they uſe; in the application of which ſome are allowed to have a ſuperior ſkill, but aſk no fee or reward for their trouble. They have private property, which they transfer to one another, by way of bargain and exchange; which, if taken from them unfairly, brings contempt on the aggreſſor; but there can here be little temptation to fraud or robbery, as no individual or family is allowed to ſuffer by poverty, ſickneſs, or any other misfortune, while their neighbours can ſupply their wants.

On the north of Lake Superior is another tribe of the Indians called the Bulls. Theſe dwell round what is called the

the North Bay, and differ little from the Souties in their manners, they being originally of the ſame nation, as appears by there being ſuch an affinity between the two languages, that they can perfectly underſtand one another. They can raiſe about four thouſand fighting men, and their chief trade is to Hudſon's-bay, where they carry fur and ermines in great abundance, and exchange them for blankets, arms, and ammunition.

Lake Superior is deſcribed by major Rogers as two thouſand miles in circumference, and is very deep, except near the weſt end, where are ſeveral iſlands; and near the place where it is joined by the river is a large iſland, ſeparated from the main by a ſtreight five or ſix miles wide. The ſoil of this iſland is very good, and on it are ſeveral Indian towns. The banks to the north, ſouth, and eaſt, are very high and ſteep, they riſing in ſome places above two hundred feet from the ſurface of the water, and almoſt perpendicular; ſo that it is very difficult landing, except where the rivers of this iſland fall into the lake. There are alſo ſome good iſlands in the north bay of the lake, forty or fifty miles in length, but not near ſo much in breadth.

The Indians in this territory enjoy the greateſt plenty of the neceſſaries, and even of the luxuries of life. Here are beaſts, fowl, and fiſh, of every ſize and kind common to the climate, in the greateſt abundance; and it may become a rich and valuable country, ſhould it ever be inhabited by a civilized people. It has not only rivers, but what may be termed a ſea of its own, which, by its communication with the river of St. Lawrence, makes great amends for its inland ſituation, by affording all the advantages of trade and commerce, from one part of the country to the other, by a cheap and eaſy conveyance; nor do the Indians entirely neglect this advantage, but make great uſe of canoes on the rivers and lakes. Theſe they form of the bark of birch, ſpruce, and elm; but thoſe made of the former are ſaid to be much the largeſt and beſt, as they are well ſuited to the country; ſince they will carry from four or five hundred to two thouſand weight, and are ſo light that a ſingle Indian, on his coming to a cataract, will carry it upon his back, till he thinks proper to take the water again.

Lake Superior has a communication with Lake Huron by a ſtreight upwards of a hundred and fifty miles in length. The ſtream is here generally very rapid, and has one conſiderable cataract, round which the Indians are obliged to carry their canoes when they paſs this way. The land near the ſtreight between the two lakes is hilly and broken, but a great deal of it is capable of being improved to good advantage. The timber is thick and lofty; iron ore is here found in the greateſt plenty; this is ſaid to be the beſt in America: and there are ſtreams ſufficient for any kind of water-works.

Lake Huron, which is nine hundred miles in circumference, is of a triangular form; one of the extremities points to the north-weſt at the ſtreights of Michlimacana; another to the ſouth, where a ſtreight runs into the lake of Erie; and a third to the north-eaſt, where a conſiderable ſtream flows into it, called the Souties river, from which there is but a ſhort carrying-place to the river of the Attawawas, which joins the river of St. Lawrence near Montreal.

The country about Lake Huron is to the north and north-weſt rocky and mountainous; but on the ſouth-eaſt the land is low, and covered with lofty trees, as oaks, white-pine, walnut, aſh, and maple. On the ſouth-weſt the land is level and plain, having few trees upon it of any kind, but the ſoil is pretty good and covered with tall graſs; among which are great plenty of deer, elks, bears, and racoons. It alſo abounds in a great variety of land and water-fowl, and every thing neceſſary to ſupply the natural wants of mankind. There are about three thouſand inhabitants who dwell round this lake, ſix hundred of whom are capable of bearing arms.

On the weſt ſide of the above plain is Lake Mechigan, which is nearly of the ſame form as Lake Huron; but is larger, and extends farther to the ſouth. Between theſe lakes a communication is formed by the ſtreight of Michlimacana, which is fifteen miles wide, and forty in length. At the point adjoining to Lake Mechigan ſtands our fort of Michlimacana, which is a good ſtockade near twenty feet high. There are in this place ſome French inhabitants, who come here for the ſake of trading with the Indians, and for the trout-fiſhery, which is here very valuable: the trout in theſe ſtreights being in great plenty; and of an extraordinary ſize, ſome having been taken that weighed upwards of eighty pounds. The Indians annually reſort hither from all the adjacent countries for the ſake of theſe fiſh, and yet their numbers ſeem to be not at all diminiſhed. On the ſouth-eaſt ſide of Lake Mechigan are ſome towns of the Souties; and on the ſouth and weſt ſides live the Pottawatamies. In ſhort, the Indians around this lake amount to about four thouſand fighting men.

On the north-weſt ſide of Lake Mechigan is a ſtreight about forty miles wide, and a hundred long, in which are many iſlands, ſome of which are inhabited by the Attawawas, and others by the Pottawatamies. This ſtreight leads into what is called the Green-bay, a lake of conſiderable extent, into which flows a large river that lies between Lake Superior and the Miſſiſſippi, and is called the river of Foxes. On the banks of this river live a nation called the Fox Indians, who have no leſs than four or five thouſand men.

The extended country upon this river, and on the ſtreight from the lake of Mechigan to the Green-bay, is uniformly fertile and pleaſant, and wants nothing but the cultivation of an induſtrious people to render it perfectly delightful. The timber is tall, but not ſo thick as to prevent the growth of graſs, which is here ſo luxuriant as to riſe five or ſix feet in height. This invites a multitude of buffaloes, wild cows, elks, deer, bears, beavers, and other animals, which, with plenty of wild game and fiſh, render this a moſt deſirable region, for the air is no leſs agreeable than the ſoil. The winters are never ſevere, and, during great part of the year, the country wears a delightful verdure. Here alſo grow ſpontaneouſly a great variety of grapes, which are agreeable to the taſte, and might be improved to conſiderable advantage. The Indians have learned that their juice will revive the ſpirits, and therefore make from them a kind of rough claret; but not knowing how to manage it properly, it is greatly inferior to what it it might be made under the management of ſkilful perſons; and this liquor they put in their empty rum-kegs. This country likewiſe produces a kind of wild oats, or rice, which grows in the greateſt plenty in ſhallow water, above which it riſes two or three feet. The ear reſembles that of oats, but the kernel is more like rice; and there is ſo much of it, that canoes may be loaded in a ſhort time. The Indians in this country raiſe Indian-corn, and have many horſes. Their cabbins reſemble thoſe deſcribed near Lake Superior.

From the ſouth point of Lake Huron a ſtreight, as hath been already obſerved, runs eaſterly about eighty miles into Lake Erie, paſſing in its way through Lake St. Clair. The country on both ſides is level and good, abounding with tall oaks, maple, &c. The ſtreight on its entering Lake St. Clair, or, as it is ſometimes called, Lake Sinclair, is divided into ſeveral branches, which form five or ſix iſlands of various dimenſions. Lake St. Clair is nearly circular, and about eighteen miles over. On the eaſt ſide are large marſhes, and at the lower end of that ſide a ſtreight of a conſiderable ſize enters it, from which, by a ſhort carrying-place, is an eaſy conveyance to Lake Ontario, uſed by the inhabitants who dwell on its banks.

The ſtreight at the entrance of Lake Erie forms a bay, below which is the fort of Detroit, and the French are ſettled on both ſides of the ſtreight for about eight miles. The Engliſh fort is built of ſtockades: it is about twenty-five feet high, and twelve hundred yards in circumference. It is in a pleaſant ſituation, the land is very good, and the inhabitants not only raiſe a great deal of wheat and other grain, but have plenty of cattle. They, however, chiefly enrich themſelves by their trade with the Indians, which is here very lucrative.

Lake Erie extends three hundred miles in length from the ſouth-weſt to the north-eaſt; it is eighty or ninety miles

miles wide at the weſterly end, and about forty at the lower end, where it tapers off to ſeven or eight miles, near the ſtreight which joins it to Lake Ontario. At the weſt end of the lake the river Miamee flows into it, which has an eaſy communication with the Ohio by the river Walbach, there being no more than twelve miles land-carriage between the two rivers. At the ſouth-weſt corner of Lake Erie the Lake Sanduſky has a communication with it by a ſtreight half a mile broad. This laſt lake is thirty miles in length, and eight or ten wide. Into it flows the river Sanduſky, or Huron, upon the banks of which, and round the Sanduſky, the Huron Indians have ſeveral towns in a very pleaſant fertile country; they can raiſe about ſix or ſeven hundred fighting men, and differ in their manners from any of the Indians yet mentioned. They build regular houſes, which they cover with bark, and are eſteemed the richeſt Indians upon the whole continent, they having not only many horſes, but ſome black cattle and ſwine. They likewiſe raiſe great quantities of corn, not only for their own uſe, but in order to ſupply other tribes, who purchaſe it of them. Their country extends a hundred and fifty miles to the weſtward of the lake, and is a hundred miles broad. The ſoil is not exceeded by any in this part of the world; the timber is tall and beautiful; the woods abound with game; here is the greateſt plenty of water-fowl, and both the rivers and lakes contain a variety of fiſh. In ſhort, if it was properly improved, the land would equal that in any of the Britiſh colonies on the ſea-coaſts.

The country on the ſouth ſide is claimed by the Indians of the Five Nations, who do not inhabit it, but keep it for the ſake of hunting. The country is level and very fine for ſeveral miles, having many ſtreams flowing through it into the lake. Our fort at Preſque Iſle is on the ſouth ſide about a hundred miles from the eaſt end; and from this fort is a carrying-place of about twelve or fourteen miles, to a branch of the Ohio. From the eaſt end of Lake Erie a ſtreight runs north-eaſterly about fifty miles, and nearly oppoſite to the place where it leaves the lake is Fort Erie, which has been lately built. The current from thence is rapid, on account of the rocks and falls of the water for about a mile; yet veſſels are worked up by the help of windlaſſes. Lower down are ſeveral ſmall iſlands, and at about ſix or ſeven miles diſtance the ſtreight is divided into two branches, which form the Great Iſland, which extends almoſt to Little Niagara fort, and contains forty thouſand acres of good land.

Near Little Niagara fort, which is nothing more than a ſtockade, is a remarkable cataract in the ſtreight which runs into Lake Ontario, and is generally called the river of St. Lawrence. Its courſe is here ſouth-ſouth-eaſt, and it is about half a mile wide, where the rock croſſes it in the form of a half moon. Above the fall is an iſland, about half a mile in length, the lower end of which extends to the edge of the fall. The current of the ſtreight above the iſland is quite ſlow, but on its approaching it, and being divided, it runs more ſwiftly, and, before it comes to the fall, with great violence, eſpecially on the weſt ſide of the iſland, where the whole ſtream appears in a foam, for even here the deſcent is equal to the ſide of a pretty ſteep hill: but when it comes to the perpendicular fall, which is an hundred and fifty feet, no words can expreſs the conſternation of the traveller, on his firſt ſeeing ſo great a body of water falling, or rather violently thrown from ſuch a height upon the rocks below, from which it again rebounds, appearing white as ſnow, it being all converted into foam, through theſe repeated violent agitations. The noiſe of this fall is frequently heard at the diſtance of fifteen miles, and ſometimes much farther. The vapour that riſes from it reſembles a cloud, or pillar of ſmoak, and in it may be ſeen the appearance of a rainbow, whenever the ſun and the poſition of the traveller favours it. Many beaſts and fowls here loſe their lives, by attempting to ſwim acroſs the rapid ſtream above, and are found daſhed in pieces below.

Farther down the ſtream are ſmaller falls for ſeveral miles, which render the ſtreight unnavigable. Its bank on the eaſt ſide is three hundred feet high, till you come to another Engliſh fort nine miles diſtant from Little Niagara; and this length goods are obliged to be carried by land, on account of the cataract and the many leſſer falls of the ſtreight. Perhaps no place in the world is frequented by ſuch a number of eagles as this, they being invited hither by the deer, elks, and bears, which are daſhed to pieces.

The ſtreight enters Lake Ontario at the ſouth-weſt corner, at which place is Niagara fort, an handſome well-built fortification of conſiderable ſtrength. This lake is of an oval form, two hundred and ſixty miles in length, and a hundred and fifty wide in the middle. At its ſouth-eaſtern extremity the river Oſwego falls into it, where we have another fort, and a garriſon kept up of conſiderable force. This is about two hundred miles from Niagara. The river Oſwego riſes from Lake Oneoida, which is about thirty miles in length, and has at the eaſt end a royal block-houſe, which is garriſoned to keep up a communication with the lakes: at the weſt end is Fort Brewerton, another poſt built for the ſame purpoſe; and about half way between this and Oſwego is a block-houſe to command the ferry over the Seneca river.

The country between Oſwego and the river St. Lawrence is level and good for ſeveral miles, and belongs to the Five Nations; ſeveral rivers flow through it, the moſt conſiderable of which is the Sable, which joins the Lake Ontario eighty or ninety miles eaſt of Niagara, and riſes near a branch of the Ohio. In it are ſeveral cataracts, and one higher than that of Niagara. About a hundred and fifty miles up this river are remarkable ſprings greatly eſteemed by the Indians, as a remedy for many diſeaſes: they are called the oil-ſprings on account of an oleous ſubſtance that iſſues forth with the water, and riſes upon its ſurface. The water of theſe ſprings is drank by the Indians as a remedy for conſumptions, aſthmas, and various internal diſorders; and they bathe in it with great ſucceſs for rheumatic pains and ſtrains. In the rivers round Lake Ontario are great plenty of ſalmon during the ſummer ſeaſon; and at the entrance of the river St. Lawrence are in the winter abundance of what are called white fiſh, of which there are ſaid to be none elſe in America, except a few at Long Point. In ſummer they diſappear, and are ſuppoſed, during that ſeaſon, to lie in deep water, out of ſoundings. They are about the ſize of a ſhad, very agreeable to the palate, and it does not appear that there are any of them in Europe. The country round the lake is, to appearance, fertile, capable of valuable improvements, and abounds with water-fowl and variety of game.

The Five Nations have their towns at ſome diſtance from the lake, chiefly upon the rivers that flow into it; but of theſe people we ſhall hereafter give a particular deſcription.

The river St. Lawrence, on its taking leave of the lake, is ten or twelve miles wide, and has ſeveral iſlands; on the moſt northerly of which is a ſmall fortreſs erected by the French, and now kept by us. A little to the ſouth of this iſland it is joined by a conſiderable ſtream, that riſes near Hudſon's-bay, far to the north; it is called Oſwegotchy, and has frequent falls, after aſcending it forty or fifty miles. The above iſland is about twenty miles below the lake, and here the river grows narrower.

From Lake Ontario to the Cedars, the preſent weſtern boundary of the province of Quebec, is about eighty miles; and from thence to Lake St. Francis is near the ſame diſtance, and is conſidered as the next ſtage of St. Lawrence.

We ſhall conclude this ſubject with a conciſe account of the river Chriſtino, which runs far to the north, and ſhall leave the Miſſiſſippi and Ohio till we come to the more ſouthern provinces ſubject to Great Britain.

The river Chriſtino is ſo called from the Indians, who have the name of Chriſtineux, or Chriſtinos, who poſſeſs the country adjoining it. Its higheſt ſource is on the north-eaſt of the Central mountains, called by the Indians the Head of the Country, where it riſes in ſeveral ſtreams, all which bend their courſe towards Hudſon's-bay, and at different places unite, till in the courſe of about a hundred and fifty miles from their ſource they all join, and by their confluence form a large bay, round which live a tribe of Chriſtianos. Farther down the river are a few ſmall lakes, and ſeveral ſmall ſtreams on each

ſide flow into the river; by which means its waters are encreaſed, till it diſcharges itſelf into Hudſon's-bay, near two hundred miles to the north of York fort, and about five hundred from the Central mountains.

The country near this river is greatly inferior to that on the lakes and the river St. Lawrence, it extending from the fifty-fifth to the ſixtieth degree of north latitude. The winters are long and ſevere, the ſnow continues long on the ground, and the ſoil, which is cold and barren, is ſcarce capable of any valuable improvements. The timber here is beech and maple, and for a conſiderable way up the river the land is high; and ſo thickly covered with ſpruce, hemlock, &c. that it is difficult to travel through it, without being entangled; but nearer the mountains the ſoil is better. In the river are many kinds of fiſh; and beaver are taken here in great abundance, with ſome ermines, elks, mooſe, bears, &c. There is likewiſe an animal which reſembles the mooſe, but is much ſmaller, and ſeems peculiar to this country.

The inhabitants ſubſiſt entirely on their fiſh and game, for they raiſe no kind of grain, nor keep any animals, except dogs. The number of warriors in this country is ſuppoſed to amount to about two thouſand. They generally cover their houſes or huts with the ſkins of wild beaſts; and not only make them warm and ſecure, but, according to their taſte, both neat and elegant. Theſe Indians have nearly the ſame language with thoſe on the lakes; and, according to their own hiſtory, they all came round from the north into this country. Indeed, the only hiſtory they have is a verbal one, tranſmitted from father to ſon; yet they pretend to give an exact account for many generations back; for however negligent they are in the education of their children in almoſt every other reſpect, they are very careful in acquainting them with the ſtory of their anceſtors.

SECT. V.

The moſt remarkable Beaſts and Birds in the interior Part of North America.

THE beaſts and birds we ſhall here deſcribe are thoſe principally found in the northern part of the extenſive country of which we have been treating, and particularly thoſe near the river Chriſtino. The moſt remarkable of theſe are the porcupine, and the wolverene, or quick-hatch; the pelican, the white-tailed eagle, the brown and ſpotted heath-cock, and the white partridge.

The porcupine of this northern part reſembles in ſhape and ſize the beaver; but the head has ſome reſemblance to that of a rabbit: it has a flat noſe, entirely covered with hair: its mouth is armed with two teeth above and two below, that are yellow and remarkably ſtrong: its ears, which are ſhort and ſmall, ſcarcely appear through its fur: its legs too are remarkably ſhort; but its claws, of which it has four on its fore-feet, and five on thoſe behind, are very long, hollow within like ſcoops, and very ſharp-pointed. This animal is covered all over with a pretty ſoft fur about four inches long; but beneath the hair on the head, body, and tail, it is thick ſet with ſharp ſtiff quills, which are white with black points, bearded, and not eaſily drawn out when they have entered the ſkin. The porcupine uſually makes his neſt under the roots of large trees, and ſleeps much. He chiefly feeds upon the bark of trees, eats ſnow in the winter to quench his thirſt, and in ſummer drinks water; but carefully avoids going into it. The Indians eat theſe animals, and eſteem their fleſh a wholeſome and pleaſant food.

The wolverene, or quick-hatch, is another very extraordinary animal, and is of the ſize of a large wolf: the ſnout, with the upper and under jaw, as far as the eyes, is black; the upper part of the head whitiſh; the eyes dark; the throat and upper part of the neck white ſpotted with black; the ears ſmall and round; the whole body of a reddiſh brown, darker at the ſhoulders and rump, and lighter upon the back and ſides. The fur of the whole body is pretty long, but not very cloſe: the feet as far as the firſt joint, are covered with ſhort black hair; but the legs are brown, and the claws of a light colour: moſt of the tail is brown, but towards the tip buſhy and black. This creature in walking carries his head very low, ſo that his back riſes archwiſe. He defends himſelf when attacked with great force and obſtinacy, and it is ſaid will tear traps and gins to pieces in a very ſurprizing manner.

The pelican is ſomewhat bigger than a large tame gooſe; the upper mandible of the bill is narrower in the middle than at either end, and is received into the lower, except towards the point, which widens and receives the lower into it; the point is red, but the upper and under part towards the head are yellow: the pouch when dry reſembles an ox's bladder blown, and is prodigiouſly large while the creature is living. The head and neck are covered with white feathers; the body is of a dirty aſh-colour; the quills of the wings are black, and all the under part is of a dark aſh-colour. The legs are ſhort, with four toes webbed together; the middle toe is longer than the leg; the claws are dark, and both the legs and feet are of a dirty yellow mixed with green. Theſe birds live chiefly on fiſh; they are found in many other countries, and in ſome places are much larger.

The white-tailed eagle is about the bigneſs of a turkey-cock, flat-crowned, ſhort-necked, and full breaſted, with brawny thighs. Its wings are very long, and broad in proportion to its body; but darker on the back, and lighter on the ſides. The quills of the wings are black, and the breaſt ſpotted with white: the tail when cloſed is white both above and below, except the very tip of the feathers, which is black or brown: the thighs are covered with dark brown feathers, through which in ſome places a white down appears: the legs, to the very feet, are covered with ſoft feathers of a reddiſh brown. It has four toes on each foot, which are very thick and ſtrong, ſtanding three forward and one backward, covered with yellow ſcales, and armed with very ſtrong and ſharp claws of a ſhining black. There are alſo ſeveral kinds of falcons, hawks, and other birds of prey.

The great horned-owl is a very ſingular bird, with a head very little inferior in ſize to that of a cat; what are called the horns, are compoſed of feathers riſing juſt above the bill, intermixed at the bottom with white, becoming of a red brown by degrees, and tipped with black. The great white owl of a bright ſhining colour, ſo as ſcarce to be diſtinguiſhed from the ſnow, is alſo common in the northern part of this country, and continues there throughout the whole year, where it is frequently ſeen flying by day, and preys upon white partridges.

The white partridge is common in ſome other countries, but is no where in ſuch plenty as in the northern part of this near Hudſon's-bay. It is of a middle ſize, between that of our common partridge and the pheaſant, ſhaped very much like the former, except its tail being ſomewhat longer. Theſe birds are moſtly brown in ſummer, but in the winter become perfectly white, except the outward feathers of the tail, which are black tipped with white. In that ſevere ſeaſon they repoſe in the ſnow all night, and in the morning fly directly up to ſhake it off their feathers. They ſtay in theſe parts all the year, feed only in the mornings and evenings, and ſun themſelves in the middle of the day.

The brown and ſpotted heath-cock, which alſo continues in the north all the year, is ſomewhat bigger than an Engliſh partridge; it is likewiſe longer-bodied, and has a longer tail in proportion. The bill is black, covered with brown feathers; the ſkin above the eye red; the top of the head, the upper part of the neck, and down the back covered with feathers of a dark brown, mixed with a dull orange and aſh-colour: the tail is of a dark brown, the throat under the bill of a yellowiſh white; the neck and breaſt of a dull orange, with ſpots in the form of half moons. The legs from the knee joint down to the feet are covered with a kind of hairy feathers of a brown colour, intermixed with black: the feet are of a reddiſh brown; and three toes forward have pretty long and black claws; theſe toes are jagged; but the hinder toes are ſmooth on the ſides.

SECT.

SECT. VI.

A particular Deſcription of the Perſons, Dreſs, Cuſtoms, Manners, Religion, and Government of the Five Nations and other Indians: their Method of going to War, the Manner in which it is carried on, and Peace concluded, &c.

WE ſhall now more particularly deſcribe the cuſtoms and manners of the Indians who inhabit the interior part of America. They formerly inhabited the ſea-coaſts, where they were very numerous; but have retired into the weſterly parts of the country, ſo that few of them are to be found within leſs than two or three hundred miles of the ſea: for though many of them have been inſtructed in the knowledge of Chriſtianity, and parcels of land have been allotted them in ſeveral of the Britiſh colonies, where they have been formed into ſocieties; yet it has been found that in proportion as they lay by their ancient cuſtoms, and conform to our manner of life, they dwindle away, either becauſe the change is prejudicial to their conſtitutions, or becauſe when ſettled among the Engliſh they have greater opportunities of procuring ſpirituous liquors, of which both ſexes are generally inordinately fond; very little care being ever taken to prevent thoſe who are inclined to take advantage of them in trade, from baſely intoxicating them for that infamous purpoſe: this has a worſe effect on their conſtitutions than on ours, and ſoon proves fatal, producing diſeaſes to which they were formerly ſtrangers. Thus where a few years ago there were conſiderable ſettlements of them, their name is almoſt forgotten; and thoſe who ſtill remain, have, for the moſt part, joined themſelves to other nations in the interior part of the country, on the banks of the lakes and rivers.

The Indians of America are tall and ſtraight beyond the proportion of moſt other nations: their bodies are ſtrong; but it has been obſerved, that this is a ſtrength rather ſuited to endure much hardſhip, and the exerciſes of the chace, than much hard labour, by which they are ſoon conſumed; hence it has been ſaid to be rather the ſtrength of a beaſt of prey, than that of a beaſt of burthen; an odious compariſon when ſpeaking of the human ſpecies: however, they have generally ſtraight ſupple limbs, and the leaſt degree of deformity is very rarely ſeen amongſt them. Their features are regular, their complexion ſomewhat of a copper colour, or a reddiſh brown; their hair, which is long, black, and lank, is as ſtrong as that of a horſe; and what is very ſingular, is their not having any beards, nor hair on any part of their body but the head.

They generally wear only a blanket wrapped about them, or a ſhirt, both which they purchaſe of us: but when the Europeans firſt came amongſt them they found ſome nations entirely naked, and others with a coarſe cotton cloth, wove by themſelves, round their waiſt: but in the northern parts their whole bodies were in winter covered with ſkins.

Among the various nations and tribes within the vaſt extent of country of which we have juſt given a deſcription, the Five Nations deſerve particular notice; theſe being dreaded and revered by all the others for their ſuperior underſtanding, activity, and valour in war; in which conſtant practice has rendered them expert, they being generally at war with one nation or other, and ſometimes with ſeveral at a time. Their manners, cuſtoms, and modes of dreſs, are, as near as poſſible, adopted by ſeveral of the other nations; and thoſe are eſteemed the politeſt and beſt bred, who the neareſt reſemble theſe. Their moſt northern ſettlement is a town called Chockonawago, on the ſouth of the river St. Lawrence, oppoſite to Montreal; but their largeſt ſettlements are at the head of the rivers Mohocktaneſee, Oneoida, and Oneneaga, between Lake Ontario and the provinces of New York and Penſylvania. They claim the whole country that lies to the ſouth of the river St. Lawrence, as far as the Ohio, and down that river to the Wabach, from the mouth of the Wabach to the bounds of Virginia: on the weſtward they extended to the lakes of Ontario and Erie, and to the river Miamee: their eaſtern boundaries are Lake Champlain and the Britiſh colonies. When the Engliſh firſt ſettled in America, they were able to raiſe fifteen thouſand fighting men; but at preſent, including the Delawares and Shawanees, they do not amount to more than between three and four thouſand. Thus have they been reduced by the perpetual wars they have carried on againſt the other Indians and the French in Canada.

The Mohocks, once the moſt numerous tribe among them, are now the ſmalleſt; yet ſtill maintain a ſuperiority over the reſt, and are conſulted and appealed to by the others in all great emergencies. About a hundred years ago they deſtroyed the greateſt part of the Hurons, who dwell on the ſouth ſide of the lake of Ontario; and the remainder fled for protection to the French in Canada; but moſt of them have ſince returned to their own country, and, by permiſſion of the Five Nations, dwell on the lands at the weſt end of Lake Erie. The Mohocks alſo made priſoners of the whole nation of the Shawanees, who lived upon the Wabach, and afterwards, by the mediation of Mr. Penn, at the firſt ſettlement of Penſylvania, gave them liberty to ſettle in the weſterly parts of that province, giving them the appellation of couſins, and allowing them to claim kindred with the Five Nations, as their uncles. They about the ſame time conquered the Delawares, whom they brought into a like ſubjection; and alſo the Mickanders, or Mohegons, who dwelt on the banks of Hudſon's river. The two laſt nations they ſuffered to live in any uninhabited part of their ſouthern territories; but the latter upon condition of paying them an annual tribute. They alſo conquered ſeveral nations upon the frontiers of New England.

Some nations to this day are not allowed to appear painted at any general meeting, or congreſs, where the Five Nations attend; that being an expreſs article in the capitulations. They have been the inveterate enemies of the French ever ſince their firſt ſettlement in Canada; and are almoſt the only Indians within many hundred miles that have been proof againſt their ſolicitations to turn againſt us; the greateſt part of them having maintained their integrity, and been our faithful friends and allies. They once burnt great part of the city of Montreal, and put the French into great conſternation. They have conquered moſt of the Abnaques, or eaſtern Indians; and now maintain a conſtant war with the Cherokees, Chickeſaws, and Creeks, againſt whom many of their young men are annually ſent; while others of them go againſt the Miſauri; and, indeed, they ſometimes carry their hoſtilities as far ſouth as the iſthmus of Darien; but have long lived in peace with the Indians on the lakes and the Tweeghtwees.

The Indians are far from being deficient in good ſenſe and ingenuity, many of them ſhewing a great capacity for ſome art or ſcience. They have ſtrong imaginations, and their memories are ſo retentive, that when they have been once at a place, let it be ever ſo diſtant or obſcure, they will readily find it again. Thus the Indians about Nova Scotia, and the gulph of St. Lawrence, have frequently paſſed over to Labrador, which is thirty or forty leagues, without a compaſs, and have landed on the very ſpot they intended: even in dark cloudy weather they will direct their courſe by land with great exactneſs, merely by obſerving the bark and boughs of trees; the north ſide in this country being always moſſy, and the boughs on the ſouth ſide the largeſt.

Poligamy is practiſed by ſome nations, but it is not general. In moſt they are contented with one wife; but a divorce is admitted for the ſame cauſes that it was allowed among the Greeks and Romans: but no nation of the American Indians is without a regular marriage, in which are many ceremonies, the principal of which is ſaid to be the bride's preſenting the bridegroom a plate of corn.

Though the women are incontinent before wedlock, their chaſtity after marriage is remarkable. The puniſhment of the adulterer, as well as the adultereſs, is in the hands of the huſband himſelf, and is often ſevere, as being inflicted by one who is both the injured party and the judge. Their marriages are not remarkably fruitful, they ſeldom producing above three or four children; and theſe are brought forth with much leſs pain than our women ſuffer upon the like occaſions, and

are immediately followed but with little diminution of their uſual ſtrength. The mothers are ſo fond of their children, that they ſeldom wean them till they are upward of two years old, and carry them on their backs till the burden becomes quite inſupportable. They can no ſooner walk, than they are at liberty to go when and where they pleaſe; but their parents carefully inſtruct them very early in the uſe of arms, and frequently relate to them the exploits and great atchievements of their anceſtors, in order to lead them on to brave and heroic actions. They introduce them very young into their public councils, and make them acquainted with the moſt important affairs and tranſactions: this accuſtoms them to ſecrecy, gives them a compoſed and manly air, inſpires them with emulation, and makes them bold and enterprizing. They ſeldom chaſtiſe their children; for when they are young, they obſerve that they are not ſufficiently endowed with reaſon; for if they were, they would not do wrong: when they are more advanced in life, they ſay that they do not then chaſtiſe them, becauſe, being capable of judging, they ought to be maſters of their own actions, and not be accountable to any one. In the ſame manner they excuſe any ill treatment they receive from a perſon in liquor: "Should we blame "or puniſh him, ſay they, when he has not his reaſon, "and does not know what he does?" Yet when a mother ſees her daughter act amiſs, ſhe generally burſts into tears, and upon the other enquiring the cauſe, ſhe tells her the reaſon, and this admonition ſeldom fails of the deſired effect.

The Indians do not always enter into a formal obligation of marriage; but take a wife for a longer or ſhorter time, as they pleaſe; but their children, on theſe occaſions, ſuffer no diſgrace, and enjoy all the privileges of thoſe begotten in marriage.

The men are remarkable for their indolence, on which they even ſeem to value themſelves, ſaying that labour would degrade them, and belongs ſolely to the women, while they are formed only for war, hunting, and fiſhing: it is, however, their buſineſs to make arms for hunting and lines for fiſhing; to form their canoes, and to build and repair their houſes; but they frequently make the women aſſiſt them in theſe, beſides attending all domeſtic affairs, and cultivating the land.

The Indians are generally poſſeſſed with an aſtoniſhing patience and equanimity of mind, with the command of every paſſion except revenge. They bear the moſt ſudden and unexpected misfortune with calmneſs and compoſure, without uttering a word, or the leaſt change of countenance. Even a priſoner, who knows not whether he may not in a few hours be put to a moſt cruel death, ſeems entirely unconcerned, and eats and drinks with as much chearfulneſs as thoſe into whoſe hands he has fallen. Their reſolution and courage under ſickneſs and pain, is really aſtoniſhing. Nothing is more common than to ſee perſons of all ages, and both ſexes, ſupporting themſelves with the utmoſt conſtancy under the greateſt pains and calamities; even when under the ſhocking torture to which priſoners are frequently expoſed, they will not only make themſelves chearful, but provoke and irritate their tormenters by the moſt ſevere reproaches.

They treat thoſe in alliance with them with an high degree of complaiſance and good nature.

They are grave in their deportment upon ſerious occaſions, obſervant of thoſe in company, reſpectful to the old; of a temper cool and deliberate, by which they are never in haſte to ſpeak before they have well thought of the matter, and ſure the perſon who ſpoke before them has finiſhed all he had to ſay. In their public councils, every man is heard in his turn, according as his years, his wiſdom, or his ſervices to his country, have ranked him. Not a whiſper, nor a murmur is heard from the reſt, while he ſpeaks; no indecent commendations; no ill-timed applauſe. The young attend for their inſtruction; for here they learn the hiſtory of their nation, are animated by thoſe who celebrate the warlike actions of their anceſtors; are taught what is the intereſt of their country, and how to purſue it.

The laws of hoſpitality are executed among them with the utmoſt generoſity and good-will. Their houſes, their proviſions, even their young women, are preſented to a gueſt. To thoſe of their own nation, they are likewiſe very humane and beneficent. If any one of them ſucceed ill in his hunting, if his harveſt fails, or his houſe is burnt, he feels no other effect of his misfortune, than its giving him an opportunity to experience the benevolence and regard of his countrymen, who, for that purpoſe, have almoſt every thing in common. But to the enemies of his country, or to thoſe who have privately offended him, the American is implacable. He never indeed makes uſe of oaths, or indecent expreſſions, but cruelly conceals his ſentiments, till by treachery or ſurprize, he can gratify his revenge. No length of time is ſufficient to allay his reſentment; no diſtance of place is great enough to protect the object; he croſſes the ſteepeſt mountains, pierces the moſt impaſſable foreſts, and traverſes the moſt hideous deſarts; bearing the inclemency of the ſeaſons, the fatigue of the expedition, the extremes of hunger and thirſt; with patience and chearfulneſs, in hopes of ſurprizing his enemy, and exerciſing upon him the moſt ſhocking barbarities; and when this cannot be accompliſhed, the revenge is left as a legacy, transferred from generation to generation, from father to ſon, till an opportunity offers of taking what they think ample ſatisfaction. To ſuch extremes do the Indians puſh their friendſhip, or their enmity; and ſuch indeed is, in general, the character of all uncivilized nations. They, however, eſteem nothing ſo unworthy of a man of ſenſe, as a peeviſh temper, and a proneneſs to a ſudden and raſh anger; and this has ſuch an effect, that quarrels rarely happen among them, when they are not intoxicated with liquor.

On the other hand, they are highly ſenſible of the utility and pleaſures of friendſhip; for each of them, at a certain age, makes choice of ſome one nearly of the ſame ſtanding in life to be their moſt intimate and boſom friend; theſe two enter into mutual engagements, by which they oblige themſelves to brave any danger and run any riſque, to aſſiſt and ſupport each other. This attachment is even carried ſo far as to overcome the fear of death, which they conſider only as a temporary ſeparation, being perſuaded that they ſhall meet and be united in friendſhip in the other world, never to be ſeparated more; and that there they ſhall need one another's aſſiſtance as well as here.

It does not appear that there is any Indian nation that has not ſome ſenſe of a Deity, and a kind of religion; but this is ſo various, ſo perplexed, and confuſed, that it is difficult to give a minute deſcription of it. Their ideas of the nature and attributes of the Deity are very obſcure, and ſome of them abſurd; but they all acknowledge him to be the Creator and Maſter of the world; yet how the world was created they know not, and have various conjectures about it, ſome imagining that men were firſt rained down from the clouds, and that brute animals deſcended with them. They ſeem to have ſome idea that there are ſpirits of a higher and more excellent nature than man; and ſuppoſing them to be every-where preſent, frequently invoke them, and endeavour to act agreeable to their deſires. They likewiſe imagine that there is an evil ſpirit, who, they ſay, is always inclined to miſchief, and bears great ſway in the creation; this, indeed, is the principal object of their devotions; they generally addreſs him moſt heartily, beſeeching him to do them no harm: but ſuppoſing the others to be propitious, and ever inclined to do them good, they intreat them to beſtow bleſſings upon them, and prevent the evil ſpirit from hurting them. To procure the protection of the good ſpirit, they imagine it neceſſary to diſtinguiſh themſelves, and that in the firſt place they muſt become good warriors, expert hunters, and ſteady marksmen

The Indians have great dependance on their dreams, and really believe that from the dreams of youth, may be collected the whole hiſtory of their future life. On this account, when they arrive at a certain age, dreaming is made a kind of religious ceremony, which is thus performed: they beſmear their face all over with black paint, and faſt for ſeveral days, in which time they expect that the propitious ſpirit will appear to them in ſome ſhape or other while they ſleep. The effect this long

faſt

faſt muſt naturally have on the brain of a young perſon, is doubtleſs conſiderable, and the parents and other old people take care, during the operation, that the dreams they have in the night be faithfully reported the next morning. In favour to ſome conſtitutions they ſometimes limit the faſt to a ſhorter term than is generally judged neceſſary; however, the propitious ſpirit being conſtantly the ſubject of the perſon's waking thoughts, becomes alſo the ſubject of his dreams; at leaſt every phantom of their ſleep is regarded as a figure of him, whether it be bird, beaſt, fiſh, tree, or, indeed, any thing animate or inanimate, and is particularly reſpected by them all their lives after.

Their prieſts often perſuade the people that they have revelations of future events, and are authoriſed to command them to purſue ſuch and ſuch meaſures. They alſo undertake to unfold the myſteries of religion, and to ſolve and interpret all their dreams. They repreſent the other world as a place abounding with an inexhauſtible plenty of every thing deſireable, where they ſhall enjoy the moſt full and exquiſite gratification of all their ſenſes. This is, doubtleſs, the motive that induces the Indians to meet death with ſuch indifference and compoſure; none of them being in the leaſt diſmayed at the news that he has but a few hours or minutes to live, but with the greateſt intrepidity ſees himſelf upon the brink of being ſeparated from all terreſtrial things, and with great ſerenity talks to all around him: thus a father leaves his dying advice to his children, and takes a formal leave of all his friends.

They generally bury their dead with great decency, and depoſit in the grave ſuch things as the deceaſed had made the greateſt uſe of, and been moſt attached to; as his bow and arrows, pipes, tobacco, &c. that he may not be in want of any thing when he comes to the other country. The mothers mourn for their children a long time, and the neighbours make preſents to the father; and he in return gives them a feaſt.

The feaſts of an Indian, whether at a funeral, a triumph, or a viſit, are very ſimple. Inſtead of endeavouring to make a ſplendid appearance, he makes his friends heartily welcome, and values not ſpending the fruits of a whole ſeaſon's toil, to convince them that he is ſo. The gueſt is ſure to be treated kindly, and that he ſhall not be the ſubject of ridicule while preſent, nor of cruel remarks when departed. On theſe occaſions a ſervile regard is never paid to the diſtinctions of high and low, rich and poor, ſo as to leſſen the ſpirit and pleaſure of converſation, when the company happens to be made up a mixture of theſe.

Their phyſicians generally treat them, in whatever diſorder, the ſame way: they firſt incloſe them in a narrow cabbin, in the midſt of which is a ſtone red hot, on which they throw water till the patient is covered with warm vapour, and is in a profuſe ſweat, when they hurry him from thence and plunge him into the next river. This is repeated as often as they think neceſſary; and by this method extraordinary cures are ſometimes performed: but it alſo frequently happens that perſons die in the very operation; eſpecially where they are afflicted with the new diſorders brought to them from Europe; and it is partly owing to this manner of proceeding, that the ſmall-pox has proved ſo much more fatal to them than to us. It muſt, however, be acknowledged that they have the uſe of ſome ſpecifics of wonderful efficacy, the power of which they however attribute to the ceremonies with which they are adminiſtred.

Liberty, in its fulleſt extent, is their darling privilege; for it is the great and fundamental principle of their policy, that every man is equally free and independent; and that nothing can be a compenſation for the loſs of liberty. Avarice is unknown to them, and they are neither prompted by ambition, nor actuated by a love of gold; for the diſtinctions of rich and poor, high and low, noble and ignoble, do not ſo far take place among them as to create the leaſt uneaſineſs, or excite the reſentment of any individual; hence the brave and deſerving, let their circumſtances be what they will, are ſure to be eſteemed.

The generaliſſimo, who may be conſidered as their king, among all the nations who ſpeak the Roundock dialect, is elective, and his election is attended with ſinging and dancing: when choſen he makes a panegyric upon the perſon to whom he ſucceeds. He is rather reverenced as a father than feared as a monarch. He has no guards, no priſons, no officers of juſtice.

The other forms, which may be conſidered as a kind of ariſtocracies, have not more power among the Iroquois or Five Nations; there is no other qualification abſolutely neceſſary for their chiefs but age, with experience and ability in their affairs. However, there are generally in every tribe ſome particular ſtocks, which they reſpect, and who are conſidered in ſome ſort as their chiefs, unleſs they ſhew themſelves unworthy of that rank; and indeed there are ſome of the tribes themſelves who, on account of their number or bravery, have a pre-eminence over the reſt, which, as it is not exacted with pride, ſo it is never diſputed where due.

This great council is compoſed of the heads of tribes and families, with ſuch whoſe capacity has raiſed them to the ſame degree of conſideration. They meet in a houſe, built in each of their towns for that purpoſe, and alſo receive ambaſſadors, to deliver them an anſwer, to ſing their traditionary war ſongs, or to commemorate their dead. In theſe councils they propoſe all ſuch matters as concern the ſtate, and which have been already digeſted in the ſecret councils, at which none but the head men aſſiſt. The chiefs ſeldom ſpeak much themſelves at theſe general meetings, but intruſt their ſentiments with a perſon who is called their ſpeaker, or orator, there being one of this profeſſion in every tribe and town; and their manner of ſpeaking is natural and eaſy, their words ſtrong and expreſſive, their ſtyle bold, figurative and truly laconic, nothing being ſaid but what is neceſſary either to inform the judgment, or raiſe ſuch paſſions as the ſubject naturally excites.

When any buſineſs of conſequence is tranſacted, they appoint a feaſt upon the occaſion, of which almoſt the whole nation partakes. Upon matters of leſs general concern, are leſſer feaſts, to which none are invited but they who are engaged in that particular buſineſs. Before the entertainment is ready, the principal perſon begins a ſong on the remarkable events of their hiſtory, and whatever may tend to their honour or inſtruction. The others ſing in their turn. They alſo have dances, chiefly of a martial kind; and no ſolemnity or public buſineſs is carried on without ſongs and dances. Theſe ceremonies ſerve to preſerve order, and contribute to fix all tranſactions in their memory.

It ought not to be omitted, that the ſame council of elders, which regulates whatever regards the external policy of the ſtates, has likewiſe the charge of its internal peace and order. Their ſuits are few, and ſoon decided; they having neither property nor art ſufficient to render them perplexed and tedious. Criminal matters, when ſo flagrant as to become a national concern, are brought before the ſame juriſdiction: but in ordinary caſes, the crime is either revenged or compromiſed by the parties concerned. If a murder is commited, the family that has loſt a relation prepares to kill the murderer; and when this is done, the kindred of the laſt perſon ſlain think themſelves as much injured, and as juſtifiable in taking revenge, as if the violence had not begun among themſelves. But, in general, things are determined in a more amicable manner: the offender abſents himſelf; and his friends ſend a compliment of condolance to thoſe of the party murdered; they offer them preſents, which are rarely refuſed; and the head of the family appearing, delivers them in a formal ſpeech, one by one, ſometimes to the number of ſixty articles; ſaying, "By this I remove the hatchet from the wound.—By this I dry up the flowing blood." And thus, in a figurative manner, take away, one by one, all the circumſtances and conſequences of the murder. If the murder be committed by one of the ſame cabbin, that cabbin has the full right of judgment within itſelf, without appeal, either to puniſh the guilty with death, to pardon him, or to force him to give ſome recompence to the wife or children of the ſlain. Mean while the ſupreme authority of the nation looks on unconcerned.

As the Indians are of a vindictive diſpoſition, unreſtrained by the influence of religion, the moſt trifling provocations frequently rouſe them to arms, and prove the occaſions of bloodſhed and murder. Their petty private quarrels are often decided this way, and expeditions undertaken without the knowledge or conſent of a general council. Theſe private expeditions are winked at, and excuſed, as a means of keeping their young men in action, and inuring them to the exerciſes of war.

But when war becomes a national affair, it is entered upon with great deliberation. They firſt call an aſſembly of the ſachems and chief warriors, to deliberate upon the affair, and every thing relating to it. In this general congreſs among the Northern Indians and the Five Nations, the women have a voice as well as the men. When they are aſſembled, the chief ſachem or preſident, propoſes the affair they have met to conſult upon, and taking up the tomahawk, which lies by him, ſays, "Who among you will go and fight againſt ſuch "a nation? Who among you will bring captives "from thence to replace our deceaſed friends, that our "wrongs may be revenged, and our name and honour "maintained, as long as the rivers flow, graſs grows, "or the ſun and moon ſhall endure?" Then one of the principal warriors riſing, harrangues the whole aſſembly, and afterwards addreſſing himſelf to the young men, enquires who among them will go along with him, and fight their enemies? When they generally riſe, one after another, and fall in behind him, while he walks round the circle, till he is joined by a ſufficient number.

On ſuch occaſions they have uſually a deer, or ſome other beaſt roaſted whole, and each of them, as they conſent to go to war, cuts off a piece and eats, ſaing, "Thus "will I devour our enemies," mentioning the nation they are going to attack. This ceremony being performed, the dance begins, and they ſing the war-ſong, which has relation to their intended expedition and conqueſt, or to their own ſkill, courage, and dexterity in fighting, and the manner in which they will vanquiſh their enemies. Their expreſſions are ſtrong and pathetic, uttered with a tone that inſpires terror.

Such is the influence of their women in theſe conſultations, that the iſſue depends much upon them. If any one of them, in conjunction with the chiefs, has a mind to excite one, who does not immediately depend upon them, to take part in the war, ſhe preſents, by the hands of ſome truſty young warrior, a ſtring of wampum, to the perſon whoſe help ſhe ſollicits, which ſeldom fails of producing the effect. But when they ſollicit an offenſive or defenſive alliance with a whole nation, they ſend an embaſſy, with a large belt of wampum and a bloody hatchet, inviting them to come and drink the blood of their enemies.

The wampum uſed upon theſe and other occaſions, before their acquaintance with Europeans, was only ſmall ſhells, which they picked up by the ſea-coaſts, and on the banks of the lakes. It now conſiſts of a kind of cylindrical beads, made of white and black ſhells, which are eſteemed among them as ſilver and gold are among us. The black they think the moſt valuable; both of them are their greateſt riches and ornaments, anſwering all the ends of money among us. They have the art of ſtringing, twiſting, and interweaving them into their belts, collars, blankets, &c. in ten thouſand different ſizes, forms, and figures, ſo as not only to be ornaments for every part of dreſs, but expreſſive of all their important tranſactions. They dye the wampum of various colours and ſhades; and as they are made ſignificant of almoſt any thing they pleaſe, by theſe their records are kept, and their thoughts communicated to one another, as ours are by writing. Thus the belts that paſs from one nation to another, in all important tranſactions, are carefully preſerved in the cabbins of their chiefs, and ſerve both as a kind of record or hiſtory, and as a public treaſure; hence they are ever uſed on trifling occaſions.

The calumet, or pipe of peace, is of no leſs importance, nor is it leſs revered among them. The bowl of this pipe is made of a kind of ſoft, red ſtone, eaſily wrought and hollowed out; the ſtem is of cane, or a kind of light wood, painted with different colours, and adorned with the heads, tails, and feathers of the moſt beautiful birds, &c. The uſe of the calumet, is to ſmoke either tobacco, or ſome other herb uſed inſtead of it, when they enter into an alliance or any ſolemn engagement; this being eſteemed the moſt ſacred oath that can be taken, the violation of which is thought to be moſt infamous, and deſerving ſevere puniſhment in the other life. When they treat of war, the whole pipe, and all its ornaments, are red; ſometimes it is red only on one ſide, and by the diſpoſition of the feathers, &c. a perſon acquainted with their cuſtoms, knows at firſt ſight the intentions or deſires of the nation who preſents it. Smoaking the calumet is alſo, upon ſome occaſions, and in all treaties, conſidered as a ſacred oath, as a ſeal of their decrees, and a pledge of their performance of them. The ſize and decorations of their calumets are commonly proportioned to the importance of the occaſion, to the quality of the perſons to whom they are preſented, and to the eſteem and regard they have for them.

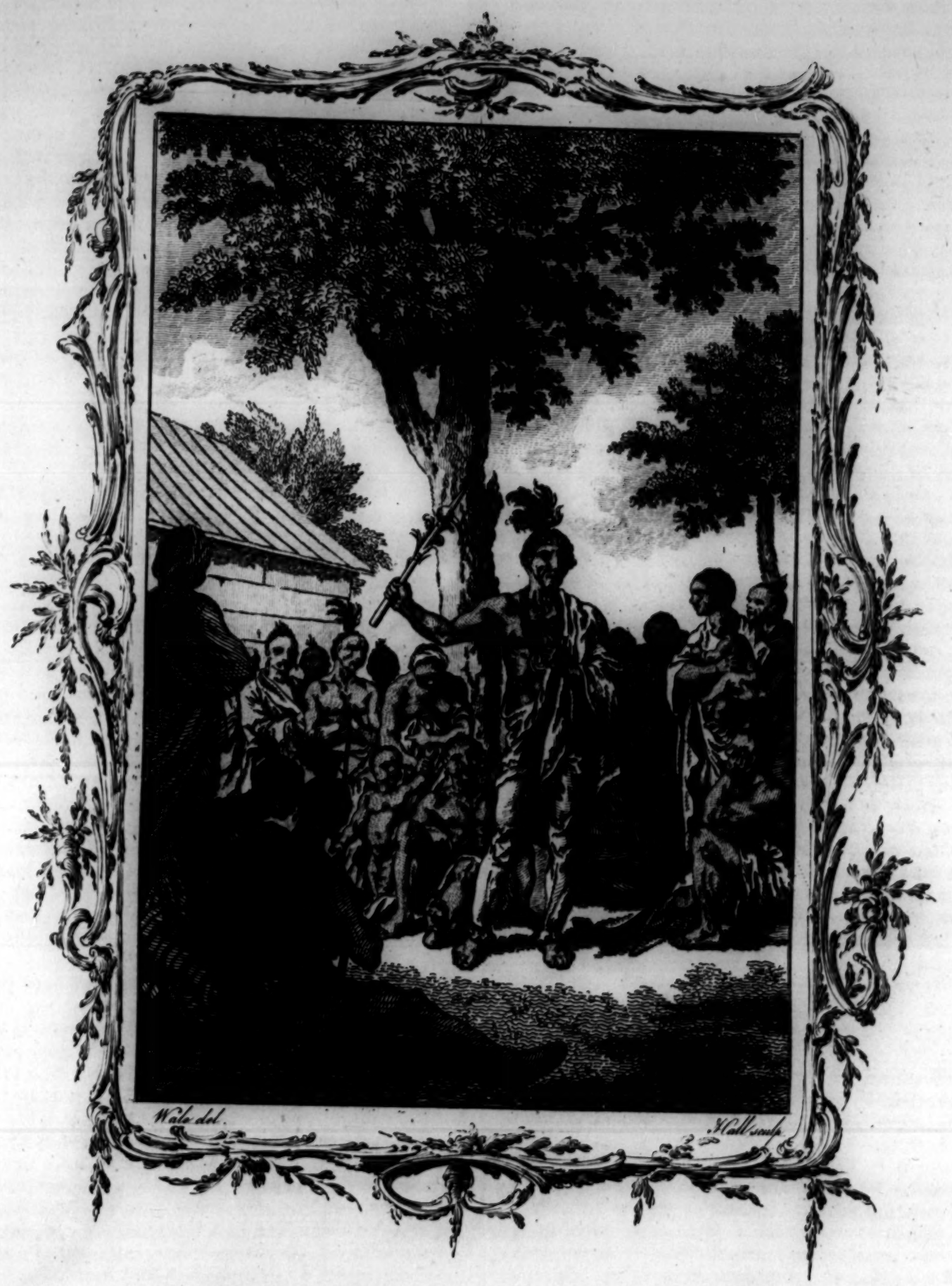
Another inſtrument of great importance among them, is the tomahawk. This is an ancient weapon, uſed by them in war, before they were taught the uſe of iron and ſteel; ſince which hatchets have been ſubſtituted in the room of them: but it ſtill retains its uſe and importance in public tranſactions, and, like the pipe, is frequently very ſignificant. This inſtrument is formed, in ſome reſpects, like an hatchet, having a long handle; the head, which is a round knob of ſolid wood, calculated to knock a man down, has on the other ſide a point, bending a little towards the handle; and near the centre, where the handle pierces the head, another point projects forward, of a conſiderable length, which ſerves to thruſt with like a ſpear. The tomakawk is alſo ornamented with painting and feathers, diſpoſed and variegated in many ſignificant forms, according to the occaſion and end for which it is uſed; and on it is kept a kind of journal of their marches and moſt important occurrences, in a ſort of hieroglyphics. When the council is called to deliberate on war, the tomahawk is coloured red; and when the council ſits, it is laid down by the chief; and if war be concluded upon, the captain of the young warriors takes it up, and holding it in his hand, dances and ſings the war-ſong. When the council is over, this, or ſome other of the ſame kind, is ſent by the hands of the ſame warrior, to every tribe concerned, who, with it, preſents a belt of wampum, and delivers his meſſage, throwing the tomahawk on the ground, which is taken up by one of the moſt expert warriors, if they chooſe to join; if not, it is returned with a belt of their wampum, ſuited to the occaſion.

Each nation or tribe has its diſtinct enſigns, or coats of arms, generally conſiſting of ſome beaſt, bird, or fiſh. Thus the Five Nations have the bear, otter, wolf, tortoiſe, and eagle: by theſe names the tribes are generally diſtinguiſhed, and the ſhapes of theſe animals are pricked and painted on ſeveral parts of their bodies. Generally, when they march thro' the woods, they, at every encampment, cut the figure of their arms on trees, eſpecially when they have had a ſucceſsful campaign, that travellers may know they have been there; recording alſo, in their way, the number of priſoners and ſcalps they have taken.

Their military appearance is very odd and terrible. They cut off all their hair, except a ſpot on the crown of the head, and pluck off the eyebrows. The lock left upon the head is divided into ſeveral parcels, each of which is ſtiffened, and intermixed with beads and feathers of various ſhapes and colours; the whole twiſted and connected together till it takes a form much reſembling the modern pompadour upon the top of the head; which is painted red, down to the eyebrows, and ſprinkled over with white down. The griſtles of their ears are ſlit almoſt quite round, and hung with ornaments that have generally the figure of ſome bird or beaſt drawn upon them. Their noſes are likewiſe bored and hung with beads, and their faces painted with various colours. On their breaſts are a gorget or medal of braſs, copper, or ſome other metal; and by a ſtring which goes round their necks, is ſuſpended that horrid weapon the ſcalping-knife.

Thus equipped, they march forth, ſinging their war-

ſong,



A Sachem exhorting the Indians to War.

ſong, till they loſe ſight of their village; and are generally followed by their women, who aſſiſt them in carrying their baggage, whether by land or water, but commonly return before they proceed to action.

They have generally one commander for every ten men; and if the number amounts to one hundred, a general is appointed over the others, not properly to command, but to give his opinion. They have no ſtated rules of diſcipline, or fixed methods of carrying on a war; but make their attacks in as many different ways as there are occaſions, but generally in flying parties, equipped for that purpoſe, with a thin light dreſs, uſually conſiſting of nothing more than a ſhirt, and ſometimes they are almoſt naked.

The weapons uſed by thoſe who trade with the Engliſh and French, are commonly a firelock, hatchet, and ſcalping-knife; but the others uſe bows, tomahawks, and pikes. As the commander in chief governs only by advice, and can neither reward nor puniſh, every private man may return home when he pleaſes, without aſſigning any reaſon for it, or any number may leave the main body, and carry on a private expedition in whatever manner they pleaſe, without being called to an account for it.

Every morning the commander harrangues his detachment, and gives his advice for the conduct of affairs during the day. If he wants to detach a party on any occaſion, he propoſes the affair, and gives his opinion how, and by what number, it ſhould be performed; and it ſeldom happens that he is oppoſed in any of his meaſures. For ſo greatly are the Indians influenced by a ſenſe of honour and love of their country, that upon theſe occaſions they are in no need of penal laws to reſtrain them: but then it muſt be obſerved, that the qualifications neceſſary to recommend a perſon to the chief command, are his being fortunate, brave, and diſintereſted; and they chearfully obey a perſon in whom they believe that all thoſe qualifications are united.

When the Indians return from a ſucceſsful campaign, they manage their march ſo as not to approach their village till towards the evening. They then ſend two or three forwards to acquaint their chief, and the whole village, with the moſt material circumſtances of the campaign. At day-light next morning they give their priſoners new cloaths, adorn their heads with feathers, paint their faces with various colours, and put into their hands a white ſtaff, toſſeled round with the tails of deer. This being done, the war-captain ſets up a cry, and gives as many yells as he has taken priſoners and ſcalps; and the whole village aſſemble at the water-ſide. As ſoon as the warriors appear, four or five of their young men, well clothed, get into a canoe, if they come by water, or otherwiſe march by land: the two firſt, carrying each a calumet, goes ſinging to ſearch the priſoners, whom they lead in triumph to the cabbin, where they are to receive their doom. The owner of this cabbin has the power of determining their fate, though it is often left to ſome woman who has loſt her huſband, brother, or ſon, in the war; and when this is the caſe, ſhe generally adopts him into the place of the deceaſed. The priſoner has victuals immediately given him, and while he is at this repaſt, a conſultation is held; and if it be reſolved to ſave his life, two young men untie him, and taking him by the hands, lead him to the cabbin of the perſon into whoſe family he is to be adopted, and there he is received with all imaginable marks of kindneſs. He is treated as a friend, as a brother, or as a huſband; and they ſoon love him with the ſame tenderneſs as if he ſtood in the one of thoſe relations to them.

But if the ſentence be death, how different their conduct! theſe people, who behave with ſuch diſintereſted affection to each other, with ſuch tenderneſs to thoſe whom they adopt, here ſhew that they are truly ſavages; the dreadful ſentence is no ſooner paſſed, than the whole village ſet up the death-cry; and, as if there were no medium between the moſt generous friendſhip and the moſt inhuman cruelty, the execution of him whom they had heſitated whether he ſhould not have a tender relation to them, is no longer deferred than they can make the neceſſary preparations for rioting in the moſt diabolical cruelty. They firſt ſtrip him, and fixing two poſts in the ground, faſten to them two pieces from one to the other; one about two feet from the ground, the other about five or ſix feet higher: then obliging the unhappy victim to mount upon the lower croſs piece, they tie his legs to it, a little aſunder: his hands are extended and tied to the angles formed by the upper piece. In this poſture they burn him all over the body, ſometimes firſt daubing him with pitch. The whole village, men, women, and children, aſſemble round him, every one torturing him in what manner they pleaſe, each ſtriving to exceed the other in cruelty, as long as he has life. But if none of the bye-ſtanders are inclined to lengthen out his torments, he is either ſhot to death, or incloſed with dry bark, to which they ſet fire: they then leave him on the frame, and in the evening run from cabbin to cabbin, ſuperſtitiouſly ſtriking with ſmall twigs the furniture, walls, and roofs, to prevent his ſpirit from remaining there to take vengeance for the evils committed on his body. The remainder of the day and the night following is ſpent in rejoicing.

This is the moſt uſual method of murdering their priſoners, but ſometimes they faſten them to a ſingle ſtake, and build a fire round them; at other times they cruelly mangle their limbs, cut off their fingers and toes, joint by joint, and at others ſcald them to death.

What is moſt extraordinary, if the ſufferer be an Indian, there ſeems, during the whole time of his execution, a conteſt which ſhall exceed, they in inflicting the moſt horrid pains, or he in enduring them: not a groan, not a ſigh, not a diſtortion of countenance eſcapes him, in the midſt of his torments. It is even ſaid, that he recounts his own exploits, informs them what cruelties he has inflicted upon their countrymen, and threatens them with the revenge that will attend his death: that he even reproaches them for their ignorance of the art of tormenting; points out methods of more exquiſite torture, and more ſenſible parts of the body to be afflicted. But perhaps theſe inſtances of intrepidity are ſomewhat exaggerated. However, they frequently kill their priſoners on the ſpot where they have taken them; or in their way home, when they find it inconvenient to carry them farther, or have any fear of their eſcape.

Theſe inſtances ſhew the inconſiſtencies to which human nature is ſubject, and the benefit theſe people would receive from a divine revelation, breathing an uniform humanity, and the forgiveneſs of their enemies; for had they theſe diſpoſitions, and were they taught to treat their enemies in the manner our holy religion inſpires, how conſiſtent, how amiable, would be their character!

SECT. VII.

Of NEW ENGLAND.

Its Situation, Extent, Climate, Vegetables, Beaſts, Birds, Fiſhes, and Rivers; with a particular Deſcription of Maize, or Indian Corn; and, among the Animals, of the Mooſe.

NEW ENGLAND, the moſt powerful colony in North America, is ſituated between the forty-firſt and forty-third degree fifty minutes north latitude, and between the ſixty fourth degree forty minutes and the ſeventy-third degree weſt longitude; it being bounded on the north eaſt and eaſt by Nova Scotia and the bay of Fundy, on the north-weſt by Canada, on the weſt by the province of New York, on the ſouth by the Sound, and on the ſouth-eaſt by the Atlantic ocean. Its extent from Kennebec river to the ſouth-eaſt boundary of New York, according to the late Rev. Mr. Neale, three hundred and thirty miles, from the ſouth-weſt to the eaſt-north-eaſt is four hundred and eighty miles, and it is a hundred and ninety miles broad from Cape Cod to the north-eaſt bounds of New York.

The ſummer-ſeaſon is here warmer than ours, and generally accompanied for two months together with a clear ſky, which renders the country extremely wholeſome; ſo that none of our plantations are more agreeable to the conſtitutions of the Engliſh; yet the winters of New England are much ſeverer than ours; and, though it lies conſiderably farther to the ſouth, the froſts continue longer,

longer, and are much ſharper than with us. The ſun riſes at Boſton on the longeſt day at twenty-ſix minutes after four in the morning, and ſets at thirty-four minutes after ſeven in the evening; and on their ſhorteſt day it riſes at thirty-five minutes after ſeven in the morning, and ſets at twenty-ſeven minutes after four in the afternoon: thus their longeſt day is about fifteen hours, and the ſhorteſt about nine.

The land next the ſea is generally low, and in ſome parts marſhy, but farther up it riſes into hills, and on the north-eaſt is rocky and mountainous.

The country abounds with mines of excellent iron, and ſome of copper; in the woods and ſwamps is plenty of good timber: oak, elm, aſh, cypreſs, pine, cheſnut, walnut, cedar, beach, aſpin, and ſaſſafras, are common here; as are alſo ſpruce and fir trees, which are of an extraordinary growth, producing pitch, tar, roſin, and turpentine, with maſts, yards, and planks, as the oak does other ſhip-timber; ſo that more ſhips are ſaid to have been built in this province than in all the other parts of America. The dwarf oak grows wild here. It likewiſe abounds with fruit-trees; ſo that it is eaſy for a planter to make a hundred hogſheads of cyder in a ſeaſon. They have beſides as good hemp and flax as any in the Baltic; great plenty of roots, as turnips, parſnips, carrots, radiſhes, much larger and richer than ours, though their ſeeds came originally from hence; with a great quantity of onions, cucumbers, ſquaſhes, pompions, and water-melons.

When the Engliſh arrived here they found a variety of fruits that grew wild, particularly grapes, currants, raſberries, ſtrawberries, &c. and Mr. Dudley, one of the council in New England, obſerves, that the peaches here are very large, all ſtandards, and the fruit better than ours; and that they commonly bear in three years from the ſtone. They have likewiſe a great variety of plants different from thoſe of England.

Nothing is ſo much planted here as Indian corn, which in ſome parts of America is called maize; it has an ear a ſpan long, containing eight rows of grain, or more, according to the goodneſs of the ſoil, and about thirty grains in a row. It is of almoſt all colours, ſometimes in the ſame field, and even in the ſame ear; but the white and yellow are the moſt common. The ſtalks grow ſix or ſeven feet high, are jointed like a cane, with long flags at every joint, yielding a juice like the ſugar-cane, from whence a ſweet ſyrup has been often extracted. Mr. Dudley ſays this corn generally produces twelve hundred, and often two thouſand grains for one; that ſix quarts of grain will plant an acre; and that an acre of good ſoil commonly produces fifty buſhels.

New England produces great plenty of beaſts, both tame and wild: among the former are cows, ſheep, goats, hogs, and horſes, all originally brought from hence; but their horſes are generally ſmaller than ours, though larger than the Welſh, and are extremely ſerviceable. Among the wild beaſts are deer, elks, racoons, bears, wolves, which are only a kind of wild dogs, and if taken when young may be made tame; with ounces, foxes, hares, rabbits, ſquirrels, opoſſums, ſables, beavers, otters, minks, and martens. One of the moſt ſingular animals of this and the neighbouring countries is the mooſe, of which there are two ſorts; the common light-grey mooſe, which reſembles the ordinary deer; theſe herd ſometimes thirty together: and the large black mooſe, whoſe hair is ten or twelve inches long on the ridge of his back. Of this ſort there are ſeldom more than four or five together. This is made much like a deer, as it parts the hoof, chews the cud, has no gall, and his ears are large and erect. A ſtag-mooſe is bigger than a large horſe. The horns, when full grown, are about four or five feet from the head to the tip, and have ſhoots or branches to each horn, which generally ſpread about ſix feet. When the horns come out of the head they are round like thoſe of an ox, but at about the diſtance of a foot begin to grow a palm broad, and farther up are ſtill wider; and of theſe the Indians make good ladles that will hold a pint.

When this animal goes through a thicket, or under the boughs of a tree, he lays his horns back on his neck, not only to place them out of his way, but to ſecure himſelf from being ſcratched in the woods; and theſe prodigious horns are ſhed every year. This animal does not ſpring or riſe in going, like a deer; but a large one in his common walk has been ſeen to ſtep over a gate five feet high. When a mooſe is unharboured he will run a courſe of twenty or thirty miles before he turns about or comes to a bay; but when chaſed he generally takes to the water. He is, however, not ſo ſwift as the common deer, though he runs much farther. As the mooſe is tall, and has a ſhort neck, he does not graze like other cattle; for when he eats graſs, it is only the top of that which grows very high, or on ſteep riſing-grounds. Theſe animals are fond of water-plants, for which they will wade far and deep. In ſummer they alſo feed upon other plants, herbs, and young ſhrubs; and in winter live upon the tops of buſhes and young trees. The fleſh of the mooſe is very good food; it is more ſubſtantial than common veniſon, and will bear ſalting. The noſe is admired as a great dainty.

There is hardly any where greater plenty of fowls, as turkeys, geeſe, partridges, ducks, widgeons, dappers, ſwans, heath-cocks, herons, ſtorks, black-birds, all ſorts of barn-door fowl, vaſt flights of pigeons, which come and go at certain ſeaſons of the year, cormorants, ravens, crows, bats, &c.

With reſpect to the diſagreeable reptiles, there are rattle-ſnakes, frogs, and toads, which ſwarm in the uncleared part of the country, where, with the owls, they make a moſt hideous noiſe in the ſummer evenings. But wherever the country is planted by the Engliſh, it is pretty well freed from all noxious animals.

The ſea and rivers afford a vaſt abundance of excellent fiſh, as ſturgeon, ſalmon, cod, thornback, mackarel, herrings, lampreys, whales, grampuſes, porpoiſes, ſeals, ſharks, and other fiſh great and ſmall. The beſt months for fiſhing are March, April, May, and June.

There are few countries better watered with ſprings, rivers, and lakes, though the latter are much ſmaller than thoſe to the north and weſt. Of its rivers ſeven are navigable, theſe are the Thames, which riſes from a lake to the north of Maſſachuſet's country, and running directly ſouth falls into the ſea below New London.

The river Patuxet, which riſing in the north-weſt, runs ſouth-eaſt through Providence plantation, and falls into a noble bay of the ſea, near Swanſey. The river Piſcataway, which runs from weſt to eaſt, and falls into the ſea near Portſmouth, in Hampſhire, with a mouth that reſembles an arm of the ſea, and is capable of receiving the largeſt ſhips; the Caſco river, which runs parallel with the former, and falls into a bay of its own name; Connecticut river; the great river Merrimac; and the river Saco, of which we ſhall give an account in treating of the rivers which flow from the White Mountains in the province of New Hampſhire. To the eaſt of theſe are many other conſiderable rivers, which riſing far to the north, run almoſt due ſouth, and fall into the ſea to the north-eaſt of Caſco-bay.

It is owing to the conveniency of ſo many fine rivers that this country is ſo full of large and populous towns; and in the country between the rivers is ſuch plenty of ſprings, that there is ſcarce any place where water may not be had by ſinking a well to the depth of ten feet.

SECT. VIII.

Of the Diviſions of New England, and a particular Account of the Manner in which its firſt Settlements were formed.

THIS territory is divided into four diſtinct governments; the moſt northerly, which was formerly called the province of Main, and now the county of York, is under the juriſdiction of Maſſachuſet's-bay; next to this county, and between it and Maſſachuſet's-bay, is the province of New Hampſhire; next to the bay government is the colony of Rhode Iſland; to the ſouth and weſt of theſe is the colony of Connecticut. Theſe ſeveral diſtricts took their riſe from the firſt ſettlement made by the Engliſh in this country, which was the

the colony of Plymouth, ſeated near Cape Cod, which now, as well as the province of Main, is incorporated into that of Maſſachuſet's-bay.

It will not, therefore, be here improper to give ſome account of the ſettlement of this colony. In 1614 the North Virginia company employing captain John Smith and captain Thomas Hunt to fiſh on this coaſt, the former went on ſhore, took a particular view of the country of the Maſſachuſets, and had ſome ſkirmiſhes with the natives; after which he ordered Hunt to diſpoſe of his fiſh, and then return to England; but Hunt treacherouſly inticing twenty-ſeven of the Indians on board his ſhip, ſet ſail with them to Malaga, and had the villainy to ſell them to the Spaniards for ſlaves, keeping only an Indian called Squanto. This outrage was ſo reſented by the Indians, that all commerce between them became impracticable, and no thoughts were entertained of making any ſettlement there till a congregation of Browniſts, or Independents, who had been perſecuted in England, were obliged to fly to Holland, where they formed the deſign of ſeeking an eſtabliſhment in the New World; and having, by means of intereſt, obtained the conſent of king James I. contracted with ſome merchants for a ſettlement on the banks of Hudſon's river.

This congregation ſold their eſtates in order to make a common bank to carry on the undertaking; then hired a ſhip of one hundred and eighty tons, which they freighted with proper goods and merchandize, and the whole company, conſiſting of one hundred and twenty perſons, with Mr. Robinſon their miniſter, firſt returned to England, embarked on board their veſſel on the ſixth of September 1621, and fell in with cape Cod in November following; and finding a ſafe harbour, fixed upon the place for their preſent ſettlement, called Plymouth from the place of their embarkation, which name it ſtill retains; and as this was out of the limits for which they had obtained a grant, they aſſociated themſelves into a body politic, by a formal inſtrument; in which, having declared themſelves the ſubjects of the crown of England, they ſolemnly engaged ſubmiſſion to the laws that ſhould from time to time be made for the good of the country.

The planters who agreed to ſtay in this place were about one hundred, including women and children, and of theſe there were only nineteen families; but ſuch were the fatigues endured by this infant colony during the firſt winter, that fifty perſons out of the hundred died within the ſpace of two months; and had the Indians attacked them, they had probably all periſhed.

The adventurers, however, ſaw none of the natives till the middle of March, when one of their chiefs came to them in a friendly manner, made them underſtand that they were welcome, and that his people would be glad to trade with them. The next day coming again with other Indians, he made them underſtand that Maſſaſſoiet, their ſachem, had his reſidence three days march to the northward, and intended them a viſit. He accordingly arrived a few days after, attended by ſixty people; and being received by captain Standiſh, was conducted to a kind of throne prepared for him. His face was painted red, and ſmeared with oil; he had a deer-ſkin mantle; his breeches and ſtockings, which were of a piece, were of the ſame materials, and his arms were covered with wild-cats ſkins. His attendants were dreſſed in the ſame manner, and there appeared little diſtinction between him and his followers. This chief had not been long ſeated when Mr. John Carver, whom they had choſen governor, came in with a guard of muſketeers; upon which Maſſaſſoiet roſe up and kiſſed him, and then both ſitting down, an entertainment was provided, of which no part appeared more acceptable to the ſachem than the brandy, of which he drank very plentifully.

In the retinue of this chief was Squanto, who had been carried to England by Hunt, where he had been treated kindly; and, after living here ſeveral years, had been brought back to his country. He had entertained an affection for the Engliſh, and from his favourable repreſentation the ſachem had made them this viſit, in which, by his means, was concluded an offenſive and defenſive alliance; which being founded upon the mutual intereſts of the contracting parties, was inviolably maintained for many years.

This infant colony was annually reinforced by freſh adventurers from the mother country, driven thither by the ſpirit of perſecution; ſo that by the year 1628 their number and improvements were conſiderable; and that year they obtained a grant from the North Virginia company of this colony, and another of all the lands within three miles north of Merrimac river to three miles ſouth of Charles river, where it falls into the ſea at the bottom of Maſſachuſet's-bay: and the next year ſix ſhips with three hundred and fifty paſſengers arrived at Salem, with a large ſtock of cattle of all ſorts, and other neceſſaries.

This new colony, which ſettled the town called Salem, was ſupported with the ſame ſpirit and vigour as the former, and ſoon after obtained a patent from king Charles I. whereby they were incorporated by the name of the governor and company of Maſſachuſet's-bay, and were impowered to make laws for the good of the plantation not repugnant to thoſe of England; and liberty of conſcience being granted to all who would ſettle there, great numbers of thoſe who could not obtain that privilege in England went over, and in a little time new ſettlements were made, particularly one ſtiled Charles Town, on the ſouth ſide of Charles river, and that of Dorcheſter, at the bottom of Maſſachuſet's-bay. Soon after part of the inhabitants of Charles Town, paſſing over to the oppoſite ſhore, erected Boſton, the preſent capital of New England.

In the mean while thoſe who had ſtrenuouſly contended for liberty of conſcience in favour of themſelves, became actuated with that ſpirit of perſecution which had driven them from their native country, and Mr. Roger Williams, a miniſter of Salem, advancing ſome religious ſentiments contrary to thoſe which had been generally received, and refuſing to recant, theſe people were ſo void of charity as to expel the miniſter and his followers from Maſſachuſet's colony: upon which they built a new town, which they called Providence, upon Newport river, near Rhode Iſland.

Hitherto they had not been in the leaſt moleſted by the Indians, but now a nation called the Pequots, who lived on Connecticut river, committed ſome murders; on which it was conſidered, that a town and fort on Connecticut river would make a good frontier on that ſide. Agents were therefore ſent to view the country, who made ſuch an advantageous report of the fertility of the ſoil, and the largeneſs of the river, as induced many of the planters in ſeveral of the towns, where they were ſtreightened for room, to remove thither. Mr. Hooper put himſelf at the head of about a hundred of theſe new adventurers, who ſet out in the month of July, and travelling on foot with their children and baggage, they arrived at the banks of the river, where they began a town which they called Hartford. After theſe came another draught, who built a little town which they called Windſor; a third detachment built Weathersfield; and a fourth Springfield.

In 1635 no leſs than twenty ſail loaded with goods and paſſengers arrived at Boſton, with whom came Mr. Henry Vane, afterwards Sir Henry Vane, intending with theſe people to begin another ſettlement on Connecticut river; but being choſen governor the year enſuing for the Maſſachuſets, he laid aſide the deſign of beginning a new colony for the preſent; but the next year he being inclined to favour the Baptiſts, they left him out, and choſe their old governor Mr. Winthrop. Upon which it was thought expedient for both parties to make a ſettlement upon Connecticut river, and towns were accordingly built on both ſides of it; but this being out of the limits of the other colonies, they formed themſelves into a ſeparate government, and for that purpoſe obtained a charter from king Charles II. authorizing them to elect their own governor, council, and magiſtrates; and to enact ſuch laws as ſhould be moſt advantageous to the colony, provided they were not oppoſite to thoſe of England.

The perſecution of the Proteſtant diſſenters in England ſtill continuing, great numbers of people removed to New England; and the old colonies being over-ſtocked, there was an abſolute neceſſity of forming new plantations; and therefore, in 1637, Theophilus Eaton, Eſq; and the Rev. Mr. Davenport, finding there was not room

at Maſſachuſet's-bay, purchaſed from the Indians the lands lying on the ſea-coaſt between Connecticut river and Hudſon's river, where they built a town, and named it New Haven, from whence the colony derived the name of the New Haven colony.

While the ſouth-weſt parts of New England were thus filling with inhabitants, others, induced by the profits ariſing from the fur-trade, ſettled to the north-eaſt between the rivers Merrimac and Kennebec, forming two diſtinct colonies, one named New Hampſhire, and the other, ſtill farther to the eaſtward, was called the province of Main.

Thus in the ſpace of about twenty years New England had above forty towns, and the Engliſh had taken poſſeſſion of this country from the river Kennebec on the north-eaſt almoſt to Hudſon's river on the ſouth-weſt, an extent of upwards of four hundred miles on the ſea-coaſt. Such was the firſt riſe and origin of the New England colonies, which, from theſe ſmall beginnings, are now become rich and of great importance.

SECT. IX.

Of the Province of Maſſachuſet's-Bay; its Situation, Extent, Soil, Produce, and Government; with a Deſcription of the Towns of Boſton and Cambridge.

THE province of Maſſachuſet's-bay contains what were formerly the colonies of Plymouth, Maſſachuſet's-bay, and the county of York; the latter of which is ſeparated from the others by New Hampſhire, which runs in between them, and is about thirty miles wide upon the ſea. That part of this province called the province of Main, or county of York, is bounded on the weſtward by New Hampſhire; on the northward by Canada; on the north-eaſtward by Nova Scotia; on the ſouth-eaſtward and ſouthward by the ſea for near two hundred miles. The other part of this province is bounded on the north by New Hampſhire; on the eaſt and ſouth by the ſea; on the ſouth and weſt by the colonies of Rhode Iſland, Connecticut, and the province of New York.

That part of the province called the county of York has a very cold ſoil, great part of it towards Canada being mountainous, and entirely unfit for agriculture; and that towards the ſea-coaſt is low, covered with ſpruce, white and yellow pines, and ſome oaks, except near the banks of the many rivers which fall from the mountains, on which a great number of ſaw-mills are erected; and on their banks is plenty of oak, aſh, and maple. There are ſeveral ſafe and convenient harbours along the ſea-coaſt, the principal of which is Caſco-bay. This part of the province is well ſtored with wild game, and from it are exported conſiderable quantities of furs and ſkins.

The other part of the province has a variety of ſoil, it being in ſome places very barren, and in others extremely fertile, producing great quantities of Indian corn, rye, oats, barley, peas, flax, and on the weſtern parts wheat. The ſurface is generally rocky and uneven, except near the rivers, where are ſome pleaſant fields. Several fiſheries are carried on to great advantage from the ſea-coaſts of this province to the banks of Newfoundland, the iſle of Sable, &c. eſpecially from the town of Marblehead, where is the moſt conſiderable fiſhery in New England.

His Britannic majeſty appoints the governor, lieutenant-governor, ſecretary, and officers of the admiralty in this province; and the freeholders elect a houſe of repreſentatives, who chooſe a ſpeaker and council, or upper houſe. However, the governor can put a negative on their choice; yet both he and all the officers in the province, except the comptroller of his majeſty's cuſtoms, receive their ſalaries by a vote of the two houſes, who have never yet been perſuaded to ſettle a ſalary even upon the governor, who has it generally in his inſtructions from the king to inſiſt upon their doing it. They, however, commonly grant him one thouſand pounds ſterling per annum.

The eſtabliſhed religion is that of the Independents; but there are a number of churches of the epiſcopal perſuaſion. Great care is taken of the education of children, free-ſchools being eſtabliſhed and ſupported by law in moſt of their towns, which are generally ſupplied with able maſters; and at Cambridge, about ſix miles from Boſton, is an univerſity, or public ſeminary.

This colony is divided into ſeveral counties: thus in the diviſion ſtiled New Plymouth are the county of Briſtol, the county of Plymouth, and the Barnſtable county. In Maſſachuſet Proper are the counties of Suffolk, Middleſex, and Eſſex; to which muſt be added the county of York, already mentioned, and in each of theſe counties are ſeveral conſiderable towns.

Boſton, the capital of this province, is ſeated in the county of Suffolk, in the province of Maſſachuſet's-Proper, in the forty-ſecond degree twenty-one minutes north latitude, and in the ſeventy-firſt degree weſt longitude, at the bottom of a fine bay in a peninſula about four miles in circumference. At the entrance of this bay are ſeveral rocks, which appear above water, and upwards of a dozen ſmall iſlands, ſome of which are inhabited. There is but one ſafe channel to approach the harbour, and that ſo narrow that two ſhips can ſcarce ſail through a-breaſt; but within the harbour there is room for five hundred ſail to lie at anchor. The entrance is defended by the caſtle of Fort William, one of the fineſt pieces of military architecture in Britiſh America, it being ſurrounded by a covert-way, and joined by two lines of communication from the main guard to a redoubt. The caſtle is defended by a hundred guns, twenty of which lie on a platform level with the water; ſo that it is ſcarce poſſible for an enemy to paſs the caſtle. To prevent ſurprize, they have a guard placed on one of the rocks at about two leagues diſtance, from whence they make ſignals to the caſtle, when any ſhips come near it. There is alſo a battery of great guns at each end of the town, to the fire of which an enemy would be expoſed, if he ſhould be ſo fortunate as to paſs the caſtle. At the bottom of the bay is a pier near two thouſand feet in length, with ware-houſes for the merchants on the north ſide; and to this pier ſhips of the greateſt burthen may come and unload, without the help of boats. The greateſt part of the town lies round the harbour in the form of a creſcent; the country beyond it riſing gradually, and affording a delightful proſpect from the ſea. The town has ſeveral ſtreets little inferior to the beſt in London, the chief of which runs from the pier up to the town-houſe, a handſome building, with walks for the merchants, as in the Royal Exchange in London; and in this edifice are not only the courts of juſtice, but the council-chamber and the houſe of repreſentatives. The town contains between four and five thouſand houſes, which are in general well built; and ſeveral of the public ſtructures are very ſpacious and elegant. It has ſeventeen churches, or places appropriated to Divine worſhip. The epiſcopal church is handſomely built and adorned, and the congregation is ſaid to amount to about a thouſand. The church-furniture, and ſome pieces of plate, were given by king William and queen Mary; it has an organ, and there is a magnificent ſeat for the governor, when he happens to be of the church of England. The governor has alſo a very fine houſe. Among the other buildings is Fanniuel-hall, thus named from Mr. Fanniuel, who was its founder. The ſhipping of this port was ſome years ago computed at between ſix and ſeven hundred. The inhabitants of the town amount to about twenty-five thouſand, and there is ſaid to be two hundred thouſand in the province.

Cambridge, the principal town of the county of Middleſex, in this province, is ſeated on the north branch of Charles river, ſix miles to the north-weſt of Boſton, and has ſeveral fine houſes and good ſtreets. It was originally called New Town, but on founding the univerſity changed its name to Cambridge, and contains two ſpacious colleges, called by the names of Haverford-college and Stoughton-hall, with a public library, ſaid to be the beſt furniſhed with books of any in that part of the world. It conſiſts of a preſident, five fellows, and a treaſurer. The governor of the province, deputy-governor, and all the magiſtrates of the Maſſachuſet's colony, with the miniſters of ſix neighbouring towns for the time being, are viſitors. This univerſity never conferred any degree

above that of master of arts, till it obtained a new charter from king William and queen Mary, by which it had the power of creating doctors of divinity; but has seldom made use of it.

SECT. X.

Of the Province of New Hampshire; its Situation, Extent, Soil, and a particular Description of the White Mountains, and the Rivers that flow from them: its Produce, Government, and a Description of the Town of Portsmouth.

THE province of New Hampshire is bounded on the south by Massachuset's bay, on the west by the province of New York, on the north by Canada, and on the north-east by the county of York, having only thirty miles of sea-coast.

The soil is various, and the northerly parts of it are mountainous and barren. The most considerable mountains in this province, and indeed of all the British dominions near the coast, are called the White Mountains, from their appearing like snow, they being generally supposed to consist of a white flint, from which the reflection of the sun is very brilliant and dazzling. From their prodigious height they are to be seen at a very great distance, and it is not certain that any person was ever on the top of them. Major Rogers says, that he has often been told by the Indians that they have frequently attempted them in vain, on account of the change of air they met with; which, he says, he is inclined to believe, he having ascended them himself till the alteration of air was very perceptible, though he had not advanced half way up, and yet the valleys below were concealed from his view by the clouds. The basis of these mountains is a tract about fifty-five miles square, from which they rise in craggy heads one above another, in an irregular manner all the way to the top. For the first four or five miles as you ascend them you find beech, hemlock, and some white pines; higher up the growth is chiefly black spruce for six or seven miles, then the sides are cloathed with a white moss; and if you advance still farther, you find scarce any thing growing, which alone would render the ascent very difficult, the mountain being extremely steep.

Many streams of water gush out of the sides of these mountains, which run down with great rapidity. Indeed the largest and best rivers in New England rise from some part of them. Saco river rises from the south in several small rivulets, which join in the course of a few miles, and run through the county of York, falling into the sea between Cape Porpoise and Cape Elizabeth. On the banks of this river are some fine meadows and fields, which are annually overflowed when the snows melt, and thereby greatly enriched. The rivulets that break out from the south-west of the mountains, after various windings, fall into a lake called Winnipisiokee, out of which issues the river Merrimac, which, from the waters that join it, soon becomes a considerable stream. Upon it are several vales, overflowed and enriched like the former. This river runs through the province of New Hampshire, and part of the Massachusets, discharging itself into the sea between Salisbury and Newbery. From the north and west parts of these mountains rises Connecticut river, which runs to the southward across the provinces of New Hampshire, the Massachusets, and Connecticut, till, after running a course of at least two hundred miles, it empties itself into the sea, or sound, between Connecticut and Long Island. This river, like the others, annually overflows its banks, and enriches the adjacent fields, which in some places are very extensive, particularly through a tract called the Cohas, in New Hampshire, twenty miles in length, and six in breadth, which for its fertility and beauty may be stiled the garden of New England. The river Kennebec, which is a considerable stream, likewise rises on the east side of these mountains, running through the county of York, and is endowed with the same properties as the former. Another river rising from the north of them runs into the province of Quebec, and falls into the river St. Lawrence. A part of the river Shedoir also rises at these mountains, and joins the river St. Lawrence twelve miles above Quebec.

In the province of New Hampshire are raised great quantities of Indian corn, rye, oats, and peas, it being too cold for wheat. It likewise produces some hemp and flax. It has great plenty and variety of timber, and its forests abound with all kinds of game common to the climate. There are here likewise bred black cattle, horses, sheep, &c. but in no great abundance. Its rivers abound in salmon, shad, trout, eels, &c. Some fisheries are carried on in the sea-ports; but its scanty limits on the sea prevents the inhabitants engaging so considerably in the fishery as their neighbours.

The governor, lieutenant-governor, council, and secretary, with the officers of the admiralty in this province, are appointed by his majesty, who is absolute sovereign of the soil. The several towns and districts choose their representatives; but all the inferior officers of the executive power are appointed by the governor, with the advice of the council.

The religion of this province is the same as in Massachuset's-bay, and there is only one episcopal church erected, which is at Portsmouth.

The town of Portsmouth, the metropolis of the province, contains about seven hundred dwelling-houses, and is pleasantly seated on Piscataqua-bay, having a safe and convenient harbour, where the largest ships may ride securely, and five places of religious worship. Here the courts of justice are held; but as this is the only place where causes are tried in this province, and it is seated on one of its extremities, the inhabitants are sometimes obliged to travel a hundred and fifty or two hundred miles on any trifling occasion. From this port annually sail about two hundred vessels, loaded chiefly with timber, pipe-staves, fish, &c. for the West Indies; which having disposed of, they load there, and proceed from thence to Europe, where they sell both their vessels and cargoes, and the mariners return passengers.

The other principal towns for trade in this province are Hampton, Cochecha, Exeter, and Londonderry, an inland town about thirty-five miles from Portsmouth, which is chiefly peopled with the natives of Ireland, and has a considerable manufacture of linen. The number of inhabitants in this province amounts to about seventy thousand; these have been greatly increased since the entire reduction of Canada, settlements being annually begun and new towns formed where formerly they did not dare to attempt it, for fear of the Indians.

SECT. XI.

Of the Colony of Connecticut; its Situation, Extent, Produce, Trade, and Government.

THE colony of Connecticut contains not only the original colony of the same name, but that of New Haven, they being incorporated into one in 1692, and still retains, by the charter then granted them, all the privileges of their ancient charters; but ever since their union they have kept up two seats of government, namely, at Hartford and New Haven, at which places their general court, or assembly, sits alternately for transacting the affairs of the colony. It is bounded on the north by the Massachusets, on the east by Rhode Island and a part of Massachuset's bay, on the south by the Sound, and on the west by New York, extending in length from Stoniton to Rye, in the borders of New York, about a hundred miles, and in breadth from Saybrook to the borders of New Hampshire about seventy.

The soil of this colony is various, a great deal of it being uneven, rocky, cold, and barren; but in other parts it is fertile and exceeding pleasant, particularly on Connecticut river, where the fields produce all kinds of grain and fruit common to the climate in great abundance, seldom disappointing, and frequently exceeding the hopes of the husbandman. In this colony are bred great numbers of black cattle, horses, and swine; and the inhabitants raise a considerable quantity of flax and hemp. A town called Weathersfield, seated on the river Connecticut, is remarkable for the production of onions,

onions, with which it annually loads ſeveral veſſels to the neighbouring provinces.

The inhabitants of this colony carry on a very inconſiderable trade to foreign parts, they being chiefly ſupplied with foreign commodities from Boſton and New York; in exchange for which they ſend beef, pork, flax-ſeed, onions, &c. In this colony are ſome iron works, which are carried on to great advantage; and they ſhip ſome horſes and lumber to the Weſt Indies, with conſiderable quantities of ſaſſafras to England and Holland.

The inhabitants of this province have the privilege of annually chooſing their own governor, lieutenant-governor, aſſiſtants, and repreſentatives, by whom all executive officers are appointed and authorized. They generally allow their governor a very handſome ſalary, and have good funds for other public exigencies.

The religious perſuaſions here are the ſame as in the other New England governments, but there are more people of the church of England than in all the others. Particular care is here taken in the education of their children; the ſeveral towns being provided with ſchools, ſupplied with able maſters.

This colony has many fine towns, agreeably ſeated on the river Connecticut and along the Sound, the principal of which for trade and commerce are New London, Hartford, and New Haven: the latter is ſeated on New Haven-bay, and is elegantly laid out in regular ſtreets, having a beautiful parade in the center. It contains about two hundred dwelling-houſes, beſides public buildings, among which is a college that makes a very handſome appearance.

The number of inhabitants in this colony is ſuppoſed to amount to no leſs than two hundred and ten thouſand.

SECT. XII.

Of the Colony of Rhode Iſland; its Situation, Soil, Produce, Government, and Trade.

THIS colony contains only Rhode Iſland and Providence, which were united by charter about the ſame time as the colony of Connecticut, and like that the inhabitants retain the rights and privileges at firſt granted them in their ſeparate ſtate, having alſo two ſeats of government at Newport and Providence, where their general court is alternately held. This colony has but a ſmall territory, it lying ſomewhat in the form of a heart, and is bounded on the north and eaſt by Maſſachuſet's-bay, to the ſouthward by the ocean, and to the weſtward by Connecticut.

The climate of Rhode Iſland is much more favourable than that of Boſton, though it only lies about ſixty-five miles to the ſouth of that city: it being much warmer in the winter, and being ſurrounded by the ſea, is leſs affected in the ſummer with hot land breezes than the places on the oppoſite continent.

The ſoil is generally low, rocky, and ſtony; yet, when properly improved, produces Indian corn, rye, oats, peas, hemp, flax, and ſome wheat; with moſt kinds of fruit common to the climate in great perfection, eſpecially on Rhode Iſland, which for its beauty and fertility is much admired, it being exceeded perhaps by no ſpot in New England. They raiſe cattle, ſheep, and horſes in abundance, and the latter is eſteemed the beſt on the continent. They likewiſe make conſiderable quantities of butter and cheeſe.

The form of government is in every reſpect the ſame as in the colony of Connecticut; and the number of the inhabitants are computed to amount to ſeventy thouſand.

Liberty of conſcience is here granted in the fulleſt extent, but the greateſt number of people here are Quakers. Here is ſo little bigotry, that every man is left to think and act for himſelf; and, while he obſerves a good moral conduct, no body give themſelves any trouble about his religious principles, for which he is only accountable to God. There are here alſo a pretty many Jews. The education of children is, however, ſaid to be not much attended to, there being not one free-ſchool in the whole colony.

The principal towns are Newport, which is pleaſantly ſeated on Rhode Iſland, and has a ſafe and good harbour for ſhips of a moderate burthen, with its entrance defended by a fort, on which are planted three hundred guns; and Providence, which is alſo delightfully ſeated on a river of the ſame name, and is a thriving town, with a conſiderable trade.

The chief commodities exported from hence are horſes, ſheep, cheeſe, and the produce they procure from the neighbouring provinces, as lumber and fiſh from the Maſſachuſets and New Hampſhire; beef, pork, and flour from Connecticut, New York, and Philadelphia, which they commonly pay for in rum, ſugar, and molaſſes imported from the Weſt Indies. They are charged with carrying on an illicit trade with our enemies in time of war, by carrying beef, pork, and flour to the French iſlands; but this is no more than has been performed by the merchants of Great Britain.

We ſhall conclude this account of New England with giving a curſory view of the commerce of that province in general, which extends over a great part of America and Europe. From thence our ſugar-colonies are furniſhed with fiſh, cattle, dried beef, bacon, boards, hoops, pipe-ſtaves, bark, ſkins, butter, cheeſe, oil, tobacco, corn, apples, turpentine, &c. and that in ſuch vaſt abundance, that it is computed the iſland of Barbadoes alone takes off to the value of two hundred thouſand pounds every year. They deal with the other ſugar-colonies; ſometimes with the French; largely with the Spaniards, and ſhip off prodigious quantities of fiſh to Italy, Spain, and Portugal. They take from us all kind of mercery goods, linen and woollen cloths, ſtuffs, ſtockings, ſhoes, ſail-cloth, cordage, haberdaſhery-ware, veſſels of tin and copper, hardware, and a vaſt quantity of other things: in return, they build a prodigious number of ſhips for our merchants, and export to England a great deal of iron, and a vaſt quantity of maſts, planks, and yards for the royal navy; and alſo pitch, tar, turpentine, ſkins, furs, oil, whale fins, logwood, ſaſſafras, and other commodities.

SECT. XIII.

Of New York.

Its Situation, Climate, Soil, Produce, and Rivers. A Deſcription of Long Iſland, and ſeveral other Iſlands within this Province; with a conciſe Account of the City of New York, its Trade, Government, and Hiſtory.

NEW York is ſituated between the fortieth and forty-fourth degree of north latitude, and between the ſeventieth and ſeventy-ſixth degree of weſt longitude, it being bounded on the eaſt by New England, on the north by Canada, on the north-weſt and weſt by part of Penſylvania and the lands of the Five Nations, and on the ſouth and ſouth-weſt by the province of New Jerſey and the Atlantic ocean; extending two hundred miles in length from north to ſouth, but not above twenty-five in breadth, particularly between Connecticut colony and Jerſey.

As this country lies to the ſouth of New England, the climate is more temperate; the ſoil is generally pleaſant and fertile, producing in great abundance all ſorts of grain and fruit common to the climate, particularly wheat, one buſhel of which is ſaid to have produced here an hundred. The many fine, large plains on the banks of its extended rivers are remarkably fruitful.

The principal river of New York is Hudſon's river, which riſes within twenty or thirty miles of Lake Champlain, and runs ſouth for about fifty or ſixty miles, croſſing in its way ſome lakes, the moſt conſiderable of which is at Scanderoon; then bends more eaſterly to the Carrying-place, where is Fort Edward, and then ſouthward till it diſcharges itſelf into the ſea at New York, or Sandy-hook. This river is navigable for veſſels of one hundred tons as high as Albany, and ſhallops may go up eight or ten miles higher.

The next conſiderable river of this province is the Mohawk river, which riſes in the Mohawk country, and

is navigable, except where there are ſome falls, for large boats, upwards of an hundred miles: it runs eaſterly, and has on its banks many fine plains, particularly that called the German-flats, from its being ſettled by the Germans, and extends along the river fifty miles in length, and about two in breadth. This tract is exceeded by none in America, it being eaſily cultivated, and producing, in the greateſt abundance, wheat, barley, peas, hemp, and flax. This river diſcharges itſelf by ſeveral mouths, called the Spouts, into Hudſon's river, about eight miles above Albany; and about two miles above its confluence with that river it has a cataract, where the whole ſtream falls perpendicularly about ſeventy feet. This part of the province abounds with ſaw-mills, it having plenty of timber.

Theſe rivers abound in great plenty of fiſh; and in this part of the province are ſeveral excellent iron works, ſome of which are ſaid to manufacture the beſt iron in America.

There are very fine lands upon the Eaſt river, or Sound, though it is very rocky, as indeed are moſt of the high lands of this province on the continent; theſe being mountainous, and at preſent hard to cultivate, but afterwards they richly reward the labour of the huſbandman. There are likewiſe ſeveral pleaſant and fruitful iſlands belonging to this province, among which Long Iſland is the moſt worthy of notice.

Long Iſland is about a hundred and fifty miles in length, and in ſome places twenty, but generally about twelve miles broad; the middle of it is indeed ſomewhat barren, but both ends have moſt excellent ſoil, which perhaps is improved to as great advantage as any lands in America; producing corn and fruit to great perfection, and abounding in horſes, cows, ſheep, and ſwine, more than any other part of the province. It is even ſaid that the produce of ſome ſingle acres at the weſt end, which is conveniently ſituated for the market of New York, annually amounts to near a hundred pounds ſterling. In the midſt of the iſland is a celebrated plain ſixteen miles long, and four broad, to which they have given the name of Saliſbury-plain, from its having as fine turf as that of Saliſbury-plain in England. As there is an excellent breed of horſes in the iſland, they have races here every ſeaſon, to which the gentlemen of New England and New York reſort, as people do here to Newmarket.

There are indeed ſeveral other iſlands belonging to the province not at all inferior to this in pleaſantneſs and fertility of ſoil, though they are of much leſs extent, as Staten, or Streighten Iſland, which is oppoſite to the weſt end of Long Iſland, and forms the narrows or ſtreights through which ſhips paſs that are bound to or from the ſea to New York: Fiſher's Iſland lies in the Sound between Long Iſland and the colony of Connecticut; and Manahattan, upon which the city of New York is built: there are ſeveral others both in the bay and Sound, one of which, called Barn Iſland, about twenty-five miles from New York, has lately obtained a charter for erecting a city.

This province is divided into ten counties, which, proceeding from north to ſouth down Hudſon's river, lie in the following order, Albany, Ulſter, Dutcheſs, Orange, King's-county, Cheſter, New York, Queen's-county, Suffolk, and Richmond counties, which abound in farms, but have not many great towns: the principal are the city of New York, Schenecteda, Albany, and Weſt Cheſter.

New York is extremely well ſituated for trade, it having a ſafe and commodious harbour, acceſſible three different ways for ſhips of common burthen, namely, by way of the Sound, by the ſtreights between Long Iſland and Staten Iſland, which is the moſt uſual and eaſy entrance, and between Staten Iſland and the ſhore of Jerſey. There are alſo eaſy conveyances to it by water from the rivers and lakes, except a few carrying-places, both to Montreal and Quebec on the northward, and to the lakes Erie and Ontario on the weſtward, for ſix hundred miles; and upon the ſea it has not only the advantage of its coaſts, but alſo of Connecticut and the Jerſeys, their trade in a great meaſure centering here, where they exchange their ſeveral commodities for foreign goods.

This city is ſeated in the fortieth degree forty minute north latitude, and the forty-ſeventh degree four minutes weſt longitude, at the ſouth end of York county, in an iſland at the mouth of Hudſon's river, about fourteen miles long, and three broad. It ſtands upon an eminence, and contains between two and three thouſand houſes, generally pretty well built with brick and ſtone; but the ſtreets are very irregular, defended by a wall and fort, which are formed ſo as to anſwer the purpoſes both of ornament and defence. It has ſeveral ſpacious public buildings, among which the college, the court-houſe, and the governor's houſe within the fort, are the moſt conſiderable. Hence there is ſcarce any town in North America that makes a better appearance. Public worſhip is every Sunday performed in different churches in the Engliſh, the German, the Dutch, and French languages. There are two handſome churches belonging to thoſe of the church of England, with others belonging to the Swedes of the Lutheran perſuaſion, to the Dutch Calviniſts, to the French refugees, and the Engliſh diſſenters; the Jews have alſo a ſynagogue.

The city is governed by a mayor and aldermen, and abounds with wealthy merchants, who trade very largely to foreign parts, and are obſerved to deal very much upon honour. The trade from New York to the ſugar iſlands is very conſiderable, and conſiſts in corn, flour, beef, pork, bacon, ſmoked beef, peas, apples, onions, ſtaves, plank; and to England flax-ſeed, pig and bar iron, with ſome copper. Of late great encouragement is given to ſeveral manufactories, eſpecially that of hemp, the raiſing of which is encouraged by a bounty given by the province; and in the city of New York a ſociety is formed to conſult methods for promoting the various branches of trade and huſbandry, and the manufacturing of iron, wool, linen, &c. conſiderable premiums being allowed to ſuch as excel in theſe branches, which has doubtleſs a tendency to preſerve the credit of this province, to enrich the inhabitants by increaſing their exports, and to render them leſs dependent on other countries.

The next conſiderable place in this province is Albany, which is ſeated on the weſt ſide of Hudſon's river, a hundred and fifty miles to the north of New York city, and has a fort erected for its defence. It contains near four hundred houſes, and here the chiefs of the Five Nations uſed to meet the governors of the northern colonies.

The number of inhabitants in the whole province amounts to about a hundred and fifty thouſand.

His majeſty is abſolute ſovereign of the ſoil of this province, and appoints the governor, lieutenant-governor, ſecretary, and council; but the freeholders of the ſeveral counties elect their own repreſentatives, in order to form a legiſlative body with the others. The cities of New York and Albany have likewiſe by their charters the privilege of making bye-laws for themſelves, provided they are neither inconſiſtent with the laws of the province, nor of thoſe of England. Theſe bye-laws are enacted by the mayor, aldermen, and common-council of the reſpective cities, annually elected by the freemen of each; theſe alſo form a court of judicature, called the mayor's court.

The religious perſuaſions in this province are pretty numerous, there being Epiſcopalians, Lutherans, Baptiſts, Preſbyterians, Moravians, Quakers, and Jews, who perform religious worſhip here in different languages. Learning has lately been much encouraged in this province, in which is eſtabliſhed a college under the government of a preſident, profeſſors, and tutors. It has alſo a good library, and both the city and country in general are well furniſhed with ſchools.

The Engliſh have a double right to this province by diſcovery and conqueſt. The coaſt was firſt viewed by Sebaſtian Cabot, and in the reign of queen Elizabeth it was conſidered as a part of the province of Virginia. Afterwards, in 1608, that famous navigator Hudſon diſcovered the river that bears his name, with the adjacent country, which he afterwards, without any legal authority, ſold to the Dutch, who found ſome Swedes ſettled here; and being reinforced from Holland, ſoon became the ſtrongeſt party, and obliged the Swedes to acknowledge them as the ſole proprietors of the country, paying

no regard to the claim of the Engliſh, who had not only diſcovered, but traded to it before. They were, however, ſoon after diſpoſſeſſed by captain Argall, who was ſent for that purpoſe with a proper force by the Virginia company. Upon this the Dutch Weſt India company begged permiſſion of king James I. for ſome of their people to ſettle in the country, pretending it's being convenient for their ſhips to call at for refreſhment in their paſſage to and from the Braſils, which then belonged to them.

The king granted their requeſt, upon condition that the people who ſettled there ſhould acknowledge themſelves ſubjects of the king of England. This they did for ſome years; but taking advantage of the troubles that aroſe in the reign of king Charles I. the ſtates of Holland gave their Weſt India company a formal grant of the country, and under this grant they appointed governors, erected forts, and called it Nova Belgia, or the New Netherlands, and afterwards refuſed to pay to king Charles II. the ſum they had paid to his father and grandfather for leave to fiſh on the coaſt of Great Britain. This did not occaſion an immediate rupture; but ſoon after king Charles II. made a grant of what is now the province of New York, New Jerſey, and Penſylvania, to his brother James, duke of York, who, in 1664, ſent a fleet under the command of Sir Robert Carr, with a ſufficient number of land-forces, to take poſſeſſion of the country, who ſoon reduced the forts the Dutch had erected there, and obliged them either to become Britiſh ſubjects, or to leave the country. The people gladly accepted of the former, and hence many of the beſt families in New York appear by their names to be of Dutch extraction. Hence New Amſterdam, which was made the metropolis, had its name changed to that of New York, in honour of the proprietor's title; and from the name of the city the whole province received the ſame appellation. Orange-fort alſo received the name of Albany from the duke's other title.

Sir Robert having thus ſubdued the country, took with him the greateſt part of the land-forces, leaving colonel Nichols governor; and as the States General ſeemed to give up all pretences to it, many people removed thither from England; whence it ſoon became a very flouriſhing colony, Mr. Nichols making it one of his firſt ſtudies to enter into a treaty of peace with the Five Nations of the Indians, who have ever ſince continued faithful allies, and been of great ſervice to this province.

In the year 1673, when a war broke out between England and the States General, the Dutch ſending a fleet, reduced this colony to their obedience; but they kept poſſeſſion of it only a ſhort time, for it was ceded to the crown of Great Britain by the treaty concluded the next year. Ever ſince that time it has been under the Engliſh government, and the people have ſhewed themſelves peaceable and obedient ſubjects, ready upon all occaſions to exert themſelves in defence of the rights of Great Britain, particularly in oppoſing and repelling the encroachments of the French ſettled in Canada, with whom they have had various engagements, in which they were always aſſiſted by the Mohawks, with three hundred of whom, and the ſame number of Engliſh, colonel Schyler, in the reign of William III. obtained a complete victory, near the river St. Lawrence, over ſeven hundred French regulars, and an equal number of Huron Indians, commanded by the governor of Quebec. The ſame brave officer repulſed them again in 1716, and deſtroyed a fort they had erected near the lake of Onondago, in order to cut off their communication with Lake Ontario. Soon after our fort at Oſwego was erected, where has ſince been carried on the greateſt Indian trade of any in America.

SECT. XIV.

Of New Jersey.

Its Situation, Extent, Produce, and Exports; its Sub-diviſions; a particular Deſcription of Perth Amboy, and Burlington; and a conciſe Hiſtory of the Province.

THE entire province containing the two Jerſeys, is ſeated between New York and Penſylvania, in a triangular form; it being bounded on the north by Hudſon's river, which ſeparates it from the province of New York; on the eaſt by the Atlantic ocean, which waſhes its coaſt, from the mouth of Hudſon's river to the mouth of Delaware river; and on the ſouthward and weſtward by Penſylvania. It lies between the thirty-ninth and fortieth degree north latitude, extending in length, on the ſea-coaſt and alſo along Hudſon's river, above an hundred and twenty miles, and ſixty in breadth from eaſt to weſt.

The ſoil of this province is very uniform, and produces wheat and all other kinds of Engliſh corn: it likewiſe abounds in all ſorts of fruit proper to the climate, and is ſaid to produce the beſt cyder of any place on the continent. The timber is tall, and the oaks are eſteemed for ſhip-building. It abounds in ſtreams of water, which afford great convenience for mills, furnaces, and any other kind of water-works; and as it affords great quantities of iron, it has ſeveral furnaces and iron-works, beſides one ſlitting-mill. This province is alſo ſuppoſed to be rich in ſilver and copper ore, ſome of both kinds having been found in ſeveral parts; and one copper-mine in particular is worked to great advantage, ſeveral fine eſtates having been obtained from it.

The lands in this province are chiefly taken up and improved; ſo that they have but little wild game of any kind.

There are no remarkable rivers that extend far into the province; that named Paſſaick, which diſcharges itſelf into the ſea to the northward of it, has a remarkable cataract about twenty miles from its mouth, where the river falls, like the cataract on Hudſon's river, from a perpendicular rock about ſeventy or eighty feet.

This province has a conſiderable diſadvantage, which prevents the inhabitants thriving ſo much as might be expected from the goodneſs and fertility of its ſoil, and their making thoſe improvements of which the country is capable. This is the great uncertainty of their titles, and the continual diſputes and law-ſuits which on this account ariſe among the inhabitants; hence it is ſaid, that no people here grow rich ſo faſt as the gentlemen of the law. Beſides, the inhabitants ſuffer the ſame fate from Philadelphia and New York, that thoſe of the colony of Connecticut do from New York and Boſton; for as they have no conſiderable foreign trade of their own, they exchange their commodities at thoſe two places for foreign gooods, and conſequently give them the profit which they might enjoy among themſelves.

The principal exports of the Jerſeys are wheat, flour, timber, copper ore, pig and bar iron, and black cattle, which they drive in great numbers to Philadelphia, on whoſe rich paſtures they are generally grazed for ſome time, before they are ſent to market and killed.

This province has the ſame form of government as that of New York, and the religious perſuaſions are no leſs numerous. Here is likewiſe a college founded at Prince-town, about thirty miles from the city of Philadelphia, much reſorted to by the young gentlemen of this and the neighbouring provinces.

This province contains Eaſt and Weſt Jerſey; the former of which is the largeſt and beſt inhabited, and is divided into Bergen-county, Eſſex, and Middleſex, on the ſouth ſide of the river Raritan, and Monmouth-county on the ſouth. Weſt Jerſey contains the ſame number of counties, which are Burlington, Glouceſter, Salem, and Cape Mary. Theſe were originally two provinces, and in the hands of different proprietors; but, on the twenty-ſecond of April, 1702, the proprietors made an aſſignment of their rights to the crown.

The chief towns in the Jerſeys are,

Perth Amboy, the capital of the county of Middleſex, in Eaſt Jerſey, which is pleaſantly ſeated at the mouth of the river Raritan, and is ſo commodiouſly ſituated for trade, that ſhips of three hundred tons may come up in one tide and lie before the merchants doors.

Burlington, the capital of the county of the ſame name, and of all Weſt Jerſey, is ſeated on an iſland in the middle of the river Delaware, to the northward of Philadelphia, in Penſylvania. The houſes are handſomely built with brick, and laid out into ſpacious ſtreets, with

with commodious quays and wharfs, to which ships of two or three hundred tons may come up. It has likewise a handsome market-place, a town-house where the courts of justice were formerly held, and two good bridges over the river, one called London-bridge, and the other York-bridge. It has likewise an easy communication both with Philadelphia and the ocean, by means of the river Salem, which falls into Delaware-bay; but though these places have the privileges of a city, they are neither remarkable for the number of their inhabitants nor the greatness of their trade.

This province, like that of New York, was first settled by the Swedes, who had three towns here, named Christina, Elsinburg, and Gottenburg: they, however, made but little progress in their plantations; while the Dutch, who had settled in the northern part, had greatly the advantage, for this country they included under the name of Nova Belgia. It was also contained in the grant made by king Charles to his brother James in 1663, who the following year made a grant of that part now called New Jersey to lord Berkley and Sir George Carteret. These two proprietors sent Philip Carteret, Esq; as governor; and the lands being granted to the settlers for six or seven years free of quit-rents, induced many of the Dissenters of England to settle in the country: thus the inhabitants being a mixture of Swedes, Dutch, and English, were far from agreeing about the form of government, but continued to behave within some bounds, while they were excused paying quit-rents; but when that indulgence was no longer allowed them, and they became considerably in arrears, the proprietors no sooner insisted on their payment than they broke into open rebellion, deposed the governor, and set up a kind of government of their own, under which they continued till the year 1673, when they were attacked aad conquered by the Dutch; but the country being again restored to the crown of England by the treaty concluded the following year, Mr. Carteret returned to his government; and the proprietors making some concessions, the inhabitants continued pretty quiet for some time. Lord Berkley soon after assigned over his right to Mr. William Penn, and three other assignees, with whom Sir George Carteret agreed to divide the country into two equal parts, by running a line from the south-east point of Little Egg-harbour almost due north. The easternmost part of this division was allotted to Sir George, whose family was of the isle of Jersey, and from this circumstance was called East New Jersey; while the other part, which was allotted to Mr. Penn and the other proprietors, was then distinguished and still retains the name of West New Jersey: and thus they became for some time two separate and distinct governments. After Sir George's death his trustees sold his right to Mr. Penn and eleven other purchasers, and they not long after sold a part of theirs to the earl of Perth and eleven others. These divisions and sub-divisions caused the land to be branched out into so many shares, that the respective owners thought them so inconsiderable that they took little or no concern about them; and no proper care being taken to settle and fix the boundaries of their estates, it became difficult, if not impossible, to ascertain their respective rights; which caused great uncertainty of property, the people rose in frequent mobs, till the proprietors being quite wearied out, surrendered the entire government of both the Jerseys to the crown, only reserving to themselves their other rights and privileges, and stipulating for some privileges in favour of the people, which were to be given in charge to the governors appointed by the crown as part of their instructions.

Upon this surrender the crown annexed the government of the two Jerseys to that of New York, in which state they continued till the year 1736, when they became one government, and Lewis Morris, Esq; was appointed their first governor; but they still retain a seat of government in each division, at which their assembly and supreme court of judicature sit alternately, namely, at Burlington in West Jersey, and at Perth Amboy in East Jersey.

SECT. XV.

Of Pensylvania.

Its Situation, Extent, Climate, Vegetables, Animals, and Rivers. The Divisions of the Country; with a Description of Philadelphia, the other Towns in this Province, and a concise Account of its Commerce.

Pensylvania was also esteemed by the Dutch a part of Nova Belgia, and as such was supposed to be included in king Charles the Second's grant to his brother James, duke of York, in the year 1663. It is seated between the thirty-ninth and forty-second degree north latitude, and between the seventy-second and seventy-eighth degree west longitude; it being bounded on the north-east by the Jerseys, on the south by Maryland, on the west by the Apalachian mountains, and on the north by the lands of the Five Nations; extending in length about three hundred and thirty miles, and two hundred in breadth.

The air is here sweet, serene, and clear. Autumn begins about the twentieth of October, and lasts till the beginning of December; after which frosty weather is very common, and sometimes the river Delaware, notwithstanding its breadth, is frozen over; but in such seasons the air is dry, clear, and agreeable. The spring lasts from March till June, during which the weather is more inconstant. In the summer months, July, August, and September, the heats are very great, but are alleviated by cool breezes that render them very tolerable. During this season the wind is south-west; but in spring, autumn, and winter, it is generally north-west. The earth is extremely fertile, and easy to be cleared, as the roots of the trees lie near the surface of the earth.

Pensylvania produces almost all sorts of trees, which are in some respect different from the European, though they are called oaks, beech, walnut, red, white, and black ash, Spanish chesnut, cypress, and red and white cedar; but the most durable are gum-wood, hickery, sassafras, and poplar. They have also apples, pears, pines, cherries, grapes, cranberries, musk-melons, and several other fruits; with all sorts of corn, as wheat, barley, oats, rye, peas, beans, Indian corn, and likewise hemp and flax, with snake-root, sarsaparilla, and many other medicinal woods and roots. There are here also a great variety of garden plants, and of those proper for the kitchen.

Among the animals they have such plenty of horses, cows, and sheep, that it is common for farmers to have four or five hundred of the latter in a flock; they have moose deer, rabbits, racoons, beavers, and a great number of other wild beasts. Among the reptiles are snakes of several kinds; and among the fowl they have fine bustards of forty or fifty pounds weight, pheasants, heath-cocks, partridges, swans, geese, teal, snipe, braindes, pigeons, dunghill fowls, ducks, and a great variety of small birds distinguished by their beautiful plumage. The fish are sturgeons, herrings, perch, eels, smelts, &c. with oysters, cockles, muscles, and other shell-fish. In short, no province on the continent is less dependent on its neighbours for either the necessaries, conveniences, or luxuries of life.

The largest river in this province is the Delaware, which rises in the country of the Five Nations, and flows into the sea at Delaware-bay. It is navigable for near a hundred and fifty miles up, after which it has some falls; the settlements upon this river extend a hundred and fifty miles from the city of Philadelphia. The lands on its banks are excellent, and generally reward the labour of the husbandman with great profusion. Its course is nearly south-east, and it affords great plenty of all such fish as are common to the climate, especially sturgeon, which are here cured and sent abroad in greater abundance than in any other part of America.

The Susquahanah rises in the same country, at the distance of about ninety miles from the Apalachian mountains, and runs nearly parallel to the Delaware, till it discharges itself into Chesapeak-bay in Maryland. This

river

river is likewiſe navigable a great way up the interior country, and, if poſſible, exceeds the other in the pleaſantneſs and fertility of the ſoil on its banks, which produces in great abundance all ſorts of corn, eſpecially wheat. This extraordinary plenty is not confined to the plains near the banks of the rivers, for the intermediate lands are generally fruitful and extremely well improved; they being divided among the farmers in ſuch proportions as they are able to manage to advantage, for which they pay an annual quit-rent to the proprietor.

But we ought not to omit to mention the river Schoolkill, or Schulkill, which has alſo its ſource in the ſame country, running almoſt parallel to the two other rivers, till at length it falls into the Delaware, near the city of Philadelphia, above which it is navigable for boats at leaſt a hundred miles higher up the country.

Theſe rivers, with the numerous bays and creeks in Delaware-bay, capable of containing the largeſt fleets, render this province admirably ſuited to carry on a foreign trade. The country alſo abounds in ſtreams fit for mills, and all other kinds of works invented to eaſe the labour of man; hence there is here manufactured the greateſt quantity of iron of any province on the continent.

This famous ſettlement is divided into three upper and three lower counties. The three upper are thoſe of Buckingham, Philadelphia, and Cheſter; and the lower counties are Newcaſtle, Kent, and Suſſex. The three firſt are thoſe Mr. Penn obtained by a grant from king Charles II. and the three laſt by a grant from James duke of York.

Philadelphia, the capital of this province, is ſeated in the county of the ſame name, in the fortieth degree fifty minutes north latitude, and in the ſeventy-fourth degree weſt longitude. It is built upon one of the fineſt plans that ever was formed, it being laid out by Mr. Penn himſelf, and far excels any other city belonging to Great Britain in North America. It is ſeated between two navigable rivers, the Delaware on the north, and the Schoolkill on the ſouth, which join each other a few miles below, and is near a hundred miles above the bay, into which the river diſcharges itſelf. It is an oblong of near two miles in length, extending nearly to each of thoſe rivers, where the front facing each is a mile in length. The ſtreets are wide and ſpacious, with a dry defended walk on each ſide, and are exactly ſtraight and parallel to each other: the houſes are in general well built, and make a handſome appearance, eſpecially ſeveral of the public buildings, which are not exceeded by any in the country. The High-ſtreet, which runs the whole length of the city, is a hundred feet wide, parallel to which run eight ſtreets that are croſſed by twenty more at right angles, all of them thirty feet wide. Every owner of a thouſand acres has his houſe in one of the two fronts facing the rivers, or in the High-ſtreet, running from the middle of one front to the middle of the other. In the center of the city is a ſquare of ten acres, encompaſſed by the town-houſe and other public buildings, and in each quarter of the city is a ſquare of eight acres. Several canals are let into the town from each river, which add to the beauty and convenience of the place. It has noble barracks for the reception of the king's troops, and the fineſt market of any on the continent, it being of a prodigious extent, well built, and as well regulated and ſupplied. Its quay is two hundred feet ſquare, to which ſhips of four or five hundred tons may come up, and lay their broad-ſides cloſe to it; with wet and dry docks for building and repairing of ſhips, beſides magazines, warehouſes, and all other conveniences for exporting and importing of merchandize. The proprietor's ſeat, which is the uſual place of the governor's reſidence, and is about a mile above the town, exceeds any private building in Britiſh America, both in its magnificence and the pleaſantneſs of its ſituation. In ſhort, ſcarce any thing can appear more beautiful than the city and the adjacent country, which for ſome miles may be compared to a fine and flouriſhing garden. The city contains about four thouſand houſes, and about twenty thouſand inhabitants, among whom are many very wealthy merchants, who carry on a conſiderable trade with the Engliſh, French, Spaniſh, and Dutch colonies in America; with the Azores, the Canaries, and the Madeira iſlands; alſo with Great Britain and Ireland, Spain, Portugal, and Holland.

The other principal towns in the county of Philadelphia are German-Town and Oxford; the former a thriving and populous place, chiefly inhabited by the Germans, who there ſpeak and tranſact their buſineſs in their own language. In the ſame county is likewiſe the city of Radnor on the ſouth-ſide of School-kill river, which is the capital of a large diſtrict planted by the Welſh. To the ſouth of the county of Philadelphia, lies that of Cheſter, the capital of which is the town of Cheſter, ſeated on the river Delaware; and to the ſouthward of Cheſter lies the town of Chicheſter. At either of theſe two laſt towns are ports ſufficient to receive and ſecure the largeſt fleets from ſtorms. The county of Newcaſtle lies ſouth of that of Cheſter; its capital of the ſame name is remarkable for the briſkneſs of its trade, and has alſo an iron-mine in its neighbourhood. The town of Aquoquinemimk is ſeated on the river Delaware, ſouth of Newcaſtle, and has a good trade. Kent lies ſouth of the laſt-mentioned county, and Dover, its chief town, has a very commodious port. The moſt ſouthern county is that of Suſſex, the capital of which is Lewes; this town has a ſecure harbour, and alſo carries on a conſiderable trade. On the other ſide of the province, Lancaſter, which is about ſixty or ſeventy miles from Philadelphia, on the road to Pittſburg, may juſtly be reckoned the ſecond town in Penſylvania, it being near as large as the city of New-York.

The number of inhabitants in the whole province of Penſylvania amounts to upwards of three hundred and fifty thouſand.

The trade of this province is extenſive, large, and valuable, no leſs than three hundred ſail annually clearing out from Philadelphia alone to Europe, the Weſt-Indies, &c. Their trade into the interior country with the Indians is likewiſe very extenſive and lucrative; of them they take the ſkins and furs of wild beaſts; while the Indians in return receive ſhirts, blankets, arms, ammunition, rum, and other ſpirits. Their commerce to Europe and the Weſt-Indies chiefly conſiſts in their exporting all ſorts of grain, as wheat, rye, Indian corn, barley, oats, peaſe, and beans; beef, pork, ſalted and barrelled fiſh, horſes, furs and ſkins, with pig and bar-iron, hogſheads, pipe-ſtaves, hoops, and flax-ſeed. In return for which they import from the iſlands and other places, ſilver and gold, ſugar, rum, molaſſes, ſalt, wine, &c. and from Great Britain cloathing of all kinds, hard-ware, tools, toys, furniture, &c.

SECT. XVI.

A Hiſtory of the firſt Settlement of Penſylvania, and its Government.

WE ſhall now give a conciſe account of the ſettlement of this province, which was the beſt projected, and is the moſt flouriſhing of all our colonies. But it is neceſſary juſt to obſerve, that the Dutch were the firſt planters here as well as at New York, and living near the bay in the neighbourhood of that province, applied themſelves chiefly to trade. Afterwards ſome of the inhabitants of Finland ſettled near the Freſhes of Delaware, the country being ſo called above and below the falls of that river for a conſiderable length; there they applied themſeves to huſbandry, and had a governor appointed them by the king of Sweden, their own ſovereign. Between theſe two neighbouring ſettlements there happened frequent diſputes, till the Dutch becoming too powerful for the Swedes, the latter ſubmitted to their ſtronger neighbours, and the Swediſh governor made a formal ſurrender of the country to the governor, for the States General; after which this province continued ſubject to that republic till the Engliſh drove the Dutch out of New York.

Admiral Penn, who, in conjunction with colonel Venables, conquered the iſland of Jamaica, and was afterwards knighted, being in high credit with king Charles II.

II. and the duke of York had the promiſe of a grant of this country from that king as a reward for his paſt ſervices; and ſome years after his death, his ſon ſtrenuouſly ſolicited the promiſed grant; which, as the king owed conſiderable ſums to his father, he obtained in the year 1679, and the original patent was dated the fourth of March, 1680. Mr. Penn afterwards, as hath been already intimated, obtained part of Nova Belgia, or New York, which was added to the country he had acquired by the firſt grant, and both together, from his own name, he called Penſylvania, or Penn's country.

Mr. Penn, who had turned Quaker during the lifetime of his father, had the more earneſtly ſolicited the above grant on account of the perſecution of the Diſſenters; and particularly of his friends the Quakers, who were harraſſed all over England by the ſpiritual courts, he himſelf being many times thrown into priſon both for preaching, and for being only preſent at their aſſemblies. There were at this time a few Engliſh in Penſylvania, over whom he placed as governor, colonel William Markham, his nephew, to whom both the Dutch and Swedes ſubmitted. Mr. Penn, being continually under the hand of perſecution, reſolved now to put himſelf at the head of as many as would go with him, and remove to this country; but firſt ſent over a body of ſettlers from London, Liverpool, and Briſtol, who purchaſed conſiderable quantities of land at the rate of twenty pounds for one thouſand acres, and paying a ſmall quit-rent. The male and female ſervants were to have fifty acres when their time was out; and the owners of land fifty acres per head for as many ſervants as they carried over. In order to ſecure the new planters from being moleſted by the Indians, he appointed commiſſioners to confer with them about the land, and to confirm a league of peace: by theſe firſt adventurers, he alſo ſent a very affectionate and friendly letter to the native Indians, and the ſame year went to Penſylvania himſelf, taking with him a great number of people, who, with thoſe he had ſent before, and that immediately followed him, amounted to two thouſand perſons.

As ſoon as he arrived, he took the government into his own hands; entered into a treaty of peace with the Indian chiefs; and, inſtead of immediately taking advantage of his patent, purchaſed of them the lands he had obtained by his grant, judging that the original property and eldeſt right was veſted in them; and at the ſame time engaged the ſeveral nations of Indians, inhabiting or claiming this territory, to promiſe that they would not ſell or diſpoſe of any of their lands but to him, or ſuch as ſhould be authoriſed by him to purchaſe them; giving orders to his agents not to take poſſeſſion, or ſuffer any perſon to take poſſeſſion of any lands, till they had firſt made a fair purchaſe of them from the Indians. This generous behaviour not only recommended him ſtrongly to the natives, who conceived a very high opinion of his honour and integrity, but laid a foundation for a laſting peace with them, and effectually prevented many of thoſe tragical calamities which ſeveral of the American provinces ſuffered in their infant ſtate.

He then ſettled the conſtitution and laws of the country by the conſent of the inhabitants, who unanimouſly agreed to the fundamental conſtitution of Penſylvania, which he himſelf had drawn up and publiſhed in England, That none who believe in the exiſtence of a God, and live peaceably, ſhall be moleſted on account of their religious ſentiments, or be compelled to frequent or ſupport any religious worſhip contrary to their declared opinion; and that all perſons who profeſs to believe in Jeſus Chriſt, ſhall not be incapable of ſerving the government in any capacity, on account of any particularities in their religious opinions, they ſolemnly promiſing, when required, allegiance to the crown of Great-Britain, and fidelity to the proprietor and governor of the province.

He likewiſe determined that no laws ſhould be made there, nor money raiſed but by the conſent of the inhabitants, who were empowered to enact what laws they pleaſed for the proſperity and ſecurity of the province. He eſtabliſhed courts of juſtice in every county, with proper officers to prevent law-ſuits and contentions, and that three peace-makers ſhould be choſen by every county-court in the nature of common arbitrators, to hear and put an end to all the differences that aroſe between man and man: he alſo ordained, that every ſpring and autumn an orphan's court ſhould be held in each county, to inſpect and regulate the affairs of the widows and orphans.

Mr. William Penn ſtaid there two years till he had ſettled every thing to his own and the people's ſatisfaction, during which he behaved in ſuch a manner to the Indians, that he inſpired them with the moſt extraordinary love and eſteem both for him and his people. Their deſcendants received from them the ſame ſentiments of this benevolent man, and ſtill ſpeak of him with the greateſt gratitude and affection; and whenever they would expreſs an extraordinary regard for any Engliſhman, they ſay, "We eſteem and love you as if you were that good "man William Penn himſelf."

"What crowned all," ſays an ingenious author, on ſpeaking of the inhabitants who formed this ſettlement, "was the noble charter of privileges by which he "made them as free as any people in the world, and "which has ſince drawn ſuch vaſt numbers of ſo many "different perſuaſions, and ſuch various countries, to "put themſelves under the protection of his laws. He "made the moſt perfect freedom, both religious and civil, "the baſis of this eſtabliſhment; and this has done "more towards the ſettling of the province, and towards ſettling it in a ſtrong and permanent manner, "than the wiſeſt regulations could have done upon any "other plan."

The unbounded latitude given to liberty of conſcience in this country, has occaſioned its being inhabited by people of almoſt every religious ſentiment in Europe. Here you ſee Quakers, people of the church of England, Lutherans, Catholics, Preſbyterians, Independents, Baptiſts, Moravians, and the Dumplers, a ſort of German ſect, who live in common, forming a kind of religious ſociety, wearing long beards, and a habit reſembling that of friars; but marry and live in a peaceable manner by cultivating the earth: in ſhort, the diverſity of the people, religions, nations, and languages, is here prodigious, and the harmony in which they live together no leſs edifying. When there is far from being an union of ſentiment, nothing can be more amiable than an union of affection: it affords a beautiful proſpect to ſee men take and give an equal liberty; to ſee them live, if not as belonging to the ſame church, yet to the ſame Chriſtian religion; and if not to the ſame religion, yet to the ſame fraternity of mankind.

We have already mentioned the terms upon which Mr. Penn ſettled this plantation; namely, twenty pounds for a thouſand acres, reſerving only a ſhilling quit-rent for every hundred acres, and this in ſome of the beſt ſituated parts of the province; but it is neceſſary to add, before we conclude this article, that now at a great diſtance from navigation, land is granted at twelve pounds the hundred acres, with a quit-rent of four ſhillings reſerved; and the cleared lands near Philadelphia rent for twenty ſhillings an acre. In many places, even at the diſtance of ſeveral miles from that city, land that has been cultivated ſells for twenty years purchaſe.

SECT. XVII.

Of MARYLAND.

Its Situation, Extent, Climate, Face of the Country, Soil, Produce, and Rivers. Of the Trade of this Province, with an Account of its Trade and Settlement.

THIS province is bounded on the north by Penſylvania and Delaware bay; on the eaſt by the Atlantic ocean; on the ſouth by Virginia; and on the weſt by the Apalachian mountains. It is ſituated between the thirty-eighth and fortieth deg. north lat. and between the forty-fourth and forty-eighth deg. weſt long. extending in length from north to ſouth about one hundred and forty miles; but its breadth is not ſo conſiderable. This country is divided into the eaſtern and weſtern diviſions by the great bay of Cheſapeak.

Though the air in ſummer is exceſſive hot, and in winter

winter very cold, when the north wind blows, yet their heats are ſeldom very troubleſome, and only in a perfect calm, which ſeldom happens above two or three days in the year, and then but a few hours at a time; when this inconvenience is rendered very tolerable, by their cool ſhades, their open and airy rooms, arbours, and grottoes. In ſpring and autumn the weather is as pleaſant as can be wiſhed; even the winters do not laſt above three or four months, and in theſe they have ſeldom one month's bad weather. During all the reſt they have a clear air and a bright ſun, and are ſcarce ever troubled with fogs. They have indeed ſometimes hard froſts, but they laſt no longer than while the wind blows from the north and north-weſt points, which is ſeldom more than three or four days; and at other times they have no froſt at all. Their rains, except in the depth of winter, are pleaſant and refreſhing, and in ſummer continue but a few hours. However, theſe ſummer ſhowers are very heavy for the time they laſt. That part of the country which lies on the bays of the ſea, and the mouths of the rivers, is certainly hot and moiſt, but higher up in the country the air is more agreeable, eſpecially ſince their lands have been cleared of wood. In the heat of ſummer they have however dreadful thunder, but as it cools and refreſhes the air, the people rather wiſh for it than fear it.

The face of the country may be divided into the low lands next the ſea, the hilly country towards the heads of the rivers, and the Apalachian or Allegany mountains, which are exceedingly high, and extend from the north-eaſt to the ſouth-weſt, parallel to the Atlantic ocean.

The low lands formerly conſiſted of ſwamps covered with woods, and were in a manner a continued foreſt, till the Engliſh cleared part of it, either to make room for their plantations, in building of ſhips and houſes, or the making of tobacco-caſks and pipe-ſtaves for exportation. All theſe have, at length, made ſuch havock among the woods, that the people begin to want timber; eſpecially near their forts and rivers, towards the heads of which is a mixture of hills and valleys covered with a variety of timber and fruit-trees; and where theſe are wanting are large ſavannahs, or meadows, where the graſs grows to a ſurpriſing height.

The ſoil is here as fruitful as in any other country, the principal part being a large plain interſperſed with hills of ſo eaſy an aſcent, and of ſuch a moderate height, that they rather ſeem an artificial than a natural ornament. An abundance of rivers and brooks diffuſes fertility throughout the country, and there is no tree, plant, or grain that grows in Virginia but thrives as well here; and as the animals and every thing elſe are the ſame in both countries, we ſhall avoid repetition, and refer our readers for theſe particulars to the deſcription of Virginia.

This country is watered by innumerable ſprings, and many fine rivers; the principal of theſe are Potowmac, which, riſing in the mountains on the north-weſt, runs to the ſouth-eaſt, ſeparating Maryland from Virginia, and then falls into the middle of Cheſapeak-bay. Potowmac, which iſſues near the ocean, runs directly ſouth, till turning to the weſt, it falls into Cheſapeak-bay, near Watkins's point. The river Patuxent riſes in Arundel county, and running to the ſouth-eaſt, falls into Cheſapeak-bay, about twenty miles to the northward of the river Potowmac. The Severn riſes on the north-weſt, and running ſouth-eaſt falls into the upper part of the ſame bay. Saſſafras-river riſes in the north-eaſt, and running almoſt due weſt, diſcharges itſelf into the north of the ſame bay. Wicomo-river riſes on the eaſtern ſhore, runs to the ſouth-weſt, and falls into the ſame bay, almoſt oppoſite the mouth of Potowmac river.

There are many other rivers capable of receiving large ſhips, which with the numerous bays and creeks wherewith the land is on every ſide indented, affords the advantage of bringing veſſels to the very doors of the planters.

Maryland is divided into ten counties, of which the four following are on the eaſt ſide of the bay, Somerſet, Dorcheſter, Talbot, and Cecil county. Thoſe on the weſt ſide of the bay are St. Mary's county, Charles-county, Prince George-county, Anne Arundel-county, and Baltimore-county.

The capital of the province is Annapolis, which is ſituated on the Severn; but though the governor reſides there, and the courts of juſtice, with the general aſſemblies, are held in the town, it does not much exceed a hundred houſes; for, throughout the whole colony of Maryland, the Engliſh live in their ſeveral plantations, which are almoſt all ſituated upon ſome navigable creek or river with which the province abounds, by which means the planters have the convenience of ſhipping their own produce to England and other parts, and of being ſupplied from thence with foreign commodities. Hence all the towns are extremely ſmall; indeed, every plantation is a little town of itſelf provided with proviſions and neceſſaries, a conſiderable planter's warehouſe being a kind of ſhop, where he not only ſupplies his own family, but inferior planters, ſervants, and labourers, and has commodities to barter for tobacco and other goods, there being but little money in the province, and but little occaſion for it, tobacco anſwering all the uſes of gold and ſilver; and indeed there are but few ſhopkeepers who live entirely by buying and ſelling. The tobacco of this province called Oroonoko, is ſold to great advantage, and the planters of Maryland find ſo good vent for it in foreign markets, that ſeveral hundred ſail of ſhips are annually employed in the commerce between Great Britain and this country. The number of inhabitants amount to about eighty-five thouſand whites, and twenty-five thouſand negro ſlaves.

Maryland was eſteemed a part of Virginia till the year 1632, when king Charles I. made a grant of all the country not then planted on the north of Potowmac river to lord Baltimore, a Roman-catholic nobleman, and his heirs; and the country was called Maryland in honour to queen Mary, conſort to king Charles. His lordſhip ſent Leonard Calvert, Eſq; with ſome popiſh gentlemen and other adventurers, to the number of two hundred, to take poſſeſſion of the country; who, ſailing from England in November 1633, arrived at the mouth of Potowmac river in March following, and having fixed on a proper place for beginning a ſettlement, purchaſed the land of the natives. The place they choſe was near a ſmall bay at the mouth of the above river, and was a town belonging to the Yoamaco Indians, who, having been defeated by the Suſquahana Indians, had reſolved to leave the town and retire farther into the country. The Engliſh arriving at this happy juncture, and fulfilling their agreement, were immediately put into poſſeſſion of one half of the town.

The Engliſh having thus by purchaſe become maſters of a ſpot of cleared ground, they not only began to build a town, which they called St. Mary's, but to plant corn; they alſo purchaſed all the corn they could of the Indians, by which means they had very ſoon a plentiful ſupply; and as they prudently took care to cultivate a friendſhip with the Indians, they avoided the diſtreſſes to which the neighbouring colony of Virginia had often been reduced. While they were cultivating the ground, and raiſing large quantities of Indian corn, the natives went every day into the woods to hunt for game, bringing veniſon and turkies to the Engliſh colony in great plenty, for which they received knives, tools, and toys.

Thus both nations lived in the greateſt friendſhip, doing mutual good offices for each other, till ſome of the Engliſh in Virginia envying the happineſs of this thriving colony, had the baſeneſs to ſuggeſt to the Indians, that theſe ſtrangers were not really Engliſh, as they pretended, but Spaniards, and would enſlave them, as they had done many of their countrymen. Having thus ſowed the ſeeds of ſuſpicion and enmity in the minds of theſe inoffenſive people, who now made preparations to attack them, the new planters prepared to defend themſelves, built a good fort with all expedition, and took every other neceſſary precaution for their defence; but continued to treat the Indians with ſuch kindneſs, that partly by the effect this had upon them, and partly by the awe of their arms, the ill deſigns of their enemies were defeated.

Being thus happy in the enjoyment of peace and plenty, they ſoon received reinforcements from England, many popiſh families of rank and fortune retiring thither to avoid the penal laws which were at that time made againſt them in England. After the king's death, Cromwell deprived the proprietor of his rights, and Maryland remained under the governors appointed by the parliament and Cromwell, till the Reſtoration, when lord Baltimore was reinſtated in his former poſſeſſions, which he cultivated with his uſual wiſdom, care, and moderation. No people could live in greater eaſe and ſecurity; and his lordſhip, willing that as many as poſſible ſhould enjoy the benefits of his mild and equitable adminiſtration, gave his conſent to an act of aſſembly, which he had before promoted in this province, for allowing a free and unlimited toleration for all who profeſſed the Chriſtian religion, of whatever denomination. This liberty, which was never violated, encouraged a great number, not only of the church of England, but of all kinds of diſſenters, to ſettle in Maryland, which before that time was almoſt wholly in the hands of Roman catholics.

Though this nobleman was guilty of no mal-adminiſtration in his government, though he was a zealous Roman catholic, and firmly attached to the cauſe of king James II. this could not prevent his charter being queſtioned in that arbitrary reign, and a ſuit being commenced to deprive him of the property and juriſdiction of a province granted by the royal favour, and peopled by himſelf at a vaſt expence: but it was the error of that weak reign neither to know its friends nor its enemies. Upon the Revolution the lord Baltimore had no reaſon to expect any favour, yet he met with more than king James himſelf had intended him: he was indeed deprived of his juriſdiction, but was allowed the profits of his province, which were far from being inconſiderable; and when his deſcendants conformed to the church of England, they were reſtored to all their rights. At preſent but a ſmall part of the province is veſted in lord Baltimore, he having conveyed to others the greateſt part of it.

This colony and Penſylvania were for a long time free from being harraſſed by the calamity of any war, offenſive or defenſive, with their Indian neighbours, with whom they always lived in the moſt exemplary harmony. Indeed in a war which the Indians made upon the colony of Virginia, they by miſtake made an incurſion into the bounds of Maryland; but they were ſoon ſenſible of their error, and atoned for it. The late war, however, changed every thing; for the Indians were then taught by the French to laugh at all their ancient alliances.

CHAP. III.

Of the Southern Part of the Britiſh Colonies on the Continent of AMERICA, particularly of VIRGINIA, CAROLINA, GEORGIA, and FLORIDA.

SECT. I.

Of VIRGINIA.

Its Situation, Extent, Climate, and Face of the Country. Of Cheſapeak-bay, with the Rivers and Soil of Virginia. Of the Vegetables, containing a Deſcription of the Tobacco Plant and its Preparation; of the Flowers; the Myrtle-berry, and the Candles made of the Wax extracted from them; the wild Fruits, their Kitchen-Gardens, and a general View of the Beauties of the Country.

VIRGINIA contains a very extenſive territory, it being ſeated between the thirty-ſixth and thirty-ninth degree north latitude, and between the ſeventy-fourth and eightieth of weſt longitude; it extending about two hundred and forty miles in length from north to ſouth, and about a hundred and twenty miles in breadth from eaſt to weſt. It is bounded on the north by the river Potowmac, on the eaſt by the bay of Cheſapeak, on the ſouth by Carolina, and on the weſt by the Allegany mountains.

With reſpect to the climate, the heat and cold both here and in Maryland are governed by the winds; the north and north-weſt winds are commonly cold and clear; but the ſouth-eaſt moiſt, hazy, and very hot. In winter the air is dry and clear; and though the ſnow falls in great quantities, it ſeldom lies above a day or two: the froſts are quick and ſharp, freezing the river over, though three miles acroſs; but do not continue long. Their ſpring is ſomewhat earlier than ours; in April they have frequent rains: May and June are very pleaſant months, the heat being greatly tempered by cooling breezes; but July and Auguſt are generally very ſultry, the air ſometimes growing in a manner ſtagnant, which produces dreadful thunder and lightning; but even then the heat is rendered tolerable by the refreſhing ſea-breezes; and in September and October the rains fall, when the inhabitants become liable to agues and intermitting fevers. The weather is changeable, and the changes ſudden and violent. Their winter froſts come on without the leaſt warning: thus, after a warm day, towards the ſetting in of winter, ſo intenſe a cold often ſucceeds, as to freeze the rivers in one night; but theſe froſts, as well as their rains, are rather violent than of long continuance.

The whole face of the country is ſo extremely low towards the ſea, that when you come within fifteen fathom ſoundings, you can hardly diſtinguiſh land from the maſt-head. All this coaſt of America has one uſeful particularity, that you know your diſtance exactly by the ſoundings, which uniformly and gradually diminiſh as you approach the land. The trees appear firſt as if they aroſe out of the water, and afford the ſtranger a very uncommon and not diſagreeable view. In ſailing to Virginia, or Maryland, you paſs a ſtreight between two points of land called the Capes of Virginia, which opens a paſſage into the bay of Cheſapeak, one of the largeſt and ſafeſt bays perhaps in the world; for it enters the country near three hundred miles from the ſouth to the north, having the eaſtern ſide of Maryland, and a ſmall part of Virginia on the ſame peninſula, to cover it from the Atlantic ocean. This bay is almoſt eighteen miles broad for a conſiderable way, and ſeven where it is narroweſt, the water in moſt places being nine fathoms deep. Through its whole extent it receives both on the eaſtern and weſtern ſide a vaſt number of fine navigable rivers; for, beſides thoſe of Maryland from the ſide of Virginia, it receives James-river, York-river, the Rappahannoc, and the Potowmac.

Theſe, in the order they are here mentioned, diſcharge themſelves, with ſeveral ſmaller ones, into the bay of Cheſapeak; and are not only navigable themſelves for very large veſſels a prodigious way into the country, but have ſo many creeks, and receive ſuch a number of ſmaller navigable rivers, as renders the communication of all parts of this country infinitely more eaſy than that of any other country. The Potowmac is navigable for near two hundred miles; it is nine miles broad at its mouth, and for a vaſt way not leſs than ſeven. The other three are navigable upwards of eighty; and in the windings of their ſeveral courſes approach one another ſo nearly, that the diſtance between them is in ſome parts not more than ten,

ten, and ſometimes not above five miles; while in others there is fifty miles between each of theſe rivers. The planters, as in Maryland, load and unload veſſels of great burthen each at his own door; which, as their commodities are of ſmall value in proportion to their bulk, is a very fortunate circumſtance.

The ſoil in the low grounds of Virginia is a dark fat mould, which for many years, without any manure, yields plentifully whatever is committed to it. The ſoil as you leave the rivers becomes light and ſandy, but, though ſooner exhauſted than the low country, yields corn and tobacco extremely well. The land higher up the rivers, throughout the whole country, is generally a level ground, with ſhallow valleys, which abound with ſprings and ſtreams of clear water, there being interſperſed ſome ſmall hills and extenſive vales. The lands next the rivers are ſtored with large oaks, walnut-trees, hickeries, aſh, beech, poplar, and many other ſorts of timber of a ſurprizing ſize. Towards the mouth of the rivers the land has a moiſt and fat mould, for the moſt part well ſtored with oaks, poplars, pines, cedars, cypreſs, and ſweet gums; the trunks are often thirty, forty, and ſome ſixty or ſeventy feet high, without a branch or limb. It likewiſe produces great variety of evergreens, as the holly, ſweet myrtle, and many others. The heads of the rivers afford a mixture of hills, valleys, and plains, adorned with fruit and timber trees.

There are alſo found great variety of earths, as antimony, talc, yellow and red ochre, fuller's earth, and tobacco-pipe clay. In theſe upper parts are likewiſe coal, ſlate, flat paving-ſtones in vaſt quantities, and likewiſe pebbles, though ſome travellers have ſaid there is not a ſtone in the country; beſides, near the falls of the rivers are vaſt quantities of ſtone fit for all uſes.

There is no better wheat than what is produced in this province and in Maryland; it alſo produces other ſorts of Engliſh grain, as barley, oats, rye, peas, &c. but the cultivation of tobacco employs all their attention, and almoſt all their hands; ſo that they ſcarcely raiſe corn enough for their own conſumption.

As the great produce of this country is tobacco, and as Virginia is celebrated for producing the beſt, it will be proper here to give a particular account of the management of this plant ſo well known in England. This plant at its full height is as tall as a common ſized man; the ſtalk is ſtraight, hairy, and clammy; the leaves alternately of a faded yellowiſh green, and towards the lower part of the plant of a great ſize. The tobacco ſeeds are firſt ſown in beds, where having remained a month, the young ſprouts are in the firſt rainy weather tranſplanted, and the earth raiſed about them: within the ſpace of another month they grow near a foot high; after which the people top them and prune off the bottom leaves, leaving only ſeven or eight on the ſtalk, that they may be the better fed; after which theſe leaves in ſix weeks time come to their full growth. The planters prune off the ſuckers, and clear them of the hornworm twice a week, which is called worming and ſuckering. This laſt work laſts three weeks or a month, by which time the leaf, from being green, begins to turn browniſh, and to ſpot and thicken, which is the ſign of its ripening. They cut the plants down as faſt as they ripen, heap them up, and let them lie a night to ſweat. The next day they carry them to the tobacco-houſe, where every plant is hung up at a convenient diſtance from each other, for about a month or ſix weeks: they take them down in moiſt weather, elſe they will crumble to duſt. After this they are laid upon ſticks, and covered up cloſe in the tobacco-houſe for a week or a fortnight to ſweat; and then opening the bulk in a wet day, they are ſtripped and ſorted, the top leaves being the beſt, and the bottom the worſt tobacco. The laſt work is to pack it in hogſheads, or to bundle it up, which is alſo done in a wet ſeaſon; for in the curing of tobacco, wet ſeaſons are as neceſſary as dry to render the leaf pliant.

There is no commodity of ſuch advantage to the revenue as this, for while it produces a vaſt ſum, it ſeems to lay but a very inconſiderable burthen upon the people in England, all the weight in reality falling upon the planter. Near three hundred thouſand pounds ſterling per annum is received by the government for the duty on this article only; and the exported tobacco, the far greater part of the profits of which come to the Britiſh merchant, brings almoſt as great a ſum annually to the kingdom.

The country is all over interſperſed with a ſurprizing variety of curious plants and flowers. They have a ſort of briar growing ſomewhat like the ſarſaparilla; the berry of which is as big as a pea, and of a bright crimſon colour, very hard and finely poliſhed. The flowers grow ſpontaneouſly in a ſurpriſing variety: among theſe is a moſt beautiful crown imperial; the cardinal flower, which is of a beautiful ſcarlet; the moccaſin flower, and a thouſand others; for almoſt all the year round the levels and vales are beautified with flowers of one colour or another, which render the woods as fragrant as a garden. From theſe materials the wild bees make vaſt quantities of honey; but their magazines are often rifled by bears, racoons, and the like. There is alſo found the fine tulip-bearing laurel-tree, which has the pleaſanteſt ſmell in the world, and keeps bloſſoming and ſeeding ſeveral months together: it delights much in the gravelly banks of the brooks, and perfumes the very woods with its odour; as does alſo the large tulip-tree; the locuſt, which reſembles the jeſſamine; and the perfuming crab-tree, during this ſeaſon. With one ſort or other of theſe, and by many other ſweet flowering-trees not mentioned, the woods are almoſt every where adorned.

At the mouth of the rivers, and all along upon the banks of the ſea and bay, and likewiſe near many of the creeks and ſwamps, grows the myrtle, which bears a berry of which the inhabitants make a hard brittle wax of a beautiful green colour, which by refining becomes almoſt tranſparent. Of this they make candles, which are never greaſy to the touch, nor melt with lying in the hotteſt weather; nor does the ſnuff ever offend the ſmell, like that of a tallow candle; but inſtead of being diſagreeable, if a candle be put out it yields a pleaſant fragrance, which is diffuſed all over the room; ſo that nice people frequently put them out on purpoſe to ſmell the incenſe of the expiring ſnuff.

The melting of theſe berries is ſaid to have firſt been diſcovered by a ſurgeon, who performed wonderful things with a ſalve made of them. The method of managing theſe berries is by boiling them in water, by which all of them diſſolve, except the ſtone or ſeed in the middle, which amounts to about half the bulk of the berry, the biggeſt of which is ſomething leſs than a pepper-corn. Cedar berries have been found to yield the ſame ſort of wax; but their berries are as much larger than pepper, as thoſe of the myrtle are leſs.

The fruits natural to the country are in great abundance, the ſeveral ſpecies of which are produced according to the difference of the ſoil, and the various ſituation of the country.

Peaches, nectarines, and apricots, that grow upon ſtandard trees thrive here extremely; and of the two firſt there are finer ſorts than in England. The beſt ſort of theſe cling to the ſtone, and will not come off clear; are they call plum-nectarines and plum-peaches. Some of theſe are twelve or thirteen inches in compaſs. Theſe ſorts of fruits are raiſed ſo eaſily there, that ſome good huſbands who live at a diſtance from the woods, plant large orchards of them purpoſely for their hogs; and others make a drink of them, which they call mobby, and either drink it like cyder, or make brandy of it by diſtillation, it making the beſt ſpirit next to grapes.

Of the cherries which grow wild in the woods there are at leaſt three ſorts, two of which grow upon trees as large as the common Engliſh oak; the fruit of one of them grows in bunches like grapes. Both theſe ſorts are black without, and but one of them red within: this laſt is more palatable than the Engliſh black cherry, it not having its bitterneſs. The other, which hangs on the branches like grapes, is water-coloured within, of a faintiſh ſweet, and is greedily devoured by the ſmall birds. The third ſort, which is called the Indian cherry, grows higher up the country, and is commonly found by the ſides of rivers growing on ſmall ſlender trees that are ſcarce able to ſupport them; but this is the moſt delicious cherry in the world: it is of a dark purple when ripe, and grows upon a ſingle ſtalk like the Engliſh cherry;

cherry; but is very ſmall. They are, however, ſo greedily devoured by the ſmall birds, that they ſeldom remain long enough on the tree to ripen.

The plums which grow wild are of two ſorts, the black and the murrey-plum, both which are ſmall, and have much the ſame reliſh with the damſin.

The perſimmon is a kind of Indian plum of ſeveral ſizes, between the bigneſs of a damſin and a Burgamot pear; but, till they are fully ripe, the taſte of them are ſo very rough as not to be endured: however, they are pleaſant fruit when fully ripe. Theſe, like moſt other fruits, grow as thick upon the trees as ropes of onions; ſo that the branches are often broke down by them.

An incredible variety and plenty of grapes grow wild, ſome of which are very ſweet and pleaſant to the taſte, and others very harſh and rough. There are two ſorts of them as large as the Dutch gooſeberry, which are very fine eating: one ſpecies of them is white, the other purple, but both of them are much alike in flavour.

We ought not here to omit the honey and ſugar-trees, which grow near the heads of the rivers. The honey-tree bears a thick ſwelling pod full of honey, appearing at a diſtance like the bending pod of a bean or pea. The ſugar-tree yields a kind of ſap, or juice, which by boiling is made into ſugar. The juice is drawn off by making an inciſion in the trunk of the tree, and placing a receiver under it. The Indians make one pound of ſugar out of eight pounds of the liquor. This ſugar has a large full grain, and its ſweetneſs reſembles that of good muſcovado.

They have muſk-melons, water-melons, pompions, cuſhaws, macoas, and gourds. The muſk-melons here reſemble the large Indian kind, and generally fill four or five quarts. The water-melons are much larger, and of ſeveral kinds, diſtinguiſhed by the colour of their meat and ſeed; ſome of them are exceeding pleaſant to the taſte, and very beautiful. One ſort has the rind of a lively green, ſtreaked and watered, the meat of a carnation colour, and the ſeed black and ſhining. Their pompions are much larger and finer than thoſe in England. Their cuſhaws are a kind of pompion of a bluiſh green, ſtreaked with white when fit for uſe, and larger than the pompion. The macoas are a ſmaller ſort of pompion, of which there are many ſorts, all of which are here called by the Indians by this name; but by the more northern Indians they are called the ſquaſh. Theſe being boiled whole when young and the ſhell tender, and melted butter or cream poured over them, are very good with all ſorts of butcher's meat.

There are here great variety of berries, all very good in their kind. They have three ſorts of mulberries, two black and one white, of which the long black ſort are the beſt; theſe being about the ſize of a boy's thumb. The other two kinds are of the ſhape of the Engliſh mulberry, but are of a faintiſh ſweet, without any tartneſs.

There grow naturally two ſorts of currants, one red and the other black; but theſe are far more pleaſant than thoſe of the ſame colours in England.

The wild ſtrawberries are as delicious as any in the world, and grow almoſt every where in the woods and fields, where they are ſo plentiful, that few perſons take care to tranſplant them. Here are alſo wild raſberries, cranberries, and hurts, with various kinds of nuts. Beſides theſe they have all the other fruits common in England.

A kitchen-garden thrives no where better or faſter; they have all the culinary plants that grow in England, in far greater perfection, with many others that will not grow there. Beſides theſe they have many medicinal plants, roots, and wood fit for medicine and dying. The ſnake-root here is a great antidote in all peſtilential diſtempers; the rattle-ſnake-root is the moſt admirable remedy ever diſcovered for curing the bite of that reptile, which has ſometimes been mortal in two minutes. If this medicine be early applied it preſently removes the infection, and in two or three hours reſtores the patient to as perfect health as if he had never been hurt.

An author born in Virginia, after ſhewing that the unhealthineſs of the climate attributed to this country is ſolely owing to the folly and indiſcretion of thoſe who on their firſt arrival from Europe over-heat themſelves, and then take a ſurfeit with greedily eating their delicious fruits, by drinking cold water or new cyder, adds, "Here the people enjoy all the benefits of a warm ſun, "and by the ſhady groves are protected from its inconvenience. Here all their ſenſes are entertained with "an endleſs ſucceſſion of native pleaſures. Their eyes "are raviſhed with the beauties of nature: their ears are "ſerenaded with the perpetual murmur of brooks, and "the through-baſs which the wind plays when it wantons through the trees; the merry birds too join their "pleaſing notes to this rural concert, eſpecially the "mock-birds, who love ſociety ſo well, that whenever "they ſee mankind they will perch upon a twig very "near them, and ſing the ſweeteſt wild airs in the world: "but what is moſt remarkable in theſe melodious animals, they will frequently fly at ſmall diſtances before "a traveller, warbling out their notes ſeveral miles an end, "and by their muſic make a man forget the fatigues of "his journey. Their taſte is regaled with the moſt delicious fruits, which, without art, they have in great "variety and perfection. And then their ſmell is refreſhed with an eternal fragrancy of flowers and ſweets, "with which nature perfumes and adorns the woods almoſt the whole year round.

"Have you pleaſure in a garden? all things thrive in "it moſt ſurpriſingly; you cannot walk by a bed of "flowers, but, beſides the entertainment of their beauty, "your eyes will be ſaluted with the charming colours of "the humming-bird, which revels among the flowers, "and ſucks off the dew and honey from their tender "leaves, on which it only feeds. Its ſize is not half "ſo large as an Engliſh wren, and its colour is a glorious ſhining mixture of ſcarlet, green, and gold. "Colonel Bird, in his garden, which is the fineſt in that "country, has a ſummer-houſe ſet round with Indian "honeyſuckles, which all the ſummer is continually "full of ſweet flowers, in which theſe birds delight exceedingly. Upon theſe flowers I have ſeen ten or a "dozen of theſe beautiful creatures together, ſport about me ſo familiarly, that with their little wings they "often fanned my face."

SECT. II.

Of the Quadrupeds of Virginia, particularly the Panther, the Bear, the Elk, the Racoon, the Opoſſum, and the Flying-Squirrel. Of the Birds, with a particular Deſcription of the Humming-Bird and the Fiſhing-Hawk. Of the Reptiles and Inſects, with a very particular Account of the Rattle-Snake. Of the Fiſhes of Virginia.

IT has been already obſerved, that there were neither horſes, cows, ſheep, nor hogs in America before they were carried thither by the Europeans; but now they are multiplied ſo extremely, that many of them here run wild. The hogs in particular are very numerous, and in general find their own ſupport in the woods, without any care of their owner, and it is well if the proprietor can find and catch the pigs, or any part of a farrow, when they are young, in order to mark them; for if there be any marked in the herd, they determine the property of the reſt, becauſe they ſeldom miſs their gangs; for as they are bred in company, ſo they continue to the end.

There are alſo many horſes foaled in the woods of the uplands, and are as ſhy as any wild creature. The young men take great delight in hunting theſe wild horſes, which they purſue ſometimes with dogs, and ſometimes without; for as they have no mark upon them, they belong to the firſt who take them; but they are ſo ſwift, that it is very difficult to come up with them.

Among the animals originally found in Virginia are panthers, bears, wolves, elks, red and fallow deer, racoons, wild-cats, the opoſſum, &c.

The panther of North America is of the cat kind, near as large as the tyger, and much of the ſame ſhape. It is of a pale reddiſh colour, finely mottled with ſmall round black ſpots, and the hair is ſhort. The eyes of theſe animals are large and of a greyiſh colour, very fierce and ſparkling. Their tails are exceeding long; and they are very ſtrong limbed. They pur like a cat, and will climb

trees with the greateſt agility imaginable; but are ſo wild, that they cannot be tamed even when taken young. They devour ſwine, deer, or any other creature they can maſter; but ſeldom attack mankind, except they are enraged by being wounded: it is even ſaid that a ſmall dog will make them take to a tree, where they generally remain till they are ſhot by the huntſmen. The fleſh looks as well as any ſhambles meat, and is much admired.

The bears are not very large, but, though they ſeem ſo clumſy, they climb trees very nimbly, and in coming down always go with the tail foremoſt. They are alſo very dexterous and expert in fiſhing. It is remarkable that the female never appears abroad when with young. Bear-hunting is a common diverſion both with the Chriſtians and Indians, the former having a breed of dogs fit for that ſport, who bark and ſnap at him till he mounts a tree; when, by the noiſe of the dogs, the huntſmen repair to the place, and generally ſhoot one after another till they kill him; for though the bears are not naturally fierce, they will fight moſt deſperately when wounded. Their fleſh is good, nouriſhing, and not inferior in taſte to the fineſt pork; the paws are accounted the beſt eating. The young cubs are a moſt delicious diſh; the planters prefer the fleſh to that of any other meat; it looks as well as it eats, their fat being as white as ſnow, and the ſweeteſt of any creature in the world.

The elk is a ſtrong and ſwift beaſt, bigger than a horſe, and exactly like a deer. They have two large horns, which weigh twelve or fourteen pounds. Their neck is ſhort and thick; but the ears and back are very long. In colour they reſemble a hart; but their fleſh is not near ſo ſweet as that of the fallow deer.

The racoon is of a dark grey colour, and in ſhape and ſize partly reſembles a fox; but has large black eyes, with great whiſkers like a cat; the noſe reſembles that of a pig, and the feet are formed like thoſe of a monkey. The tail is round, and encircled with annular ſtripes like that of a cat. It makes uſe of its fore-feet in the manner of hands, and will run up a tree to the very end of the boughs. This animal is very fond of crabs, and it is ſaid that when he wants to catch them, he will ſtand by the ſide of the water and let his tail hang in, which the crab taking for a bait faſtens his claws in it; upon which the racoon ſprings forward a conſiderable way upon the land, dragging the crab along with him, which no ſooner finds itſelf out of its element than it lets go its hold, and the racoon ſeizing it croſſwiſe in his mouth, devours it.

The opoſſum is a very extraordinary animal of the ſize of a cat, it being almoſt eighteen inches in length; the head reſembles that of a fox; the eyes are little, round, clear, and lively; and the ears long, broad, ſmooth, thin, tranſparent, and placed erect. The fore-legs are ſhort, and no more than three inches long; but thoſe behind are more than four, and the feet reſemble hands. Its back is covered with long hair; but on the head, neck, under the belly, and legs, it is pretty ſhort. The tail is round, and a foot long, with which it lays hold of the branches of trees, and thus ſuſpends itſelf. It is hairy from the root to the length of four inches; but the other part is naked, and ſcaled like a ſnake, which it nearly reſembles. The whole back, the ſides, and the upper part of the tail, are chiefly black; but under the neck, belly, and tail, it is of a yellowiſh colour. This animal has one peculiar property which diſtinguiſhes it from all others in the world, the female having a falſe belly, or bag, hanging below under the other belly, with a pretty large aperture at the end, towards the hinder-legs. Within this bag, on the uſual parts of the common belly, are eight teats, and, what is very extraordinary, upon theſe when the female conceives the young are formed, and there hang like fruit upon the ſtalk, with all their members complete, till they grow in bulk and weight to their appointed ſize; and then dropping off, are received in the falſe belly, from which they go out at pleaſure, and in which they take refuge when any danger threatens. The falſe belly is hairy within, and the aperture, which is big enough to admit a large orange, ſhuts up pretty cloſe, and cannot be well opened without violence. Improbable as this method of propagation may appear, yet this account is confirmed by a conſiderable number of authors, and particularly by that great naturaliſt Mr. Ray, who diſſected one of theſe animals himſelf, and informs us, that this falſe belly is the only uterus the animal has, no other being to be found. Theſe animals are ſo hard to kill, that when their ſkulls are maſhed and broken to pieces, and they ſeem to be quite dead, yet in a few hours they will recover and creep about again.

There are here two ſorts of ſquirrels, one grey and commonly larger than a rabbit, but ſmall like a fox; yet are good to eat. It is commonly of a grey colour, yet ſome are pyed, and ſome white, red, and black.

The flying-ſquirrel is of a grey or light dun colour, and is leſs than the Engliſh. It has a fine thin ſkin on each ſide, covered with hair like the reſt of the body, and extending from the fore-feet to the hinder-feet, which buoys them up as they ſpring from one tree to another, and enables them to take a much more extenſive leap than any other ſquirrel; this is termed flying.

They have all our ſorts of wild and tame fowl in equal perfection with us, and ſome which we have not, with a vaſt number of birds of various kinds valuable for their beauty or their note. The white-owl of Virginia is much larger than thoſe of England, and is all over of a bright ſilver-coloured plumage, except one black ſpot upon his breaſt. The Virginian nightingale is a beautiful bird, whoſe colours are crimſon and blue. The mocking-bird is ſuppoſed to excel all others in the fineneſs of its note, and is remarkable for imitating the notes of all others. The rock-bird is very ſociable, and his ſociety very agreeable by the ſweetneſs of his muſic.

The humming-bird is the leaſt of all the birds yet known, and has this remarkable peculiarity, that though it is feathered like a bird, it gets its living like the bee by ſucking honey from the flowers. Theſe birds are of different colours; but the cocks are more beautiful than the hens, and are finely tinged with red, green, and gold, as hath been already obſerved, which being expoſed to the ſun-beams ſhine with wonderful luſtre. They have long bills and tails, conſidering their ſize, and in ſome of the larger flowers they often bury themſelves, and are quite covered while ſucking to the bottom of them, by which means they are often caught by children. They fly very nimbly, but more like inſects than birds, from flower to flower, making a humming noiſe ſomewhat like that of a bee. They breed during the heat of ſummer; but what becomes of them in the winter is not known. Their neſts are a great curioſity, and may be ſaid to be one of the fineſt pieces of workmanſhip the whole ſpecies of winged animals can ſhew; for it commonly hangs on a ſingle briar, and is moſt artificially woven like a round ball, with a ſmall hole to go in and out. Within it the hen lays and hatches her eggs, which are oval, and no bigger than a ſmall pea.

There are here ſeveral ſorts of eagles and hawks. The fiſhing-hawks are very eager in catching of fiſh at their firſt coming in the ſpring; and the bald eagle no ſooner perceives a hawk that has taken his prey, but he immediately purſues and ſtrives to get above him in the air; which if he can once attain, the hawk, for fear of being torn by him, lets the fiſh drop, and thus compounds for his own ſafety; for the fiſh is no ſooner looſe from the hawk's talons, than the eagle ſhoots with ſuch inconceivable ſwiftneſs, that he catches it in the air. It is ſaid that the fiſhing-hawks in more plentiful ſeaſons will catch a fiſh and loiter about with it in the air, in order to have a chace with an eagle; and when he does not appear ſoon enough, will make a noiſe as inſolently defying him. This is ſaid to have been frequently ſeen.

The troubleſome reptiles and vermin of this country are frogs, ſnakes, muſkettos, chinches, ſeed-ticks, or red-worms. The marſhes, fens, and watery grounds are full of frogs, which make a diſagreeable croaking noiſe. In the ſwamps and running ſtreams are frogs of an incredible ſize, which are called bull-frogs, from their bellowing noiſe. Theſe are ſaid to be frequently ſix times as large as thoſe in Europe; but there are no toads in the country.

The rattle-ſnake uſually fills ſtrangers with terror, who are under great apprehenſions of being bit by this formidable reptile; but it is here very rarely ſeen, and then

then never does the leaſt miſchief, unleſs you offer to diſturb it, and by that means provoke it to bite in its own defence; and even then it never fails to give fair warning, by making a noiſe with its rattle, which may be heard at a conſiderable diſtance.

The rattle-ſnake is ſo called from the rattles at the ends of their tails, which is a connection of joints within a thin covering of a horny nature. The number of joints, or rattles, are uncertain, being more or leſs according to the age of the ſnake; ſome authors aſſerting, that every year there is the addition of a new rattle, and that theſe do not begin to grow till they are three years old. Mr. Brickell informs us, that he has ſeen one with thirty rattles. M. Derham and others have obſerved, that Providence has wiſely given theſe rattles to this poiſonous ſerpent, that the noiſe might be a warning to man and beaſt to avoid the approaching danger. Some of theſe reptiles grow to the length of ſix or ſeven feet, and they are about the thickneſs of the ſmall of a man's leg. Their ſkins are all over covered with thin ſcales, with a ridge through the middle of them, of an orange tawny; the reſt of their back are generally of a blackiſh colour beautifully mottled, and the belly of an aſh colour, inclining to lead. The top of the head is flat as in the viper, and by the protuberance of the jaws ſomewhat reſembles a bearded arrow; it has two noſtrils, and its eyes are round and very bright and ſhining. The mouth is very large; its tongue in all reſpects like that of a viper, which it darts out and retracts again with great agility. The male is eaſily diſtinguiſhed from the female by a ſpot on the head reſembling a patch of black velvet, and his head is ſmaller and longer. They ſeldom or never bite except they are provoked, and this they cannot do till they gather themſelves into a coil, and then will ſpring at a good diſtance to bite whatever provokes or injures them; otherwiſe they are moſt peaceable creatures, and never attack or moleſt any one. They have ſeveral ſmall teeth in each jaw, which ſerve them for catching and retaining their food, which they always ſwallow whole; and beſides theſe are the poiſonous fangs, which are placed without the upper jaw, towards the fore part of the mouth. Theſe fangs uſually lie under a ſtrong membrane, or ſheath; but are erected upon occaſion, and there are only two on each ſide of their upper jaw. Theſe are hooked, but in all of them is a hole, ſo ſmall that you can but juſt get in the point of a ſmall needle; towards the point is a plain ſlit, and cloſe to the jaw a bag filled with venom, which iſſues out of the hole when this ſerpent bites. The venom, which is of a water-colour tinged with yellow, is not always of the ſame force, it being moſt poiſonous in the hotteſt weather. Thoſe who have been bit ſay, that it ſeems as if a flaſh of fire ran through their whole bodies: but the Indians have happily a remedy, by which they eaſily cure themſelves if bitten by accident, which is by chewing a bit of the rattle-ſnake root, ſwallowing ſome part of the juice, and applying the reſt to the wound, which perfectly cures thoſe who are bit in a few minutes.

Dr. Brickell obſerves, that the Indians frequently pull out theſe poiſonous fangs, which is eaſily done by tying a bit of red woollen cloth to the upper end of a long hollow cane, provoking the rattle-ſnake to bite, and then ſuddenly ſnatching it away, by which means the teeth are found ſticking faſt in the cloth.

Their common food is frogs, ground-mice, crickets, graſhoppers, and other inſects; and the rattle-ſnakes themſelves ſerve for food to bears, and even hogs will eat them without harm. They are viviparous, and generally bring forth about twelve young ones.

We ſhall now conſider the effects of the rattle-ſnake's poiſon, of which we have ſome extraordinary inſtances given us by captain Hall, who being in South Carolina, where perhaps the venom may be ſomewhat more violent than in this province, and where they are at leaſt more numerous, procured a fine healthful rattle ſnake, and, with one Mr. Kidwell, a ſurgeon, and three or four other gentlemen, made ſeveral experiments. They got three cur-dogs, the largeſt no bigger than a common harrier; and the ſnake being tied and pinned down to a graſs-plat, they took the largeſt of the dogs, and having tied a cord round his neck, ſo as not to ſtrangle him, the captain held one end, and another perſon the other; when pulling the dog over the ſnake, the latter raiſed himſelf near two feet, and bit the dog as he was jumping. The dog yelped, by which the captain perceived he was bitten; and pulling the dog to him as faſt as he could, he found his eyes fixed, his tongue between his teeth, and, in ſhort, he was quite dead in a quarter of a minute: but as they could neither perceive the bite, nor any blood, they ordered ſome hot water, and ſcalding off the hair, diſcovered only one puncture, with a bluiſh green colour appearing a little round it, between his fore legs and breaſt.

Half an hour after they took a ſecond dog, that was ſomewhat ſmaller, and brought him in like manner over the ſnake, which bit his ear, ſo that all the company ſaw it. The dog yelped much, reeled and ſtaggered about for ſome time, then fell down and ſtruggled as if convulſed, and two or three times got up, and wagging his tail, though ſlowly, endeavoured to follow a negro boy, who uſed to make much of him. They put him into a cloſet, and ordered the boy to look after him, who two hours after brought word that the dog was dead.

About an hour after the ſecond dog was bitten, they took the third in like manner, which the ſnake bit on the right ſide of the belly, ſo that he drew blood. The dog for about a minute did not ſeem to be hurt; but was dead the next morning.

Four days after they got two dogs, as big as common bull-dogs; and the firſt which the ſnake bit, on the inſide of his left thigh, died exactly in half a minute, according to the watches of two gentlemen preſent, though no blood was drawn. The ſecond was bit about an hour after, on the outſide of the thigh, where they perceived blood at two places, and he died in four minutes. As they imagined the venom was not quite ſpent, they got a cat, which he bit an hour after; ſhe was very ſick, and was found dead the next morning.

The laſt experiment the captain made with this ſnake was to try if his poiſon would not prove mortal to the reptile himſelf. In order to this, he hanged him in ſuch a manner that he was not above half his length on the ground, and then ſo irritated him by pricking and ſcratching him with two needles faſtened to the end of a ſtick, that he ſoon bit himſelf, after having ſeveral times attempted to bite the ſtick. He then let him down, and he was quite dead in eight or ten minutes. The ſnake was then cut into five pieces, and given to a hog, the head-part firſt, in the ſight of ſeveral people. The hog eat up all the ſnake, and ten or twelve days afterwards the captain ſaw the hog alive and healthful.

But beſides the effect of the poiſon, there are others attributed to the eyes of this ſerpent, that appear much more ſurprizing; and we have many accounts that ſeem to prove that the rattle-ſnake, by fixing its eyes on any ſmall animal, as a bird or ſquirrel, though ſitting on the branch of a tree, can ſo diſorder their animal ſpirits, that they have not the power to fly but fall down, and are ſwallowed by that dreadful reptile. The following inſtance given by colonel Beverly cannot fail of being highly agreeable to the reader.

The above gentleman, with two other perſons in company, ſtopping at an orchard by the ſide of a road, one of the company ſearching for the beſt cherries eſpied a hare, better than half grown, ſitting; and though he went cloſe by her ſhe did not move, till he, not ſuſpecting the occaſion of her tameneſs, gave her a laſh with his whip; upon which ſhe ran three or four yards, and ſat down again. The gentleman not finding the fruit ripe, immediately returned the ſame way; and near the place where he ſtruck the hare obſerved a rattle-ſnake. Not ſuſpecting the charm, he went back about twenty yards to a hedge to get a ſtick to kill the ſnake, and at his return found it removed and coiled in the ſame place from whence he had removed the hare. This made him look about for her, and he ſoon eſpied her about ten feet diſtant from the ſnake in the place to which ſhe had ſtarted when he whipped her. She was now lying down, but would ſometimes raiſe herſelf on her fore-feet, ſtruggling as it were for life to get away; but could never raiſe her hinder parts from the ground; and then ſhe would fall flat on her ſide again, panting vehemently. The hare and ſnake were in this condition when our author was called, who ſays, that though all three went within five yards of the

ſnake to have a full view of the whole, the ſnake did not ſo much as give a glance towards them. There they ſtood at leaſt half an hour, the ſnake not altering one jot; but the hare often ſtruggled to get up, and fell again on its ſide; till at laſt ſhe lay ſtill as if dead. The ſnake then moved out of his coil, and ſlid gently and ſmoothly towards the hare, his colours at that inſtant ſhining ten times more bright than at other times. As the ſnake moved along the hare happened to make another ſtruggle, upon which the ſnake made a ſtop, lying at his length till ſhe was quiet, and then advanced till he came up to the hare's hinder parts, which in all this proceſs had been towards the ſnake. There he ſurveyed the hare all over, raiſing part of his body above it; then turning off, he went to the noſe, and after that to the ears, which he took into his mouth one after another, working them as a man does a wafer to moiſten it. He then returned to the noſe, and took the face into his mouth, ſtraining and gathering his lips ſometimes on one ſide ſometimes on the other. At the ſhoulders he was a long time puzzled, often pulling and ſtretching the hare out at length, till at laſt he got the whole body into his throat. The ſpectators then advanced, and our author taking the twiſt-band off his hat made a nooſe, aud threw it about the ſnake's neck. This made him very furious; but having ſecured him, they put him into one end of a wallet, and carried him on horſeback five miles to the houſe where they lodged that night, and killing him the next morning, took the hare out of his belly. The head began to be digeſted, and the hair to fall off, having laid in the ſnake's belly about eighteen hours.

Sir Hans Sloane endeavours to ſolve the myſtery, by ſuppoſing that when ſuch animals as are the prey of theſe ſnakes, as ſmall quadrupeds, birds, &c. are ſurprized by them, they give them a bite, and the poiſon allows them time to run a little way, or a bird to fly into the next tree; where the ſnakes watch them with great earneſtneſs till they fall down, and then licking them over with their ſpawl ſwallow them; but this does not ſeem fully to explain the difficulty, ſince among the ſquirrels, birds, and other animals frequently found in their bellies, it does not appear that any of them were wounded: nor could they have an opportunity of ever biting them, if it be true that they never bite with their poiſonous fangs without firſt giving warning by rattling their tails.

They have ſeveral other ſnakes which are more frequently ſeen, ſome of which have very little or no hurt in them, as the black-ſnake, the water-ſnake, and the corn-ſnake. However, the black-viper-ſnake and the copper-bellied-ſnake are ſaid to be extremely venomous. Theſe three poiſonous ſnakes bring forth their young alive, while the other three lay eggs, which are hatched afterwards. There is here alſo the horn-ſnake, which is ſo called from a ſharp horn in its tail, with which it aſſaults any thing that offends it with ſuch force, that it will ſtrike its tail into the butt-end of a muſket ſo far as to be unable to diſengage it.

The muſkettos are leſs dangerous, but more troubleſome, on account of their being more frequent. They are a kind of long-tailed gnat, and are only found in the low grounds and marſhes.

The chinch is a kind of flat bug, that lurks in the bedſteads and bedding, and is very troubleſome in the night; but every neat houſe-wife contrives to keep the beds clear of theſe vermin, by ſearching for them early in the ſpring. Seed ticks and red-worms are ſmall inſects that are very troubleſome by day, as muſkettos and chinches are by night. The ſeed-ticks are no where to be found but in the track of cattle, upon which the great ticks faſten, and fill their ſkins ſo full of blood that they drop off; and wherever they happen to fall, produce a kind of egg, which lies about a fortnight before the ſeedlings are hatched. They then run in ſwarms up the next blade of graſs, and the firſt thing that bruſhes the graſs gathers off moſt of theſe vermin, which ſtick like burs upon any thing that touches them. Red-worms lie only in old dead trees and rotten logs, and without ſitting down upon them in the midſt of ſummer, no perſon ever meets with them; but a little warm water immediately brings off both the ſeed-ticks and red-worms, though they be ever ſo thick upon any part of the body, and are ſo ſmall that they can ſcarcely be perceived; but if nothing be done to remove them, the itching they occaſion goes away in two days time.

No place abounds with ſea and river-fiſh more than Virginia. In February, March, April, and May, ſhoals of herrings come up into the very brooks, ſome of the ſize of ours; but moſt of them are much larger. There are alſo plenty of cod, and ſtingraſs, a fiſh peculiar to this country, ſo called from its having a ſting in its tail; it is, however, eſteemed good food. In the rivers are ſturgeon, old-wife, the ſheep's-head, an excellent fiſh; trouts, and green-fiſh in great plenty; alſo plaice, flounders, whitings, carp, pike, mullets, and perch; and for ſhell-fiſh they have crabs, oyſters, cockles, and ſhrimps. Of thoſe that are not eaten, here they have in the ſeas whale and dog-fiſh. Here is alſo a fiſh called the toad-fiſh, from its ſwelling monſtrouſly when taken out of the water; and likewiſe the rock-fiſh, ſome ſpecies of which are poiſonous, though others, which are not eaſily diſtinguiſhed from them, are very wholeſome food.

Annually in the month of June there are here vaſt numbers of worms, which enter the bottoms of ſhips, ſloops, and boats, wherever they find the coat of pitch, tar, and lime worn off the timber, and by degrees eat the planks into cells like thoſe of an honeycomb. Theſe worms continue upon the ſurface of the water from their riſe in June till the firſt great rains, after the middle of July; but after that do no great damage till the next ſummer ſeaſon, and never penetrate farther than the plank upon which they firſt fix. The damage occaſioned by theſe worms may be prevented ſeveral ways, as by keeping the coat of pitch, lime, and tallow whole upon the bottom of the ſhip, or veſſel; by anchoring the large veſſels in the ſtrength of the tide, during the worm ſeaſon, and hauling the ſmaller on ſhore: by running up into the freſhes with the ſhip or veſſel; for they never do any damage in freſh water: and by burning and cleaning immediately after the worm-ſeaſon is over; for then they have but juſt ſtuck into the plank, and have not buried themſelves in it.

SECT. III.

Of the Diviſions, Number of Inhabitants, and Towns of Virginia: A Character of the People: The Form of Government, and Trade.

VIRGINIA is divided into twenty-five counties, namely, James county, which is ſeated on both ſides the river James, Prince George county, Henrico county, Charles County, Surrey, Iſle of Wight, Nanſamond, Norfolk, Princeſs Anne, York, Warwick, Elizabeth, New Kent, King William, and Queen, Glouceſter, Middleſex, Eſſex, Richmond, Stafford, Weſtmoreland, Lancaſter, Northumberland, Northampton, and Acomat counties.

The number of inhabitants in this province is about two hundred thouſand whites, and it is ſuppoſed there are half that number of ſlaves; yet there are only two towns in the whole country built by the Engliſh; theſe are Jamestown and Williamſburg.

James-town, which before the building of Williamſburg was eſteemed the capital, is ſeated on a peninſula formed by James river, about forty miles from its mouth, in the ſeventy-ſixth degree weſt longitude, and the thirty-ſeventh degree thirty minutes north latitude, and contains only about eighty or a hundred houſes, the greateſt part of which are taverns or public-houſes for the entertainment of mariners. Its ſituation is naturally ſtrong, but the fortifications are neglected, the inhabitants thinking themſelves perfectly ſecure from enemies ſo far up the river.

Williamſburg, now the capital of Virginia, is ſeated ſeven miles from the above town, between James river and York river, in the thirty-ſeventh degree twenty minutes north latitude, and the ſeventy-ſixth degree thirty minutes weſt longitude; but though it is the ſeat of the government, where the general aſſembly or parliament meet,

meet, it ſcarce contains ſixty houſes. It has a town-houſe, and a handſome college erected for the education of the Indians, and alſo ſome works raiſed for its defence. The above college conſiſts of a preſident, ſix profeſſors, and one hundred ſtudents; and for endowing it king William not only gave two thouſand pounds, but granted twenty thouſand acres of land, and one penny per pound on all tobacco exported. It has likewiſe received ſeveral other valuable donations, and is upon the whole one of the richeſt colleges in America.

The inhabitants of Virginia are a chearful hoſpitable people, and many of them genteel, vain, and oſtentatious; they live luxurioufly, and generally leave all kinds of labour to their ſlaves. But though there are not many rich planters in this province, there is ſcarce a man ſo poor as to be reduced to a ſtate of beggary; but if any one happens to be diſabled by age or ſickneſs from working, he is quartered upon ſome ſubſtantial planter, where he is plentifully provided for at the public expence.

The conſtitution of the Virginian government reſembles that of Great Britain. The governor repreſents the king, by whom he is choſen; the council anſwers to the houſe of peers; and the repreſentatives of the people, elected by the freemen of every county, are their houſe of commons.

There are only three public officers beſides the governor, who have their commiſſion immediately from his majeſty, namely, the auditor of the revenue, the receiver-general, and the ſecretary, in whoſe office is kept the public records, and all deeds and other writings are there proved. The treaſurer of the province is choſen by the general aſſembly, and receives the money raiſed by the acts of that aſſembly.

No other forces are kept in Virginia but militia, of which the governor is by his commiſſion lieutenant-general, and appoints in each county a colonel, lieutenant-colonel, and all other commiſſioned officers. All freemen between the ages of ſixteen and ſixty, not otherwiſe excuſed, are obliged to bear arms and attend a general muſter once a year in the county where they dwell, and four times a year in ſmaller parties or ſingle companies.

The public revenues are a rent reſerved by the crown of all lands granted by patent: a duty of two ſhillings a hogſhead on all tobacco exported: a duty of ſix-pence a head for every paſſenger brought into the country: fines and forfeitures: duties on ſlaves and ſervants imported, and on foreign liquors: money raiſed by acts paſſed in the aſſembly, and the heavy duties laid on tobacco when exported to Great Britain.

Their county courts have the power of cenſuring and puniſhing all maſters that do not provide their ſervants good and wholeſome diet, cloathing, and lodging; and theſe courts have power to redreſs any grievance ſervants may have reaſon to complain of.

The eſtabliſhed religion is that of the church of England: every pariſh has its miniſter, who has a houſe and glebe, with about the value of eighty pounds per annum paid him in tobacco, which the church-wardens collect for him. The eccleſiaſtical affairs are under the inſpection of a commiſſary authorized by the biſhop of London, who preſides over all the colonies in religious matters. But though full liberty of conſcience is allowed to people of all perſuaſions, there are few diſſenters from the eſtabliſhed church.

The chief exports from this province are iron, beef, pork, pipe-ſtaves, and other lumber: but, as hath been already obſerved, all the other commodities of this country are ſwallowed up in tobacco. It is computed that generally one year with another two hundred large ſhips are freighted with that commodity, and that a hundred thouſand hogſheads are annually exported, each weighing four hundred weight, out of which it is ſuppoſed that forty thouſand hogſheads are conſumed at home, and the other ſixty thouſand exported from Great Britain to foreign markets, after moſt of it is manufactured at home.

SECT. IV.

A conciſe Hiſtory of the Settlement of Virginia.

VIRGINIA, which was diſcovered by Cabot, is the moſt ancient of our colonies; though the firſt attempts to ſettle a colony were not, ſtrictly ſpeaking, made in Virginia, but in that part of North Carolina which immediately borders upon it. The great Sir Walter Raleigh, when this country was firſt made known to the Engliſh, ſaw how advantageous it might be made to this kingdom. He was the firſt man in England who had a right conception of the advantages of ſettlements abroad, the only perſon who had a thorough inſight into trade, and who ſaw clearly the proper methods of promoting it. He applied to court, and formed a company, compoſed of ſeveral perſons of diſtinction and ſome eminent merchants, who agreed to ſettle a colony in that part of the world, which, in honour of queen Elizabeth, he named Virginia. The ill ſucceſs that attended the firſt attempts ſeemed to give little hopes of their ever being completed: near half of the firſt colony was deſtroyed by the Indians, and the reſt, conſumed and worn out by fatigue and famine, returned home to their native country: the ſecond colony was cut off to a man in a manner unknown; but was ſuppoſed to be deſtroyed by the Indians: the third had the ſame unhappy fate; and the fourth quarrelling among themſelves, neglected agriculture to hunt for gold, and exaſperating the Indians by their inſolent behaviour, loſt ſeveral of their people, and the poor remains of them were returning in a famiſhing condition to England, when juſt in the mouth of Cheſapeak-bay they met the lord Delaware with a ſquadron loaded with proviſions, and with every thing neceſſary for their relief and defence, who perſuaded them to return.

This nobleman endeavoured with the utmoſt zeal and aſſiduity to cheriſh and ſupport the froward infancy of this unpromiſing colony. After he had prevailed on the people to return, he comforted them under their misfortunes, pointed out their cauſes, and uniting the tenderneſs of a father with the ſteady ſeverity of a magiſtrate, healed their diviſions, and reconciled them to authority and government, by making them feel by his conduct what a bleſſing it could be made. Having ſettled the colony within itſelf, his next care was to put them upon a proper footing with regard to the Indians, who had been too often treated ill, and whom he now found very haughty and aſſuming on account of the miſerable ſtate to which the Engliſh had been reduced; but by ſome well-timed and vigorous, though cruel, ſteps, awed them into very peaceable diſpoſitions; and having ſettled his colony in a very thriving condition, retired home for the benefit of his health, which, by his conſtant attention to buſineſs, and the air of an uncultivated country, had been impaired; but left his ſon, who had his father's ſpirit, as his deputy, and Sir Thomas Gates, Sir George Summers, the honourable George Piercy, Sir Ferdinand Wenman, and Mr. Newport, for his council.

Lord Delaware on his return to England did not forget the colony. For eight years together he was indefatigable in doing every thing that could tend to the peopling, the ſupport, and the good government of this ſettlement; and died in the purſuit of the ſame object in his voyage to Virginia, with a large ſupply of people, cloathing, and goods.

The colony of Virginia took ſuch vaſt root under the care of lord Delaware, that it was enabled to ſtand two terrible ſtorms, in which the injured Indians had nearly cut off that colony, and to ſubdue them ſo as to put it entirely out of their power to give the Engliſh the leaſt diſturbance for many years. After the death of Charles I. Sir William Berkley held out for the crown, till the province was reduced by the parliament.

Soon after the Reſtoration a rebellion aroſe in the province, from miſmanagement in the government, the decay of trade, and exorbitant grants, which included the ſettled property of many people; theſe grievances raiſed a general diſcontent among the planters, which was made to blaze out into an actual war, by a young gentleman named Bacon: he had a graceful preſence and winning behaviour: he had been bred to the law, had a lively and fluent expreſſion fit to ſet off a popular cauſe, and to influence men who were ready to hear all that could be ſaid to colour, in a proper manner, whatever was already ſtrongly drawn by their own feelings. By a ſpecious, or perhaps a real, regard for the public good, finding the governor ſlow in his preparations againſt the Indians, who

were then ravaging the frontiers of the province, he took up arms without any commiſſion to act againſt the enemy. When he had ſufficient force for this purpoſe, he found himſelf in a condition not only to make head againſt the Indians, but to give law to the governor, and to force him to give a ſanction by his authority to thoſe proceedings, with which he intended to deſtroy it.

Bacon at length, armed with the commiſſion of a general, marched againſt the Indians, followed by the whole force of the colony; when Sir William Berkley, the governor, being freed from the immediate terror of his forces, proclaimed him a traitor, and iſſued a reward for apprehending him. Upon this the people were univerſally inflamed, and adhered to Bacon, while the governor, who was unwilling to temporize, or yield to the ſtorm, retired over the river Potowmac, proclaimed all Bacon's adherents traitors, put himſelf at the head of a ſmall body of troops, which he raiſed in Maryland, and of ſuch Virginians as were faithful to him, and wrote to England for ſupplies.

Mean while Bacon marching to the capital, called an aſſembly, and for ſix months together diſpoſed of every thing according to his own pleaſure. Things were now brought to a criſis, and haſtening to a civil war; when ſuddenly the public tranquility was reſtored by Bacon's dying a natural death; for the people being unable to act without a head, propoſed terms of accommodation, and peace was reſtored not ſo much by the removal of the grievances complained of, as by the arrival of a regiment from England, which remained a long time in the country: and it muſt be obſerved, in honour of the moderation of the government, that no perſon ſuffered in his life or eſtate for this rebellion, which was the more extraordinary, as many people were then very earneſtly ſoliciting grants of land in this country.

SECT. V.

Of NORTH *and* SOUTH CAROLINA.

Their Situation, Extent, Climate, Soil, and Face of the Country. The many Species of Corn, Plants, and Trees.

THE provinces of North and South Carolina, lying between the thirty-firſt and thiry-ſixth degrees of latitude, are upwards of four hundred miles in length, and in breadth to the Indian nations near three hundred. North Carolina is bounded on the eaſt by the Atlantic ocean, on the ſouth by South Carolina, on the weſt by the Apalachian mountains, and on the north by Virginia. The coaſts are extremely broken by bays, creeks, and rivers, in the openings of which are many bars and ſhoals, which render the navigation difficult to ſtrangers: there are, however, ſeveral ſafe and good harbours.

The climate and ſoil of both Carolinas are not very different from thoſe in Virginia; but where they differ it is much to the advantage of Carolina, which, upon the whole, may be conſidered as one of the fineſt climates in the world. Indeed the heat in ſummer is very great, but it exceeds little that in Virginia, and has the advantage of having the winters milder and ſhorter. However, the weather, though in general ſerene, and the air healthy; yet, like all American weather, makes ſuch quick changes as obliges the inhabitants to obſerve more caution in their dreſs and diet than we are obliged to uſe in Europe. Thunder and lightning is very frequent, and theſe, with the ſouthern colonies, are the only ones we have on the continent that are ſubject to hurricanes; but they are here very rare, and not near ſo violent as thoſe of the Weſt Indies. Part of the month of March, all April and May, and the greateſt part of June, are here inexpreſſibly temperate and agreeable; but in July, Auguſt, and for almoſt the whole of September, the heat is very intenſe; and though the winters are ſharp, eſpecially when the north-weſt wind prevails, yet the cold is ſeldom ſevere enough to freeze any conſiderable body of water. It is chiefly felt in the mornings and evenings; for the froſt has never ſufficient ſtrength to reſiſt the noon-day's ſun; ſo that many tender plants, which do not ſtand the winter of Virginia, flouriſh in Carolina.

The whole country, where it is not cleared by our planters, is in a manner one foreſt. The trees are almoſt the ſame in every reſpect with thoſe produced in Virginia; and by the different ſpecies of theſe the quality of the ſoil is eaſily known: thus the ground which bears the oak, the walnut, and the hickery, are extremely fertile; it is of a dark ſand, intermixed with loam; and as all the land abounds with nitre, it is long before it is exhauſted; for here they never uſe manure. What is called the pine-barren is the worſt, it conſiſting of a white ſand, yet naturally bears the pine-tree and other uſeful plants; thoſe trees yield good profit in pitch, tar, and turpentine: when this land is cleared, it produces for two or three years together tolerable crops of Indian corn and peas; and when it lies low, and is flooded, anſwers well for rice; but what is of greateſt advantage to this province is, that the worſt ſpecies of its land is favourable to a ſpecies of one of the kinds of indigo, the moſt valuable of all its products. There is another ſort of ground which lies low and wet on the banks of ſome of the rivers, and is in ſome places uſeleſs; but in others is far the richeſt of all their grounds, it conſiſting of a black fat earth that bears their great ſtaple rice, which requires a rich moiſt ſoil.

The country near the ſea, and at the mouths of the navigable rivers is much the worſt; for moſt of the land there is a pale, light, ſandy coloured ground; but the country on your advancing farther into it continually improves; and at a hundred miles diſtance from Charles Town, where it begins to grow hilly, the ſoil is extremely fertile, the air pure and wholeſome, and the ſummer heats much more temperate than in the flat country; for Carolina is for eighty miles from the ſea an even plain, in which is no hill, no rock, and ſcarce even a pebble to be found. Whence, from this ſameneſs, it muſt want the fine effect which its beautiful products would have by a more variegated and advantageous diſpoſition; but nothing can be imagined more delightful than the back country, and its fruitfulneſs is almoſt incredible. Wheat grows extremely well there, and yields a prodigious increaſe. In the other parts of Carolina they raiſe but little wheat, it being apt to mildew, and ſpend itſelf in ſtraw; evils which the planters take very little care to redreſs, as they turn their whole attention to the culture of rice, which is more profitable, and in which they are unrivalled, they being ſupplied with what wheat they want, in exchange for this grain from Penſylvania and New York.

The land in Carolina is every where eaſily cleared, as there are little or no under-wood. The foreſts moſtly conſiſt of large trees at a conſiderable diſtance from each other; ſo that they can clear in Carolina more land in a week, than they can do in the foreſts of Europe in a month. Their method is to cut them about a foot from the ground, and then ſaw them into boards, or convert them into heading, ſtaves, or other ſpecies of lumber, according to the nature of the wood, or the demands of the market. The roots ſoon decay, and before that happens, they find no inconvenience from them, where they have ſuch plenty of land.

In the two provinces of which Carolina is compoſed is ten navigable rivers, that have a very long courſe, and a great number of ſmaller ones that fall into them, all abounding in fiſh: but in moſt of the great rivers there are falls fifty or ſixty miles from the ſea, and as you approach their ſources theſe become more frequent.

We ſhall now, after dwelling ſo long on the ſoil, begin with the produce of this province, and firſt with the corn.

The wheat, particularly of North Carolina, is very good, and the flour extremely white; rye thrives very well, but they ſow very little of it; barley grows much better than might be expected from the manner in which it is managed here; oats alſo do very well, but the vaſt plenty of other grain prevents its being propagated in many places.

Here are ſeveral ſorts of rice, ſome bearded and others not, beſides the white and the red; but the white is the beſt. The rice of Carolina is eſteemed as good as any brought to Europe, and increaſes ſo prodigiouſly, that one

one meaſure ſown yields from eight hundred to a thouſand. It grows beſt in the wet and wild land, that has never been cultivated or broken up before. This anciently formed the ſtaple of this province; but while the rigour of the act of navigation obliged the planters to ſend all their rice directly to England, to be re-ſhipped for the markets of Spain and Portugal; the charges incident to this regulation lay ſo heavy upon the trade, that the cultivation of rice, eſpecially in time of war, when theſe charges were greatly increaſed by the riſe of the freight and inſurance, hardly anſwered the charges of the planter; but now the legiſlature permits the inhabitants of Carolina to ſend their rice directly to any place to the ſouthward of Cape Finiſterre; this has revived the rice-trade, and this branch alone of their commerce is at the loweſt eſtimation worth a hundred and fifty thouſand pounds ſterling a year.

Indian corn, or maize, proves a moſt uſeful grain in theſe parts, it being in great plenty all over the province. Millet alſo does very well here, eſpecially in light and looſe ground: they ſow it in April and May, and it proſpers beſt in moiſt and rainy weather; but the plenty of other grain prevents there being much of it ſown, it being only uſed in Carolina for fattening their poultry. Guinea wheat likewiſe thrives very well here, and ſerves for the ſame uſe as the former.

There are ſeveral ſorts of pulſe in this province, as the buſhel-bean, ſo called from one bean producing a buſhel; the miraculous-pea, which is ſo called from its long pods and prodigious increaſe; the bonavis, calivances, nanticoacs, and ſeveral other kinds, all of which are excellent food. There are likewiſe kidney-beans, and the large European bean; but this laſt degenerates: yet there are ſeveral ſorts of European peas, which come to as great perfection as in moſt parts of Europe.

Here are likewiſe a great variety of garden-roots, pot-herbs, and ſallads; with pompions, caſhaws, ſquaſhes, and many others.

Among the medicinal plants are aſarabacca, carduus benedictus, ipecacuhana, ſarſaparilla, baſtard china-root, and a great number of others: with the valuable indigo plant, and others uſed in dying.

The fields and woods are adorned like thoſe of Virginia, with a vaſt variety of flowers, among which are many of thoſe raiſed with great care in our gardens, and others peculiar to America.

The foreſt-trees are likewiſe very numerous; among theſe are many kinds of oak, the aſh, ſycamore, the elm, the beech, four ſorts of pine, the ſervice-tree, the maple, horn-beam, and the cypreſs. This laſt is not an evergreen in Carolina, the leaves turning red in winter, and not recovering their verdure till the ſpring. They are the talleſt and thickeſt of any trees in this part of the world, ſome of them being above thirty-ſix feet in circumference: the nuts they bear yield an odoriferous balſam uſed as a cure in all new green wounds, gonorrhœas, and old gleets; and, being drank with Alicant, ſtop all kinds of fluxes. The planters and Indians commonly make their periaguas and canoes of this wood, and ſome of theſe periaguas are ſo large that they will carry thirty or forty barrels of pitch or tar in them, though formed of one entire piece of timber. Of theſe trees are likewiſe made curious pleaſure boats.

Here are alſo in the foreſts the mulberry, the hickery, which is of the walnut kind, and is of three ſorts, the white, the red, and the flying-barked hickery, ſo called from its brittle and ſcaly bark; the black walnut-tree, the cheſnut-tree, the honey-tree, and the ſugar-tree.

The palmeto-tree, when at its full growth, is forty or fifty feet in height, and about two feet in diameter. The leaves grow only in great cluſters on the top, and are exactly in the form of a fan.

The ſweet gum-tree receives its name from a fragrant gum it yields in ſpring, by making an inciſion in the bark and wood. This gum is uſed internally as a ſovereign remedy for ſeveral internal diſorders, and outwardly for cutaneous complaints.

The black gum-tree bears a well-taſted black berry, and the white gum-tree has flowers in bunches, and its wood beautifully veined, whence ſeveral kinds of curious furniture are made of it.

The cedar-tree is here of two ſorts, the red and white. The red cedar is encompaſſed with a vaſt number of branches, which gradually ſhortening as they approach the top of the tree, form an exact pyramid. The leaves are ſmall and round, like thoſe of the pine, but ſhorter and not ſo ſharp-pointed; it bears berries all the year, which are ſweet and pleaſant to the taſte. Of this wood tables and other furniture are made, rooms are wainſcotted with it, and of it are made coffins for the dead. It is admired for its fragrant ſmell, and its durableneſs, for no worms will touch it.

The tulip-tree grows here to ſo large a ſize, that the trunk is ſometimes above twenty feet in circumference. Some of theſe trees bear white tulips, and others thoſe that are party-coloured. The wood makes handſome tables, &c.

The bay-tree, and the bay-tulip-tree, are beautiful ever-greens.

The ſaſſafras is very common, and the trunk is ſometimes two feet in diameter. The wood, which is light and durable, is, notwithſtanding its medicinal virtues, made into bowls, poſts, and other things made to ſtand in the ground.

The ſumach-tree grows about nine or ten feet high, with ſoft and hairy leaves, indented on the edges, and a red ridge running through the midſt of them. The flowers which come forth in July are of a greeniſh yellow, and grow with the leaves in long red ſtalks in cluſters, after which follow ſmall reddiſh ſeeds in bunches like grapes. This tree is of great uſe in Europe in dreſſing ſkins, and eſpecially Spaniſh leather.

Many of the fruits of Great Britain grow wild in the woods, and of theſe are all the kinds we have mentioned in treating of Virginia; with a number of other American fruits, of which we ſhall only mention the following:

The papau-tree is only about eight or ten inches in diameter, but has the broadeſt leaves of any of the trees in the woods of Carolina. It bears a fruit about the bigneſs of a hen's egg, which reſembles an apple, but contains a large ſtone within it. When it is ripe it is of a beautiful yellow, and as ſoft and ſweet as any fruit can be; of it the planters make puddings, tarts, and many other diſhes.

The Indian-fig, commonly called the prickly-pear, is an admirable plant, which grows in great plenty, and ſeems to be nothing but a multitude of leaves, or a tree made of leaves, without trunk or boughs; for a leaf ſet in the ground takes root and produces other leaves, growing one above another till they are pretty tall like a tree, the leaves ſpreading out like boughs. Theſe leaves are long, broad, thicker than a man's hand, of a deep green, and ſet full of long, ſharp, and ſlender prickles. From the tops of the leaves riſe long yellow flowers, reſembling thoſe of the pomegranate-tree, after which is produced a fruit which reſembles the common fig; but within is full of red pulp of a blood colour, very ſweet and luſcious, but occaſions ſuch a tincture in the urine of thoſe who eat it, that it ſeems like pure blood, and yet is perfectly innocent. The tops of theſe figs are encircled with ſcaly leaves like a crown, in which are contained ſmall grains that are the ſeeds, which being ſown bring forth plants with round bodies like the trunk of other trees, with the leaves growing on them like the former; but if theſe leaves are plucked off and planted in the ground, they bring forth trees of only leaves. Upon this plant grow certain excreſcences, from which are ſaid to proceed the cochineal inſect, ſo much valued for dying the richeſt ſcarlet.

SECT. VI.

Of the Cattle of Carolina, and the Manner in which they are managed by the Planters. Of the wild Beaſts, and Inſects. A Deſcription of ſeveral remarkable Birds; and of the Fiſhes on the Coaſt and in the Rivers.

HORNED cattle, horſes, and ſwine multiply ſurprizingly, there being as great numbers here of each ſpecies, as in any province poſſeſſed by the Engliſh in America. The veal is very good and white; but they gene-

generally preſerve their calves to a larger growth, and therefore kill few for the market. The planters make folds adjacent to their habitations, in which they milk their cows every morning and evening; after which they turn them into the woods, where they feed all day. When they return at night, they carefully ſhut up their calves with a few of the cows in thoſe folds, to protect them from the wolves, and other voracious wild beaſts. The calves generally ſuck the dams all the time they are milking, otherwiſe the cows would not ſuffer any one to touch them. Their method of killing the black cattle is generally to ſhoot them in the fields or in the folds; they then cut off the head and feet, and take out the entrails, which they throw away as uſeleſs, except the fat. If the cattle be ſuffered to live to a proper age, the beef proves as large and as fat as any in the neighbouring colonies. They kill a great number of horned cattle in October and the other cool months, eſpecially when they intend them for ſalting and exportation; for they are then in their prime of fleſh. The exportation of ſalt beef is one of the great branches of trade of North Carolina.

It is ſurpriſing that they have ſuch ſtocks of cattle, while there are ſuch numbers of wolves, tygers, and panthers; but theſe are far from being ſo ravenous as thoſe beaſts in Africa; and it muſt be obſerved, that they very ſeldom dare to attempt to kill either calves or foals, for fear of their dams, who vigorouſly defend them. When a cow ſees a wolf or any other ravenous beaſt near, ſhe gives a ſignal by bellowing, upon which all the black cattle within her hearing come to her aſſiſtance. There are great numbers of horned cattle and horſes that breed in the woods, and you may ſee great droves feeding promiſcuouſly in the ſavannas among the deer, fifty or ſixty miles diſtant from any habitation.

The horſes are well-ſhaped, ſwift, and generally about thirteen or fourteen hands high; they will travel incredible journies, though they are never ſhod, on account of the ſoftneſs of the ground, which is covered over with graſs without any gravel or ſtones, yet the planters generally uſe them very ill; and ſeldom allow them corn after long journies. They frequently tie them to a tree for hours together, and ſometimes for a day or two without thinking of giving them any ſubſiſtence, on which account they ſometimes break looſe, and run into the woods, where they remain for weeks together with the ſaddles on their backs. The horſes which they keep in the incloſures, and ſometimes feed with Indian corn, are very ſerviceable in journies and hunting.

When the planters hunt the wild horſes in the woods, they go two or three together on horſeback, and as ſoon as they eſpy a wild horſe, purſue him; and indeed their horſes are ſo well trained, that they will neither hurt themſelves nor their riders againſt a tree, and will go full ſpeed for hours together till the wild horſe ſtands ſtill, when one of the hunters alights, claps the bit into his mouth, and a ſaddle on his back, and rides him to his own, or the next plantation, where he is fed with Indian corn and ſalt, which in a little time renders him as tame as any in the plantation, and fit to purſue his wild ſpecies in the woods at the next hunting-match, or for any other uſe.

The ſheep have generally two or three lambs at a time, and are never ſuffered, like the other cattle, to ramble in the woods; but are kept in incloſures in the plantations, from whence they come every evening to the planters houſes, and at night are put into their folds to defend them from wild beaſts. The mutton is generally exceeding fat, and as well-reliſhed as any in Europe. Their wool is fine, and eſteemed a good commodity.

There are but few goats in Carolina, they being ſo miſchievous to gardens, orchards and other trees, that the planters are not fond of keeping many of them, though they are as fat, and their fleſh as well reliſhed as any in Europe.

The ſwine are exceeding numerous, and the pork is ſaid to excel in goodneſs any in Europe. The plenty of acorns, nuts, ſtrawberries, and other fruit with which the woods naturally abound, gives a moſt agreeable taſte to their fleſh. The planters export vaſt quantities of pork to the Weſt-Indies, and ſeveral other places where proviſions are ſcarce.

Among the wild beaſts are buffaloes, elks, ſtags, fallow-deer, bears, and jackalls, panthers, and tygers.

The American tyger is ſaid to be the fierceſt animal of this country; his ſkin is of a ſallow colour, moſt beautifully mottled with ſeveral kinds of ſpots, and larger than a greyhound. Theſe animals are large, ſtrong, and ſwift; they are never to be met with in the ſettlements; but more to the weſtward. The American tyger has a great reſemblance to a cat; the tail is very long, and ends in a point: its eyes are bright; and when hungry it will fear neither man nor beaſt.

The other animals are the mountain-cat, the wild cat, the pole-cat, the minx, the wolf, the racoon, the opoſſum, beavers, otters, rabbits, ſquirrels of ſeveral kinds, muſk-rats, &c. ſeveral kinds of mice, alligators, tortoiſes, or turtle, ſeveral ſorts of lizards, the rattle-ſnake, horn-ſnake, water-ſnake, and many others of the ſerpent kind.

Among the inſects are plenty of bees, not only in hives but in hollow trees in the woods, wherein are frequently found vaſt quantities of honey and wax.

The fire-fly lives in the open air, and is ſo called from its appearing at night, like a ſhining ſpark of fire. Theſe are as long as the drones among the bees, but much thicker, and of a browniſh colour. Their light is under their wings, and at firſt ſight appears frightful to ſtrangers, though they have no manner of harm in them. Dr. Brickell ſays, that he has frequently taken them, and breaking off their wings, placed them on a book in a dark room, and whatever way they went, he could plainly ſee the letters. They appear in May, and remain moſt part of the ſummer, when they are ſometimes ſo numerous that the woods ſeem covered with ſparks of fire. They are never ſeen in the day, but fly all night.

The ſpider is here a poiſonous inſect, which hurts by ſtinging. Of theſe there are many ſpecies; but the moſt remarkable is the mountain-ſpider, which is ſeldom found any-where but in the woods near the mountains. Several ſorts of theſe ſpiders make their webs ſo ſtrong, that they often entangle ſmall birds; thoſe perſons who have the misfortune to be ſtung by them are afflicted with different diſorders, according to the nature of ſpiders, that have communicated their poiſon. Some have violent pains at the heart; others ſhortneſs of breath; others trembling, cold ſweats, and vomiting; others laughing, ſinging, with a number of other ſymptoms that frequently end in death.

The birds of Carolina, are the bald, the black, and the grey eagle; the fiſhing-hawk, the ſparrow-hawk, the ring-tailed hawk, the goſs-hawk, and the herring-tailed hawk, ſo called from its beautiful forked tail; this laſt is alſo named the ſnake-hawk, from its feeding on ſnakes, it managing with great dexterity, the largeſt in theſe parts. It is of the ſize of a falcon, and is a much longer bird, of a fine aurora colour, with the pinions of the wings and end of the tail of a jet black. They never appear here but in ſummer, and are very familiar. They will fly for hours together near the place where the ſnakes are, till they have an opportunity of killing ſome of them. They ſeize it in their talons near the head, and fly and drag it ſome diſtance before they tear it in pieces, and then devour it. On account of their deſtroying theſe pernicious reptiles, the planters will not ſuffer them to be killed.

The parakeeto, or parakeet of this province, is a ſpecies of the parrot, generally about the ſize of a ſmall pigeon; it is for the moſt part of a fine green, only the head and part of the wings are of a beautiful orange colour, and they have thick beaks exactly reſembling thoſe of a hawk. They build their neſts in hollow trees, in low ſwampy ground; but never appear abroad in winter. They are very miſchievous to orchards, and peck the apples, to eat the kernels; they are very fat in mulberry and other fruit-time, and are excellent food, far preferable to any pigeon. They are often taken alive with traps, and bird-lime, and in two or three days become tame and familiar; but are not ſo apt to learn to ſpeak as a parrot.

There

There are here falcons, various ſorts of owls, the cuckow, the rail, jackdaw, wood-pecker, and magpye, rooks, crows, ſwallows, bats much larger than thoſe in Europe, martins, nightingales, wrens, larks, gold-finches, wood-peckers, and almoſt all the ſmall birds common in England.

There are great plenty of wild turkeys, ſome of which weigh about forty pounds. There are two ſorts of ſwans, the largeſt of which are called trumpeters, from the noiſe they make. They come in winter, and remain till February, in ſuch flocks that each ſide of the freſh water rivers and creeks ſeem at a diſtance like land covered with ſnow. About Chriſtmas they are frequently ſo fat as to be ſcarce able to fly; they are larger than thoſe in Europe, and very good meat. In ſpring they go to the northern lakes to breed. The ſecond ſort are called hoopers, from the noiſe they make. There are likewiſe three ſorts of wild ducks.

Here are pheaſants, woodcocks, ſnipes, curlew, the green plover, the grey, or whiſtling plover, partridges, turtle-doves, wild pigeons, the will-whillet, which is ſo called from its cry, and reſembles the curlew; the cat-bird, thus named from making a noiſe like a young cat. The mocking bird, which receive their name from imitating the notes of other birds, is one of the fineſt ſinging birds in the world. There are two ſorts of them, one has feathers much of the colour of our green plover, with white in the wings, like thoſe of a magpye. This has a more melodious and ſoft note than the other, and is generally of the ſize of our thruſh. They are fond of the dwellings of men, and frequently reſort thither; but though they are bold and briſk, yet they are of a tender conſtitution; for they neither ſing in winter, nor in the midſt of ſummer, and it is with great difficulty that any of them that are brought over, will live in England. They may be bred up tame, and will ſing in cages, yet the planters ſeldom take them, except it be to ſell to thoſe trading to Europe. They commonly make their neſts, and breed in orchards, and other places near the dwelling-houſes, feeding on mulberries, and ſeveral other berries and fruit. The other ſort is called the ground-mocking bird, and is of a light cinnamon colour; it ſings exceeding well; but does not reſort to the houſes, it delighting to live among the myrtle trees, where it breeds its young.

There are two ſorts of red-birds; the cocks of both are of a pure ſcarlet, and the hens of a duſky red; but one ſort has a fine tuft of ſcarlet feathers on the head, and the other has none. They have ſtrong and thick bills, and are near as large as our black-birds; they whiſtle and ſing like a thruſh, but more melodiouſly. They feed on Indian corn, and ſeveral ſorts of berries and ſeeds produced in the country, and, when taken, may be eaſily rendered tame; but it is ſaid that when they are ſhut up in cages for ſome years, they become milk-white, and ſo ſtupid that they ſcarce know how to feed themſelves, which is never known to happen while they are in the woods.

Here are alſo the fieldfare, the throſtle, the whipoo-will, ſo called from its frequently repeating thoſe words; the yellow-wing, whoſe wings reſemble gold; the crane, the ſtork, the king's-fiſher, the pelican, the cormorant, and many others.

Among the fiſh are ſeveral ſpecies of the whale, the porpoiſe, the ſword-fiſh, the ſhark, the pilot-fiſh, the devil-fiſh, ſo called from a large pair of horns, and being of a monſtrous ſize and ſtrength, the boneto, the drum-fiſh, of which there are two ſpecies, rock-fiſh, mullets, plaice, ſoals, ſhad, ſkate, thornbacks, eels of ſeveral ſorts, ſmelts, herrings, ſturgeon, trout, gudgeons, perch, carp, dace, &c. with many ſorts of ſhell-fiſh.

SECT. VII.

Of the Perſons, Manners, and Cuſtoms of the Inhabitants of Carolina; their Diſeaſes, Way of Life, Houſes, Diverſions, and Trade; their Method of preparing Indigo, Turpentine, Roſin, Pitch, and Tar; with the Goods they import from England.

THE deſcendants of the Europeans in Carolina are a ſtraight, tall, well-limbed, and active people, whoſe children are ſeldom troubled with rickets, or with the many other diſtempers with which the Europeans are afflicted. The men who frequent the woods, and labour out of doors, have a brown complexion; but as for the women, who do not expoſe themſelves to the weather, they are frequently very fair, and well-featured; they have bright ſparkling eyes, and are as finely ſhaped as any women in the world. Red-haired people of either ſex are ſeldom born in the country.

The women generally marry very young, ſome at thirteen or fourteen, and thoſe that continue unmarried till they are twenty, are reckoned old maids, which is here a very indifferent character. The women are very fruitful, moſt of the houſes having a number of ſmall children; and many women from other places, who have been long married without having the bleſſing of children, have ſoon after their removal to Carolina become joyful mothers. They ſeldom miſcarry, and have very eaſy labours.

The children at nine months old are generally able to walk and run about the houſe, and are as apt to learn as any children in Europe. The girls are, for the moſt part, handſome and well-featured; they are uſually more forward than the boys; and are not only bred to the needle and ſpinning, but to the dairy and domeſtic affairs, which many of them, though very young, manage with a great deal of prudence. Both ſexes are very dexterous in the management of the canoe, to which they are bred from their infancy.

The planters, from the richneſs of the ſoil, live in the moſt eaſy and pleaſant manner, and you ſhall ſeldom hear them repine at any misfortune, except the loſs of their friends, there being here plenty of all the neceſſaries of life. Poverty is here an entire ſtranger; the planters, who live well, are the moſt hoſpitable people that are to be met with, to all ſtrangers, to thoſe who by any misfortune have loſt the uſe of their limbs, or become unable to work, and to ſuch as have no viſible way to ſupport themſelves. To ſuch objects the country allows fifty pounds a year for their ſupport; ſo that there are no beggars or vagabonds in the country.

The men are very ingenious in building their canoes and houſes; but, for the moſt part, live in an indolent and luxurious manner, which occaſions many diſeaſes among them.

The principal diſeaſes are agues, the cachexy, the cramp, white and bloody-flux, the venereal diſeaſe, the yaws, which is of the venereal kind, ſaid to be brought here by the negroes from Guinea, and communicated to ſeveral of the Europeans, by cohabiting with the blacks, by which means it is hereditary in many families. The colic, or dry belly-ach, which is often attended with ſuch violent convulſions that the limbs, eſpecially the hands, are ſo contracted, that they have continued in this condition all their lives. The prickly heat, which ſometimes comes in the extremity of the hot weather that ſuddenly follows the cold, and is attended with extreme itchings all over the body, eſpecially the legs, which if ſcratched immediately become inflamed, and turn to ſores and ulcers.

The eſtabliſhed religion is that of the church of England; beſides which there are Preſbyterians, Baptiſts, and Roman-catholics, liberty of conſcience being fully allowed. Hence the planters live in the greateſt harmony imaginable; no diſputes now ever ariſe about their religious principles, they treat each other with friendſhip and hoſpitality: yet, with reſpect to morals, they have in other reſpects their ſhare of the corruptions of the age; for as they live in the greateſt eaſe and plenty, luxury of conſequence predominates, which is ſeldom without its attendant vices.

Their houſes are built after two different manners: the moſt ſubſtantial planters generally uſe brick and lime made of oyſter-ſhells, there being no ſtone fit for that purpoſe at a diſtance from the mountains. The meaner ſort erect theirs with timber, and the outſide with clap-boards. The roofs of both ſorts of houſes are covered with ſhingles. They have generally ſaſh windows, and large decent rooms, with good cloſets, and are fond of having a beautiful proſpect by ſome noble creek or river. Their furniture, as with us, conſiſts of tables, chairs, pewter, braſs, &c. imported from England; and thoſe in affluent circumſtances have tolerable quantities of plate, with other ornaments and valuable furniture.

The cloathing uſed by the men conſiſts of Engliſh cloth, druggets, durois, green linen, &c. The women have ſilks, calicoes, printed linen, calamancoes, and all kinds of ſtuffs, ſome of which are manufactured in the province.

Their diet, as with us, conſiſts of beef, mutton, pork, veniſon in abundance, wild and tame fowl, fiſh of ſeveral delicate ſorts, fruit, ſeveral kinds of ſallads, good bread, butter, milk, cheeſe, rice, and roots. Their liquors are principally rum, brandy, malt liquor, which they import, cyder, perſimon-beer, made of the fruit of that tree, and cedar-beer, made of cedar-berries; they alſo make beer of the green ſtalks of Indian corn; but the common table-beer is made of molaſſes. They alſo drink chocolate, tea, and coffee.

The principal diverſions are fiſhing, fowling, and hunting wild beaſts, as deer, bears, racoons, hares, wild turkeys, with ſeveral other animals. They are very fond of horſe-racing, which is performed in a very odd manner; for near each town, and in many parts of the country, they have what is called race-paths, which ſeldom exceed a quarter of a mile in length, and only two horſes ſtart at a time. They are alſo very fond of gaming, eſpecially cards and dice, at which they play very high. They greatly admire cock-fighting, and procure cocks from England and Ireland. They are alſo very fond of dancing, at which they will ſpend many hours together.

They have an annual feaſt at the wheat-harveſt, which is celebrated in the beginning of June, when the planters let each other know that they deſign to reap that grain on a certain day; ſome ſend their negroes to aſſiſt, and others go only to partake of the feaſt; and it is not unuſual for people to come twenty or thirty miles on this occaſion. The entertainments are grand, and the whole ſcene pleaſant and diverting. This annual revelling is very expenſive to the planters; but as it is cuſtomary few omit it, nor have they ever theſe public diverſions at reaping any other grain but the European wheat.

The produce of this country for exportation to Europe and the iſlands are rice, indigo, pitch, tar, turpentine, roſin, tobacco, peas, beef, pork, tallow, hides, deer-ſkins, furs, cotton, horſes, wheat, Indian corn, potatoes, honey, bees-wax, myrtle wax, ſeveral ſorts of gums, ſnake-root, maſts for ſhips, planks, and boards of moſt ſorts of timber.

We ſhall now give an account of the principal manufactures carried on in Carolina, and ſhall begin with indigo, a dye made from a plant of the ſame name, which was probably ſo called from India, where it was firſt cultivated, and from whence we had for a conſiderable time the whole of what was conſumed in Europe. This plant when grown reſembles the fern, and when young is hardly diſtinguiſhable from lucern-graſs. Indigo is generally planted after the firſt rains ſucceeding the vernal equinox; the ſeed is put into the ground in ſmall ſtraight trenches, about eighteen or twenty inches aſunder, and is fit for cutting the beginning of July. It is cut again towards the end of Auguſt, and if they have a mild autumn there is a third cutting at Michaelmas. The indigo land muſt be weeded every day, and the plants cleanſed from worms. Each acre yields ſixty or ſeventy pounds weight of indigo, which at a medium is worth fifty pounds.

The indigo when cut is firſt laid in a vat about twelve or fourteen feet long, and four deep, to the height of about fourteen inches, to macerate and digeſt. Then this veſſel, which is called the ſteeper, is filled with water: the whole having lain about twelve or ſixteen hours, according to the weather, begins to ferment, ſwell, riſe, and grow inſenſibly warm; at this time ſpars of wood are run acroſs to prevent its riſing too much, and a pin is then ſet to mark the higheſt point of its aſcent; when it falls below this mark they judge that the fermentation has attained its due pitch, and begins to abate; upon which the manager opens a cock, and lets off the water into another vat, which is called the beater; and the groſs matter that remains in the firſt vat is carried off to manure the ground.

When the water ſtrongly impregnated with the particles of the indigo has run into the ſecond vat, they agitate it till it heats, froths, ferments, and riſes above the rim of the veſſel in which it is contained: to allay this violent fermentation oil is thrown in as the froth riſes, which inſtantly ſinks it. When this beating has continued twenty, thirty, or thirty-five minutes, a ſmall muddy grain begins to be formed; for the ſalts and other particles of the plant before diſſolved in the water are now re-united, and begin to granulate. When this is compleated they let in ſome lime water from an adjacent veſſel, gently ſtirring the whole. The indigo now granulates more fully, the liquor aſſumes a purpliſh colour, and the whole is troubled and muddy; it is now ſuffered to ſettle; then the clearer part is permitted to run off into a ſucceſſion of veſſels, from whence the water is conveyed away as faſt as it clears at the top, till nothing remains but a thick mud, which is put into bags of coarſe linen. Theſe are hung up and left for ſome time, till the moiſture is drained off, and to finiſh the drying this mud is turned out of the bags, and worked upon boards of a porous timber with a wooden ſpatula. It is alſo frequently expoſed to the morning and evening ſun, but for a ſhort time only, and then put into boxes or frames, where it is again expoſed to the ſun in the ſame cautious manner, till with great labour and attention the operation is finiſhed, and that valuable drug called indigo fitted for the market. The greateſt ſkill and care is required in every part of the proceſs, without which there is great danger of ſpoiling the whole.

In all parts of Carolina, but eſpecially North Carolina, the people make great quantities of turpentine, roſin, tar, and pitch, which are all produced from the pine. Turpentine is drawn by merely cutting inciſions in the tree, forming ſeveral channels which meet at the bottom in a point, where a receiver is placed. Theſe channels are cut as high as a perſon can reach with an ax, and the bark is peeled off from thoſe parts of the trunk that are expoſed to the ſun, that its heat may the more eaſily force out the turpentine, which flows into the receiver. This turpentine being boiled in kettles becomes roſin.

Tar is made by preparing a circular floor of clay, declining towards the center, from which is laid ſloping a wooden pipe, which reaches about ten feet without the circumference. Under the end the earth is dug away, and barrels placed to receive the tar as it runs. Upon the floor is built a pile of dry pine wood ſplit in pieces, and ſurrounded with a wall of earth, or clay, which covers it all over, except a little at the top, where the fire is at firſt kindled. When the fire begins to burn they cover this opening likewiſe, to prevent there being any flame, and to leave only ſufficient heat to force the tar downwards into the pipe in the center of the floor. The heat they temper as they pleaſe by thruſting a ſtick through the earth and letting in the air, in as many places as they think proper. Pitch is made by boiling tar in large iron kettles ſet in furnaces, or by burning it in round clay holes made in the earth.

The commodities they receive from Europe, in exchange for all the above articles, are linens of all ſorts, particularly blues, brown and ſtamped linens, Oſnabrugs, men and women's apparel ready made, broad cloth, blue and red ſtuffs, calimancoes, druggets, kerſies, camblets, all light ſtuffs for men and women's ſummer wear, haberdaſhers goods, ſtockings of all ſorts, a few gloves, thin wigs, linen caps, tobacco-pipes, glaſs for ſaſh-windows, looking-glaſſes; all ſorts of hard-ware, as knives, forks, ſciſſars, ſaws, hatchets, chiſſels, bills, hoes, ſhovels, wedges, nails; and all manner of tools for carpenters, ſhoe-makers, and coopers; locks of many different kinds, traps of all ſorts, grindſtones; all manner of whetſtones, guns, powder, ball, ſhot, flints, paper, ink, ſaddles, bridles, fiſh-hooks of all ſorts, fans, necklaces, beads, ribbons, thimbles, ſhoe-buckles, buttons, &c.

SECT. VIII.

Of the Diviſions of Carolina, and its Towns; the public Roads; Regulations relating to Debtors, the tranſported Felons, and Slaves.

THIS province, as we have already obſerved, is divided into North and South Carolina; the former extends about three hundred miles along the ſea-coaſt,

and is ſeparated from South Carolina by an imaginary line drawn in the thirty-fourth degree from the Atlantic ocean to the Apalachian mountains. It is ſubdivided into fourteen townſhips. The principal rivers are Ronoac, or Albemarle river, the river Neuſe, and Clarendon river, upon which are ſeated the principal towns in the province, namely, Wilmington, on Clarendon river, which is the largeſt town in the province, and has much the greateſt trade; Neuborn on the Neuſe, and Edenton on the river Albemarle; at which three places the general aſſembly of North Carolina ſit alternately for making laws; but the planters being diſperſed over the country, none of theſe towns are worth mentioning. The number of inhabitants are computed to be about ſeventy thouſand whites, and twenty thouſand negroes.

The bounds of South Carolina are much reduced from their original extent, Georgia being taken off to the ſouthward, as far as the river Savanna, which runs in a curve round the ſouth and weſt part of the province, out of North Carolina. The extent of the province upon the Atlantic ocean to the eaſt is upwards of a hundred miles, and weſt from the ſea upwards of two hundred. There is no doubt but that the ſilk-worm might be employed here to great advantage, here being his natural food in great plenty: indeed ſome attempts that way have been made with good ſucceſs.

The only town in either of the Carolinas worthy of notice is Charles Town, one of the fineſt in North America for ſize, beauty, and trade. This is the metropolis of South Carolina: it is ſeated between two navigable rivers, Aſhley on the weſt and ſouth, and Cowper river on the eaſt, in the thirty-ſecond degree thirty minutes north latitude. The ſtreets are wide and ſtraight, interſecting each other at right angles; thoſe running eaſt and weſt extend about a mile from one river to the other. Its harbour is good in every reſpect but that of a bar, which hinders veſſels of more than two hundred tons burthen from entering. The town is regularly and pretty ſtrongly fortified by art and nature. Here are two very handſome churches built with brick, beſides ſeveral other edifices for public worſhip belonging to different ſects of diſſenters. Near the center of the town is a neat market-houſe, and at a ſmall diſtance is the ſtate-houſe, a handſome and commodious brick building. In the neighbourhood of the town are convenient barracks ſufficient for a thouſand men. Charles Town contains about a thouſand dwelling-houſes, four thouſand male inhabitants, and ſix thouſand negro ſlaves: it is the ſeat of the governor, and the place of meeting of the aſſembly. Several handſome equipages are kept here; for the planters and merchants are rich and well bred, the people expenſive in their dreſs and way of living, and every thing conſpires to render this the livelieſt and politeſt place in North America. However, great part of the town was burnt down on the twenty-firſt of February, 1741, by which much valuable merchandize was entirely deſtroyed. It has alſo frequently ſuffered by inundations and unhealthy ſeaſons.

The town of Beaufort is ſeated on the iſland of Port Royal, on the borders of Georgia, in the thirty-firſt degree forty minutes north latitude, and a hundred miles ſouth of Charles Town; the iſland and continent forming a fine capacious harbour of ſuch depth, that it is capable of containing the whole royal navy of England. The iſland on which the town is ſeated conſiſts of near a thouſand acres, and is navigable all round for boats and periaguas, and one-half of it for ſhipping, where large veſſels may load and unload from the ſhore. The town, however, is not yet conſiderable, but bids fair in time for becoming the firſt trading town in this part of America.

The number of inhabitants in the whole province of South Carolina amounts to about ſixty thouſand whites, and above double that number of blacks.

The roads are as good as in moſt parts of the world, and travelling as pleaſant, being made broad and convenient for all ſorts of carriages, as coaches, chaiſes, waggons, and carts, eſpecially for horſemen, the lands generally lying level, and the beautiful and delightful proſpects affording a high entertainment to the traveller. It is a general rule throughout all North America, that wherever you come to any of theſe roads, with the trees marked or notched on each ſide, it is a ſure ſign that it is a public road from one Chriſtian town to another.

We ſhall now give ſome account of ſeveral regulations relating to Carolina in general, and more particularly to North Carolina.

In this country few or no debtors are confined in priſon above twenty-four hours; for the ſheriff generally takes them home to his houſe, or takes their word for their appearance at the next court, to be held in any of the precincts or baronies, where they ſentence him to become a ſervant to the creditor for as long a time as they imagine the debt deſerves; but if the perſon has been a planter, and has contracted debts which his misfortunes have rendered him unable to pay, or is in years, they frequently make a collection among themſelves, by which means they diſcharge the debt, or ſatisfy the creditor; and by theſe means none are barbarouſly kept in confinement, and rendered a uſeleſs burthen to the public.

To prevent people's ſpending their time idly in a public-houſe, it is enacted by the laws of the country, that no perſon ſhall be liable to pay above forty ſhillings for liquor drank in any public-houſe.

No vagabond or inferior perſon is ſuffered to travel through the country without a paſs from the governor, or ſome of the juſtices of the peace; a regulation that is in ſome meaſure neceſſary, to prevent the tranſports from Europe running away from their maſters.

The convicts tranſported to theſe parts from Europe are indentured for a limited time, during which they ſerve as ſervants, and are more or leſs regarded according to their behaviour and the reaſon of their being tranſported. As ſoon as they have fulfilled the obligation of their indenture, their maſters are obliged to give each man-ſervant a new ſuit of cloaths, a gun, powder, ſhot, ball, and ten buſhels of Indian corn; and by the laws of the country they are intitled to fifty acres of land, which they ſeldom take up, but diſpoſe of for trifles. Thoſe who have acted with prudence, care, and good conduct while they were ſervants, if their maſters have no employment for them, recommend them to others. Their buſineſs is then to mark all the calves, foals, and young pigs with the planter's brand; and this being his chief buſineſs, he is allowed for his ſervice every ſeventh calf, every ſeventh foal, and half of the young pigs bred during his ſtewardſhip; and likewiſe the ſeventh part of all ſorts of grain and tobacco produced on the maſter's plantation; and whatever quantity of corn, rice, or tobacco he plants by his own induſtry at his leiſure hours, is all his own property. Thus, in three or four years time, with good management, he may have a ſufficient ſtock of cattle, grain, money, and all other neceſſaries to enable him to turn planter. But this is the caſe of very few of thoſe tranſported hither for their crimes, they being moſtly a diſſolute, debauched, and indolent people; and if they run away from their maſters, they are obliged to ſerve double the time they are abſent after the expiration of their indentures.

Few maſters of ſhips will venture to carry any on board their veſſels without obtaining a ſufficient ſecurity that they are freemen and not in debt, and therefore oblige them to publiſh an advertiſement, ſome time before their departure, requiring all perſons to whom they are indebted to come and receive what is due to them, which is fixed on the court-houſe door, for all perſons to peruſe; but if the maſter of a ſhip takes away a perſon bound, or in debt, without firſt taking theſe precautions, his perſon and ſhip are liable to be ſeized, and he is obliged to pay whatever the creditors can make appear to be due to them, or any other loſſes they have ſuſtained, by his taking them away. Notwithſtanding the ſeverity of theſe laws, ſome of the tranſports run away; but if they are taken they have neck-yokes put on them, like thoſe worn by the negroes, which they conſtantly wear till they have given ſufficient teſtimonies of their good behaviour.

There are a great number of negro ſlaves born in the country, who prove more induſtrious and tractable than thoſe brought from the coaſt of Africa; at leaſt being born in ſlavery, they have never imbibed that love of liberty which is apt to make men reſtive and ſtubborn under the galling yoke of oppreſſion. "I have frequently ſeen them whipped, ſays our author, to that degree, "that

" that large pieces of their ſkin have been hanging down " their backs ; yet I never obſerved one of them ſhed a " tear, which plainly ſhews them to be a people of very " harſh and ſtubborn diſpoſitions :" but might he not rather ſay, that it ſhews them to be poſſeſſed of invincible courage and magnanimity? The laws againſt theſe unhappy beings of our own ſpecies are extremely rigorous; ſo that if a negro cut or give the ſlighteſt wound to his maſter, or any other Chriſtian, with an unlawful weapon, as a ſword, ſcymetar, or even a knife, and there is blood ſhed, if it be known among the planters, they immediately meet and order him to be hanged, which is always performed by another negro ; and generally the planters bring moſt of their blacks with them to behold their fellow-negro die ; and it is not even in the power of the maſter to ſave him. Indeed he ſuffers nothing by the loſs of his ſlave, for the province is obliged to pay him the full value of what the unhappy wretch is judged to be worth.

There are ſome Chriſtians ſo charitable as to have the negroes born in the country baptized, and inſtructed in the Chriſtian faith in their infancy ; but this does not in the leaſt exempt them from ſervitude, and they are afterwards as far from being at their own liberty, as they would have been had they never been entitled to the name of Chriſtians ; nor does it appear that they afterwards take much care about their being an ornament to that profeſſion.

Their marriages are generally performed with little ceremony ; for the man makes the woman a preſent of a braſs ring, or ſome other toy, which if ſhe acccepts of, ſhe becomes his wife ; but upon any diſguſt, ſhe returns his preſent, and then the marriage is diſſolved. If after cohabiting with each other for a year or two, a woman has no children by the firſt huſband, the planters oblige them to take a ſecond, third, fourth, or fifth ; a fruitful woman being much valued by the planters. All the children go with the mother, and are the property of the planter to whom ſhe belongs.

Their children are carefully brought up, and provided for by the planters till they are able to work in the plantations, where they have convenient houſes built for them, and they are allowed to plant a ſufficient quantity of tobacco for their own uſe, a part of which they ſell ; and on Sundays they uſually gather the ſnake-root ; with this and the tobacco they buy hats and neceſſaries, as linen, bracelets, ribbons, and other toys for their wives and miſtreſſes.

The children of both ſexes wear little or no cloaths, except in the winter, and many of the young men and women work naked in the plantations in hot weather, except having a piece of cloth about their waiſt, and therefore the planters are at no great expence for their cloathing.

Several blacks born in the country can read and write ; others are bred to trades, and prove good artiſts ; and others are very induſtrious in improving the plantations, planting rice, corn, and tobacco, and making vaſt quantities of turpentine, tar, and pitch, they being better able to undergo fatigues, in the ſultry heats of ſummer, than the Europeans. The planters at their death uſed to make ſome of their negroes free ; but it is now an eſtabliſhed law in ſome of the provinces, that if they do not quit the country in about eleven days after they have thus obtained their freedom, they become the property of the firſt perſon who ſeizes them. Hence, before the expiration of that ſhort term, they generally either leave the country, or voluntarily become ſubject to a new maſter. But it would certainly be more conſiſtent with juſtice, with the laws of humanity, and with the ſpirit of the Chriſtian religion, to ſuffer theſe negroes, who have from their good behaviour, and the benevolence of their maſters, obtained their freedom, to become planters; to become united to the Chriſtians by the bands of friendſhip, and by mutual good offices; and to be allowed all the advantages of freemen. The proſpect of ſuch a reward might have a happy effect on the ſlaves, by making obedience and fidelity the guides to liberty, wealth, and honour; and the ſtrongeſt defence of the whites, by having a number of the blacks firmly united in the ſame intereſt with them.

SECT. IX.

A Conciſe Hiſtory of Carolina, and of its Settlement, and Progreſs.

THE extenſive territory of the two Carolinas and Georgia are a part of the diſcovery made by Cabot in 1497; but no advantage having been taken by the Engliſh in conſequence of this diſcovery, the Spaniards in 1512 attempted a ſettlement; but not ſucceeding, abandoned the country, which lay neglected by the Europeans. Chatillon, the celebrated leader of the Proteſtants in France, who was not only a great admiral, but an able ſtateſman, procured two veſſels to be fitted out for diſcoveries upon that coaſt ; probably intending to retire thither, with thoſe of his perſuaſion, ſhould his brave endeavours to preſerve their liberties fail. Theſe ſhips ſailed in the year 1565, under the command of M. Ribaut, and in two months arrived on the coaſt of Florida, as all this country was then called, from its abounding in flowers.

Ribaut landed in ſeveral places to the north of Altamaha river, taking poſſeſſion of the country in the name of his maſter, and calling it Carolina in honour of his ſovereign Charles IX. He at laſt ſettled at the mouth of Albemarle river, and giving the Indians to underſtand in the beſt manner he was able, that he and thoſe that were with him were all enemies to the Spaniards, this ſecured them a friendly reception, and the good offices of the inhabitants ; and he there erected a fort, to which he gave the name of Charles-fort. But ſoon after a civil war breaking out in France, he was obliged for the want of ſupplies, to abandon the ſettlement; and had he not been ſo happy as to meet with an Engliſh ſhip from which he procured proviſion, both he and his people would probably have periſhed by famine.

The admiral, not diſcouraged, was ſo well ſatisfied with the account they gave him of the country, that in 1564 he fitted out five or ſix ſhips, in order to make another attempt to ſettle a colony. This was accordingly done at the place of their landing in the firſt expedition. The Spaniards, who had intelligence of their proceedings, diſpatched a conſiderable force to attack the colony, who, not ſatisfied with reducing it, barbarouſly put all the people to the ſword, after having given them quarter. Not content with this they committed great outrages upon the natives, by both which they paved the way for the vengeance that ſoon after fell upon them for theſe unneceſſary and unprovoked acts of cruelty : for notwithſtanding the admiral and his party were by this time deſtroyed in the dreadful maſſacre of St. Bartholomew, and though the deſign of a colony died with him, one M. de Gorgues, a private gentleman, fitted out ſome ſhips, and ſailed to that coaſt merely to revenge the murder of his countrymen and friends. The Indians gladly embraced the opportunity of joining in the puniſhment of the common enemy. The French and they had laid ſiege to two or three forts the Spaniards had erected there, took them, and, without mercy, put the whole garriſon in each to the ſword. The adventurers, ſatisfied with this action, returned, and happily for us, the French court, blinded by their bigotry, did not underſtand the advantages that might have been obtained from giving America to the Proteſtants. Had they taken this ſtep, we ſhould probably have had either no ſettlements in America, or they muſt have been ſmall in extent, and precarious in their tenure.

After the French expedition, Carolina remained unnoticed by the Spaniards, French, and Engliſh, till Sir Walter Raleigh projected an eſtabliſhment there, which was afterwards fixed in Virginia, and it was not till the year 1663, that any ſettled reſolution was taken for fixing a colony here. In that year the earl of Clarendon lord high chancellor of England, the duke of Albemarle, the lord Craven, the lord Berkeley, lord Aſhley afterwards earl of Shafteſbury, Sir George Carteret, Sir William Berkeley, and Sir George Colleton, obtained a charter from king Charles II. for the property and juriſdiction of that country from the thirty-firſt degree of north latitude to the thirty-ſixth, and being inveſted with full power to ſettle and govern

govern the country, they had the model of a conſtitution framed, and a body of fundamental laws compiled by the celebrated Mr. Locke.

On this plan the lords proprietors themſelves ſtood in the place of the king, and gave their aſſent or diſſent, as they thought proper, to all laws, appointed all officers, and beſtowed all titles of dignity; and each lord in turn acted for the reſt. In the province they appointed two other branches, which in a great meaſure reſembled the legiſlature in England. They conſtituted three claſſes of nobility: the loweſt compoſed of thoſe to whom they had made grants of twelve thouſand acres of land, whom they ſtiled barons: the next order had twenty-four thouſand acres, or two baronies, with the title of caſſiques, who were to anſwer our earls: the third had two caſſiqueſhips, or forty-eight thouſand acres, and were called landgraves, a title analogous to a duke. This body formed the upper houſe. The lower houſe was formed as it is in the other colonies, of repreſentatives from the ſeveral counties and towns, and the whole was called not an aſſembly, but a parliament.

Their firſt ſettlement was at a point of land toward the ſouthward, between two navigable rivers, called Aſhly and Cowper rivers, where they laid the foundation of a city called Charles Town, the preſent capital of the province. They expended about twelve thouſand pounds in the firſt ſettlement; and the lords proprietors obſerving what advantages the other colonies derived from opening a harbour for refugees, and influenced by the humane diſpoſition of that excellent man who formed the model of their government, gave an unlimited toleration to the people of all religious perſuaſions. This induced a great number of diſſenters, whom the government, contrary to juſtice and all the laws of policy, treated with a very ſevere hand, to remove with their fortunes and families into Carolina; and hence they ſoon became, at leaſt, as numerous as the church-men. But they could not preſerve themſelves from the jealouſy and hatred of thoſe of the church of England, who had brought a perſecuting ſpirit with them from their native country, and having a majority in one of their aſſemblies, attempted to exclude all diſſenters from a right of ſitting there. This produced daily diſſenſions, tumults, and riots, which for many years hindered the colony from making that progreſs which might be expected from the fineneſs of the country. The people alſo fell into diſputes with the lords proprietors, and provoking the Indians by a ſeries of unjuſt and violent actions, gave occaſion to two wars, in which, however, they were victorious, and ſubdued almoſt all the Indian nations within their own bounds on this ſide the Apalachian mountains.

Theſe inteſtine diſtractions and wars kept the colony ſo low, that an act of parliament was made to prevent the ruinous conſequences of theſe diviſions by putting the province under the immediate care of the crown, and the lords proprietors accepted a recompence of about twenty-four thouſand pounds, both for the property and juriſdiction; except earl Grenville, who kept his eighth part of the property, which comprehends near half of North Carolina, on that part which borders on Virginia. Their conſtitution, where it differed from that of the other colonies, was altered; and the country, for the more commodious adminiſtration of affairs, was divided into two diſtinct independent governments, called North and South Carolina. This happened in 1728. Soon after a firm peace was eſtabliſhed with all the neighbouring Indian nations, the province began to breathe and obtain ſtrength on the return of peace and tranquility, and its trade has annually advanced ſince that time with a rapid progreſs.

SECT. X.

Of GEORGIA.

Its Situation, Extent, Climate, Produce, principal Towns, and Number of the Inhabitants.

GEORGIA received its name from his late majeſty George II. It lies to the ſouthward of Carolina, from which it is ſeparated on the north by the river Savanna; it has the Atlantic ocean on the eaſt; the river of St. John, which divides it from Eaſt Florida, on the ſouth; and on the weſt it is bounded by Louiſiana lately ceded by the French.

What has been ſaid of the heat, thunder, and lightning of Carolina, may be ſaid with propriety of them here, Georgia lying ſtill more to the ſouthward. The planters ſometimes ſuffer by thunder and lightning deſtroying their timber and houſes, and its killing their ſlaves and cattle.

The land lying low near the coaſt is woody, but at the diſtance of twenty-five miles begins to riſe into hills, which at length terminate in the Apalachian or Alegany mountains. From the foot of theſe mountains to the coaſt the country is level. The river Savanna is of ſuch a length, that canoes may ſail up it ſix hundred miles, and boats half that way. The coaſt of Georgia is defended from the fury of the Atlantic ocean by being lined all along with a range of iſlands, and both theſe and the continent being thick ſet with trees, render the intermediate channel very pleaſant. About ſeventy miles from the ſhore of Georgia are ſand-banks, and the water ſhoaling gradually till within ſix miles of land, the banks become ſo ſhallow as to be impaſſable, except in the channels between the bars, which were formerly thought a ſufficient ſecurity from any attempts of an enemy's fleet, till the Spaniards paſſed theſe channels in 1742, and landed in the iſland of St. Simon, which would have inevitably fallen into their hands, had not their ſcheme been fruſtrated by general Oglethorpe.

After paſſing the bars, ſhips find a ſecure and commodious harbour in the mouth of the river Savanna, and ſouth of it is a ſtill more capacious road, named Teky-Sund, where a large fleet may ride in between ten and fourteen fathom water, being land-locked, and having ſafe entrance over the bar. The flood-tide on this coaſt moſtly riſes ſeven feet.

This province abounds in cattle, and with a multitude of wild beaſts, birds, and poiſonous reptiles, which are in general the ſame as in Carolina.

Rice is ſaid to grow here rather better than in Carolina, which, with corn and indigo, may be eſteemed its principal commodities. They have made ſome beginnings towards cultivating the vine; and great expectations have been long raiſed, of their producing large quantities of ſilk; this was one of the principal views of the truſtees at the firſt ſettlement of this province; indeed both theſe branches may hereafter become conſiderable, the climate and ſoil being proper for them, as hath been ſufficiently proved by a variety of experiments.

The principal towns in Georgia are Savanna, the capital, ſeated in the thirty-firſt degree fifty-eight minutes north latitude. The houſes and ware-houſes are built at a diſtance from each other, to prevent the ſpreading of fire, and form ſeveral ſpacious ſquares and wide ſtreets. The town is extremely well ſituated for trade, as the navigation of the river Savanna on which it ſtands, and from which it takes its name, is very ſecure, and ſhips of three hundred tons burthen may lie within ſix yards of the town, where the worm does not eat into them. In the town is a church, a meeting-houſe, a wharf, and ſome other public buildings; and near it the orphan-houſe, founded by Mr. Whitfield, which is converted into a college for the education of young men for the miniſtry.

About four miles within land from the river are the villages of Highgate and Hampſtead, which lie about a mile diſtant from each other. The inhabitants ſettled there apply themſelves chiefly to gardening, and ſupply the town of Savanna with greens and roots.

Two hundred miles farther up the river, which is navigable ſo far for large boats, is Auguſta; which ſtands upon a ſpot of ground of the greateſt fertility, and is ſo commodiouſly ſeated for the Indian trade, that from the firſt eſtabliſhment of the colony it has been in a very flouriſhing condition, and very early maintained ſix hundred whites in that trade only: for their trade with the Creeks, the Chickeſaws, and the Cherokees is very conſiderable for ſkins: they alſo deal with them for a few furs; but theſe are of an inferior ſort; it being obſerved, that, by a wiſe diſpoſition of Providence, the animals

that bear fur have it more thick, and of a ſofter and finer kind, in proportion as you approach to the northward; for the greater the cold, the better they are cloathed.

The inhabitants of this province, who are a mixture of Epiſcopalians and Diſſenters, amount at preſent to about eight thouſand whites, and twenty thouſand negroes.

The governor is appointed by his majeſty, and the form of government is the ſame as in the other royal governments, and particularly the two Carolinas, Virginia, New Jerſey, and New York.

SECT. XI.

A Hiſtory of the Settlement of the Province of Georgia.

THE province of Georgia was divided from South Carolina and a ſettlement begun there in 1732, in conſequence of a repreſentation made to his late majeſty George II. by ſome generous and compaſſionate noblemen and gentlemen, who obſerving that a conſiderable number of people in theſe kingdoms were, by a variety of misfortunes, rendered incapable of ſubſiſting in ſuch a way as to be uſeful to themſelves and the community, formed the deſign of ſettling that part of America which properly formed our frontier towards the Spaniards and French; and though within the bounds of the province of South Carolina, was in reality no part of it, as not being at all ſettled, and therefore rather a burthen than an advantage to the province to which it belonged. They therefore applied to the crown for ſufficient power to ſet this undertaking on foot, and meeting with all the encouragement they could expect or deſire, eaſily obtained a very extenſive charter. Their next care was to raiſe a fund ſufficient to ſend over a conſiderable number of people, and provide them with all kinds of neceſſaries, towards which they ſubſcribed liberally themſelves, obtained conſiderable ſums by way of collection, and had a grant from the parliament of ten thouſand pounds.

In forming the plan of this frontier ſettlement, it was reſolved to conſider each ſettler in the double capacity of a planter and a ſoldier, and not only to provide them tools for the cultivation of the land, but arms for their defence, and to have them taught the uſe of both. It was alſo reſolved, that upon the firſt ſettling of their colony, towns ſhould be laid out, and lands allotted all the men for their ſupport, as near thoſe towns as poſſible. It was agreed that every lot of land ſhould conſiſt of fifty acres, and that it ſhould be granted them in tail male, as the propereſt tenure for the colony in its infancy; and, with reſpect to any hardſhips that might ariſe from this tenure, they determined to remedy them occaſionally, till ſuch time as the condition of the colony ſhould render an alteration neceſſary. They alſo reſolved to prohibit the uſe of negroes, which they conſidered as abſolutely inconſiſtent with the deſign of forming a frontier colony, and in many reſpects both inconvenient and dangerous.

Having concluded on theſe diſpoſitions, it was reſolved to ſend over a hundred and fourteen perſons, men, women, and children, out of ſuch as were in low circumſtances, and on that account unable to follow any buſineſs in England, and who if in debt had leave from their creditors to go; and of ſuch as were recommended by the miniſter, church-wardens, and overſeers of their reſpective pariſhes; and James Oglethorpe, Eſq; one of the truſtees, generouſly offered to go and form the ſettlement at his own expence. At length the people being examined whether any of them had any objections to the terms and conditions propoſed, they declared they were fully ſatisfied with them, and executed articles under their hands and ſeals, teſtifying their conſent. But four of them deſiring their daughters might inherit as well as their ſons, and that their widows dower might be conſidered, the truſtees reſolved, that all who ſhould deſire it ſhould have the privilege of naming a ſucceſſor to the lands granted them, who, in caſe the poſſeſſor ſhould die without iſſue male, ſhould hold the ſame to them and their heirs for ever; and that the widows ſhould have their thirds as in England; this reſolution was immediately communicated to all the people, who now expreſſed themſelves fully ſatisfied. The truſtees then prepared a form of government, and eſtabliſhed under their ſeal a court of judicature for trying cauſes, as well criminal as civil, in the town of Savanna, the name given to the firſt town to be raiſed: they alſo appointed a bailiff, a recorder, two conſtables, and two tythingmen out of ſuch of the ſettlers as appeared moſt diſcreet and prudent.

Mr. Oglethorpe ſet out from Graveſend with the colony, and arrived at Carolina on the fifteenth of January, 1733. That gentleman choſe a pleaſant, convenient, and healthful ſpot ten miles up the Savanna river. While the town was building he kept a ſtrict diſcipline, allowing none of the people to ſwear or get drunk; they were debarred the uſe of ſpirituous liquors, and inſtead of rum had Engliſh beer. In the mean time ſome of the land was ploughed up, and part of it ſowed with wheat. Two or three gardens were alſo ſowed with pot-herbs, &c. and fruit-trees planted. The limits of the town were paliſadoed, and every thing went on with the utmoſt regularity.

Things being in ſome forwardneſs, and every man being appointed his proper ſtation and employment, Mr. Oglethorpe went to Charles Town to ſolicit ſuccours for his colony, where both the aſſembly and people in general contributed largely to the aſſiſtance of the newcomers. Five hundred pounds of this money he laid out in cattle, and having given directions for whatever his people might want at Charles Town, returned to Savanna.

On his arrival he found that the chiefs of the Lower Creek Indians were come to treat of an alliance with the new colony. He received them in one of the new houſes, and in the moſt amicable and friendly manner concluded a treaty of alliance and trade with them.

This treaty being concluded, Mr. Oglethorpe returned to England, taking with him a number of the Indian chiefs and principal warriors, who were preſented to his majeſty, and afterwards took a tour through the kingdom. They here deſired the truſtees that the weights, meaſures, prices, and qualities of goods to be purchaſed by them with ſkins, might be ſettled: that no body might be allowed to trade with them without a licence from the truſtees, that if they were injured they might know where to complain; and that there might be but one ſtore-houſe in each Indian town for ſupplying them with the goods they might want to purchaſe; and that in each the traders ſhould be obliged to furniſh them at the fixed prices, alledging that the traders had often, in an arbitrary manner, raiſed the price of goods, and defrauded them in their weights and meaſures, which had frequently created animoſities between the Engliſh and Indians. In compliance with this requeſt the truſtees procured ſeveral acts of parliament, among which was one for maintaining peace with theſe Indians, and another to prevent the importation and uſe of ſpirituous liquors in Georgia.

Things being thus ſettled, two embarkations were made the ſame year, chiefly of Saltzburghers, who, with others that went before, built and ſettled a town called Ebenezer, upon the river Savanna. The next year the colony of South Carolina ſending over a memorial relating their danger from the French and Spaniards, the parliament granted the truſtees an extraordinary ſupply of twenty-ſix thouſand pounds, and very conſiderable benefactions were made both in Great Britain and Carolina; on which account great numbers of people were ſent, chiefly conſiſting of perſecuted German Proteſtants, and others from the north of Scotland.

Some Highlanders arrived in Georgia in 1735, ſettled on the river Alatamahar, about ſixeeen miles from the iſland of St. Simon, which is ſeated at the mouth of that river, and there built a town called Darien, which name they afterwards changed to that of New Inverneſs.

On the ſixth of February following arrived four hundred and ſeventy perſons, under the direction of Mr. Oglethorpe, and were ſettled upon the iſland of St. Simon, which is about forty miles in extent, has a rich and fruitful ſoil, and is full of oak and hickery trees, intermixed with meadows. The Creek Indians upon this occaſion came down, and claiming a right to the land, were treated with and prevailed upon to agree, that the

Engliſh

Engliſh ſhould poſſeſs it, and all the adjacent iſlands; which ſtep being taken, the Engliſh built there the town of Frederica, ſo called from prince Frederic, his preſent majeſty's father. And this being then the ſouthern barrier, a regular fortreſs was built there, ſtrengthened with four baſtions and a ſtrong battery; other fortifications were alſo raiſed in different places. The colony now became ſo conſiderable, as to excite the jealouſy of the Spaniards. However, the governor of St. Auguſtine concluded an amicable agreement with Mr. Oglethorpe and the Engliſh colony, upon very ſafe and advantageous terms; but it ſoon appeared that this governor was not in the ſecret of the court of Spain; for the Spaniſh miniſtry diſapproved of the treaty, and prepared to attack Georgia; on which a regiment of ſix hundred men was ſent over for the defence and protection of the place, and as an encouragement to theſe ſoldiers the truſtees allowed each of them five acres of land, and after being ſeven years in the ſervice they ſhould have a regular diſcharge, and be entitled to a grant of twenty acres.

In the beginning of the year 1737, the parliament granted the truſtees twenty thouſand pounds more for the farther ſettling and ſecuring the colony, on which the truſtees made another embarkation of perſecuted German Proteſtants, and all the towns laid out in Georgia received great ſupplies.

In the mean time the truſtees, by their letters and inſtructions to the magiſtrates, had conſtantly exhorted and encouraged the people to cultivate their lands; but in 1738, finding that many continued in idleneſs, they gave orders that none who neglected to cultivate their lands ſhould receive ſupplies from the ſtores. Soon after a part of the people ſent over a memorial, complaining of the want of a fee ſimple in their lands, and of their not being permitted the uſe of negroes. But thoſe who were ſettled on the frontier, and were conſequently moſt expoſed to the Spaniards, having by their induſtry improved their plantations ſo as to draw from them a comfortable ſubſiſtence, ſent over a counter memorial, in which they repreſented the diſadvantages and dangers that would ariſe from the permiſſion of negroes. However, an almoſt general ſpirit of diſcontent ſoon prevailed; and tho' ſuch great ſums had been expended, and ſuch prudent regulations taken in the ſettlement of this colony, its progreſs was far from anſwering the expectations of the truſtees and merchants. The prohibition of rum, tho' ſpecious in appearance, had a very bad effect, the ſettlers wanting ſomething to ſupport their ſtrength and ſpirits under the extraordinary and unuſual heat of the climate, and where its dampneſs in ſeveral places expoſed them to agues and fevers. But what was worſe, this prohibition in a manner deprived them of the vent they had for the only commodities they could ſend to market, lumber and corn, which could ſell no where but in the ſugar iſlands; and with this reſtriction of rum they could take very little from them in return. They were obliged to work themſelves, while the natives of Virginia and Carolina were in a much eaſier ſituation, and had their labour performed by their ſlaves. Indeed Virginia and Carolina were originally ſettled without the help of negroes; but this they did not conſider, and they were unwilling to ſubmit to extraordinary hardſhips, while they found their neighbours in a much more eaſy ſituation. Many quitted the laborious life of planters to reſide more at their eaſe at Savanna, by the exerciſe of their ſeveral trades and profeſſions. In ſhort, horſe-races and other diverſions were ſoon ſet on foot, and ſuch a ſpirit of idleneſs began to prevail as eaſily accounted for their eagerneſs in deſiring the uſe of negroes.

At length a ſpirit of diſcontent almoſt generally prevailed; they quarrelled with one another and with their magiſtrates; they complained; they remonſtrated; and obtaining no ſatisfaction, many of them left Georgia, and diſperſed themſelves among the other colonies; ſo that of above two thouſand people, who had been carried thither at a great expence from Europe, in a little time 'tis ſaid that not above ſeven or eight hundred were to be found in this province: upon which the truſtees, in 1752, ſurrendered their charter to the crown, and the government took the country under their own care; annulled all the particular regulations that had been made; allowed them the unlimited uſe of negroes, with the importation of rum, and left Georgia exactly on the ſame footing with Carolina; ſince which time it has been gradually, but ſlowly, encreaſing in the number of its inhabitants.

SECT. XII.

Of FLORIDA.

Its Situation, Extent, Climate, Soil, and Produce; with a particular Deſcription of the Cabbage-tree, and a conciſe Account of the tame and wild Animals.

THE country to which the Spaniards have given the name of Florida, and which, by the late treaty, was ceded to Great Britain, was firſt diſcovered by Sebaſtian Cabot, in 1496, eighteen years before it was known to the Spaniards. That nation gave it a very great extent, including under the name of Florida all the country from the twenty-fifth degree ſix minutes to the thirty-ninth degree thirty-eight minutes north latitude, including Virginia, Carolina, and Georgia; but what is properly called the peninſula of Florida is bounded by Georgia on the north, by the Miſſiſſippi and the gulph of Mexico on the weſt, by that of Florida on the ſouth, and by the channel of Bahama and the Atlantic ocean on the eaſt; extending from Georgia to Cape Florida, between the twenty-fifth degree ſix minutes and the thirtieth degree fifty-eight minutes north latitude, and its moſt eaſtern coaſt lies in about the eighty-firſt degree thirty minutes weſt longitude from London.

The air, though hot, is pure and wholeſome, and the ſoil remarkably rich and fruitful, frequently producing two or three crops of Indian corn in a year, and, with proper cultivation, might be made to bear every ſort of grain, &c. It abounds with all kinds of timber, particularly oak, cypreſs, palms, cedar, pines, and cheſnut-trees; but above all ſaſſafras is found in the greateſt plenty: excellent limes, mulberries, oranges, peaches, cocoas, and plums, alſo grow here in great abundance, with many other fruits of a delicious flavour; olives and vines likewiſe of various ſorts are the natural produce of the country, and the land is thought to be as proper for the cultivation of the grape as the warm countries of Europe. Cotton alſo grows wild here in great abundance; hemp and flax are alſo very common.

One of the moſt ſingular trees in this or any other country is the cabbage-tree, by ſome authors called the palmeto royal; "and well, ſays the reverend and learned "Mr. Hughes, may it be called royal, from its great "height, majeſtic appearance, and beauty of its waving "foliage: neither the tall cedar of Lebanon, nor any of "the trees of the foreſt, are equal to it in height, beauty, "and proportion." The trunk bulges out a little near the ground, which gives it the becoming appearance of a ſubſtantial baſis to ſupport its towering height. It is generally as ſtraight as an arrow; and ſcarce can a pillar of the niceſt order in architecture be more regular, eſpecially when it is of about thirty years growth. It riſes above a hundred feet in height, and the trunk near the earth is then about ſix or ſeven feet in circumference, the whole body growing tapering to the top. The colour of the bark reſembles that of an aſh-tree, and is faintly clouded at about the diſtance of every four or five inches with the veſtigia of the fallen-off branches: this colour of the bark continues till within about twenty-five or thirty feet of the extremity, where it alters at once from an aſh-colour to a beautiful deep ſea-green, and thus continues to the top. About five feet above the beginning of the green part, the trunk is encircled with its numerous branches; all the lowermoſt ſpreading horizontally with great regularity, and the extremeties of many of the higher branches bend wavering downwards, like ſo many plumes of feathers. Theſe branches, when full grown, are about twenty feet long, and are thick ſet on the trunk, riſing gradually ſuperior one to another, and the top is terminated by a beautiful upright green conic ſpire. Theſe branches are decorated with a very great number of green pointed leaves, ſome of them near three feet long, and an inch and a half broad, growing narrower towards their points, as well as gradually decreaſing

creaſing in length towards the extremities of the branches. It is obſerved that the lowermoſt branch drops monthly from the tree, carrying with it an exfoliated circular lamen of the green part of the tree from the ſetting on of the branches to the aſh-colour part. This, and the branch to which it is always fixed, fall together. When the loſs of this lower branch happens, the green conic ſpire, which iſſues from the center of the uppermoſt branches, and riſes ſuperior to all, burſts, and throws from its ſide a young branch, which continues the uppermoſt, till another of the lowermoſt branches drops off: then the ſpire ſends forth again another branch ſuperior in ſituation to the laſt. Thus the loſs of the branches below is ſupplied by thoſe above.

The inſide texture of the leaves appears to be ſo many longitudinal thread-like filaments, which, being ſpun, are uſed in making cordage of every kind, as well as fiſhing-nets. What is called the cabbage lies in many thin, white, brittle flakes, which have ſomething of the taſte of almonds, and when boiled has ſomewhat the taſte of a cabbage; but is ſweeter and more agreeable.

The ſea-coaſt is very flat, ſandy, and full of ſhoals; and on the level ſhore are a prodigious number of oyſters adhering to the mangrove trees, with which the ſouthern coaſt is covered. Among the more precious productions may be reckoned cochineal, of which there is both the wild and the cultivated; but the latter is by far the moſt valuable. The indigo plant grows very plentifully in many of the ſouthern parts of the province. Ambergriſe is likewiſe frequently to be met with on the coaſt, from the moſt ſouthern cape of Florida as far as Mexico.

Animal food is here in great plenty, and very good in its kind, particularly beef, veal, and mutton. The country alſo feeds a multitude of ſwine, the fleſh of which is very good, there being no want of acorns, cheſnuts, and ſuch food as is proper for their nouriſhment. Horſes are alſo bred here fit for the ſaddle and draught, and ſo cheap, that they may be purchaſed for any trifle brought from Europe.

The wild beaſts found in the country are the panther, bear, catamountain, buffalo, deer, hare, goats, rabbits, beavers, otters, foxes, racoons, flying ſquirrels, the armadillo, warre, opoſſum, guano, and ſeveral kinds of ſnakes.

Fowl are here in great plenty, as cranes, wild geeſe and ducks, herons, turtle-doves, partridges, thruſhes, jays, hawks, and crows; the curoſoe, the maccaw, the humming-bird, and an almoſt infinite number of others, ſome of which have their plumage elegantly variegated. The rivers abound with fiſh, and alſo with that deſtructive animal the alligator.

SECT. XIII.

Eaſt and Weſt Florida ſeparately conſidered. The Situation, Advantages, and Diſadvantages of each.

THE country of Florida is now divided into two diſtinct governments, under the names of Eaſt and Weſt Florida, and we ſhall begin with the former, on account of its being contiguous to Georgia.

Eaſt Florida is bounded on the north by Georgia, from which it is ſeparated by the river St. John; on the eaſt by the Atlantic ocean and the gulph of Florida, which laſt ſeparates it from the Bahama iſlands; on the ſouth by the gulph of Florida, which there ſeparates it from the iſland of Cuba; and on the weſt by the gulph of Mexico and Weſt Florida.

The eaſtern and ſouthern part of Eaſt Florida conſiſts of about twenty-four iſlands of pretty large extent, and a ſtill greater number of ſmaller ones, all formed by narrow ſtreights and bays, which run in from the weſt and join others from the ſouth and the eaſt. Theſe ſtreights are improperly called rios, or rivers. One of the principal of the bays is named Laguna del Eſpiritu Santo, or the lake of the Holy Ghoſt, which extends from north to ſouth about twenty-ſeven leagues, and is near eight leagues wide: it has ſeveral communications with the bays on the weſt ſide of the peninſula, as well as with the gulph of Florida.

Bahia de Carlos, or Charles's-bay, is ſeated on the weſt coaſt, extending about fourteen leagues almoſt ſouth-eaſt from its entrance, and is about five leagues over in the broadeſt part; but has only three fathoms water. It has ſeveral openings between the iſlands, the chief of which communicates with the Laguna del Eſpiritu Santo, juſt deſcribed.

The Bahia del Eſpiritu Santo is about four leagues to the north-eaſt of the Bahia de Carlos, on the weſtern coaſt, and is a large and noble bay extending above twenty leagues in length, and ſix in breadth, where broadeſt, having from five to ſeven fathoms water, except at the outlet that goes into the Laguna del Eſpiritu Santo, where it is no more than two fathoms. This bay, which lies from ſouth to eaſt, is in about twenty-ſeven degrees thirty minutes north latitude, and is capable of receiving the largeſt fleet that ever was collected in this part of the world; and may, in caſe of any rupture, be of great importance to the crown of Great Britain; for the galleons in their paſſage from Vera Cruz to the Havanna, are obliged, by reaſon of their north-eaſt trade-winds, to ſtretch away to the northward, and generally keep as near the coaſt of Florida as poſſible.

On the ſouth-eaſt of Florida is a large chain of iſlands and rocks, called Cayos de los Martyres, which extend in a circular form, in twenty-four degrees forty minutes north latitude, at the diſtance of thirteen leagues from Punta Florida, the moſt ſouthern point. In 1733 a fleet of fourteen galleons, on their return through the gulph of Florida for Old Spain, ran foul of theſe rocks, occaſioned by the ignorance of the admiral, Don Roderigo de Torres. One of the captains diſobeying the admiral's ſignals, by that means avoided the danger, and ſaved his ſhip; but the other thirteen were entirely loſt, with great part of their treaſure: and for many years after theſe rocks were much frequented by the Spaniſh and Indian divers, who were often ſo ſucceſsful as to recover great quantities of dollars.

The ſoil of Eaſt Florida in general is not ſo good as that in Georgia; but the north part of it adjacent to Georgia is much like it, and may be improved to the ſame purpoſes as Georgia, for raiſing of corn, rice, indigo, and ſilk; and in the weſt part of this province is ſome very good land, capable of being improved to great advantage. However, great part of the coaſt, both of the continent and the prodigious cluſter of iſlands included in Eaſt Florida, is very ſandy and barren; but farther within land it is ſaid to be very fertile.

There are ſome good ſettlements begun in this province under the direction of colonel Grant, the preſent governor: there is a proſpect of its ſoon becoming a flouriſhing province, and as inhabitants are at this time flocking to it from ſeveral countries in Europe, it will doubtleſs be in a ſhort time a place of conſiderable conſequence.

St. Auguſtine, the principal town in this province, is ſeated near the borders of Georgia, in the twenty-ninth degree fifty minutes north latitude, and was built by the Spaniards, who ſurrendered it at the late peace. The city runs along the ſhore at the foot of a pleaſant hill, adorned with trees, and is of an oblong form, divided by four regular ſtreets, croſſing each other at right angles. Down by the ſea-ſide, about three quarters of a mile ſouth of the town, ſtands the church and monaſtery of St. Auguſtine. The beſt built part of the town is on the north ſide leading to the caſtle, which is called Fort St. John. This is a ſquare building of ſoft ſtone, fortified with whole baſtions, a rampart twenty feet high, with a parapet nine feet thick, and is cazemated. The town is likewiſe fortified with baſtions, and incloſed with a ditch: the whole well furniſhed with cannon. The harbour is formed by the north end of Santa Anaſtaſia, an iſland nine leagues in length, and a long point of land divided from the continent by the river St. Mark, which falls into the ſea a little above the caſtle. At the entrance of this harbour are the north and ſouth breakers, which form two channels, whoſe bars have from eight to nine feet water over them at low tide. On the north and ſouth are two Indian towns without the city walls.

The exports at preſent from Eaſt Florida are but ſmall, the produce of their trade with the Indians being the chief

chief they have to ſpare; for as the country was four years ago almoſt entirely uncultivated, and there are but few inhabitants, no great improvements can yet be expected.

Weſt Florida is bounded on the eaſtward by Eaſt Florida, on the ſouth by the gulph of Mexico, on the weſt by the river Miſſiſſippi, and on the north by the country of the Chicketaws; and is a narrow ſlip extending from eaſt to weſt along the coaſt of the bay of Mexico. It was ſeized upon by the French, who begun a ſettlement at Penſacola in 1720, and enjoyed it till the treaty of Fontainbleau in 1763, when it was ceded to his Britannic majeſty, who formed it into a diſtinct government.

Captain Robinſon, who took a view of this country ſo lately as the year 1763, ſays, "the country all round is "wonderfully delightful and fertile, and about Penſa- "cola abounds with various herbs, ſhrubs, evergreens, "and meadows well ſtocked with cattle. From Penſa- "cola, he adds, I coaſted eaſtward for two hundred miles, "in a brigantine, to St. Mark d' Apalaché, ſcarcely ever "loſing ſight of land. We were becalmed ſo cloſe to "the ſhore as to be able to pitch a biſcuit upon it, near "forty miles eaſt of Penſacola, the firmament being "very ſerene. In this ſtate I ſtood contemplating on the "rich and bountiful hand of nature: looking which "way I pleaſed, I was equally attracted with a view of "the moſt raviſhing proſpects. The ſhore level, riſing "gradually into eminences, cloathed with the fineſt "verdure and ſpontaneous productions, interſperſed pro- "miſcuouſly, as mulberries, cedar, coco, vanilla, moho, "cabbage-trees, &c. the laſt towering their round tops "above the reſt, as if conſcious of their ſovereign dignity. "About ſixty miles farther eaſt we were again impeded "in our voyage by the ſame cauſe, cloſe to the pleaſant "little town of Santa Joſeph. We made no ſtay here, "by reaſon the wind was up very ſoon, but the face of "the country is as before deſcribed, only a few miles "round St. Joſeph it is ſomewhat more mountainous. "Soon after we arrived at St. Mark d' Apalaché, the "ſecond town in Florida, on the northern extreme of "Apalachy-bay. In ſailing along to the above place, "the coaſt was much the ſame as already mentioned. "This town is exceedingly beautiful and pleaſant, "ſtanding on the ſlope of a hill, and tolerably regular "built of ſtone, except ſome few baracas. Here are "two convents, one of Jeſuits, and the other of Fran- "ciſcans: the exterior parts of the town are fortified in "the Spaniſh mode, rather as a defence, I ſuppoſe, a- "gainſt the natives, than the Europeans. From the "excellent and central poſition of this fine port, it car- "ries on a good trade in its own river, and the interior "parts as far as the Apalachian mountains. It is looked "upon to carry on more commerce than all the other "ſettlements in Florida put together.

"Curioſity induced me one day to take a journey of "eight or nine miles into the country. I found abun- "dance of extreme fine mulberry-trees, larger than any "I ever ſaw in Italy: the leaves are well known to be "the food of the ſilk-worm, the climate and all other "neceſſaries being adapted for their nouriſhment: never- "theleſs, it remained unregarded by the Spaniards, "though it has produced, ten years ago, ſilk as good "as any in Europe. On my return to the town of St. "Mark d' Apalaché, I met with exquiſite grapes inter- "ſperſed up and down, exceeding the muſcadine in "bulk, and with ſomething of their flavour."

There are at preſent in this province about ſix thouſand inhabitants; but their number is increaſing very faſt, it being more healthy and inviting than Eaſt Florida, eſpecially in the weſtern parts near the bank of the Miſſiſſippi; and it is not to be doubted but that in a few years this will be a rich and flouriſhing province.

The principal town in Weſt Florida is Penſacola juſt mentioned, ſeated on the iſland of Santa Roſa, which is thirty-three miles in length, and ſeparated from the main land by a channel half a league over, but only navigable for ſmall boats. The landing-place is within the bay in very ſhallow water, the town being ſeated on a ſandy ſhore as white as ſnow, that can only be approached by ſmall veſſels. The road is, however, one of the beſt in all the gulph of Mexico, in which veſſels may lie in ſafety againſt every kind of wind. The bottom affords excellent anchorage; and the ſea, which is never agitated, on account of its being ſurrounded by the land on every ſide, is capable of containing a great number of ſhips. Penſacola was lately defended by a ſmall fort ſurrounded by ſtoccadoes, and the principal houſe is the governor's, which is a very handſome building, adorned with turrets on the top. As many of the French who inhabited this town before the treaty have choſen to become Britiſh ſubjects for the ſake of keeping their eſtates, this will contribute to the ſpeedy peopling this province, where there are ſeveral other ſmall towns; the inhabitants already carry on a conſiderable trade with the Indians, and export great quantities of ſkins; the French inhabitants alſo raiſe a great deal of rice.

SECT. XIV.

The Perſons, Dreſs, Manners, and Cuſtoms of the Indians of Florida.

THE Indians of Florida are of an olive complexion; their bodies are robuſt, and finely proportioned; but both ſexes go naked, except having a deer ſkin round their waiſt. They ſtain their ſkin with the juice of plants; and have black and long hair, which they have a method of twiſting and binding upon the head ſo as to render it very becoming. The women, who are handſome and well ſhaped, are ſo active that they will climb with ſurprizing ſwiftneſs to the tops of the higheſt trees, and ſwim acroſs broad rivers with their children on their backs. The men make uſe of bows and arrows, which they manage with great dexterity; the ſtrings of their bows are made of the ſinews of ſtags, and they arm the end of their arrows with ſharp ſtones or the teeth of fiſhes.

With reſpect to their religion, they worſhip the ſun and moon, and have an extreme averſion to all Chriſtians, which is the leſs to be wondered at, as the horrid cruelties exerciſed by the Spaniards on the natives of the adjacent iſland of Cuba, and other places, could not fail of exciting the utmoſt abhorrence and dread in their minds. The Spaniards, according to their uſual cuſtom, charge them with many vices, in order to caſt as fair a colour as they can over their inhuman behaviour to the Indians, both of this and other countries, whom they firſt butchered, and then repreſented as ſavage barbarians, in order to palliate the crime, and in ſome degree apologize for ſuch cruel proceedings.

Their œconomy, with regard to the management and diſtribution of their corn, which is accounted the common ſtock of the public, is worthy of notice. The crop, which is calculated to ſerve only half the year, is collected into granaries appointed for that purpoſe, and afterwards regularly delivered out to every family, in proportion to the number of perſons it contains. The ſoil is indeed capable of affording much more corn than they are able to conſume, but they chooſe to ſow no more than will ſerve them for that term, retiring for the remainder of the year into the deep receſſes of the foreſts, where they build huts of palm-trees, and live upon roots, wild-fowl, and fiſh. They are alſo very fond of the fleſh of alligators, the young of which are delicious, but have a ſtrong muſky ſmell. Their meat is dreſſed in the ſmoke upon a gridiron made of ſticks, and water ſerves them for their common drink.

The people are in general ſatisfied with one wife; but the chiefs are indulged with more, though the children of only one of them ſucceed to the father's dignity.

The government of the Floridans is in the hands of many chiefs, who are called caſſiques: they are generally at variance and at war with each other; but this is far from being carried on in an open manner; on the contrary, they uſually make uſe of ſurprize, or ſtratagem, exerciſing great cruelty upon ſuch as they take priſoners, yet ſpare the women and children, whom they carry off and ſettle among them. When they have obtained a victory, they at their return home aſſemble all their friends, and feaſt three days and nights, ſpending the time in ſinging and dancing. In their war-like expeditions they carry with them honey and maize, and ſome-

times

times fish dried in the sun. The chief marches at their head, carrying a club in one hand and a bow and arrows in the other; his quiver hangs at his back, and the rest follow tumultuously with the same arms. They make their attacks with a horrible noise, not unlike the war-whoop of the Indians of the Six Nations.

They, however, attempt nothing rashly; but previously hold a consultation, having a sort of council, which consists of twelve or fourteen chosen members, who have remarkably distinguished themselves by their bravery in war, and have a considerable influence upon that account. They assemble daily at the hut of the chief, who has a higher seat than the rest, entering according to seniority, and with their hands thrown above their heads each sing their *Ha he ya*, while the rest join with *Ha ha*; after which they all take their seats. If the matter in debate be of great moment, their priests, who are also a kind of conjurers and physicians, with all who are distinguished by their great age, are called in, and their opinions particularly asked. Then the cassique carries round a kind of liquor like our tea, made by the infusion of the leaves of a certain tree.

The burial of a deceased cassique is celebrated among them with great solemnity: they place upon his tomb the bowl out of which he was accustomed to drink, and stick innumerable arrows in the earth around him, bewailing his death for three days with fasting and loud lamentations: the generality of them also cut off their hair, as a singular testimony of their sorrow. Their chieftains also set fire to and consume all the arms and household-furniture, together with the hut that belonged to the deceased; after which some old women are deputed, who every day, during the space of half a year, at morning, noon, and evening, bewail him with dreadful howlings: a custom that has been formerly practised among some of the most civilized nations, particularly among the Romans, who frequently hired women to weep at the funerals of their friends and relations.

SECT. XV.

Of the Country in the back Settlements on the Banks of the Mississippi, the Misauris, and the Ohio.

THE river Mississippi rises on the southermost part of the Central Mountains already described, and has a course of three thousand miles before it enters the gulph of Mexico. It rises from a lake of a considerable size, opposite to which is an opening in the mountain, from which a large stream flows to the lake, carrying with it a red sulphureous substance, by which the water is tinged, and on this account it is called the Red Lake. This lake has on its south and south-east sides a fine fertile country.

The Mississippi runs nearly south-west from this lake for upwards of two hundred miles, where it is joined by a small stream from the westward; and then turning nearly south-east for above three hundred miles, is joined by the Muddy River, and before that by another not so large, flowing to it from the north-east. The Muddy River rises from the south of the Central Mountains out of a large bog, and runs south, inclining to the west, till it meets the Mississippi, which, after its junction, is near two miles wide. The current from the head to this place is generally pretty rapid, and has frequent and large falls; but the country on both sides of the river, and of the branches that flow into it, is exceeding fine and fertile: the timber lofty, but thin, and the trees scattered at a distance from each other: the plains large and beautiful: the air and climate, even quite to the head, moderate and agreeable: the winters short and rarely severe; though farther eastward, in the same latitude, they are quite the reverse; and the farther you travel to the westward, the more mild and temperate it grows, and the country is more agreeable and fertile. The lakes and the rivers here abound with fish, and the wild oats, or rice, grow here in great plenty. On the wide extended plains are a multitude of wild cattle, and great plenty of deer, elks, and buffaloes, with some beavers, hares, and panthers. Here are wild-fowl in abundance, especially turkies, and another kind of wild-fowl, much larger and nearly as tall as a man: they run very swift, but cannot fly, except it be from some eminence, and a small distance at a time.

This fertile country is at present inhabited by a nation called the White Indians, from their having a much fairer complexion than any other of the original inhabitants of the continent. This nation is so numerous as to be able to raise between twenty and thirty thousand men. They use no weapon but bows and arrows, tomahawks, and a kind of wooden pikes; on which account they frequently suffer greatly in battle, when attacked by the eastern Indians, who have the use of fire-arms, and frequently make excursions against them, killing and taking prisoners great numbers of them. These Indians dwell together in large towns, and have commodious houses; they raise Indian corn, tame the wild cows, and use both their milk and flesh; they keep a great number of dogs, and are very expert in hunting; but have little or no commerce with any other nation known to the Europeans.

The Mississippi, from the place where it is joined by the Muddy River, runs near two hundred miles to the south, with a strong and in some places a rapid current: it is then joined by a large river from the west, which rises four hundred miles from the Central Mountains; its waters chiefly rise from the north and north-easterly part of the Misauri ridge, a double chain of mountains so called, that extend towards the isthmus of Darien. This is named by the Indians the Bloody River, on account of the long and bloody wars that have happened between the Indians here and those to the eastward. Four hundred miles farther down, another river flows in from the north-west, that rises near the Bloody River. The two last rivers are both inhabited by the Illinois Indians, who likewise possess the western banks of the Mississippi for several hundred miles, till you come to a river that flows into it from the east, and rises near the Green-bay, having but a short carrying-place to the stream that discharges itself into that bay, and to another that falls into Lake Meshigan, near Fort St. Joseph. The country near this branch of the Mississippi was once inhabited by the Illinois, but they are now mostly retired to the west side of the Mississippi, only a few still remain at the mouth of the above river, where the French had likewise begun a settlement, which extended fifty miles along the Mississippi, and a considerable way up the river Illinois. There they raised excellent tobacco, and carried on a large trade with the Indians up the Mississippi and on the lakes. They likewise raised excellent wheat, barley, and other corn; and had formerly a good fort here, well garrisoned for their protection. Since this place was ceded to the crown of Great Britain, the French settled a garrison on the other side of the river, where the greatest part of the inhabitants have retired; but as there were a considerable number of Germans among them, they chose to stay on this side, and become British subjects. Near this fort is a village of Indians, but their largest settlement is on the west side, some miles above this, where they have a town, in which are contained near eight thousand men. They have also many large towns on the branches that fall into the river from the west.

These Indians live very comfortably, have pretty good houses, and make great use of horses; their country also abounds with buffaloes, deer, elks, &c. The soil and air are agreeable and pleasant: in some parts the trees are tall and handsome, and in other parts, for several hundred miles, there is scarce any timber to be found.

About a hundred and fifty miles below where the Mississippi is joined by the Illinois on the east side, the Misauris falls into it on the west. This last river rises from the east and south-east of the above Misauri ridge of mountains, in many different streams, for near a thousand miles on this side, which unite with each other at different places, and, after an easterly and south-easterly course of near two thousand miles, flow into the Mississippi.

It is perhaps impossible to find a finer country in any part of the earth, than that which is extended on each side of the Misauris, with respect to the salubrity of the air or the fertility of the soil. There are in this country

near

near a thouſand Indian towns, the inhabitants of which are called the Miſauri Indians, and are able to raiſe a great number of fighting men; theſe people have nearly the ſame manners and cuſtoms as the Illinois, who are alſo very numerous. The goodneſs of the country they both inhabit, muſt render life eaſy and agreeable to perſons who, like them, are content with gratifying the demands of nature, without endeavouring to encreaſe theſe demands, by ſtudied refinements in dreſs, equipage, or the modes of living. Health, joy, peace, and plenty, ſeem here to take up their abode; while care, anxiety, ambition, and the love of gold ſeem baniſhed from this happy region.

The Miſſiſſippi, after being joined by the Miſauris, is about ſix miles wide, and continues its courſe ſoutherly, no conſiderable ſtream falling into it after this, for between two and three hundred miles, when it is joined by the Ohio. The country on each ſide the Miſſiſſippi to this place is exceeding fine, nearly reſembling that juſt deſcribed; but it enjoys a ſomewhat warmer climate. It is claimed by the Tweeghtwees, or Yeahtanees, on the eaſt ſide down to the Ohio, and eaſtwardly from the Miſſiſſippi as far as the Wabach.

The Ohio riſes in ſeveral branches, one of which is near Preſque Iſle, within ſix miles of the Lake Ontario. About ten miles down this branch ſtood Fort Du Beauf, from which place it is navigable for canoes and ſmall boats quite to the mouth. The courſe of this branch is ſouthерly for ſeventy or eighty miles below the laſt-mentioned fort, where was another fort called Venango; but both this fort, with that of Preſque Iſle and Fort Du Beauf, were all deſtroyed by the Indians in 1763. About twenty miles above this laſt fort are ſeveral little towns of the Mingos, who now belong to the Five Nations. Oppoſite to Venango fort this branch is joined by another large one from the north-eaſt, which riſes in the country of the Five Nations; and about half way from thence to Fort Pitt is another, which joins it from the north-eaſt, and after their meeting it is called the Ohio, till you come to Fort Pitt, where it is joined by the Monongahela, which riſes from the weſt ſide of the Allegany mountains in a great number of ſmall ſtreams, that ſoon unite and form this river.

Fort Pitt ſtands upon a point of land between the rivers Monongahela and Ohio, and is a regular well-built fortreſs, kept in good order, and well garriſoned: it is a very neceſſary poſt for the protection of our frontiers; and indeed there are none in this country more ſo, except Niagara and Detroit. Near Fort Pitt is a good coal-mine, made uſe of by the garriſon for fuel; but what is a ſtill greater advantage, the country is extremely well watered by ſprings and rivulets, and has an eaſy communication with the ſea down the Miſſiſſippi, and with great part of the interior country of North America by its ſeveral branches, the Wabach, Miſauris, Yeahtanees, the Ohio, &c. and with the great lakes by the way of Preſque Iſle, where, at a ſmall expence, the waters of the lake might be turned into the Ohio; and even at preſent the carrying-place extends but a ſmall diſtance.

From Fort Pitt the general courſe of the Ohio inclines to the ſouth for near a thouſand miles, according to the courſe of the river. At Fort Pitt it is a mile wide, but grows much wider before its junction with the Miſſiſſippi, it being joined by ſeveral ſtreams in its courſe thither.

The country between the lakes and the junction of the Ohio and Miſſiſſippi for ſeveral hundred miles, and all the country between Fort St. Joſeph and the Green-bay, and between Detroit and the Illinois, and even much farther north than Detroit, is level, and has excellent ſoil; the climate is healthy and agreeable, and the winters ſhort and moderate: its natural productions are numerous and valuable: it is ſufficiently, but not too much, covered with trees, which are tall, beautiful, and fit for building; and, in ſhort, no country in the world is capable of richer improvements.

Below the river Ohio on the eaſt ſide of the Miſſiſſippi, down to its mouth, the country is poſſeſſed for near two hundred miles to the eaſtward by the Chicketaws, a nation that can raiſe ten thouſand fighting men. This country is indeed ſandy, and inferior to that juſt deſcribed; but it produces rice and indigo in great perfection, of which the French have made ſufficient proof.

The Chicketaws generally dwell in large towns near the banks of the Ohio, on the ſtreams that fall into that river on the eaſt. Their houſes, though not very handſome, are pretty compact, in order to ſecure them againſt the Muſketoes, which at ſome ſeaſons of the year are very troubleſome. They keep cows, hogs, and horſes; and the latter in great abundance. They likewiſe raiſe plenty of corn, beans, and potatoes; but have little game, except deer.

The Cherokees dwell at the ſouth-weſt end of the Apalachian mountains, from the head of the river Taneſee, which flows into the Ohio, about a hundred miles before its confluence with the Miſſiſſippi. Their country extends in length about four hundred miles from the north-eaſt to the ſouth-weſt, and is about two hundred miles wide. It is very mountainous and difficult of acceſs every way. They live in as good order as any Indians on the continent, building their houſes with wood, and covering them with clay mixed with ſtraw, in ſuch a manner as to render them cloſe, warm, and comfortable. They have many ſmall towns diſperſed among the mountains on the branches of the rivers Taneſee and Savanna. They have great plenty of horſes, ſome black cattle, and many ſwine. Theſe people raiſe a great deal of corn, and fence in their fields, which is practiſed by no other Indians. They have alſo orchards of peach-trees, and keep poultry. They attend to gardening, and are likewiſe very famous for hunting, their country abounding with deer, elks, and bears; and they have plenty of turkies in the vallies between the mountains. The Cherokees can raiſe about two thouſand fighting men.

The river Taneſee is entirely uninhabited below the mountains as far as its confluence with the Ohio; yet the country is claimed by the Chickeſaws, a brave warlike people, who have only one town, which is ſeated on a plain, by a ſmall creek that riſes about thirty miles to the ſouth of the Taneſee. Their town is picqueted in, and defended by a fort. Their houſes are built in much the ſame form as thoſe of the Chicketaws. Theſe people raiſe a great deal of corn, have ſome black cattle and ſwine, and a conſiderable number of horſes; but can only raiſe five hundred fighting men.

To the ſouth-weſt of the Cherokees live the Creek Indians, who are ſeated partly between them, the Chicketaws, and Georgia, in a level country. They can raiſe about two thouſand fighting men, and live in the ſame manner and have the ſame commodities as the Cherokees and Chicketaws. All the country of the Creeks are infeſted with alligators and ſnakes of a very large ſize; and at certain ſeaſons of the year they are much plagued with the muſketoes.

The ſoil is good from the Miſauris down to the weſt ſide of the Miſſiſſippi, till you come near its mouth. The French had lately a ſettlement a little above its confluence with the Ohio on the weſt ſide: about a hundred miles farther down another ſcattered ſettlement of theirs begun, and was continued for near a hundred miles, from whence to New Orleans it is better ſettled. The produce of this country is rice, Indian corn, and ſome wheat. The iſle of Orleans is a very beautiful and fertile ſpot, on which the French had, if they have not ſtill, a conſiderable town; and their number in this province is ſaid to amount, at the time of the late peace, to about a hundred thouſand perſons. The negroes are alſo very numerous, and the ſoil towards the ſouth proper for producing rice and indigo, and towards the north for raiſing wheat.

Having now deſcribed the provinces of North America ſubject to Great Britain, we ſhall proceed to the Weſt Indies; but ſhall firſt give a Deſcription of Bermudas, or the Summer Iſlands.

CHAP.

CHAP. IV.

Of the BERMUDAS, with a Deſcription of the WEST INDIAN Iſlands belonging to GREAT BRITAIN.

SECT. I.

Of the BERMUDAS, *or* SUMMER ISLANDS.

Their Name, Situation, Number, Extent, and Climate; a particular Deſcription of the Soil, Vegetables, and Animals, particularly of the Iſland of St. George; with the Manners of the Inhabitants.

THE Bermudas, or Summer Iſlands, received their firſt name from their being diſcovered by John Bermudes, a Spaniard, in the year 1503, after which they were frequently touched at by his countrymen in their paſſage to the Weſt Indies. They received their ſecond name from Sir George Sommers, who was ſhipwrecked upon them, with Sir Thomas Gates, in 1609, in their paſſage to Virginia. Theſe iſlands are very numerous, but lie pretty contiguous to each other, and are ſuppoſed to amount to about four hundred; but moſt of them ſo ſmall and barren as not to be habitable. They lie in the thirty-ſecond degree twenty minutes north latitude, and, according to the moſt accurate obſervations, in the ſixty-fourth degree forty-eight minutes weſt longitude. Their greateſt extent, which is from the north-eaſt to the ſouth-weſt, is computed at about twenty miles, and their greateſt breadth about five: however, ſcarce an eighth part is inhabited. Their diſtance from the Land's-end is computed between fifteen and ſixteen hundred leagues, from the Madeiras about eleven or twelve hundred, and three hundred from Cape Hateras in Carolina, which is the neareſt land to them. All theſe iſlands, except St. George's, St. David's, and Cooper's, have only a few houſes ſcattered up and down.

St. George's, the largeſt of theſe iſlands, is only about ſixteen miles in length, and not a league over in the broadeſt part: but is fortified with rocks every way, extending far into the ſea. To its natural ſtrength the inhabitants have added ſeveral good forts, with batteries and other out-works, eſpecially towards the eaſt, where it lies moſt uncovered, ſo well diſpoſed, that they command the ſeveral channels and inlets on that ſide. There are only two places at which ſhips can ſafely enter, and the rocks lie ſo thick that, without a good pilot from the ſhore, a veſſel of ten tons burthen could not find the way into theſe harbours, which being once known the largeſt ſhips in the world may enter: but they are ſo well fortified, that ſhould an enemy, aſſiſted by the moſt ſkilful pilots, attempt either of them, they might be eaſily kept out. Indeed all the iſlands in general are ſo environed with rugged and dreadful rocks, that they ſeem to threaten all the ſhips that venture near the coaſt with preſent deſtruction; and ſo many have been wrecked upon them, that the Spaniards gave them the name of Los Diabolos, or the Devils.

The air of theſe iſlands has been always eſteemed extremely healthful, and the appearance of every thing in St. George's iſland, and the other fertile ones, is perfectly delightful, whence people have been accuſtomed to remove thither from the other colonies, in order to repair their broken conſtitutions. The heat in ſummer is very ſupportable, and with reſpect to winter it is here unknown; ſome even affirm, that there is but one ſeaſon, and that there is here a perpetual ſpring, in which the trees never loſe their verdure; for though the leaves at one time of the year fall off, others have firſt budded out: but, notwithſtanding the fineneſs of the climate, theſe iſlands are ſubject to ſtorms of thunder and lightning.

The country is moſtly mountainous, but has ſome fertile plains. The earth is of various colours, but the brown is eſteemed the richeſt; the whitiſh, or ſandy, is reckoned the next; and the reddiſh the worſt. Upon the whole, the ſoil, though thin and very ſtony, is rich and fruitful; but their water is generally brackiſh, except what falls from the clouds, and is preſerved in ciſterns.

Maize, which is the principal ſupport of the people, is twice reaped; for what they ſow in March, they reap in July: in a fortnight after they ſow again, and reap in December. They alſo raiſe ſome tobacco. The cedars of theſe iſlands are ſaid to exceed all thoſe of the other parts of America, particularly in their fragrancy, durableneſs, beauty, and the hardneſs of the wood; and they are here in ſuch plenty, that this wood anſwers in all reſpects our oak timber; for they not only build their beſt ſloops, brigantines, and other veſſels with it, but ſome of their houſes, churches, and other public buildings. Their palmeto, which is a kind of wild palm, is no leſs uſeful and common. Its fruit, which in colour, ſhape, and ſize reſembles our damſin, is very delicious; the wood is ſerviceable for building and fewel, and the leaves, which are generally between eight and ten feet long, ſerve to make a very good covering for their houſes. The date, or palm-tree, likewiſe yields a fine fruit, and their foreſts abound with variety of odoriferous and medicinal woods, ſome black, others yellow, and ſome red. The berries of theſe laſt trees have the ſtyptic quality of a ſloe, and are much uſed by the Engliſh to cure the flux, which they frequently get by eating the luſcious palm-berries, and other rich fruits. All European and American trees are ſaid to grow here in great perfection, eſpecially the mulberry, olive, laurel, Barbary pear, and orange-trees, which are peculiarly excellent; the fruit, in point of ſize, ſcent, and flavour, far exceed thoſe either in the Eaſt or Weſt Indies. They have alſo a very ſingular plant called the Summer Iſland red-wood, the berry of which is as red as the prickly-pear, and gives the ſame kind of tincture; out of it come worms, which turn into flies, that are ſomewhat larger than the cochineal fly, and have a medicinal virtue much exceeding it. They have alſo a plant called the poiſonous-weed, that grows much in the ſame manner as our ivy; but this is the only noxious thing in any of theſe iſlands.

With reſpect to quadrupeds, there were none in the Bermudas but hogs, when Sir George Sommers was ſhipwrecked there, and theſe he found by ſending out two or three of his own to feed, which rambling home, a huge wild boar followed them, and being killed, was found excellent meat. The hogs they afterwards killed were all black, whence it is concluded that the Spaniards left them there to breed, they being of the ſame kind with thoſe they carried to the continent of America. They have alſo all the other ſpecies of European cattle, but they are not very numerous.

Theſe iſlands abound with a prodigious variety of fowl, as ſwans, widgeons, herons, ducks, ſnipe, teal, moor-hens, bitterns, oſprays, baldcoots, cormorants, and hawks of all ſorts; bats, owls, and other birds of the night are alſo very common, and there are multitudes of ſmall birds. The Engliſh at their firſt coming found a kind of water-fowl peculiar to thoſe iſlands, called cowkees; they breed in the holes of the rocks, and in burrows like rabbits. This bird is of the ſize of a ſea-mew, and being of ſo gentle a nature as to be eaſily caught, and being alſo very good to eat, ſuch numbers have been taken of them that they now are become ſcarce. Here are likewiſe found the trumpet-bird and the pemlico, the laſt of which is ſeldom ſeen in the day-time.

The inſects in theſe iſlands are generally the ſame as in our other plantations, except the ſpider, which is thought to be larger here than in any other country in

the world; but the beautiful colour with which they are adorned takes off very much from that diſtaſte which otherwiſe the ſight of creatures of this kind, and of ſo enormous a ſize, would naturally occaſion.

It has been already obſerved, that the number of theſe iſlands is uncertain: the principal of them are St. George, St. David, Ireland, Somerſet, Long-iſland, Bird-iſland, Cooper, and Nonſuch. We have alſo obſerved that the firſt of theſe is the moſt conſiderable; it is therefore here proper to add, that it is divided into nine diſtricts, called by the inhabitants tribes; namely, St. George's tribe, Hamilton's tribe, Smith's tribe, Devonſhire's tribe, Pembroke's tribe, Paget's tribe, Warwick's tribe, Southampton's tribe, and Sandy's tribe. All the inhabitants of the leſſer iſlands are ranged under one or other of theſe eight tribes, and the number of people in all the iſlands is computed at about ten thouſand.

St. George, the capital town, is ſeated at the bottom of a haven in the iſland of the ſame name, and is defended by ſeven or eight forts mounted with about ſeventy pieces of cannon. The town has a handſome church, together with a fine library, with a noble ſtate-houſe for the meeting of the governor, council, and aſſembly, and about one thouſand houſes more very neatly built.

The government is like that of Virginia, Carolina, Florida, &c. the crown appointing the governor and council, and the repreſentatives of the people compoſing the aſſembly. They are ſaid to have fewer bye-laws than any of our ſettlements, which may be imputed to the ſmallneſs of their trade; for this country produces no conſiderable commodity by which the inhabitants can obtain riches; for their commerce chiefly conſiſts in timber and proviſions, in building ſhips, and ſending ſome tobacco to England.

The people of the Summer-iſlands ſeem to content themſelves with the plenty and pleaſure of their country, and with enjoying a ſafe and quiet retreat from the troubles and cares of the reſt of the world. Indeed the inhabitants have conſtantly maintained an excellent reputation, and the Bermudas have been equally remarkable for the beauty of the country, and the integrity, ſimplicity, and honeſty of the people. The beauty and the healthfulneſs of theſe iſlands, and the amiable characters of the inhabitants, induced the learned dean Berkeley, afterwards biſhop of Cloyne, to erect an academy at the Bermudas for promoting uſeful learning and true religion in the Weſt Indies, and the Society for the Propagation of the Goſpel aſſiſted him in procuring a patent from king George I. for erecting a college there. That gentleman and three fellows of Trinity-college in Dublin, with ſeveral of the Doctor's relations, embarked on this undertaking; but were driven by a ſtorm to Long-iſland, in the province of New York, from whence the Doctor, with his companions, went to Boſton and ſeveral other towns in New England, where they preached; but the deſign of erecting a college being laid aſide, they returned home, and ſoon after doctor Berkeley was promoted to the ſee of Cloyne in Ireland.

SECT. II.

A conciſe Hiſtory of the Settlement of the Bermudas.

WE have already obſerved, that Sir George Sommers was wrecked on theſe iſlands; but he here cauſed a veſſel to be built in which he purſued his intended voyage to Virginia, but left two men who had committed ſome crime for which they would have been put to death, had they been brought to England. Theſe were there when he afterwards returned to the iſlands, they having lived on the productions of the place, and built them a hut on St. George's iſland. Theſe men, whoſe names were Chriſtopher Carter and Edward Waters, alſo ſtaid behind Sir George's ſecond company, and even perſuaded one Edward Chard to remain with them; and now Carter, Waters, and Chard, though the ſole lords of the country, ſoon quarrelled, when Carter, tho' he hated both, not liking to be alone, prevented their fighting, by threatening to declare againſt the man who ſtruck firſt. At laſt neceſſity made them friends, and they joined together in making diſcoveries. In one of their expeditions they found a large piece of ambergriſe among the rocks that weighed eighty pounds, beſides other ſmaller pieces. This treaſure made them almoſt beſide themſelves, and in order to obtain an opportunity of making uſe of it, they reſolved on the moſt deſperate attempt that men could form; which was to build a boat after the beſt manner they could, and to ſail either to Virginia or Newfoundland, juſt as the wind happened to blow; but before they could put their project in execution, they were prevented by the arrival of a ſhip from England; for captain Matthew Sommers, Sir George's brother, had promiſed to come to them, or to ſend a veſſel to their relief. This ſhip had ſixty perſons on board, ſent by the new-formed Bermudas company to make a ſettlement, of which Mr. Moore was governor. That gentleman pitched upon a plain in St. George's iſland, and there built a cabin of palmeto leaves, large enough for his wife and family; and the reſt of the adventurers following his example, it ſoon grew into a town of conſiderable extent. This is now St. George's town, juſt deſcribed. Mr. Moore proved an excellent governor, and in 1614, diſappointed the Spaniards in an attempt to conquer theſe iſlands.

This gentleman was ſucceeded in the government by captain Daniel Tucker, who having a better education, and greater experience, eſtabliſhed a regular polity, traced out plantations, and obliged every man to build uniformly in the town, and to lay out regular plantations in the country; by which means the iſlands were much improved, and the exportations to England increaſed. He likewiſe eſtabliſhed a militia, and placed the iſlands in ſuch a poſture of defence as to put it out of the power of any of their enemies to hurt the colony.

However, the ſeverity of captain Tucker's government gave great diſguſt to the licentious, and five of them executed as deſperate a deſign to eſcape, as Waters and his two companions had propoſed. They were ſenſible that the governor would not give them leave to return to England, and therefore hearing that he had a great deſire to go a fiſhing out at ſea, but was afraid of doing it becauſe ſeveral fiſhing-boats had been driven off by the weather, they propoſed to build a boat of two or three tons burthen, with a deck, and ſo fitted, that ſhe ſhould live in all weathers. The governor conſenting to this, they began to build in a private place, under the pretence of its being convenient for getting timber and launching the boat. One of theſe five was a gentleman, another had contrived the deſign, another was a ſhip-carpenter who undertook to build this little veſſel, and the other was a common ſailor who promiſed to navigate it. They finiſhed the boat ſooner than was expected, and the governor ſending for it, in order to go on board a ſhip that was ready to ſail to England, the men on coming to the place could neither find the boat nor the builders, and all that they could hear of them was, that the boat being finiſhed the night before, thoſe who built it went off to ſea in order to try how it would ſail; but at laſt they found, by ſome letters they left behind, that they had ſet ſail for England.

Theſe raſh adventurers had, on ſome pretence, borrowed a compaſs-dial of a neighbour, and then going on board the ſhip bound for England, exchanged ſuch things as they could ſpare for proviſions; and one of them, at parting, told the mariners, that though they were forbidden to go with them, they hoped to be in England before them, at which the maſter of the ſhip laughed, and away theſe fearleſs adventurers ſailed with a fair wind and weather that laſted twenty-one days. They then met with a ſtorm, which continued forty-eight hours, and drove them a little out of their courſe to the weſtward; but the wind coming fair again, and continuing ten days, they went on chearfully. In that time they met with a French privateer, and went on board to beg ſome relief; but, inſtead of aſſiſtance, were plundered of all the little they had; the French had even the inhumanity to take away their compaſs, and then cruelly turned them adrift. In this miſerable condition they ſailed on, growing every day weaker and weaker. Their proviſions were almoſt ſpent, their fire-wood quite gone, not a drop of freſh

water left, nor food for above a day, when at length, to their unſpeakable joy, they made land, which proved to be Ireland; where going on ſhore in the county of Cork, they were nobly entertained by the earl of Thomond, to whom they related their extraordinary voyage, which laſted forty-two days.

But to return, in 1619 Mr. Tucker reſigned to captain Butler, who arrived with four ſhips, in which he brought five hundred paſſengers, and there being as many Engliſh before on the iſland, the colony began to make a conſiderable figure. This governor divided the iſlands into diſtricts; and now the government, by a governor, council, and aſſembly, was eſtabliſhed, it before conſiſting only of the governor and council; and the laws of the country were ſettled as much like thoſe of England as the circumſtances of the place would admit.

SECT. III.

Of the BAHAMA, *or* LUCAYAN *Iſlands.*

Whence the Weſt Indies obtained that Name. The Situation and Extent of the Bahama Iſlands, with a conciſe Account of Bahama and Providence Iſlands, and an Account of their Settlement and Revolutions.

WE now return from the Bermudas to the Britiſh iſlands near the middle of the continent of America, where all the iſlands have obtained the name of Weſt-Indies, from the opinion the great Columbus had entertained, that by ſailing to the weſt he ſhould diſcover India, and be able to bring from thence the rich ſpices, which for a conſiderable time had been brought by the way of the Red Sea, carried by land through Egypt, and there ſold to the Venetians and other maritime republics in the Mediterranean, who obtained immenſe wealth by ſupplying all the reſt of Europe with theſe articles of luxury. Columbus was right in his general idea; but theſe iſlands, which he imagined lay near the coaſt of India, were ſome thouſand leagues to the weſt of them; nor was he prepared for ſuch a voyage. It was with difficulty and great danger that he reached theſe; the mariners, at that time never accuſtomed to ſail far out of ſight of land, were frequently in deſpair, and dreading leſt they ſhould periſh in the boundleſs ocean into which he had carried them, frequently, in the midſt of their terror, intreated him to return; and at length reſolved to throw him over-board, and then endeavour to ſail back to Spain. But Columbus, bold and undaunted, raiſed their hopes, by ſhewing them at one time, weeds floating in the ſea; at another ſmall birds, which he obſerved could not fly far from land; and at laſt a cane, with a ſtaff, which had been evidently cut; and at length they landed in one of the Bahama iſlands we are now going to deſcribe, where the mariners no ſooner got on ſhore, than they fell proſtrate, and in a tranſport of joy kiſſed the earth.

The Bahama iſlands are ſeated to the eaſt and ſouth-eaſt of Florida, and the north of Cuba, ſtretching from the north-eaſt to the ſouth-weſt between the twenty-firſt and twenty-eighth degree of north latitude, and between the ſeventy-ſecond and eighty-firſt of weſt longitude. Theſe iſlands are very numerous; but there are only twelve worthy of notice. Between them and the continent of Florida is the gulph of Bahama or Florida, through which the Spaniſh galleons ſail in their paſſage to Europe.

Bahama, from which the reſt of theſe iſlands take their name, is ſeated in the twenty-ſixth degree forty-five minutes north latitude, at the diſtance of fifteen or twenty leagues to the eaſt of Florida, and eight or ten to the weſt of the iſland of Lucaya, from which it is divided by a channel, which, notwithſtanding its great breadth, is very dangerous from its being full of rocks and ſands. Bahama is about fifty miles in length; but ſcarce anywhere ſixteen miles in breadth, and in many places not half ſo broad. It is however very pleaſant and fruitful, the air ſerene and temperate, and the ſoil remarkably rich, it being watered by a multitude of ſprings and brooks of freſh water. It formerly produced plenty of guaiacum, ſaſſafras, ſarſaparilla, and red-wood; but theſe were all deſtroyed by the Spaniards; ſo that its chief produce at preſent is Indian wheat, fowl, and a particular ſort of rabbit; the reſt of their proviſions and other neceſſaries they obtained from Carolina and Florida, and the people both here and in the iſland of Providence are able to aſſiſt the ſhips that are driven upon their coaſt by the boiſterous winds and impetuous currents, which are here very violent.

Providence iſland is ſeated in the center of ſome hundreds of theſe iſlands, ſome of them many miles in length, and others are only ſmall rocks riſing above the water; ſo that it is extremely dangerous for ſhips to be forced in among them by a tempeſt. This iſland lies in the twenty-fourth degree thirty minutes north latitude, and is about twenty-eight miles long and eleven broad, where it is wideſt. It is a beautiful little iſland, abounding with trees, plants, fowl, and fiſh. The moſt conſiderable profit formerly made by the planters aroſe from the misfortunes of ſuch as were ſhipwrecked, and whom they relieved; or from thoſe who in a winter voyage to the continent of America were driven to the Bahama iſlands, and put into Providence for proviſions, where the traders who purchaſed them from Carolina kept ſtore-houſes to ſupply thoſe who wanted, and theſe afforded great relief to the unfortunate mariners. They likewiſe made ſome advantage of the wrecks that were thrown in upon them. The principal produce of the iſland is ſalt and braſiletto-wood, which they carry to Carolina. They alſo ſow peaſe and Indian wheat.

The other iſlands, notwithſtanding ſome authors reckon that they amount to between four and five hundred, are hardly worth deſcribing; at leaſt we have no particulars relating to them that can engage the attention of the curious reader. The moſt conſiderable of them, beſides thoſe juſt mentioned, are Eleuthera, Harbour-Iſland, Lucaya, Androſs, Cigateo, which may be termed of the ſecond magnitude. Thoſe of the third are Cat-Iſland, the firſt land diſcovered by Columbus in America, Yumeta, Samana, Mayaguana, Yuma or Exuma, Ynagua, Caicos, and Triangulo. As to the reſt, they are rather barren rocks than iſlands.

With reſpect to the hiſtory of theſe iſlands, they were the firſt-fruits of the New World diſcovered by Columbus; we have already obſerved that he landed in Cat-iſland, which was then called Guanahani; but was called by Columbus St. Salvador, and it owes its preſent name to the Engliſh inhabitants. The native Indians, a ſimple, harmleſs, inoffenſive people, received the firſt diſcoverers with the utmoſt aſtoniſhment, flocked in crouds to the European veſſels, and admired every thing they ſaw; but though they behaved in a moſt inoffenſive manner, the Spaniards after Columbus's time, not thinking thoſe iſlands worth making a ſettlement upon, to the diſgrace of humanity, extirpated all the natives they found, though they were very numerous; and thus wantonly murdered many thouſands of innocent perſons, without any advantage to themſelves.

Theſe iſlands lying out of the courſe of ſhips bound to the continent of America, it was long before they were known to the Engliſh: but in 1667 captain William Sayle, in a voyage to Carolina, was forced among them in a ſtorm, and had an opportunity of examining them carefully, particularly a large iſland to which he at firſt gave his own name; but being a ſecond time driven upon it, gave it the name of Providence.

On his return to England he let the proprietors of Carolina know the ſituation and circumſtances of theſe iſlands, obſerving, that in caſe they were ſettled, they might not only be a great benefit to this nation, but be a conſtant check on the French and Spaniards, if a breach ſhould happen between either or both of thoſe nations. Theſe reaſons being mentioned to king Charles II. that prince made a grant of the Bahama iſlands to George duke of Albemarle, Anthony lord Aſhley, John lord Berkeley, William lord Craven, Sir George Carteret, and Sir Peter Colleton.

The firſt governor ſent by the proprietors to Providence-Iſland was Mr. Chillingworth, who ſailed thither about the year 1672, when ſeveral people from England and the other colonies went to ſettle there; but living a licentious life, and Mr. Chillingworth endeavouring to bring them to reaſon, they aſſembled in a tumultuous

manner, and having ſeized him ſhipped him off for Jamaica, and then lived as they thought proper. Though a colony ſo unruly afforded little encouragement for any man to put himſelf in their power; yet, ſix or ſeven years after, the proprietors made Mr. Clarke governor, whoſe fate was much worſe than that of his predeceſſor; for, the Spaniards, jealous of every new Engliſh colony towards the ſouth, landed in Providence-Iſland, deſtroyed all the ſtock which the inhabitants could not carry off, and burnt their houſes. But what is ſtill more extraordinary, Mr. Trott, one of Mr. Clarke's ſucceſſors, always aſſerted, that after the Spaniards had killed Mr. Clarke, they roaſted him on a ſpit. This is indeed very improbable; it is however certain that he was killed, and that the people removing to other colonies, the iſland remained uninhabited till about the time of the Revolution, when a number of perſons removed thither from Europe and the continent of America, and the proprietors appointed a new governor.

About ten years after Providence and the adjacent iſlands contained near a thouſand inhabitants, ſome tobacco was planted, a ſugar-mill was ſet up, and other improvements were made; but in 1708 the Spaniards and French landed, ſurprized the fort, took the governor priſoner, plundered and ſtripped the Engliſh, burnt the town of Naſſau, together with the church, ruined the fort, and nailed up the guns; after which they carried off the governor, and about half the blacks, the reſt ſaving themſelves in the woods; but within about a month they returned, and took moſt of the negroes who were left. After this ſecond invaſion the Engliſh inhabitants of the Bahamas thinking it in vain to ſtay any longer, diſperſed, removing to Carolina, Virginia, New England, and other places. Mean while the proprietors appointed one Mr. Birch to go over governor, who landing in Providence, and finding it a deſart, did not give himſelf the trouble to open his commiſſion; but after remaining there two or three months, during which he ſlept in a tent erected in the woods, he returned back, and left the place uninhabited.

The Bahama iſlands at length becoming a receptacle for pirates, the houſe of lords, conſidering that it would be of fatal conſequence ſhould they fall into the hands of an enemy, addreſſed her majeſty queen Anne, that the iſland of Providence might be put into a poſture of defence; but this advice being neglected, their lordſhips four years after addreſſed king George I. on the ſame ſubject, who was pleaſed to give directions for diſlodging the pirates, making ſettlements, and erecting a fortification. Captain Woodes Rogers, who was now appointed governor, ſailed for Providence in 1718, with a naval force for ſubduing the pirates. In the mean while colonel Bennet, governor of the Bermudas, ſent a ſloop to the iſland, ordering them to ſurrender, purſuant to a late proclamation. Thoſe who were on ſhore gladly accepted the mercy offered them, adding, that they did not doubt but their companions who were at ſea would follow their example. Accordingly captain Henry Jennings, and fifteen others, followed the ſloop to the Bermudas, and ſurrendered themſelves. Soon after four other captains, with a hundred and fourteen of their men, likewiſe ſurrendered. But Vane, one of the captains of the pirates, knowing that captain Rogers was coming to reduce thoſe robbers by proclamation, or by force, ſet fire to a French ſhip of twenty-two guns, which he had taken, in order to burn the Roſe frigate, which had juſt arrived at Naſſau: however, the Roſe got off by cutting her cables, and though the governor, with two men of war, then entered the harbour, Vine, and about fifty of his men, made off in a ſloop; and, notwithſtanding the governor ſent a veſſel after them, they made their eſcape.

Mr. Rogers having taken poſſeſſion of the fort, cauſed his majeſty's commiſſion to be read in the preſence of the officers, ſoldiers, and about three hundred people, whom he found there at his arrival, and who had been almoſt daily exerciſed in arms for their defence in caſe of an attack from the French or Spaniards; and the governor brought with him above a hundred ſoldiers, who, with the others, were judged ſufficient to ſecure the iſland. He began to regulate the government, and nominated ſix of the adventurers who came with him to be of the council, to which he added ſix out of ſuch of the inhabitants that had never been pirates. Two hundred more of the pirates ſoon after ſurrendered, and a few years after the number of the inhabitants was computed at fifteen hundred, out of whom were formed three companies of militia, who took their turn every night in the town guard at Naſſau. The face of affairs being thus changed, the town of Naſſau was rebuilt, and plantations laid out. Soon after the neighbouring iſland of Eleuthera was likewiſe ſettled; about ſixty families fixing themſelves there, erected a ſmall fort for their defence. The like was done in Harbour Iſland, where the plantations ſoon grew more conſiderable, and a larger fort was built for the protection of the inhabitants. Cat Iſland was alſo ſettled. Captain Rogers likewiſe defeated the Spaniards, who, after three ſeveral preparations, attacked him with two thouſand men, which force he repulſed, and burnt two of their ſhips of war in their retreat. At length Mr. Rogers returned to England, and was ſucceeded in his government by captain Fitz-Williams; and ever ſince this laſt ſettlement of theſe iſlands they have been continually improving, though they advance but ſlowly.

SECT. IV.

Of JAMAICA.

Its Situation, Extent, Face of the Country, and Climate.

JAMAICA, the largeſt of all the Britiſh iſlands in America, was named by Columbus St. Jago, which it retained while in the poſſeſſion of the Spaniards; but after its being taken by the Engliſh, it obtained its ancient name. It extends from ſeventy-five degrees fifty-ſeven minutes weſt longitude from London to the ſeventy-eighth degree thirty-ſeven minutes weſt longitude, and from the ſeventeenth degree forty-eight minutes to the eighteenth degree fifty minutes north latitude; it being about a hundred and ſixty miles in its greateſt length from Point Negril on the weſt to Point Morant on the eaſt, and ſeventy in its greateſt breadth from the Pitch of Portland on the ſouth to Gallina Point on the north; but grows leſs towards each end. It lies near four thouſand five hundred miles ſouth-weſt of England, a hundred and ſeventy leagues to the northward of Porto Bello and Carthagena, twenty leagues ſouth of Cuba, and twenty-four to the weſt of Hiſpaniola.

The iſland being within the tropic, has the trade wind continually there: it is on the ſouth ſide of the iſland, and is called the ſea-breeze. It comes about eight o'clock in the morning, and increaſes till twelve at noon, and decreaſes as the ſun grows lower, till there is none at four in the afternoon. The land breeze begins about eight in the evening, blowing four leagues into the ſea; it continues increaſing till twelve at night, and decreaſes again till four. Thus, as the land-wind blows at night, and the ſea-breeze during the day, no ſhips can come into port except in the day, nor go out but at break of day, or ſoon after.

The whole iſland is divided into one continued ridge of hills, which run from eaſt to weſt through the middle of it, and are generally called the Blue Mountains, on each ſide of which are hills much lower. The mountainous part is very ſteep, and the higheſt hills on the north and ſouth ſides are ſurrounded by very deep channels made by the violent rains, which almoſt every day fall on the mountains, and firſt wearing a ſmall channel for their paſſage, and afterwards carrying all before them, make their channels extremely deep. Moſt of the ſavannas, or plains, cleared of wood and fit for paſture, lie near the ſouth ſide of the iſland; they reſemble our meadow land, and a perſon may ride ſeveral miles without meeting with the leaſt aſcent: ſome of theſe plains are within land environed with hills; after rain they are very green and fertile; but after a long drought look yellow and parched.

The principal harbours in the iſland are Port Royal, which is fine and capacious; Old Harbour, which lies ſeven or eight miles weſt of St. Jago; Port Morant, at the eaſt end of the iſland; and Port Negril, at the weſt end; beſides which there are ſeveral others on the ſouth

and

and north ſides; but it is dangerous approaching the coaſt without a pilot on account of the coral rocks, with which it is almoſt encompaſſed.

With reſpect to the rivers of Jamaica, they are ſaid to amount to near a hundred, yet none of them are navigable; for riſing in the mountains in the middle of the iſland, they precipitate themſelves down the rocks to the north and ſouth, falling into the ſea before they have run many miles, frequently carrying down with them large trees and great pieces of rocks; and ſeveral of theſe rivers have cataracts fifty or ſixty feet high. However, in dry years water is very ſcarce in the ſavannas at a diſtance from the rivers; ſo that many cattle die with driving to water. It is remarkable that ſome of the rivers in the mountains in ſeveral places riſe above and ſink under ground, and in particular the Rio d' Oro falls and riſes two or three times. Another peculiarity is, that ſome of the ſprings and rivers petrify their channels by encruſting them with a cement which unites the gravel and ſand in their bottoms.

There are alſo ſeveral hot ſprings, and many others that are ſalt and form lakes, particularly Riotto, a lake that receives a great deal of water, and yet has no viſible diſcharge. In theſe, and in ponds formed by ſea-water, great plenty of ſalt is made, by the heat exhaling the moiſture.

The mountains, and indeed the greateſt part of the iſland, are covered with fine woods that never loſe their verdure, but look for ever green, and are gay in every ſeaſon. The beauties of December equal the bloom of April: you ſee a thouſand various kinds of trees adorning the brow of every hill, irregularly mixing their different branches, appearing in a gay kind of confuſion, forming groves and cool retreats: the cedar, the mahogany, the lignum vitæ, and unnumbered others mingling their boughs; ſome rearing their lofty heads, and others thriving under their friendly ſhade. Nor are the beauties of the better cultivated valleys inferior to theſe; they too wear the verdant robe of nature, and pleaſe no leſs when they are laid out with the niceſt art and care, and produce the richeſt plants, as the ſugar cane, the ginger, pimento, and others, which are more valuable to their owners than a ſhare in the mines of Potoſi or Peru. They likewiſe boaſt of the fineſt orange and lemon-trees in great plenty. Fruit is ſo common that few regard them; on the way ſides you may pick the citron, the ſtar-apple, the guava, and the mamee; and every thing reſembles a kind of paradiſe. But theſe advantages are balanced by many diſagreeable circumſtances: the rivers contain the dreadful alligator, the fens and marſhes the guana and galliwaſp, with numberleſs ſnakes and noxious animals. You are expoſed during great part of the year to the ſcorching heat of the ſultry ſun, and the warm climate renders the iſland ſickly.

The longeſt day in ſummer is about thirteen hours, and the ſhorteſt in winter about eleven. At nine in the forenoon the air grows intolerably hot, and could ſcarce be endured were it not for the ſea-breeze already mentioned. Indeed the hot and moiſt temperament of the air would ſoon bring on peſtilential diſeaſes, that would in a ſhort time turn all to a deſart, had not the wiſe Contriver of all things prepared thoſe friendly gales, the ſea and land breezes, to temper the air and render it ſo refreſhing, that none need be afraid of going about their lawful employments.

The nights are ſometimes pretty cool, and the dews are ſo great within land, that in a morning the water drops from the leaves of the trees, as if it had rained; and a man riding in the night will find his cloaths and hair very wet in a ſhort time. Theſe cold and piercing dews, which happen every night after the pores have been opened by the extraordinary heat of the day, are juſtly reckoned extremely unwholeſome, and new-comers who expoſe themſelves to their influence ſeldom eſcape without a ſevere ſickneſs.

Inſtead of dividing the year into ſpring, ſummer, autumn, and winter, its only diviſions are the dry and wet ſeaſons; nor are theſe regular, but vary in many parts of the iſland. Thus about the Blue Mountain valley, and ſeveral hilly places, they have more or leſs rain every day in the year, and plant the ſugar-cane at the ſame time they are cutting others for uſe. On the north ſide the ſeaſons are pretty regular; they begin to plant in Auguſt, and continue till Chriſtmas, all which time they are ſure of rain; after that till the end of March they have none; but then it begins again, and continues during the months of April and May. Several parts of the iſland, which were once the choiceſt and richeſt ſpots, and had fine ſugar-works, which uſed annually to produce many hundred hogſheads of that valuable commodity, are now only fit for grazing cattle, they being dry for almoſt nine months in the year. This is aſcribed to the cutting down of the woods; for the trees gathered and retained great quantities of vapours, which were diffuſed in rain. The months of July, Auguſt, and September, are called the hurricane months, becauſe then they have been obſerved to happen moſt frequently.

It lightens almoſt every night, but without much thunder, which when it happens is very terrible; it roars with aſtoniſhing loudneſs, and the lightning in theſe violent ſtorms frequently does a great deal of damage. In February or March they expect earthquakes, which have ſometimes been as dreadful as any recorded in hiſtory; theſe we ſhall hereafter have occaſion to mention. Indeed the innabitants obſerve ſeveral days in the year in a ſolemn manner on account of ſtorms and earthquakes.

According to the beſt obſervations, there is not one-third of the country inhabited; there are indeed plantations round the iſland, but none at any great diſtance from the ſea; and even theſe are ſo far from being cultivated, that the greateſt part of the ground is not cleared, but is overgrown with wood; for a gentleman who has a patent for three or four thouſand acres, has perhaps five hundred of them well laid out and improved, and the reſt is uſeleſs: yet the ſoil is in ſome places ſo exceeding fertile, that one acre has been known to yield ſeveral hogſheads of ſugar.

SECT. V.

Of the Vegetables of Jamaica, with a particular Deſcription of the Sugar Plant, its Culture, and the Manner of making Sugar; the Pimento Tree, the Cacao or Chocolate Tree, the wild Cinnamon Coffee Tree, and Ginger; with a conciſe Account of the Beaſts, Birds, Inſects, and Fiſhes.

NO ſorts of European grain grow here; they have only maize, or Indian corn, Guinea corn, peaſe of various kinds, but none of them reſembling ours, with variety of roots. Fruit, as hath been already obſerved, grow in great plenty, citrons, Seville and China oranges, common and ſweet lemons, limes, ſhadocks, pomegranates, mamees, ſourſops, papas, pine-apples, cuſtard-apples, ſtar-apples, prickly pears, allicada pears, melons, pompions, guavas, tamarinds, and ſeveral kinds of berries, which are every where to be found in the roads.

The ſugar-plant grows in a long ſtalk, or cane, divided by joints, two, three, four, or five inches aſunder, and about ſix feet high; the ſprouts and leaves at the top riſing ſo as to make it near eight feet in all. The body of the cane ſeldom exceeds an inch in diameter, the colour of its tops is a pure graſs-green; but the cane itſelf when ripe, yellowiſh. It is covered with a thin ſkin or bark, and is of a white ſpongy ſubſtance full of juice, which the ſervants and others ſuck; and nothing is pleaſanter and more nouriſhing when it is ripe, and taken with moderation. Upon this occaſion, they cut the rind, and put the ſpongy part into the mouth, when the juice will come more freely than the honey out of the comb. This ſweetneſs is extremely agreeable, and far from being furfeiting; the juice is a little thicker than that of an apple, and without the leaſt ill taſte. Of this juice are made ſugar, rum, and molaſſes.

The ſeaſon for planting ſugar canes is from Auguſt to the beginning of December, and they do not arrive to maturity, till they have been a year and a half in the ground. Their manner of growing is in ſprouts, three, four, or five from one root. The cane-tops make very good food for horſes and black cattle; but the ſolid canes are carried to the mill.

They

They are planted by digging long trenches in the earth, about ſix inches deep, and as many broad, laying a double row of canes along in the trench, one by another, then the earth is thrown in, and another trench dug at about two feet diſtance, till all the land is planted by laying the canes along. Thus they produce the greateſt number of ſprouts; for this way a branch ſhoots out of every joint of the cane. The firſt planters uſed to thruſt a piece of cane perpendicularly into a hole, at certain diſtances, which yielded no ſhoot but from the top, and having three or four ſprouts whoſe whole weight depended on one root, when they grew tall and heavy, the ſtorms looſened the roots; but by this new way of planting the root is ſecured, and the produce increaſed. They come up ſoon after they are planted, and in about twelve weeks they grow two feet high.

The next care of the planter is to weed the canes, and to dung them; but this laſt is done either when they are planted or when they are grown two feet high, and this is the greateſt trouble and expence the planter is at; for was it not for this dunging, a third part of the negroes would do his buſineſs.

When the canes are ripe they are cut down, ſtripped of their leaves and tops, bundled up in faggots, and carried to the mill by mules, or in carts drawn by horſes. The mills are turned by oxen or horſes; and ſome ſubſtantial planters have erected wind-mills: there the juice is preſſed out by wooden rollers caſed with iron, and at the bottom of the mill is a hollow place which receives the juice, from whence it is conveyed by leaden pipes into a ciſtern near the boiling-houſe, where it muſt not remain above one day, for fear it ſhould grow ſour. From thence it is conveyed through a gutter fixed to the walls of the boiling-houſe to the clarifying-copper, or boiler, and there boiled till all the groſs matter riſing to the top is ſkimmed off. It is then carried into a ſecond, and ſo into a third, fourth, fifth, ſixth, and ſeventh; and is continually kept ſtirring and boiling till it comes to a conſiſtency; and yet all this boiling would only reduce it to a thick clammy ſubſtance; but to turn it to grain they pour in ſome lime-water, on which the ſugar begins to riſe up with a turbulent and ungovernable fury, occaſioned by the fermentation of the liquor from the lime-water and the vehement heat of the fire; when, to prevent its running over, they throw in a ſmall piece of tallow no bigger than a nut, which ſoon makes it fall. The liquor is at length emptied into a cooler, where it remains till it is fit to be potted. The pots are wide at the top, they taper downwards, and a hole is left for the molaſſes to drain. In refining the ſugar, the firſt degree of pureneſs is permitting the molaſſes to drain away with the top of the pot open, by which means the air hardens the ſugar, before it has time to refine by ſeparation. The ſecond degree is procured by covering the pots at the top with clay; the firſt requires but one month to refine, and the other four.

We ſhall now deſcribe the principal trees, and ſhall begin with the pimento, which produces Jamaica pepper, or allſpice. It is as thick as a man's thigh, and riſes ſtraight above thirty feet, covered with a very ſmooth ſkin of a grey colour: it is branched out on every hand, having the end of its twigs ſet with leaves of ſeveral ſizes, the largeſt being four or five inches long, and two or three broad in the middle, whence it decreaſes in both extremes ending in a point. The ends of the twigs are branched into bunches of flowers, each ſtalk ſuſtaining a flower bending back, within which bend are many ſtamina of a pale green colour; theſe flowers have a branch of crowned berries, the crown being made up of four ſmall leaves, at firſt greeniſh; but when ripe is black, ſmooth, and ſhining, containing in a moiſt green aromatic pulp two large ſeeds ſeparated by a membrane. This tree grows in all the hilly parts of the iſland; but chiefly on the north ſide. It flowers in June, July, and Auguſt, and the fruit ſoon ripens. There is no difficulty in curing the pimento, or Jamaica pepper: they climb the trees, and pull the green unripe fruit, which they expoſe to the ſun till it becomes of a brown colour, and is fit for the market. According to Sir Hans Sloane, this is the beſt, the moſt temperate, mild, and innocent of all ſpices.

The body of the cacao, or chocolate-nut tree, is commonly about four inches in diameter, and it is about twelve from the ground to the top of the tree; the chocolate-nuts grow in pods, or long ſhells, ſhaped like a cucumber, each having three, four, or five kernels of about the ſize of cheſnuts, ſeparated from each other by a pleaſant refreſhing white ſubſtance, nearly of the conſiſtence of the pulp of a roaſted apple, moderately ſharp and ſweet. A bearing tree generally yields from two to eight pounds of nuts a year. The manner of curing them is to cut them down when ripe, and lay them in a heap to ſweat three or four days in the pods; after this the pods are cut, the nuts taken out, put in a trough, and covered with plantain leaves, where they ſweat again about ſixteen or twenty days. After this they are put to dry three or four weeks in the ſun, and then they become of a reddiſh dark colour. The pods grow only out of the body, or great limbs and boughs, and at the ſame time there are bloſſoms, with young and ripe fruit on the ſame tree.

The wild cinnamon is about twenty or thirty feet high, having many branches and twigs hanging downward, which form a very handſome top. The bark conſiſts of two parts, one outward and another inward; the outward is thin, of a whitiſh grey colour, and of an aromatic taſte: the inward bark is much thicker than cinnamon, paler, and of a much more biting and aromatic taſte, ſomething like that of cloves. The leaves ſhoot out near the ends of the twigs without any order, ſtanding on foot ſtalks, each of them two inches in length, and one in breadth. They are of a yelloviſh green colour, and are ſmooth and ſhining, without any inciſures about their edges. The ends of the twigs are branched into bunches of ſcarlet or purple flowers, which falling off, are ſucceeded by cluſters of roughiſh green berries, of the ſize of a large pea, that contain a pale green thin pulp, and four black ſhining ſeeds of an irregular figure. All the parts of this tree, when freſh, are very hot and aromatic; but the inward bark of the tree is what is chiefly in uſe both in the Engliſh plantations in the Weſt Indies and in Europe, and it is eaſily cured by only cutting off the bark, and letting it dry in the ſhade. The ordinary ſort of people in the Weſt Indies uſe it inſtead of all other ſpices, it being thought very good to conſume the immoderate humidity of the ſtomach, to help digeſtion, and expel wind. Rum loſes its diſagreeable ſmell if mixed with this bark.

Coffee is now much cultivated here: it is a large ſhrub, with leaves of a dark green; the berries grow in great cluſters, and one buſh will produce ſeveral pounds. The berry is incloſed in a fine ſcarlet pulp, which is too luſcious to be palatable; however, many eat it. When it is ripe it turns black, and then they gather the fruit, ſeparate the berries from the huſk, and expoſe them to the ſun till they are well cured and fit for the market.

Here are alſo the cabbage-tree, the cedar, and the maſtic tree, which grow to a great height; the mahogony tree, the cotton tree, the manchineel, and a great number of others. The iſland likewiſe abounds in abundance of dyers woods, as fuſtic, red-wood, logwood, and others.

Among the drugs and medicinal herbs are guaiacum, china root, ſarſaparilla, caſſia, vanilloes, ginger, &c. Ginger ſhoots forth blades from its root not unlike thoſe of wheat. The ſtalk ſeldom exceeds eighteen inches in height; from its ſides grow ſharp-pointed leaves about five inches long, the extremity of the ſtalk ending in a ſoft pointed ſpire. When the plant is dug up, the roots are races of ginger, which are ſcraped clean, and dried in the ſun. The uſual time of planting this root is in May and June, and of digging it up in February and March.

Among the animals are the land and ſea-turtle, and the alligator. Here are all ſorts of fowl wild and tame, and in particular more parrots than in any of the other iſlands; beſides parrokeets, pelicans, ſnipes, teal, Guinea hens, geeſe, ducks, and turkies; the humming-bird, and a great variety of others. The rivers and bays abound with fiſh.

With respect to the reptiles and insects, the mountains breed numberless adders and other noxious animals, as the fens and marshes do the guana and galliwasp; but these last are not venomous. Among the insects are the ciron, or chegoe, which eats into the nervous and membranous parts of the flesh of the negroes, and the white people are sometimes plagued with them. They get into the toes and eat the flesh to the very bone. These insects get into any part of the body, but chiefly the legs and feet, where they breed in great numbers, and shut themselves up in a bag. As soon as ever a person feels them, which is not perhaps till a week after they have been in the body, they pick them out with a needle or the point of a penknife, taking care to destroy the bag entirely, that none of the breed, which are like nits, may be left behind.

SECT. VI.

The Food, Dress, Buildings, Learning, Coin, Distempers, Manners, and Customs of the Inhabitants of Jamaica; their Treatment of their Servants, and their Cruelty to their Slaves.

THE common bread here is plantain, yams, and cassava; the first is of an oblong form, grows in clusters on the tree, and when pulled green and roasted eats very deliciously. The yams are a kind of potatoe, but of a much larger size, some of them weighing several pounds. Cassava is the root of a shrub taken and squeezed, the juice being a mortal poison, though when properly prepared it is very wholesome and agreeable food; when dry it is grated and put in water, where it stands a considerable time; the water being poured off, and the flour dried, it is made into cakes, and baked on a griddle over the fire. These cakes are white and crisp, and are preferred by the Creoles to any other bread whatever. These several kinds of food are not peculiar to this island, since they are eaten in most of the other islands and on the continent of North America. They do not want flour, for this they obtain from New England and other of our northern colonies. In every house they have an oven, and bake as they find occasion.

There are such plenty of hogs, that many plantations have several hundreds of them, and their flesh is exceeding sweet and delicate. Their beef, however, is tough and lean; but the mutton and lamb are tolerable; however, the cattle bred on the island are but very few. The sheep have their wool resembling the hair of a goat, and they seem to be of a larger size than ours. They have variety of wild-fowl, as well as common poultry; and the tortoise, or turtle caught on the coast are much admired. They have also salt cod from Newfoundland, and a great deal of salt beef from Ireland and the plantations on the continent, for the servants are seldom allowed fresh provisions.

The common drink for persons in affluent circumstances is Madeira wine mixed with water; while those of inferior rank drink rum punch, which being frequently drank to excess, has obtained the name of kill-devil; for thousands lose their lives by it, especially those who are just come to the island; for they cannot drink it to excess without exposing themselves to imminent danger; as by heating the blood, it brings on fevers, which in a few hours send them to the grave. They have also ale and claret, but they are extravagantly dear.

With respect to dress, the heat renders many cloaths insupportable, and therefore the men generally wear only thread stockings, linen drawers, a vest, a handkerchief tied round the head, and a hat upon it. Wigs are never used but on Sundays, or in court time, and then gentlemen appear very gay in coats of silk, and vests trimmed with silver. The servants wear a coarse linen frock, which buttons at the neck and hands, long trowsers of the same, a checked shirt, and no stockings. The negroes generally go naked, except those who attend gentlemen, who take care to have them dressed in their own livery.

The ladies make as gay an appearance as any-where in Europe; they dress as rich, and appear with as good a grace. Their morning habit is a loose night-gown, carelessly wrapped about them; before dinner they put off their dishabille, and show themselves in all the advantage of a rich, neat, and becoming dress. The servant-maids have generally a cotton or striped Holland gown, and plain head-cloaths. Many of the negro women in the country go quite naked; for they do not know what shame is, and are surprized at an European's bashfulness; but in the towns they are obliged to wear a kind of petticoat, and some of them are neatly dressed.

The gentlemen's houses are generally built low of one story, and consist of five or six handsome apartments beautifully lined and floored with mahogany; they have generally a piazza, to which is an ascent by several steps, and this serves as a screen against the heat. In the towns are several houses two stories high; but this is disapproved of, because they are seldom known to stand the shock of an earthquake, or the fury of a storm. The negroes have nothing but a parcel of poor miserable huts built with reeds.

There are few gardens that deserve notice; the chief curiosities they produce are English peas, cabbages, some kinds of European fruits, and others peculiar to the climate. The apple tree seldom comes to any perfection, and bears but a very few years; the same may also be said of other fruits that thrive with us: indeed the plants and fruits which flourish there would alone be sufficient to render them more delightful than can be imagined; but they despise the orange, the lemon, the cacao, and pomegranate; and prefer to the fine shade and fragrance of these a number of shrubs that are of no manner of use.

Learning is here at a low ebb: there are indeed a few gentlemen well versed in literature; but the generality seem to have a greater affection for gaming than for useful learning. Indeed those whose fortunes can allow it, frequently send their children to Great Britain, where they have the advantage of a polite and liberal education; but in general a boy, till he is seven or eight years of age, spends his time with the servants and negroes, acquires their broken way of talking, and their manner of behaviour. He then, perhaps, goes to school; but young master must not be corrected; if he learns it is well, if not it cannot be helped. After learning to read he goes to the dancing-school, commences beau, and then visits and rakes with his equals. Some of the ladies read; they are all fond of dancing, but take little care to improve their minds.

The current coin is entirely Spanish, and English money is seldom seen, except in the cabinets of the curious. There is no place perhaps where silver is so plentiful; they use no copper, and the lowest piece is a ryal, which here passes for seven-pence halfpenny; but a half-penny in Britain will go farther. You cannot dine for less than a piece of eight, and the common rate of boarding is three pounds a week. The difference between their money and British is twenty-five per cent. thus seventy-five pounds sterling make one hundred pounds Jamaica currency.

The common distempers here are high fevers and the belly-ach. The fevers are generally extremely violent, and a few hours wil carry off the person afflicted by this disorder. Few miss it on their first arrival, and for this reason many die as soon as they come to Jamaica. The belly-ach, or dry-gripes, is perhaps the severest pain that can be endured; it frequently takes away the use of their limbs, which are never recovered. The common remedies for this disease are gentle doses of physic and clysters. After they are somewhat recovered, the cold bath proves of great use in restoring them to their former vigour. The physicians here generally make fine estates, and Jamaica has had several of them who have made a considerable figure in the learned world.

This island contains three sorts of inhabitants, masters, servants, and slaves. Some of the gentlemen are extremely polite, and use their inferiors with a great deal of good nature. However, most of them have a haughty disposition, and require great submission; but a stranger, who knows how to apply to their humour, generally gets into good business; yet, those who are so unfortunate as to mistake it, may look for business in another place.

The ſervants who behave well are reſpected and encouraged; thoſe who are found honeſt, and worthy of their truſt, ſometimes not only dine on the ſame proviſions with their maſters, but wear as good cloaths, are allowed a horſe when they go abroad, and a negro boy to attend them. But others, who are either ſtupid or roguiſh, are hardly uſed, often put in the ſtocks, and beat very ſeverely: their ſalt proviſions are weighed out, and they have nothing but what the law obliges the maſter to give. The ſervants labour is not very hard, it being much leſs than that of the day-labourers in Great Britain. Thoſe who have no trade, by which they can be of ſervice to their maſter, are only employed in looking after the negroes at work, or in overſeeing the boiling of the ſugar.

The condition of the blacks is indeed much worſe, their ſervitude being perpetual, and they are obliged to toil for the benefit of others without the leaſt advantage to themſelves, and the moſt trivial error is puniſhed with a terrible whipping. "I am inclined to touch the hard-"ſhips which theſe poor creatures ſuffer in the tendereſt "manner, (ſays our author, who ſeems to be a perſon "of judgment and candor) from a particular regard which "I owe to many of their maſters; but I cannot conceal "their ſad circumſtances entirely. I have ſeen ſome of "them ſcourged in the moſt cruel manner for no other "reaſon, but to ſatisfy the brutiſh pleaſure of an over-"ſeer, who has their puniſhment moſtly at his diſcretion. "I have ſeen their bodies all in a gore of blood, the ſkin "torn off their backs with a cruel whip, beaten pepper "and ſalt rubbed in the wounds, and a large ſtick of "ſealing-wax dropped leiſurely on them. It is no won-"der if the horrid pain of ſuch inhuman tortures incline "them to rebel. At the ſame time it muſt be confeſſed, "that they are generally perverſe, which is owing to "the many diſadvantages they lie under, and the bad "example they daily ſee." We could wiſh that it was poſſible to diſprove this account. There are no doubt many perſons of humanity in Jamaica; but when the laſh is committed to abandoned wretches inſenſible to humanity, and who have been tranſported from England for their crimes, it cannot be wondered at, that wretches like theſe, when raiſed to power, ſhould prove ſavage and inhuman tyrants.

They, however, are not the only perſons guilty: the laws themſelves are in the extremeſt degree inhuman, and no countty in the world exceeds them in the cruel methods by which they put theſe unhappy negroes to death. A rebellious black, or he that twice ſtrikes a white man, is condemned to the flames: he is carried to the place of execution, and chained flat on his belly, with his legs and arms extended; then fire is ſet to his feet, and he is burnt gradually up. Others they ſtarve to death, with a loaf hanging before their mouths. "I have ſeen theſe "unfortunate wretches, ſays our author, gnaw the fleſh "off their ſhoulders, and expire in all the frightful "agonies of one under the moſt horrid tortures. Per-"haps indeed, he adds, ſuch ſeverities may be in ſome "ſort excuſed, when we conſider the ſtate of the coun-"try, and how impoſſible it would be to live amidſt ſuch "numbers of ſlaves, without watching their conduct "with the greateſt ſtrictneſs, and puniſhing their faults "with the utmoſt ſeverity." *A new Hiſtory of Jamaica in thirteen Letters to a Friend.*

But ſurely ſuch inhumanity can be in no caſe neceſſary. We cannot here help borrowing the words of the judicious author of a work lately publiſhed, entitled, *An Account of the European Settlements*, who, after obſerving, that, notwithſtanding the great care taken to make them propagate, the ill treatment they receive ſo ſhortens their lives, that inſtead of encreaſing by the courſe of nature, many thouſands are annually imported to ſupply the place of thoſe who die by the hardſhips they receive, then adds, "I know "that they are ſtubborn and untractable for the moſt "part, and that they muſt be ruled with a rod of iron. "I would have them ruled, but not cruſhed with it. I "would have a humanity exerciſed which is conſiſtent "with ſteadineſs. And I think it clear, from the whole "courſe of hiſtory, that thoſe nations which have be-"haved with the greateſt humanity to their ſlaves, were "always beſt ſerved, and ran the leaſt hazard from their "rebellions. And I am the more convinced of the ne-"ceſſity of theſe indulgencies, as ſlaves cannot go through "ſo much work as freemen. The mind goes a great way "in every thing; and when a man knows that his labour "is for himſelf, and that the more he labours the more "he is to acquire, this conſciouſneſs carries him through, "and ſupports him beneath the fatigues under which he "would have otherwiſe ſunk.

"The principal time I would have reſerved for the "indulgence I propoſe to be granted to the ſlaves is Sun-"day, a day which is profaned in a manner altogether "ſcandalous in our colonies. On this day I would have "them regularly attend at church; I would have them, "particularly the children, carefully inſtructed in the "principles of religion and virtue, and eſpecially in the "humility, ſubmiſſion, and honeſty which become their "condition. The reſt of the day might be devoted to in-"nocent recreation. To theſe days of relaxation, and "with the ſame exerciſes, ſhould be added ſome days in "the grand feſtivals of Chriſtmas, Eaſter, and Whitſun-"tide; and perhaps four or five days in the year beſides. "Such methods would by degrees habituate their maſters "not to think them a ſort of beaſts, and without ſouls, "as ſome of them do at preſent, who treat them accord-"ingly; and the ſlaves would of courſe grow more ho-"neſt, tractable, and leſs of eye-ſervants; unleſs the "ſanction of religion, the precepts of morality, and all "the habits of an early inſtitution, be of no advantage "to mankind.

SECT. VII.

The Manners and Cuſtoms of the Negroes.

THE owners of theſe ſlaves ſet aſide for each a ſmall parcel of ground, and allow them the Sundays to cultivate it: in it they generally plant maize, Guinea corn, plantains, yams, cocoas, potatoes, &c. This is the food which ſupports them, unleſs ſome of them, who are more induſtrious than others, raiſe a ſtock of fowls, which they carry to market on the Sundays, the only market-day in Jamaica, and ſell for a little money, with which they purchaſe ſalt beef, fiſh, or pork, to make a diſh which they call pepper-pot.

Theſe ſlaves, on their firſt arrival from the coaſt of Guinea, are expoſed naked to ſale: they are then generally very ſimple and innocent creatures, but they ſoon become roguiſh enough; and when they come to be whipped, excuſe their faults by the example of the whites.

Their notions of religion are very inconſiſtent, and vary according to the different countries from which they come; but they join without diſtinction in their ſolemn ſacrifices and gambols. They generally believe that there are two gods, a good and a bad one: the good god they tell you lives in the clouds, and is very kind and favourable to mankind; for it was he that taught their fathers to till the ground, and to hunt for their ſubſiſtence: while the evil god ſends ſtorms, earthquakes, and all kinds of miſchief. Hence they love the former, and fear the latter. They have no idea of heaven, farther than the pleaſure of returning to their native country, whither they believe every negro goes after death. This thought is ſo agreeable, that it cheers the poor creatures, and renders the burthen of life eaſy, which would otherwiſe be quite intolerable. They look on death as a bleſſing, and it is ſurprizing to ſee with what courage and intrepidity ſome of them meet it; they are quite tranſported to think their ſlavery is near an end, that they ſhall reviſit their happy native ſhores, and ſee their old friends and acquaintance. When a negro is about to expire, his fellow-ſlaves kiſs him, wiſh him a good journey, and ſend their hearty good wiſhes to their relations in Guinea. They make no lamentations; but with a great deal of joy inter his body, firmly believing he is gone home and happy.

When any thing about a plantation is miſſing, they have a ſolemn kind of oath, which the eldeſt negro always adminiſters, and is by them accounted extremely ſacred; but this they never take without the expreſs command of their maſter or overſeer. They then range themſelves

ſelves in the ſpot of ground appropriated for the burying-place of the negroes, and one of them opens a grave, when he who acts the prieſt takes a little of the earth, and puts it into every one of their mouths, and they imagine that if any has been guilty their belly will ſwell and occaſion their death.

None of them are allowed to touch any arms, unleſs by their maſter's command; or to go out of the bounds of the plantation to which they belong, without a ſpecial permit ſigned by their owner or the chief overſeer. They are kept in ſuch awe, that they are afraid to let even the leaſt thought of liberty appear; and when they ſee the whites muſter and exerciſe, they are ſtruck with terror. This indeed is not the caſe with the Creolian negroes, who all of them ſpeak Engliſh, and are ſo far from fearing a muſter, that they are very familiar with it, and can exerciſe extremely well.

SECT. VIII.

The Diviſions and principal Towns of Jamaica, its Government, and Trade; with a particular Account of the Log-wood Cutters in the Bay of Honduras, and the Trade carried on with the Spaniards in America.

THE whole iſland is divided into nineteen diſtricts, or pariſhes, each of which ſends two members to the aſſembly, and allows a competent maintenance to a miniſter. Anciently Port Royal was the capital of the iſland; it ſtood upon the very point of a long narrow neck of land, which towards the ſea formed part of the border of a very noble harbour of its own name. In this harbour above a thouſand ſail of the largeſt ſhips could anchor with the greateſt convenience and ſafety; and the water was ſo deep at the quay of Port Royal, that veſſels of the greateſt burthen could lay their broad-ſides to the wharfs, and load and unload at very little expence or trouble. This convenience weighed ſo much with the inhabitants, that they choſe this ſpot for their capital, though the place was a hot dry ſand, that did not produce one of the neceſſaries of life, and not even freſh water. However, this advantageous ſituation rendered it a conſiderable place, and it contained two thouſand houſes very handſomely built, and that were lett at as high a rent as thoſe of London. It grew to all this in about thirty years time, and there were few places in the world which for the ſize could be compared to this town for trade, wealth, and an entire corruption of manners.

However, on the ninth of June, 1692, an earthquake, which ſhook the whole iſland to its foundations, overwhelmed this city, and buried nine-tenths of it eight fathoms under water. This earthquake not only demoliſhed the city, but made a terrible devaſtation all over the iſland, and was followed by a contagious diſeaſe which was near giving the finiſhing hand to its deſtruction.

The city was rebuilt after the earthquake, but it was again deſtroyed; for ten years after a terrible fire laid it in aſhes: yet the extraordinary convenience of the harbour induced the inhabitants to rebuild it once more. But in 1722 one of the moſt dreadful hurricanes on record reduced it a third time to a heap of rubbiſh. Warned by theſe extraordinary calamities, the cuſtom-houſe and public offices were removed from thence, and the principal inhabitants ſettled on the oppoſite ſide of the bay at the town of Kingſton. Port Royal has, however, three or four handſome ſtreets, ſeveral croſs lanes, a fine church, an hoſpital for ſick and diſabled ſoldiers, and a yard for the king's naval ſtores, with conveniences for the workmen employed about his majeſty's ſhips of war. The harbour is guarded by one of the ſtrongeſt forts in the Weſt Indies, which has a line of near a hundred pieces of cannon, and a garriſon of ſoldiers maintained at the expence of the crown.

Kingſton is commodiouſly ſeated for freſh water, and all manner of accommodations. The ſtreets are broad, perfectly ſtraight, and cut each other at equal diſtances and right angles. It is about a mile long, and contains above a thouſand houſes, many of them handſomely built, though low, with porticos, and every convenience for a comfortable habitation in that climate. Here the inferior courts ſit, and the receiver-general, ſecretary, and ſurveyor, are obliged to keep officers. It has one or two churches, the Jews have two ſynagogues, and the Quakers a meeting-houſe. The fortifications of the harbour were greatly improved by the late governor Knowles.

Not far from Kingſton the river Cobre, a conſiderable but not navigable ſtream, falls into the ſea; and upon its banks ſtands St. Jago de la Vega, or Spaniſh Town, the ſeat of the government, and the place where the courts of juſtice are held, and conſequently the metropolis of Jamaica, though it is inferior in ſize to Kingſton. However, though it has leſs buſineſs, it has more gaiety. Here reſide many perſons of large fortunes, who make a very ſplendid figure. It is ſurprizing to ſee the number of coaches and chariots perpetually plying, beſides thoſe belonging to private perſons. Here is a regular aſſembly, a theatre, in which plays are acted, and it being the reſidence of the governor, and the principal officers of the government, who have very profitable places, all conſpire with the genius of the inhabitants, which inclines them to an oſtentatious and expenſive way of life, to render it a very ſplendid and agreeable place.

We ſhall now proceed to give a ſummary account of the government of Jamaica. The king of Great Britain, as in all the other royal governments, appoints the governor and council, while the repreſentatives of the people are choſen by the freeholders. The governor is captain-general, admiral, and chancellor of the iſland; has power to iſſue out all ſorts of commiſſions; to ſummon and diſſolve aſſemblies; to make counſellors; to pardon all crimes, except treaſon or murder, and even for thoſe to grant a reprieve; to place and diſplace all officers who are not by patent: in a word, to act with ſovereign authority under his majeſty; and has a negative voice in all acts of the aſſembly. As he is chancellor, he is impowered to grant adminiſtrations and executorſhips of the eſtates of perſons dying inteſtate; and this laſt brings in a conſiderable profit. His ſtanding ſalary is two thouſand five hundred pounds a year; the aſſembly vote the governor as much more, and this, with the other great profits of his office, make it in the whole little inferior to ten thouſand pounds a year.

The council, who are twelve in number, are generally men of the beſt eſtates and quality in the country, and are appointed by letters of mandamus from the king. On the death or diſmiſſion of any of theſe, the governor nominates others to ſupply their places. It is their duty to adviſe and aſſiſt the governor, and even to be a check upon him, if he exceeds the bounds of his commiſſion. This body forms the upper houſe in the aſſembly, where it has the ſame power as the houſe of peers in England.

The grand court, which takes cognizance of all civil pleas, as well as of crimes that merit corporal puniſhment, ſits four times in the year. Their ſeſſion is limited to twenty-one days, during which they frequently diſpatch a great deal of buſineſs. The chief juſtice has ſix aſſiſtants, who are generally men of the greateſt knowledge, and of the faireſt characters. There are many inferior courts, who decide cauſes of leſs than twenty pounds value, and juſtice is generally impartially diſtributed, and without delay.

The militia is under the direction of officers appointed by the governor, and all from ſixteen to ſixty are obliged to enliſt.

The revenue of the iſland is reckoned to amount to ſeventy thouſand pounds, out of which are paid a great number of public officers, who have very large ſalaries.

The trade of Jamaica principally conſiſts in the following articles: firſt, ſugar, of which they imported in 1753 twenty thouſand three hundred and fifteen hogſheads, ſome ſo large as to be a ton weight; which cannot be worth leſs in England than four hundred twenty-four thouſand ſeven hundred and twenty-five pounds ſterling, moſt of which comes to London and Briſtol; and ſome part of it is ſent to North America, in return for the corn, peas, beef, pork, cheeſe, plank, ſtaves, pitch, and tar, which they obtain from thence. The ſecond is rum, of which they export about four thouſand puncheons. The third is molaſſes, in which they make a great

great part of their returns for New England, where there are great diſtilleries. Theſe are all the produce of their grand ſtaple the ſugar-cane. The fourth is cotton, of which they ſend out two thouſand bags. The fifth are various drugs, as cacao, coffee, a conſiderable quantity of pimento, ginger, ſweetmeats, drugs for dyers and apothecaries, mahogany, and manchaneel plank. Some of the moſt conſiderable articles of their trade are with the continent of New Spain and Terra Firma; for in the former they cut great quantities of logwood, and both in the former and latter carry on an extremely profitable trade in negroes, and all the kinds of European goods carried thither from Spain by the flota.

Both the logwood and contraband trade have been the ſubject of much contention, and even the cauſe of a war between England and Spain. The cutting of logwood in the bay of Honduras on the ſouthern ſide of the peninſula of Jucatan has been long claimed as a right by England, and this privilege was confirmed to his Britannic majeſty's ſubjects in the moſt expreſs terms by the late treaty of peace in 1763.

The logwood cutters are chiefly compoſed of vagabonds and fugitives from all parts of North America, and their way of life is ſuitable. They live in a kind of lawleſs manner, though they elect one among them whom they call their king, and to him pay as much obedience as they think fit. The country is low and extremely marſhy; the air moleſted by muſketoes, and the water dangerous with alligators; yet a life of licentiouſneſs, a plenty of rum, large gains, and a want of thought, have reconciled them both to the hardſhips of their employment and the unwholeſomeneſs of the climate. They go always well armed, and are ſaid to amount to about one thouſand five hundred men. This trade in ſome years employs near ſix tons of ſhipping, finds employment for a number of ſeamen, conſumes a great deal of our manufactures, and the value of returns are ſaid to be about ſixty thouſand pounds ſterling a year. This trade is generally carried on by veſſels from New England, New York, and Penſylvania, who take up the goods they want in Jamaica.

There is ſtill a more profitable trade carried on between this iſland and the Spaniſh continent, which has alſo been the cauſe of much diſpute between the courts of England and Spain. A ſhip from Jamaica having taken in negroes, and a proper aſſortment of goods there, proceeds in time of peace to a harbour called the Grout, about four miles from Porto Bello. A perſon who underſtands Spaniſh is directly ſent aſhore to give the merchants of the town notice of the arrival of the veſſel; the ſame news is likewiſe carried with great ſpeed to Panama, from whence the merchants ſet out diſguiſed like peaſants, carrying jars almoſt filled with ſilver; but the top covered with meal, to deceive the officers of the revenue. Here the ſhip frequently remains trading five or ſix weeks together. The Spaniards uſually come on board, leave their money, and take their negroes, and their goods packed up in parcels fit for one man to carry, after they have been firſt handſomely entertained on board, and received proviſions ſufficient for their journey home. If the whole cargo is not diſpoſed of here they bear off eaſtward to the Brew, a harbour about five miles from Carthagena, where they ſoon find a vent for the reſt. There is no trade more profitable than this; for they are payed in ready money, and the goods ſell higher than at any other market. It is not on this coaſt only but every where upon the Spaniſh main that this trade is carried on; nor is it by the Engliſh only, but the French from Hiſpaniola, the Dutch from Curaſſou, and even the Danes have ſome ſhare in it. However, when the Spaniſh guarda coſtas ſeize upon one of theſe veſſels, they make no ſcruple of confiſcating the cargo, and of treating the crew little better than if they were pirates.

SECT. IX.

A conciſe Hiſtory of Jamaica.

THE iſland of Jamaica was diſcovered by Columbus in his ſecond voyage, in the year 1594; his ſon Diego was the firſt European governor of the iſland, and built the city of St. Jago de la Vega, now Spaniſh Town. On the firſt arrival of the Spaniards the Indians appeared in arms, and bravely reſolved to maintain their liberties againſt theſe bold intruders; and had certainly been ſucceſsful, at leaſt for a while, had not the Spaniards at length taken the advantage of their ſimple natures, and deluded them by ſpecious ſhews of peace and well contrived proteſtations: but they in a ſhort time felt the diſmal effects of giving faith to the Spaniards, who were no ſooner in a condition of putting their bloody deſigns in practice, than they began a horrid maſſacre, murdered, butchered, and deſtroyed, in a few years, to the amount of ſixty thouſand of the natives, and ſcarce left one alive. Some took refuge in the woods, and retired to the caves and faſtneſſes, whither they were purſued and hunted by thoſe ſavage tyrants, and cut to pieces. Before this deſolation, Jamaica was one of the beſt peopled of all the Antilles; but ſuch was the deſtructive ſlaughter which the Spaniards made, that the very name of an Indian was in a few years rooted out, and none left to preſerve the memory of that once flouriſhing people.

This iſland was poſſeſſed by the Spaniards till Oliver Cromwell being ſenſible of the advantages they obtained from their provinces in America, ſent a conſiderable ſquadron of men of war, commanded by the generals Penn and Venables, in 1654, to take the fine iſland of Hiſpaniola. This they attempted, but being repulſed with loſs, the principal commanders fearing to return to England without ſucceſs, wiſely reſolved to try what could be done againſt the iſland of Jamaica, before the inhabitants of that iſland could receive encouragement by the news of their defeat in Hiſpaniola.

The fleet and troops ſoon arriving at Jamaica, they ſeverely puniſhed the officers who had ſhewn an ill example by their cowardice, and iſſued orders, that if any man attempted to run away, the next man to him ſhould put him to death; and if he failed to do it, he ſhould be liable to be tried for his life. Fortified with theſe reſolutions, the troops were no ſooner landed, than advancing towards the fort, they made themſelves maſters of it with little loſs, and the next morning, when the ſun aroſe, marched towards a ſavanna near the town, when ſome Spaniards advancing to meet them, deſired to treat. But this Venables refuſed, unleſs they would ſend his men a conſtant ſupply of proviſions, of which they were in great want. To this the Spaniards conſented, and having performed their promiſe, the following articles were agreed upon: That all the forts arms, ammunition, and neceſſaries of war, with all the ſhipping in the harbours of the iſland, and all wares, merchandize, &c. ſhould be delivered up for the uſe of the protector and the commonwealth of England. That all the inhabitants of the iſland, except ſome that were particularly named, ſhould have their lives granted. That thoſe who choſe it ſhould have leave to ſtay, and the others be carried to New Spain, or ſome other of his Catholic majeſty's American dominions; together with their apparel, books, and papers. That the commiſſion officers alone ſhould be permitted to wear their rapiers and poniards; and that the artificers and meaner ſort of people ſhould be permitted to remain in the iſland, and enjoy their goods, provided they conformed to the laws that ſhould be eſtabliſhed. Thus the whole iſland was reduced, and the conqueſt was confirmed to Great Britain by a ſubſequent treaty. However, many of the Spaniſh negroes retiring to the mountains, maintained their ground there, and being afterwards joined by ſeveral other fugitives from the Engliſh plantations, became very formidable; nor could they be ſubdued, though a body of regular troops were ſent over to the aſſiſtance of the planters. However, governor Trelawny entering into a treaty with them, it was agreed that they ſhould remain an independent ſtate, and be governed by their own magiſtrates, on condition of their harbouring no more fugitives. They are ſaid now to live in a very friendly manner with the Engliſh, and, in caſe of an invaſion, ſome imagine they would contribute greatly to the defence of the iſland; while others ſuppoſe that theſe negroes are not yet to be truſted, and for this reaſon ſome of the beſt lands in the iſland which lie in their neighbourhood are not cultivated.

After the Reſtoration the Spaniards ceded Jamaica to the king of England. Some of the troops employed in its reduction had ſettled there; many of the royaliſts, who had been uneaſy at home, had ſought an aſylum in this iſland, and not a few planters from Barbadoes were invited thither by the extraordinary fertility of the ſoil, and the other advantages which it afforded. The latter taught the former ſettlers the manner of raiſing the ſugar-cane, and making ſugar; for at firſt they had wholly applied themſelves to the raiſing of cacao, as the Spaniards had done before them. It was very happy for them that they fell into this new practice, for the groves of the cacao trees planted by the Spaniards began to fail, and the new plantations did not anſwer.

What gave freſh life to this ſettlement, and at once raiſed it to a ſurprizing pitch of opulence, which it has ſince hardly equalled, was the reſort thither of the pirates called the Buccaneers; men who fought with the moſt deſperate bravery, and ſpent their plunder with the moſt laviſh extravagance, were welcome gueſts in Jamaica. They often brought three or four hundred thouſand pieces of eight at a time, which were immediately ſquandered in exceſſive gaming, wine, and women. Thus vaſt fortunes were made, and the returns of treaſure to England were prodigiouſly great. By this means the inhabitants had raiſed ſuch funds, that when the ſource of this wealth was ſtopped up by the ſuppreſſion of the pirates, they were enabled to turn their induſtry into better channels; and they increaſed ſo faſt, that it was computed there were ſixty thouſand whites and a hundred and twenty thouſand negroes in the iſland.

But while the inhabitants were filled with the gayeſt hopes and wallowing in riches, they ſuffered one of the moſt violent earthquakes that perhaps was ever felt. Of this we have taken notice in treating of the deſtruction of Port Royal, in which city two thouſand whites and blacks periſhed. It will be proper here to add, that the houſes all over the iſland were thrown down, and the ſurviving inhabitants forced to dwell in huts. Two great mountains falling ſtopped the courſe of a river, that was dry from that place for a whole day, by which means vaſt quantities of fiſh were taken up, to the great relief of the diſtreſſed. An high mountain was ſplit, and part of it falling into a level plain, covered ſeveral ſettlements; and almoſt all the ſhips and ſloops were loſt in the harbour: but we have not room to deſcribe the terrors of this dreadful ſcene. A general ſickneſs ſoon followed, which alſo carried off a great number of the inhabitants.

The enemies of Great Britain were not idle ſpectators of ſuch a dreadful event; the French propoſed to make an eaſy conqueſt of a ruined iſland, where poverty, ſickneſs, and every hardſhip now prevailed; ſo much was Jamaica changed. They invaded the iſland with firm hopes of ſucceſs: but though the inhabitants had ſo many difficulties to ſtruggle with, they ſtill retained their priſtine ſpirit and native courage; the invaders were repulſed, and only eighteen of them left to carry the news of their defeat. Theſe loſſes ſeem not yet to have been ſufficiently repaired. It is ſaid that at preſent the white inhabitants ſcarcely exceed twenty-five thouſand ſouls, and yet the blacks are computed to amount to near ninety thouſand, an amazing diſproportion!

SECT. X.

Of the CARIBBEE ISLANDS.

A conciſe Deſcription of Anguilla and Barbuda; their Situation, Extent, and Produce.

WE now proceed to ſuch of the Caribbee Iſlands as are ſubject to Great Britain. This name ſeems to have been given to ſome of theſe iſlands before they became ſubject to the Spaniards; who, to colour over their maſſacring the inhabitants, pretended that the name of Caribbee ſignifies cannibals, and that the inhabitants of all theſe iſlands were eaters of human fleſh: but it does not appear that there ever was a nation either here, or in any part of the American continent, that deſerved to have the odious and horrid name of man-eaters. Eleven of theſe iſlands, with the Granadillos, all of which are ſmall, and ſome of them very inconſiderable, belong to the Engliſh; theſe are Anguilla, Barbuda, St. Chriſtopher's, Nevis, Antego, or Antigua, Montſerrat, Dominica, St. Vincent, Barbadoes, Tobago, Granada, and the Granadines, or Granadillos. The firſt ſix, with Porto Rico, Guadaloupe, &c. are alſo termed Leeward Iſlands; and the laſt, with Martinico, &c. are named Windward Iſlands.

We ſhall begin with Anguilla, or Snake Iſland, a long and narrow tract winding ſomewhat in the manner of a ſnake, whence it received its name. This, which is the moſt northerly of the Caribbee Iſlands poſſeſſed by the Engliſh, is ſeated in the eighteenth degree twenty minutes north latitude, and is ten leagues in length and three in breadth.

This iſland is woody, but perfectly level. Its climate is nearly the ſame with that of Jamaica. It abounds with tame cattle, with which it has been ſtocked by the Europeans; and alſo with the opoſſum, muſk-rat, alligator, and other animals common in the ſame climate. The Engliſh ſettled here in 1650, in a fruitful ſoil, where they applied themſelves to the planting of tobacco, the raiſing of corn, and the breeding of cattle, for which purpoſe they brought a ſtock with them. At preſent they chiefly ſubſiſt by huſbandry, and make a little ſugar. They are far from being remarkable for their induſtry, or their numbers; and have been frequently pillaged by the French, who in 1745 made a deſcent on the iſland, to the number of a thouſand men; when ſix hundred of them marching up to attack a breaſt-work, were ſo well received by the continual fire of a hundred men poſted there to defend it, that they were obliged to return with the loſs of a hundred and fifty men, beſides ſome of their colours and fire-arms.

Barbuda is ſeated in the ſeventeenth degree forty-ſeven minutes north latitude, and in the ſixty-firſt degree forty-five minutes weſt longitude, thirty-five miles to the north of Antigua, fifty-three north-eaſt of St. Chriſtopher's, and ninety ſouth-eaſt of Anguilla. It extends twenty miles in length, and twelve in breadth. The land is low and fertile: on the weſt ſide it has a good road well ſheltered, and clear of rocks; but from the north-weſt and ſouth-weſt points two ſhoals of ſand run above two leagues into the ſea.

This iſland produces citrons, oranges, pomegranates, Indian figs, grapes, pine-apples, the ſenſitive plant, cocoas, cotton, pepper, ginger, cinnamon, caſſia, Braſil wood, and ebony; with tobacco, indigo, maize, potatoes, yams, with other roots and drugs.

Here are plenty of cows, ſheep, goats, and fowl; the breeding of all which is the chief employment of the inhabitants, who make good profit of ſelling them to the other iſlands; the Engliſh here living much after the ſame manner as our farmers, and have no immediate trade with England. Here are likewiſe ſerpents of various kinds, ſome very large and not poiſonous, but are of ſervice in deſtroying rats, toads, and frogs; but the bite of others is incurable, if a remedy be not immediately adminiſtered.

This colony was planted as early as any of the Leeward Iſlands, except St. Chriſtopher's: but was ſo often diſturbed by the Caribbees, that the people were frequently forced to deſert their plantations; for there hardly paſſed a year in which they did not make one or two incurſions, and that generally in the night, for they durſt not attack them by day; ſo that the Engliſh grew weary of dwelling in a place where they were ſo much expoſed to the fury of the natives; and therefore deſerted the iſland: but the Caribbees diminiſhing daily in number, and the Europeans in the other iſlands increaſing, the Engliſh again poſſeſſed themſelves of Barbuda: in a few years the inhabitants amounted to five hundred, and they are now increaſed to about thirteen or fourteen hundred. It is ſubject to a gentleman of the name of Codrington, who chuſes the governor, and enjoys the ſame prerogatives as the other lords proprietors in America.

SECT. XI.

St. Christopher's.

Its Situation, Extent, Air, Soil, and Face of the Country; its Vegetables, and Animals. Its Inhabitants, and the Forts erected for their Defence, with a Deſcription of the Town of Baſſe Terre.

THE iſland of St. Chriſtopher, commonly called by our ſailors St. Kitt's, lies between the ſeventeenth degree ten minutes and the ſeventeenth degree forty minutes north latitude, and the middle of the iſland is in the ſixty-ſecond degree forty minutes weſt longitude from London, it being about ten miles to the north of Nevis, and fourteen leagues from Antigua. It extends twenty-five miles and a half in length; but its greateſt breadth is no more than ſeven.

The air is exceeding hot; but pleaſant, pure, and healthful, and agreeably tempered with cool breezes. The days and nights are almoſt equal during the whole year, and it would ſeem to be conſtant ſummer were it not for the rainy ſeaſon and the hurricanes.

In the thick woods, which are plentifully ſtocked with cabbage-trees, are ſwarms of monkies, who venture out in the night to ſteal potatoes and other proviſions. At the top of the Conorrhee hills, is a plain not three hundred yards wide, ending at the edge of a cavity of a prodigious depth, and about a mile in circumference, containing ſulphur, from which riſe continual clouds of ſteam. A furlong to the ſouth-eaſt is a large rocky hill, called Mount-Miſery, from a raſh man, who attempting to aſcend a precipice, fell backwards, and was killed. This is the higheſt point of land on St. Chriſtopher's, and it is ſaid to riſe about a mile and a half perpendicular from the ſea. In the ſulphureous cavity above-mentioned, are two or three round holes in the earth, vulgarly called the Devil's Coppers. They are two yards aſunder, and each about three feet in diameter. The reverend Mr. Smith ſays, that when he ſaw them, they boiled fiercer than ever he ſaw a ſugar-copper. On this hill, there is a great quantity of pure brimſtone, and on its top is a powder magazine.

St. Chriſtopher's is repreſented by ſome writers as one of the moſt delightful iſlands in the world. Its mountains, notwithſtanding there are dreadful rocks and thick woods between them, riſe one above another, and are adorned by rows of trees that wear a perpetual verdure, intermixed with handſome houſes covered with ſhining ſlate. The ſoil, which is light and ſandy, is not only proper for the cultivation of tobacco, but for that of ſugar, cotton, ginger, and fruit of all ſorts. It is well ſupplied with ſprings, and at the foot of the mountains on the ſouth-weſt part of the iſland has ſome hot ones proper for baths: yet in ſome places the water is ſcarce. The valleys and ſides of the hills are very fertile; but the mountains are leſs ſo; yet for the moſt part are overgrown with palmeto, cotton-trees, lignum-vitæ and other trees. There are no trees in the iſland like ours, except ſuch as originally come from hence. The ſoil abounds with maize, pine apples, prickly pears, with two ſorts of pepper; one that grows in a little red huſk about four inches in length, and the other in ſmall pods. Here are alſo maſtic and locuſt trees, bana, muſk-melons, water-melons, the papa, the manchaneel-tree, and many others. It principally abounds with ſugar-canes, and is ſuppoſed to produce about ten thouſand hogſheads of ſugar one year with another, with a conſiderable quantity of rum. The iſland alſo affords a great deal of ſalt, which is produced in a ſalt lake, ſuppoſed to contain about eighty acres, where the ſun exhaling the water during the hot weather, leaves a cruſt of ſalt at the bottom that exactly reſembles rock-cryſtal.

The animals are generally the ſame as thoſe in the other Caribbee iſlands; but the moſt remarkable of its beaſts is the rocket, a kind of lizard, whoſe ſkin reſembles a withered leaf, with yellow or blue ſpots. It has ſparkling eyes, always holds up its head, and is in perpetual motion. Its tail turns up towards its back in a circle and a half, and when purſued it puts out its tongue.

The moſt noted of the birds, beſides thoſe common to the Caribbees, are the orinoca eagle and the craw-fowl. The feathers of the former are a light grey, curiouſly diverſified with black ſpots, and the ends of the wings and tail are yellow. It attacks only ſuch birds as have crooked beaks and ſharp talons like itſelf, and always ſeizes them flying.

The craw-fowl, which is as big as a large duck, is aſh-coloured, has a great head, ſmall eyes, and a ſhort neck, under which is a craw that will hold two gallons of water. It lives upon fiſh, which it watches from trees on the ſhore, and ſometimes dives in for them above a fathom under water. It is ſo intent on its prey that it is eaſily ſhot; but is not fit for food.

Their other birds are a few ſwans, a ſmall kind of ſcreech-owls, mountain-thruſhes, noddies, ſpoon-bills, pelicans, boobies, and common pigeons, beſides two or three wild ſorts, ground-doves, humming-birds, and ſome batts.

Tho' no bees are hived, either here or in the iſland of Nevis, yet there is a great deal of honey produced by the wild-bees; but it will not make mead, on account of the warmth of the climate.

The inhabitants are computed to amount to about eight thouſand whites and eighteen thouſand negroes. When it was inhabited by the French, they dwelt nearer together than the Engliſh, who live ſcattered up and down the country for the convenience of planting; but have as fine houſes as any in America, they being of cedar, adorned with walks and groves of orange and lemon-trees.

The fortifications of the iſland are a fort erected on Brimſtone-hill, ſaid to be impregnable, and planted with forty-nine pieces of cannon. Charles-fort, which is furniſhed with forty pieces of ordnance, and a ſufficient quantity of ſtores; and Londonderry-fort, on the eaſt-ſide of Baſſe-Terre. There are alſo ſix batteries raiſed at ſo many landing-places, mounted with forty-three cannon in all.

The iſland is divided into the pariſhes of St. John, Chriſt-church, and St. Mary on the north; St. Anne, St. Thomas, and Trinity, on the ſouth-ſides; and in each is a handſome church, wainſcotted and furniſhed with pews, which, as well as the pulpit, are of ebony, cedar, red-wood, brazil, and other precious ſorts of wood, of a beautiful colour, and fragrant ſcent.

Baſſe-Terre, the capital of the iſland, is a fine town built by the French, under the cannon of their fort. The houſes are of good brick, free-ſtone, and timber; and among other buildings, are a town-houſe, an hoſpital, and a large church. They erected their caſtle on the eaſt ſide of a high mountain, ſhaded with lofty ever-green trees, about a mile and a half from the ſea. This caſtle is built of brick and free-ſtone, has very noble halls and apartments, wainſcotted with cedar, and a fine proſpect of delightful plantations of the ſugar-cane and ginger, with a long walk of lemons and orange-trees, leading to a large court before it. This caſtle, which was defended by five ſconces, mounted with cannon, has a chapel on one ſide, and on the other great ſtone ciſterns, into which water is brought by pipes under ground. Between the place and the mountains, is a large and beautiful garden, that produces the moſt delightful flowers and plants of Europe and America, and is adorned with a fountain.

The iſland has a militia conſiſting of one regiment of foot, a troop of horſe, and another of dragoons, amounting in the whole to about one thouſand three hundred and forty men.

SECT. XII.

Of the Settlement and Revolutions that have happened in the Iſland of St. Chriſtopher

ST. Chriſtopher's was diſcovered by Chriſtopher Columbus in his firſt voyage to America, who gave it this name from the figure of its mountains, there being in the upper part of this iſland a very high mountain, bearing on its ſummit another of a ſmaller ſize, as St. Chriſ-

topher

topher is painted like a giant carrying our Saviour on his back. Sir Thomas Warner, an Engliſh adventurer, and M. Deſnambuc, a French gentleman, who commanded for the French in America, arrived at St. Chriſtopher's on the ſame day, and both took poſſeſſion of the iſland in the names of their reſpective maſters. This happened about the year 1623. It was then inhabited by the Caribbees, and the Spaniards uſed to put in there in their Weſt-India voyages, to take in freſh water, they being on ſuch good terms with the Caribbees, that they ſometimes left their ſick on ſhore, of whom the natives took great care.

The above gentlemen leaving ſome of their men on the iſland, returned to their reſpective countries for recruits, when their maſters approving of their conduct, ſent them back in 1626 with ſupplies of men and proviſions, and with commiſſions to the governors of the new ſettlements. M. Deſnambuc arrived there about the month of January, 1627, with about three hundred people, after a long and ſickly voyage. Sir Thomas had as many men, and had proceeded a good way in his ſettlement before the arrival of the French. The two governors, therefore, to prevent any diſputes about the buſineſs of their reſpective territories, ſet boundaries to their ſeveral diviſions, with this particular regulation, that hunting and fiſhing ſhould be equally free to the inhabitants of both nations; that the ſalt-ponds and moſt valuable timber ſhould be in common, together with the mines and havens; they even concluded an offenſive and defenſive league againſt all their enemies, after which they proceeded with great harmony.

The Engliſh, however, receiving ſupplies of men and proviſions from London, throve better than the French; and not only became ſtrong enough to keep what they had, but to ſpare men for ſettling plantations at Nevis, of which Sir Thomas Warner took poſſeſſion, and left a ſettlement there in 1628.

The Spaniards being in the mean time alarmed at the progreſs of the Engliſh and the French, in the Caribbee-iſlands, thought the ſafety of their own plantations required their preventing thoſe nations ſettling in their neighbourhood, and therefore, the next year, ſent Frederic de Toledo with twenty-four ſhips and fifteen frigates to diſpoſſeſs the Engliſh and French of St. Chriſtopher's. Don Frederic ſeized ſome Engliſh ſhips near the iſle of Nevis, and then anchored under the cannon of a fort called Baſſe-Terre, commanded by M. Roſſey. Neither the French nor Engliſh forts were then in a condition to oppoſe ſuch an enemy. Roſſey, after a ſmall oppoſition, abandoned Baſſe-Terre, and retired to Cabes-Terre, another fort commanded by M. Deſnambuc in perſon; but neither could prevail on their men to defend themſelves there, nor to retire to the mountains, where they might have been able to oppoſe a great army; and nothing could ſatisfy them but embarking and leaving the place, and with this Mr. Deſnambuc was obliged to comply. In the mean time the Engliſh, being in great conſternation at hearing the news of Deſnambuc's retiring with his colony, ſome endeavoured to eſcape by ſea, others fled to the mountains, and all who were left, ſent deputies to treat with the Spaniards. Don Frederic, who had them now in his power, commanded all on the iſland inſtantly to depart, on pain of being put to the ſword; and to haſten their going, ſent them the Engliſh ſhips he had taken at Nevis; but theſe ſhips not having room for all the people, with their families, he conſented that thoſe who could not embark, ſhould ſtay till they could be removed. Don Frederic now weighed anchor, taking with him ſix hundred of the Engliſh who were fitteſt for his ſervice. But he was no ſooner gone than the Engliſh who were left, reſolved to go on with the ſettlement; when the French, who had gone no farther than to Antigua and Montſerrat, ſending a ſhip for intelligence to St. Chriſtopher's, and being informed that the Spaniards were gone, and the Engliſh buſy in rebuilding and planting, rejoiced at this happy and unexpected turn, and ſailing back to St. Chriſtopher's, reſumed the poſſeſſion of their former habitations.

The Engliſh now continued carrying on their colony, and encreaſed ſo faſt, that in 1632, they ſpared more men for new ſettlements at Barbuda, Montſerrat, and Antigua, and at the ſame time had good houſes at St. Chriſtopher's, with wives and families; but few of the French married, or took much pains about furniſhing themſelves with many of the accommodations of life. M. Deſnambuc died about the year 1637, and an American company, which he had cauſed to be ſet up in France, continued only till the year 1661, when their ſhare of this and the other iſlands was ſold to the knights of Malta, of whom in 1664, they were bought by the Weſt-India company. Sir Thomas Warner did not long ſurvive the French governor; but, before his death, the colony was greatly encreaſed.

About the time of the Revolution, animoſities aroſe between the two nations, and were carried to a great height. The French, even before war was declared either in England or France, entered the Engliſh pale, and deſtroying all before them with fire and ſword, forced the inhabitants to fly to their forts for ſafety, which, however, for want of timely ſuccours, they were obliged to ſurrender, together with their part of the iſland, on the 29th of July 1689, and could obtain no better terms than being removed to Nevis.

The French, however, had not been above eight months ſole maſters of the iſland, when a moſt dreadful earthquake deſtroyed their poſſeſſions; the earth in many places opened nine feet, deſtroyed their ſugar-mills and houſes, overturned their Jeſuits college, and all the other ſtone-buildings. The next year the Engliſh, under colonel Codrington and Sir Timothy Thornhill, recovered the iſland, and remained ſole maſters of it, after having removed one thouſand eight hundred French-men, with their families, to Hiſpaniola; and tho' the French were reſtored to their part of the iſland by the treaty of Ryſwick, yet in 1702, upon the breaking out of Queen Anne's war, Codrington again attacked the French ſettlements, and drove every man out of the iſland; and the country being yielded to the crown of Great-Britain, by the peace of Utrecht, all the French territory was ſold for the benefit of the public, which muſt have produced a very large ſum, ſince eighty thouſand pounds of the money was in bank till the year 1733, when it was appropriated by parliament for the marriage portion of the princeſs Anne to the prince of Orange.

SECT. XIII.

Of the Iſle of NEVIS.

Its Situation, Extent, Climate, Soil, and Plants; with a Deſcription of the Diddledoo Tree. Of the Cattle, and wild Animals, is deſcribed the Land-Pike, the Soldier-Snail, the Fly-Catcher, the Land-Crab, and others.

THE iſland of Nevis is three or four miles ſouth-eaſt of the ſouth-eaſt point of St. Chriſtopher's, whence they are full in ſight of each other; and from hence may be diſtinctly perceived, in a clear day, the iſlands of Euſtachia, Saba, St. Bartholomew, Antigua, Guadaloupe, Montſerrat, and Redondo. It is only ſix leagues in circumference, and has a high mountain in the middle of it, ſaid to be exactly a mile and a half perpendicular, and is covered with plantations and trees.

The climate is ſaid by ſome to be even hotter than that of Barbadoes, though the latter is much nearer to the line. Fevers are very riſe here, eſpecially in October, when the trade winds veer from the eaſt to the north.

The land is very fertile; Engliſh beans bloſſom in the mountain plantations, but never pod; yet ſamphire, cucumbers, common lettuces, kidney-beans, cellery, and naſturtiums, &c. are excellent. Among the trees is one called the diddledoo, reſembling a codling tree; but with narrow thin leaves. It bears a lovely bloſſom of the fineſt yellow and ſcarlet colours, and is eſteemed a ſovereign remedy againſt the green-ſickneſs.

Though the vallies are fruitful, the riſing ground is ſtony, and the plantations grow worſe in proportion as they riſe towards the ſummit of the mountain. The produce of this is much the ſame as in the other Caribbee Iſlands: they have oranges, limes, and lemons; but ſugar, which is the ſtaple commodity, anſwers all the purpoſes

purpoſes of money, and all the trade of the iſland is managed by it. Their ſugar is for the moſt part muſcovado; tobacco, cotton, and ginger, were formerly much cultivated; but all theſe have been neglected to make way for the ſugar-cane, which produces ſuch plenty of ſugar, that fifty or ſixty ſhips have been laden with it, in this ſmall iſland, within a year for Europe.

As no hay is made here, their ſaddle-horſes are fed with graſs weeded out from among the ſugar-canes, as alſo with the green blades of Indian corn, Guinea corn, and New England oats; but their mill-horſes, aſſes, and mules, are generally fed in paſtures, except during the ſugar harveſt, when they live on the ſugar-cane tops and the ſkimmings of the ſugar coppers. The ſheep of this iſland have neither horns nor wool; but are hairy and ſmooth ſkinned, and have generally ſmall red or black ſpots like thoſe of a fine ſpaniel. They breed twice a year, if not oftener, and have generally two, three, or four lambs at a time, and even ſuckle them all. The rams are of a pale red, with a thick row of long, ſtraight, red hair hanging down from the lower jaw to the breaſt, as far as the fore-legs. Their ſwine, which feed upon Indian corn, Spaniſh potatoes, and the juice of the ſugar-cane, are exceeding ſweet, white, and fat. They have rabbits, and ſome black cattle; but their ſalt beef, hams, pickled ſalmon, ſturgeon, and oyſters, are brought to them from Europe and the northern colonies. The fowls and the turkeys, which are fed with the ſame diet as the ſwine, are excellent food. Some of theſe, together with the geeſe and ducks, are brought from the northern colonies, but they have plenty of Muſcovy ducks of their own breeding. The ground-doves are here about the ſize of a lark, of a chocolate colour ſpotted with dark blue: their heads reſemble thoſe of a robin-red-breaſt, and their eyes and legs are of a fine red.

Here are ſeveral ſorts of lizards, ſome of which are ſo large as to be five feet from the head to the tail, which is of the ſame length.

The land-pike is ſo called from its reſembling the fiſh of that name; but inſtead of fins it has four feet, which are ſo weak that it crawls ſlowly along, and winds its body like a pike freſh taken out of the water. It is about ſixteen inches in length; its ſkin is of a ſilver grey, covered with little ſhining ſcales. In the night they make a noiſe under the rocks more hideous than the croaking of frogs and toads. They are ſeldom ſeen but in the evening, and have been frequently ſold upon pretence of their being ſalamanders.

One of the moſt extraordinary animals is a kind of ſnail called the ſoldier, becauſe having no ſhell of its own, it creeps into the ſhells that are drove to the ſhore, in which it accommodates itſelf like a ſoldier, who takes up his quarters in other people's houſes. As it grows bigger it gets into larger ſhells, which it finds empty, and appears of ſeveral forms and figures, according to the diverſity of the ſhells of which it takes poſſeſſion. For its defence it has ſomething reſembling the claw of a large crab-fiſh, with which it cloſes the entrance of the ſhell, and thus ſecures its whole body, all of which, except the head and claw, is very tender. This claw is jagged within, and takes ſuch firm hold of whatever it faſtens on, that it takes away the piece. This creature marches faſter than the common ſnail, and does not mark its track with any ſlime. When put near the fire it forſakes its quarters; and if its ſhell be preſented to it to enter it again, it goes in backward. M. Rochefort ſays, that when there are many of theſe met together in order to change their quarters, if they find a ſhell which ſeveral would be glad of, they contend for it with great eagerneſs, and an obſtinate engagement enſues, in which they grapple with one another, till the weaker being forced to ſubmit, the victor takes poſſeſſion of the ſhell in diſpute, and peaceably enjoys it in right of conqueſt.

Here is a pretty little flying inſect, with four legs, and of various beautiful colours, called a fly-catcher; for it comes into rooms, and preſently clears it of all the flies and other vermin. It alſo lies down on planks, waiting for the flies, and puts its head into different poſtures on its ſeeing them ſhift their places. It frequently ſtands with its mouth half open, and when it ſees an advantage leaps directly on its prey, which it ſeldom miſſes; and is ſo tame, that it will come on the table when people are eating, and catch the flies that crawl on their hands or cloaths.

There are here land-crabs much ſmaller than our ſea-crabs; theſe make little burrows like rabbits in the woods high up the mountains; but come down every year to the ſea to waſh and ſhed their ſhells, and then are eaſily caught at night by torch-light. Their claws are long and ſlender, which enables them to travel pretty faſt. The only venomous creatures here are centipedes and ſcorpions.

Here are different ſorts of ſhell-fiſh, and in the ponds near the ſea are crabs of a beautiful ſky blue, with a browniſh yellow ſhade all round the edges. They are much leſs than our European ones, but finer ſhaped both in the body and claws; yet the fine colours of their ſhells vaniſh with the life of the creature.

SECT. XIV.

Of the Inhabitants of Nevis; its principal Towns; the Negroes, and the Laws made againſt them. The Government of the Iſland, the Value of Money, and the Revenue of the Clergy.

THOSE of the inhabitants that are deſcended from the Europeans are computed at about three thouſand, and the negroes at three times that number, of whom at leaſt four thouſand are employed in the ſugar trade. The militia is computed at about three hundred men, but there is only one fort in the iſland, which is mounted with nineteen guns.

Though much ſhipping comes to the iſland it has not one good harbour, nor any tolerable anchoring except on the ſouth-weſt ſide, where are ſeveral rocks and ſhoals, between which ſhips ride in ſafety; but in caſe of an hurricane they put out to ſea, and if poſſible run into Antego.

The only town in the iſland is Charles Town, which has large houſes and ſhops well ſtored, and is defended by a fort. The market is kept here every Sunday, from the riſing of the ſun to nine o'clock in the morning. Mr. Smith ſays, the gentlemen both of this iſland and St. Chriſtopher's purchaſe iron-wood and lignum-vitæ from the iſlands of Santa Cruz, St. Bartholomew's, Deſeada, &c. to ſerve as poſts to the ſugar-houſes, mills, &c.

The negroes are here generally fed with ſalt herrings, maize, and Spaniſh potatoes. Some of them are fond of eating graſshoppers, as others are of cane-rats, which they wrap up in banana leaves, and bake in wood embers. During ſugar harveſt they work almoſt inceſſantly night and day, and on Sundays bring to the market Indian corn, yams, and garden-ſtuff of all ſorts. The laws are here no leſs ſevere with reſpect to the negroes than in other parts of the Weſt Indies, they being ſcarce conſidered as men. Hence a negro cannot be evidence againſt a white man. If he ſtrikes one, the law condemns him to loſe the hand he ſtrikes with; and if he ſhould happen to draw blood, he muſt die. If a white man happens to kill a black he is not tried for his life, but the law obliges him to pay thirty pounds Nevis money to his maſter for the loſs of his ſlave.

There are here three public annual faſts, namely, in the firſt weeks of July, Auguſt, and September, to beg that God would preſerve them from the hurricanes that too often come in thoſe months; and if they eſcape, they have a public thankſgiving in October.

The government of Nevis is by a governor, council, and aſſembly, who can make any law that will laſt twelve months; but not longer, unleſs it be confirmed by the king.

This iſland, with St. Chriſtopher's, Antigua, and Montſerrat, are under one governor, who has the title of captain-general and governor in chief of all the Caribbee Iſlands, from Guadaloupe to Porto Rico. His poſt is worth about three thouſand five hundred pounds a year. Under him each iſland has its particular deputy-governor, who has a ſalary of two hundred pounds a year, and a ſeparate independent legiſlature, conſiſting of a council and an aſſembly of the repreſentatives.

The ſalaries of the clergy amount to ſixteen thouſand pounds weight of muſcovado ſugar each; the fees for a funeral ſermon are three pound, or five hundred pounds weight of ſugar; and for every chriſtening, marriage, and burial twelve ſhillings and ſix-pence.

This is the obſervation of the Rev. Mr. Smith, rector of St. John's pariſh in this iſland; but he obſerves, that an Engliſh ſhilling goes here for one ſhilling and ſix-pence; and that the French, Spaniſh, and Portugueſe coin bear near the ſame proportion. He adds, that the king gives twenty pounds out of the Exchequer to every clergyman ſent hither by the biſhop of London to vacant pariſhes, to defray the charges of the voyage.

SECT. XV.

A Hiſtory of the Iſland of Nevis.

THE firſt colony was ſettled here in 1628 by Sir Thomas Warner, who alſo planted St. Chriſtopher's. At firſt there hardly paſſed a year in which the Caribbeans did not make one or two incurſions generally by night; ſo that the colony was ſeveral times obliged to quit the iſland; but, notwithſtanding this, it throve at length to ſuch a degree, that in twenty years they conſiſted of between three and four thouſand men, who lived by the trade they carried on in ſugar; and about the year 1688 it was ſo improved, that it was ſuppoſed to contain ten thouſand whites, of whom near two thouſand were fit to bear arms, beſides twenty thouſand negroes; but the next year half of the men were cut off by a dreadful mortality, and on the ſixth of April, 1690, was a violent earthquake, which inſtantly levelled with the ground all the houſes in Charles Town built either with brick or ſtone: in ſeveral places the earth clove about a foot aſunder, and hot ſtinking water ſpouted out of it to a great height. The ſea left its uſual bounds ſeveral times for above one-third of a mile. The earth was in many places thrown up in great quantities, and thouſands of large trees buried. Some ſpacious ciſterns, of which almoſt every houſe had one for ſaving rain-water, threw it out by the violence of the earthquake eight or ten feet high; and ſo ſtrong was the agitation of the ſea at the ſame time, that ſloops felt it between St. Lucia and Martinico: others paſſing by the iſland of Redondo, fifteen miles north-weſt of Montſerrat, found the earthquake ſo violent there, that great part of it tumbled into the ſea, with a noiſe as loud as that of the diſcharge of cannon, accompanied with a great cloud of duſt aſcending into the air.

In 1706 the French under M. D'Ibberville made a deſcent both on this iſland and St. Chriſtopher's, and having prevailed on the negroes to lay down their arms by giving them hopes of being ſet at liberty, they marched to attack the Engliſh, who being overpowered by numbers fled to the mountains, where they capitulated, and conſented to remain in the iſland as priſoners of war, till a like number of French priſoners were releaſed by way of exchange elſewhere. In the mean time they were to be uſed civilly, and their houſes and ſugar-works preſerved; but the French, with the uſual regard to the faith of their agreements, treated them very ill, burnt their houſes and ſugar-works, and forced ſeveral of them to ſign an agreement, promiſing in ſix months time to ſend a certain number of negroes to Martinico, or money inſtead of them. After this they left the iſland, tempting three or four thouſand negoes to go off with them, on the promiſe of an eaſy life in the French iſlands; but actually carried them to the Spaniſh Weſt Indies, where they ſold them to work in the mines. One of theſe negroes happening to eſcape when they got aſhore, found means to inform his countrymen, who were left behind at Nevis, how baſely the French had uſed them; upon which they took arms, fell on the French who were left in the iſland to ſee the capitulation performed, and cut them to pieces.

The agents at London, both for this iſland and St. Chriſtopher's, now applied to the lords of trade to have a conſideration for their loſſes, which they repreſented as amounting to ſeveral hundred thouſand pounds; and in order to this the commiſſioners ſent one of their clerks to the Leeward Iſlands, to take an exact account of what damage had been ſuſtained by this invaſion. Both colonies alſo ſending an addreſs on this ſubject to queen Anne, it was referred to the houſe of commons, who granted the ſufferers a hundred and three thouſand two hundred and three pounds to enable them to ſettle there again. In the mean time the people of the iſland met with an enemy even more terrible and deſtructive; for in the year 1707 they were reduced to the greateſt diſtreſs by a hurricane, which threw down their houſes, tore up the trees and plants by their roots, and almoſt entirely deſtroyed their ſugar-works.

This colony has not yet recovered from theſe calamities; and it will perhaps be many years before it will be ſo populous and flouriſhing as it was ſixty years after its firſt eſtabliſhment.

SECT. XVI.

Of ANTIGUA, *or* ANTEGO.

Its Situation, Extent, Harbours, Climate, Soil, Produce, Pariſhes, Towns, and Hiſtory.

THE iſland of Antigua is ſeated in the ſeventeenth degree thirty minutes north latitude, and in about the ſixty-firſt degree forty minutes weſt longitude, to the eaſt of Nevis and St. Chriſtopher's, and is ſomewhat of a circular form, about ſix leagues from eaſt to weſt, the ſame diſtance from north to ſouth, and about ſixty miles in circumference. It is more famous for good harbours than all the other Engliſh iſlands in theſe ſeas; yet is ſo encompaſſed with rocks, that it is in many parts of dangerous acceſs, eſpecially to ſuch maſters of ſhips as are not well acquainted with the paſſages between theſe rocks. The principal harbours are Willoughby-bay, near two leagues to the ſouth-eaſt of Green Iſland; Nonſuch harbour, a ſpacious bay at the eaſt end of the iſland; Five Iſland harbour, on the weſt ſide of the iſland, ſo called from five little iſlands that lie to the weſt of it; St. John's harbour, due north from the former, and about two miles from it by land, is a kind of double harbour, which is really the beſt in the iſland, yet a ſandy bar runs acroſs the mouth of it, the deepeſt part of which is at the ſouth-weſt end. This harbour is defended not only by a fort at the mouth of St. John's river, mounted with fourteen guns, but by ſeven other batteries raiſed for the defence of ſo many landing-places. Falmouth harbour is defended by Fort Charles and Monkſhill fort. Here are alſo Engliſh harbour and Carliſle harbour.

The climate is here hotter than that of Barbadoes, and very ſubject to hurricanes. The ſoil is ſandy, and much of it overgrown with wood: the iſland has alſo but few ſprings, and not ſo much as a ſingle brook, ſo that its chief dependance for freſh water is what falls from the clouds, and therefore the inhabitants are ſometimes diſtreſſed for want of it: yet, notwithſtanding all theſe inconveniences, it is a thriving and very conſiderable plantation. It produces much the ſame commodities as the other Caribbee Iſlands, particularly ſugar and tobacco. Their ſugar was, however, at firſt ſo black and coarſe, that being rejected by our ſugar-bakers, it was generally ſhipped off for Holland and Hamburgh, where it fetched only ſixteen ſhillings per hundred, at a time when other muſcovado ſugar fetched eighteen or nineteen ſhillings: but the planters have ſince ſo far improved their art, that as good muſcovado ſugar is made here as in any of the ſugar iſlands, and they have alſo learned the art of claying it.

This iſland contains about ſeventy thouſand acres, and produces, one year with another, ſixteen thouſand hogſheads of ſugar. They plant but little tobacco; but what they do plant is better than what it was formerly.

The iſland has more veniſon than any other of the Caribbee Iſlands, and has a conſiderable number of black cattle and fowl, with moſt of the animals common to the other iſlands.

The iſland is divided into five pariſhes, and has the following ſmall towns; namely, on the north-weſt part is St. John's town, the capital, which is one of the moſt regular towns in the Weſt Indies, and has the moſt commodious

modious harbour of any of the Leeward Iſlands; but conſiſts of only two or three hundred houſes. On the ſouth ſide are Falmouth, Parham, and Bridge town; and in the center of the iſland is St. Peter's. The people here are computed at about ſeven thouſand whites, and thirty thouſand blacks.

This iſland is ſaid to have been firſt diſcovered by the Engliſh in the time of Sir Thomas Warner, already mentioned, and that ſome Engliſh families ſettled upon it in 1636; but the firſt grant of this iſland from the crown appears to have been made by king Charles II. about the year 1663, to William lord Willoughby, of Parham, who planted a colony there about the year 1666; he was made governor of the Caribbee Iſlands, and loſt his life the ſame year in a hurricane near Martinico. But it does not appear that Antego made any conſiderable figure among the Leeward Iſlands till the year 1680, and it ſeems that its improvement ſince has been chiefly owing to the care of colonel Chriſtopher Codrington, the deputy-governor of Barbadoes, who removed hither; and after planting a good part of it, made this iſland the ſeat of his government, when he was captain-general of all the Leeward Iſlands. This rendered Antego populous, rich, and flouriſhing.

In 1681 the inhabitants ſuffered greatly by a terrible hurricane, and alſo by another in 1689, when moſt of the houſes, ſugar-works, and wind-mills were thrown down. The Indians in the neighbouring iſlands, in league with the French, came hither in their periaguas, and landed more than once in general Codrington's time; but after killing a few of the inhabitants, who lived near the ſea, always retired. This colony, in return for theſe viſits from the friends of the French, ſent three hundred men to Marigalante, drove the French inhabitants into the woods, burnt their town, nailed up their guns, demoliſhed their fort, and brought away the plunder they had obtained. This iſland had afterwards frequent quarrels with the governors, and at length, in October 1736, a general ſtop was put to all buſineſs, occaſioned by the diſcovery of a plot by which the negroes intended to murder all the white inhabitants. It was to have been put in execution on the eleventh of that month, the anniverſary of his late majeſty's coronation, when the governor uſually treats the gentlemen and ladies of the whole iſland with a ball, which happening then to be poſtponed to the thirtieth, on account of the death of the governor's ſon at St. Chriſtopher's, proved the preſervation of their lives. The chief negroes in the plot were three perſons named Court, Tomboy, and Hercules, who belonged to three different planters. The firſt of them was to have been king, and the other two his generals. During the intended ball gun-powder was to have been conveyed into the cellar in order to blow up the houſe. At the ſame time Court and his two generals were to head a party of four hundred men each, one from the eaſt end of St. John's Town, and the two others from Otter's and Morgan's paſtures, all armed with cutlaſſes, to fall on all the white people, women and children, in the town, at the ſame time that the houſe blew up, which was to have been a general ſignal to other parts of the iſland, to be conveyed throughout the whole by fires lighted up on certain eminences. The negroes of the ſeveral plantations were then to riſe and deſtroy all the whites in their reſpective diſtricts, and to make themſelves maſters of the whole iſland. But the three negroes above-mentioned being ſuſpected, on account of their former crimes, were taken up, and evidence being daily brought againſt them, were convicted on the nineteenth of October; and on the next day Court and his two generals were carried to the place of execution. Court being ſtretched out on a wheel, after being expoſed an hour and a quarter in that ſituation to the ſun, begged leave to plead, and confeſſing every thing that had been alledged againſt him, he, with his two generals and two others, were all broke on the wheel. Four more of the principal conſpirators were burnt the ſame day, as were ſeven on the next; ſix were hung alive in chains on gibbets and ſtarved to death, one of whom lived eight days and nine nights without ſuſtenance; after which their heads were cut off, fixed on poles, and their bodies burnt. Fifty-eight others were at ſeveral times chained to ſtakes and burnt alive.

SECT. XVII.

Of MONTSERRAT.

Its Situation, Extent, and Produce; with a Deſcription of the Muſk-Herb, and the Tree called Iron-Wood; with a conciſe Hiſtory of the Iſland.

THE iſland of Montſerrat was diſcovered by Columbus in 1493, who gave it this name, from its reſembling a mountain ſo called near Barcelona. It lies twenty-five miles almoſt ſouth-ſouth-eaſt from Nevis, forty north-weſt from Guadaloupe, twenty weſt-ſouth-weſt from Antigua, and two hundred and forty from Barbadoes. It is ſomewhat of an oval form, about nine miles in length, the ſame in breadth, and about eighteen miles in compaſs.

Its mountains are covered with cedars, cypreſs trees, acomas, and the muſk-herb, which grows like brambles without thorns, and bears yellow flowers that afterwards turn to pods full of ſeeds that have the ſmell of muſk.

In the mountains is alſo the tree termed iron-wood, which does not exceed thirty feet in height, and the trunk is, in proportion, ſomewhat ſlender. It is covered with a whitiſh bark, but that upon the upper branches is of a reddiſh grey. The leaves, which are ſmooth, and of a yellowiſh green, are two inches and a half long, and above an inch broad. The flowers are many and white; theſe riſe in groupes upon one common pedicle, and are ſucceeded by ſmall berries half an inch long, whoſe outward tegument, as well as the inward pulp, is of the fineſt red, interſperſed with ſmall ſeeds. This tree has the name of iron-wood from its hardneſs, its great weight, and the cloſeneſs of its grain. It is ſo heavy, that it will ſink in water; it is proof againſt all weathers, and, in ſeveral ages, ſcarce ſuffers any decay.

The valleys of this iſland are well watered and fruitful: climate and ſoil are much the ſame with thoſe of the other iſlands, as are alſo its animals and trade. Its chief produce is indigo, great quantities of which uſed to be exported to Great Britain. The inhabitants likewiſe make ſome ſugar, which is ſaid not to be ſo fine as that of Jamaica and Barbadoes.

This is, in ſhort, a well planted iſland, pretty much frequented by ſhips, though it is ſurrounded with rocks, and has no place that can be properly called a haven; ſo that on the appproach of a hurricane ſuch ſhips that happen to be on the coaſt are obliged to put to ſea, and with all poſſible expedition to ſail to St. Chriſtopher's or Antigua.

No ſettlement was made upon this iſland till the year 1632, when Sir Thomas Warner, the firſt governor of St. Chriſtopher's, ſettled a ſmall colony here. It at firſt flouriſhed more than Antigua; but the latter iſland has ſince got the ſtart of it. It is computed that it has at preſent about four thouſand whites and one thouſand two hundred negroes. They have two pariſh-churches lined with cedar, whoſe pulpits and pews are alſo of that and other ſweet-ſcented kinds of wood.

In 1668, when the French had taken Antego, they attacked this iſland with a conſiderable force under M. de la Barre, and after much loſs took it, together with ſixteen cannon, a great number of negroes and cattle, and took the governor, with above three hundred Engliſh, priſoners of war. The Engliſh had made ſuch a gallant defence, and killed ſuch a number of brave French officers, that the conquerors were ſo exaſperated, that inſtead of admiring and eſteeming them for their courage, they meanly ſet fire to every thing, except what belonged to the Iriſh, who were the firſt that ſubmitted; ſo that above forty ſugar-houſes, and ſeveral ware-houſes filled with rich merchandize, were deſtroyed. M. de la Barre left five hundred Iriſh, who took the oaths to the conqueror, and with their families made up above two thouſand ſouls; and then carried his priſoners and booty to St. Chriſtopher's. This iſland was however afterwards reſtored to the Engliſh.

In the late queen Anne's war, three thouſand five hundred French, under M. Coſſart, landed at Car's bay upon this iſland, and ſoon made themſelves maſters of it, except Dodon fort on an inacceſſible hill, to which the in-

habitants fled with their beſte ffects; but the French, after having ſpent ten days in plundering the iſland at pleaſure, returned to Guadaloupe.

The affairs of this iſland afford nothing remarkable after this, except a dreadful hurricane which happened in 1733, and blew down three fifths of the houſes in the iſland. A cattle mill-houſe, which weighed at leaſt twenty thouſand pounds, was carried ſome diſtance from its ſituation, and broke into ten thouſand ſhivers by the force of the fall; and a large copper that would hold two hundred and forty gallons was carried over a high wall, and the ſides jammed cloſe together by the force of the fall; but the greateſt loſs was the deſtruction of the ſugar-canes, and the whole damage, excluſive of the ſhipping, was computed at no leſs than fifty thouſand pounds of their currency.

SECT. XVIII.

Of DOMINICA, ST. LUCIA, *and* ST. VINCENT.

Their Situation, Extent, Soil, Produce, and Hiſtory.

DOMINICA, which owes its name to its being diſcovered by Columbus on a Sunday, is the laſt of thoſe called the Leeward Caribbee iſlands, according to our maps; but the Spaniards conſider it as the moſt northerly of the Windward iſlands. It is ſeated in the fifteenth degree twenty minutes north latitude, and in the ſixty-firſt degree twenty-four minutes weſt longitude, about half the way between Guadaloupe and Martinico, and fifteen leagues from each. This iſland extends about thirteen leagues in length from the north-weſt to the ſouth-eaſt, and near as much over in its broadeſt part.

Dominica is divided into the Cabes-Terra and Baſſe-Terra; that is, into the high and low-land part. The ſoil is good, and the ſides of the hills bear the fineſt trees in the world; and, according to ſome authors, it is one of the beſt of the Caribbee iſlands, on account of its fruitful vallies, large plains, and fine rivulets. It is watered by ſeveral rivers abounding with fiſh, and produces mandioca, caſſava, bananas, and the fineſt figs. It has alſo potatoes and ignamas, with a great deal of millet and cotton.

Here are great numbers of ringdoves, partridges, and ortolans. The inhabitants breed hogs and poultry; of the former are two ſorts of wild ones deſcended from ſuch as were firſt brought from France and Spain.

The Caribbeans retiring hither for the moſt part on their being driven out of the other iſlands by the Europeans, are therefore moſt numerous here. The French having frequented the iſland more than the Engliſh, are ſaid to be beſt beloved by the natives. The French always oppoſed the attempts of the Engliſh to ſettle here, becauſe it would enable them in time of war to cut off the communication betwen Martinico and Guadaloupe: the Engliſh, however, frequently made uſe of it to wood and water. But this iſland was, however, ceded to the king of Great Britain, in expreſs terms, by the late treaty of peace.

The iſland of St. Lucia received its name from its being diſcovered on the day dedicated to the virgin martyr St. Lucia. It is ſituated in the thirteenth degree forty-five minutes north latitude, and in the ſixty-firſt degree weſt longitude, lying about ſix leagues ſouth of Martinico, and north from St. Vincent, and is twenty-one miles to the north-weſt of Barbadoes, which, it is ſaid, may be ſeen from thence in a clear day. St. Lucia is twenty-three miles in length, and twelve in breadth. It has ſeveral hills, at the foot of which are fine pleaſant valleys, which contain good land, well watered with rivers. In theſe valleys are tall trees that afford excellent timber.

The air is eſteemed ſalubrious, the hills being not ſo high as to intercept the trade-winds, which always fan it to the eaſt, and by theſe the heat of the climate is mitigated. It has alſo ſeveral good bays and harbours, which afford good anchorage for ſhips.

The Engliſh firſt ſettled on this iſland in 1637, and lived here without any diſturbance from the natives or any others, till the year 1639, when they were driven out by the Caribbees, who were exaſperated againſt them; for an Engliſh veſſel being becalmed before Dominica, ſome of the Caribbeans of that iſland, thinking her to be a French ſhip, from her bearing a flag of that nation, went aboard with their fruit, and drinking freely of brandy, the maſter hoiſted his ſails, and the Caribbeans ſuſpecting his deſign, endeavoured to recover their canoes; but being hindered, leaped over-board and ſwam to the iſland, except two, whom the villainous maſter of the veſſel put in irons, and ſold for ſlaves. Thoſe who eſcaped complaining of this treachery to the natives of Martinico and St. Vincent, they maſſacred the Engliſh at Barbadoes, Antigua, and others of the new ſettlements; then coming to St. Lucia in the night-time, ſurprized the Engliſh in their beds, killed the governor and moſt of the inhabitants, plundered their ware-houſes, burnt their habitations, deſtroyed their proviſions, and in ſhort did incredible miſchief, which obliged thoſe who eſcaped to fly to Montſerrat. This affair ſo terrified the Engliſh, that they gave over all thoughts of ſettling again in the iſland.

In 1644 M. de Parquet, governor of Martinico, ſent about forty men from Granada, under M. de Rouſſelan, who took poſſeſſion of the iſland, erected a fort, which they fortified with cannon and pateraroes, encompaſſed it with a paliſado and good ditches, and raiſed a fine habitation near it, where they planted vegetables proper for food, and cured tobacco. As Rouſſelan was well beloved by the natives, on account of his marrying one of their women, the French enjoyed a perfect tranquility till the year 1654, when he died, and was ſucceeded by la Riviere, who expecting to live with the natives upon as good terms as his predeceſſor, erected a fine habitation, where he had not lived long with his family, before the Carribeans formed the barbarous deſign of aſſaſſinating him. That la Riviere might not ſuſpect their deſign, they paid him ſeveral viſits, in order to ſell him fruit; after which they one day came in great numbers to his houſe, where he gave them a friendly reception and plenty of liquor; but, while he ſuſpected nothing, they treacherouſly murdered him, with ten of his men, and, after plundering his houſe, carried off his wife, two of his children, and a negro ſlave.

He was ſucceeded by M. Haquet, who took all proper precautions not to be ſurprized by the Caribbeans, yet could not eſcape the ſnares they laid for him; for in 1656, on the pretence of ſelling him a conſiderable quantity of turtle, which they had left upon a hill not half a mile from the fort, they decoyed him thither, with only three ſoldiers to attend him; and, while they amuſed the ſoldiers, threw him from the hill into the ſea: yet not being much hurt he got ſafe to land, through a ſhower of arrows, and taking out one of his pocket piſtols, they were ſo frighted that they fell on the ground. He ſeized that opportunity to eſcape to the fort, but juſt before he reached it, one of them ſhot him in the flank with an arrow, and he died three days after. M. Parquet, the governor of Martinico, ſent M. le Breton to ſucceed him, who having been formerly his lady's footman, the garriſon reſolved to aſſaſſinate him; and one of them ſhooting at him when he was without the fort, le Breton thought it his beſt way to take ſhelter in the woods, where not being able to find him, they were in fear of being called to an account for their crime, therefore ſtripping the fort and the governor's houſe, ſeized a veſſel in the road, and eſcaped to the Spaniards.

Eleven days after a French veſſel paſſing by and finding the colony gone, but the guns, pateraroes, and apartments in good condition, the captain left four of his ſeamen there, with ammunition and proviſions, to keep the fort; and as he was ſetting ſail M. le Breton made a ſignal to him from an eminence, on which he was received on board his veſſel, and another garriſon was ſoon after ſent.

In 1663 the Engliſh purchaſed this iſland from the natives, by a treaty concluded with the Indians by Mr. Warner, the ſon of Sir Thomas by a Caribbean woman; and the Engliſh ſending a conſiderable force in 1664, had the fort delivered to them without reſiſtance, on condition that the French governor, with the garriſon, cannon, arms, and baggage, ſhould be ſent to Martinico.

Fourteen

Fourteen or fifteen hundred men were now ſettled on the iſland, but they being ſoon after ſeized with the bloody flux, ſix hundred of them died in leſs than three months, among whom was the governor and principal officers; upon which thoſe who ſurvived abandoned the iſland on the ſixth of January 1666, after ſetting fire to the fort, and diſperſed themſelves into the other Engliſh colonies.

Though the iſland was deſerted, it was ſtill conſidered as a part of the Britiſh dominions, and was accordingly included in every commiſſion of the governor of Barbadoes, who ſometimes aſſerted his juriſdiction over it by going thither in perſon with great pomp, diſplaying the king's colours, firing guns, &c. However, in 1719 the French king granted this iſland to the marſhal de Etree, who ſent a colony to poſſeſs, ſettle, and plant it; on which the Engliſh ambaſſador at Paris repreſented the affair with ſuch ſpirit, as a violation of the rights of his Britannic majeſty, that orders were ſent to the marſhal de Etree's colony, to evacuate the iſland; which they accordingly did.

Three years after king George I. granted this iſland and that of St. Vincent to the duke of Montague, who ſettled a colony here; but ſoon after a ſloop arrived from Martinico, the maſter of which brought a copy of a mandate from the king of France, in which it was declared, that neither St. Vincent nor St. Lucia belonged to the king of England: that the firſt of them ought to continue in the poſſeſſion of the Caribbeans, and that the ſecond belonged to the king of France, who had been willing, however, at the requeſt of the king of England, to ſuſpend the ſettlement of that iſland; and that the chevalier de Fouguiere, governor-general of the iſlands, ſhould ſummon them to retire in fifteen days; and if they did not depart, he ſhould compel them to it by force of arms.

Mr. Uring, the governor, took every prudent ſtep to ſecure the colony, by ſending to the governors of the other iſlands, and the captains of the men of war then ſtationed there, to procure their aſſiſtance; but they declining to act in a hoſtile manner againſt the French in time of peace, who ſent between two and three thouſand men againſt him, he was obliged to ſurrender; when it was agreed, that the Engliſh might re-embark all their cannon, ſtores, arms, and baggage, without moleſtation; that the French ſhould alſo evacuate the place; and that the iſland ſhould remain inhabited by neither the French nor Engliſh, till the diſpute between the two crowns relating to it was decided; but that the ſhips of either nation ſhould be at liberty to frequent its ports for wood and water. It was ſoon after determined by both crowns that this iſland, with that of St. Vincent and Dominica, ſhould remain neutral. However, the French before the late war began to ſettle theſe iſlands; but, by the late treaty of peace, reſigned all claim to them to his Britannic majeſty.

The iſland of St. Vincent is ſeated in the thirteenth degree thirty minutes north latitude, and in the ſixty-firſt degree weſt longitude, fifty miles to the north-weſt of Barbadoes, and ten leagues to the ſouth-ſouth-eaſt of St. Lucia. It is about twenty-four miles in length, eighteen in breadth, and ſixty in compaſs.

This iſland has a deep fat ſoil, capable of producing every thing proper for the climate, and has abundance of rivulets and ſprings of excellent water. It has ſeveral mountains with plains at the bottom, which, if cultivated, would be exceeding fruitful. There are here large ſtraight trees of all the kinds produced in America: tobacco has been cultivated here, and is eſteemed excellent; together with mandioca, Turkey wheat, potatoes, ignamas, gourds, and the fineſt large melons; indigo alſo thrives here remarkably.

It is ſaid that the Caribbeans, the original inhabitants of this iſland, people only a part of the iſland, there being alſo a great nnmber of negroes, ſome of whom are deſcended from a ſhip load of Africans either driven or run aſhore here about ninety years ago, and many fugitives from Barbadoes and the other iſlands. Theſe are now numerous, and have many villages, where they are ſaid to live well: both theſe different people are tenacious of their liberties, and jealous of foreigners, though they readily furniſh them with caſſavi bread, fruit, and other proviſions, in exchange for knives, hatchets, and the like.

We ſhall now proceed to Barbadoes, an iſland better known, and of which we are able to give a more accurate and circumſtantial account.

SECT. XIX.

Of BARBADOES.

Its Situation, Extent, Face of the Country, and Climate: of the Land ſliding from the Hills into the Vallies; with a Deſcription of Cole's Cave, the Water, and bituminous Foſſils in the Iſland.

THE iſland of Barbaboes extends from the thirteenth degree ten minutes to the thirteenth degree twenty-three minutes north latitude, and from the fifty-eighth degree forty-nine minutes three quarters to the fifty-ninth degree two minutes and a half weſt longitude from London; ſtretching in its greateſt length from Goulding's-green, in St. Lucy's pariſh, to Ananias-point, in Chriſt-church pariſh, twenty miles three quarters, and its greateſt breadth from Kirtrige's-point, in St. Philip's pariſh, to a point in St. James's pariſh, thirteen miles three quarters, and the circumference of the whole iſland from ſome of the ſurrounding principal points is almoſt fifty-four ſtatute miles.

Its firſt appearance to the ſea eaſtward is ſomewhat hilly, but to the ſouth-weſt and the north-weſt is more level. The ſurface in general appears covered with an agreeable verdure, variegated with lofty trees, and large buildings, affording many beautiful proſpects. The higheſt part of the iſland is a rocky cliff, whoſe perpendicular altitude is nine hundred and fifteen feet above high-water mark.

The atmoſphere is in general ſerene, clear, and ſeldom cloudy; and from the total abſence of hail, froſt, or ſnow, it is never liable to thoſe many and ſudden viciſſitudes ſo common in the climates more to the ſouthward and northward of the tropics. The air is in general very healthy, which is chiefly owing to the regularity of the trade-winds, and to its having neither bogs nor marſhes, in which the ſtagnated waters being exhaled to vapours might prove pernicious; nor large foreſts, which not only obſtruct the paſſage of the winds, but generate a moiſt air, cauſed by the great quantity of vapours which perſpire through the leaves, as well as from the ſhaded moiſt ſoil.

The ſoil in the low deep lands is chiefly black, in ſhallower parts ſomewhat reddiſh, on the hills frequently of a whitiſh, chalky, and marly nature, and near the ſea it is generally ſandy. By this variety Providence has wiſely adapted different ſoils to the different nature of the ſeveral kinds of trees, ſhrubs, and plants. Where the ſoil is black, as it imbibes the rays of the ſun, and reflects few or none, the circumambient air is there not near ſo hot, as where the ſoil is ſandy or gravelly. As the fertility of this, as well as others of the Weſt India iſlands, depends upon ſeaſonable rains, a long chain of hills, interſperſed with deep vallies, are providentally ſituated to the eaſtward of ſome parts of the iſland, to intercept the clouds and vapours. Hence that part of the iſland called The Thickets, in St. Philip's pariſh, being low land, and having no hills nor high cliffs to the eaſtward to make any reſiſtance to theſe clouds, is often ſcorched with drought, when the middle and more hilly parts of the iſland are repleniſhed with rain.

It ſometimes happens that large pieces of ground planted with canes, and even land with plantain and banana trees growing upon it, have ſlid down to the vallies from the ſides of the hills. This happens in very rainy ſeaſons; for as the ſoil upon theſe hills is commonly not above eight or nine inches deep, and of an oozy and ſopy nature underneath, it eaſily ſeparates from the next immediate ſubſtratum, which is of a ſlippery chalk, flat ſtones, or looſe gravel. When the ſoil ſlides in large pieces, its motion is leſs violent than when it is confined in narrow chaſms in the meeting of two hills, eſpecially if the ſituation be very ſteep; for there the collection of water being

conſiderable and heavy, inſtead of gliding ſoftly between the two ſtrata, ir breaks out in different places at once, and then runs down the precipice a mingled torrent of earth and water.

The beautiful proſpects from ſeveral hills over the vales below is quite enchanting; we ought not here to omit Hackleton's cliff, where nature at one view diſplays a great variety of ſurprizing landſcapes. Here the high impending rocks yield a dreary rueful appearance: the ſeveral deep chaſms below, over which they project, are imbrowned with the thick foliage of lofty trees. The adjacent ſteep declivity conſiſts of irregular precipices and broken rocks, the whole view terminating on the ſea, over whoſe craggy ſhores the foaming waves inceſſantly break. The view appears ſolemnly awful, except when the eye is relieved by a glimpſe or ſometimes a full view of the neighbouring plantations. To complete this uncommon contraſt, a deep rapid river runs through the vallies at the bottom of theſe precipices, which though in the dry ſeaſons is almoſt without water, yet in the rainy months of June, July, and Auguſt, it often overflows its higheſt banks.

The iſland abounds with caves, the moſt remarkable of which, called Cole's cave, is ſituated almoſt in the bottom of a melancholy hideous gully, or a deep chaſm made between hills by repeated torrents of rain. This gully is about a hundred and ſixty-five feet deep, from whence you can ſee nothing above you but the tops of high rocks and impending cliffs, through the gloomy branches of lofty trees. The deſcent towards the entrance of this cave is by a ſteep craggy precipice of great height, where your ſecurity from falling depends much upon the good hold you take of the roots of trees and branches of underwood. Having rather ſlid than walked down in this manner a conſiderable way, you are ſuddenly within an incloſure of very high perpendicular rocks, where the light of the ſky is admitted by two holes in the roof. On the weſt ſide of this gloomy apartment lies the mouth of the cave, which is of conſiderable ſize. Upon your firſt entrance into it the light of the day begins to grow weak, and proves but an uncertain guide. Twenty yards farther it appears no ſtronger nor brighter than the glimmering of a ſtar in a dull hazy night, and a few ſteps more envelops you in total darkneſs. "From "hence, with the aſſiſtance of a candle and lanthorn, "ſays the learned and reverend Mr. Hughes, from whom "we have taken this account, I began my ſubterraneous "tour; and, ſoon after my entrance, turned upon my "left hand, to take a view of what is called the Dry "cave. This has the top and roof crowded with "innumerable petrified icicles hanging downwards. "The ſides of the cave were likewiſe in ſeveral places "thick ſet with them, eſpecially where there was a "cavity: there they grow from the upper to the under "ſhelves of the rocks, like ſo many baluſtrades, but "more in number, irregular, and ſometimes in two or "three diviſions. The next thing remarkable in theſe "ſubterraneous apartments is the Wet cave, which, near "its firſt ſeparation from the Dry already deſcribed, is "very ſpacious and lofty; but its bottom much furred, "and torn up by the repeated torrents of rain, which in "wet ſeaſons run through it. Soon after our entering "it, we were agreeably ſurprized with the murmurs "of a diſtant ſtream, which a little farther we found a "conſiderable ſpring of the moſt tranſparent water, iſſu-"ing from a large projected rock, or rather the impend-"ing ſide of the cave. The roof near this place is re-"markably pitted with ſeveral holes, repreſenting ſhallow "cones, of diameters from nine to twenty inches; but "their greateſt depth did not exceed twenty-four inches. "Theſe holes probably owe their origin to large cavous "icicles which formerly hung from them, but were "broken off by ſome convulſions of the earth. The "ſpring here made a ſmall baſon or bathing-place, and "from henceforward the cave gradually leſſened in "height and breadth, and the icicles hanging from the "top and irregular ſides were more in number, but leſs "in magnitude. Here I began to want air, and at laſt "the paſſage became ſo narrow and low, that I was "obliged to ſtoop much, and the icicles were ſo ſmall "that the largeſt of them did not exceed my little finger "in length and diameter. This place, diſtant near a "quarter of a mile from the entrance, was my *ne plus "ultra*, being ſo much fatigued, and wanting air ſo "much, that I durſt not, without preſumption, proceed "farther."

The iſland has ſeveral ſprings, and a few rivulets. The inhabitants of St. Andrew's, and ſome part of St. Joſeph's pariſh, are plentifully ſupplied with freſh water by digging holes in the ſand, from ten inches to three feet deep; and theſe are almoſt inſtantly ſupplied with freſh water percolated through the ſand; but in other parts the inhabitants are obliged to preſerve rain water in reſervoirs, which are generally dug near a deſcent.

Among the foſſils the moſt remarkable are the following: An oily bituminous exudation iſſuing from ſome hills in St. Andrew's and St. Joſeph's pariſhes, of a dirty black, inclining to a green. It is procured by digging a hole or trench in or near the place where it ouſes out of the earth: this by degrees fills with water, having a thick film or cream of this liquid bitumen ſwimming upon the ſurface; from whence it is ſkimmed off, and preſerved in earthen jars or other veſſels. The moſt proper ſeaſon for gathering it is in the month of January, February, and March. It is of ſo inflammable a nature, that it ſerves to burn in lamps. As to its medicinal qualities, it is uſed with great ſucceſs in paralytic and nervous diſorders, and in the cure of cutaneous eruptions.

There is another ſpecies of bitumen of a ſolid ſubſtance, called here munjac. This is dug out of the earth at different depths on the ſides of hills in St. John's and St. Andrew's pariſhes, and nearly reſembles that bitumen found in the Dead Sea. If by accident any of theſe veins take fire, they continue to burn a long time, though in a dull ſlow manner, for the veins being ſurrounded with earth it crumbles, and falling into the flame, ſtifles it.

In St. George's pariſh are often dug up lumps of a tranſparent reſinous ſubſtance reſembling refin, from which it is chiefly diſtinguiſhed by the fragrance of its ſmell, and upon comparing it with the gum of the birch gum tree it appears to be of the ſame ſpecies.

SECT. XX.

Of the Vegetables of Barbadoes; with a particular Deſcription of the Palm-Oil Tree, the Burgamot Tree, the Forbidden-Fruit Tree, the Guava, and the Manchineel Tree. Among the Animals are deſcribed the Surinam Scorpion, and a particular Account of a Battle between a Sailor and a Shark.

THE trees of Barbadoes are vaſtly numerous; that called the palm-oil tree grows about fifty feet high; its branches ſomewhat reſemble thoſe of the cabbage-tree, but are much leſs uniform, ſhorter, and leſs verdant: the middle rib of each leaf is thickly ſtudded with ſharp-pointed prickles, each two inches long. The fruit is incloſed in a pod, which opening expoſes to view many ſmall nuts covered with a huſky tegument of a yellowiſh colour, containing in its many interſtices, when ripe, a conſiderable quantity of fine ſweet oil, which the ſlaves, after the whole fruit is firſt roaſted in the embers, greedily ſuck. When this outward huſky covering is taken off, the nut appears, which is of a ſomewhat blunt conic ſhape, and the inſide filled with a white kernel.

The burgamot-tree reſembles that of the orange, but the fruit is ſomewhat larger; it has, however, very little juice, and what it yields is exceeding ſour: what is moſt valuable is its oil, which is extracted by ſlicing the outward ſkin, and ſqueezing the fruit into a glaſs, on which the oil immediately ſeparates from the juice, and ſwims upon the ſurface. This being carefully drained off and preſerved, is what alone ought to be called the genuine burgamot oil. The Portugueſe have a method of making ſnuff-boxes of the rind, which retain for a long time the grateful fragrance of the oil.

What is here called the forbidden-fruit tree has the trunk, leaves, and flowers like thoſe of the orange. The fruit, when ripe, is ſomething larger and longer than the fineſt

fineſt orange, which it alſo exceeds in its delicious taſte and flavour.

Here are alſo the ſour orange, the Guinea orange, the golden orange, ſo called from its being of a deep yellow within; the ſhaddoe, the citron, the St. Helena lemon, the Spaniſh lemon tree, and the lime; the pomegranate and the guava tree.

The latter is diſtinguiſhed into two ſorts, the white and the red; and theſe, with regard to their ſhape, into the round and the pear-faſhioned, or perfumed guavas. The latter have a thicker rind, and a more delicate taſte than any other. This tree, if carefully cultivated, grows to about eighteen feet in height, has a very ſmooth bark, of a reddiſh grey, with ſharp-pointed leaves and white flowers. The perfumed guava is round, and about the ſize of a large tennis-ball; the rind, or ſkin, is generally of a ruſſet ſtained with red, lined with an apple-like ſubſtance, as thick as a crown-piece. The inſide is full of an agreeable pulp mixed with innumerable ſmall white ſeeds. The rind, when ſtewed, is eaten with milk, and preferred to any other ſtewed fruit. From the ſame part is made marmalade, and from the whole fruit the fineſt jelly perhaps in the world.

Beſides the trees already mentioned there are the pine-apple, and a great variety of other fruits, with many trees admired for the beauty and ſolidity of the wood, particularly lignum vitæ, red wood, iron wood, and many others; we ſhall only add the following, which is one of the moſt remarkable of the American trees, and is found in moſt of the Caribbee Iſlands, as well as Barbadoes.

The manchaneel tree is remarkable for the beauty of the timber, and its juice being one of the ſtrongeſt poiſons yet diſcovered. Hiſtorians have, however, exaggerated the accounts they have given of the poiſonous nature of this tree; for it has been pretended, that the heads of the perſons who ſleep under its ſhade ſwell, and they become blind; that if the leaves but touch the naked ſkin, they raiſe puſtules, which cauſe deadly pains, unleſs helped with water and ſalt, or faſting ſpittle. This, however, is not true, nor is any ill conſequence to be feared from the leaves touching the naked body, unleſs they are bruiſed, and the white milky juice they contain is ſuffered to pervade the pores; which if it does, it raiſes bliſters like thoſe of the confluent kind in the ſmall-pox, cauſing acute pains; but ſimple drops of rain water falling from thoſe leaves upon the ſkin will not have any bad effect, which Mr. Hughes tells us he has experienced upon repeated trials.

This tree is of a very quick growth, and is ſeldom or never found growing to any perfection, but in a looſe and ſandy ſoil, near the ſea or other water. The trunk, when full grown, is generally from two feet and a half to three feet in diameter, branching, moſt commonly, from three to fifteen feet high from the ground. The heart, which is very ſmall, in proportion to the bulk of the tree, is very hard and ſolid, of a pale yellow, with a greeniſh caſt, interſperſed with ſmall blackiſh veins, the grain ſmooth, and the wood durable: the bark is of a ſleek whitiſh grey, the branches many in number, and covered with thick, ſmooth, ſhining leaves, among which are long pendulous catkins. It bears a fruit of the ſame make as the round ſort of crab-apples which we have in England, and is of a beautiful colour and fragrant ſmell. The pulp of theſe manchaneel apples does not exceed one-ſeventh of an inch in depth, the inſide being a hard ſtony kernel, in which are included the ſeeds. The juice of the apple is of the ſame colour and quality as that of the leaves, and yet the reverend gentleman juſt mentioned obſerves, that he has known a woman big with child, who longed for them, to have eaten of them, without any apparent bad effect; but adds, he cannot ſay that the fragrance of the ſmell, or their tempting looks, have induced others to follow her example by ſo dangerous an experiment: yet if ſome of this crude milky juice does but fall upon a horſe, the hair of the part affected ſoon falls off, and the ſkin riſes up in bliſters, which will require a long time to heal. Formerly no one dared to cut down theſe trees, without firſt having made a large fire round them, in order to burn the bark and dry up the ſpry and juices that fly from them in cutting: but now naked negroes venture to cut them down, only uſing the caution of previouſly rubbing their whole bodies with lime-juice, which prevents the ſap from corroding or ulcerating their ſkins. Bruiſing and maſhing the tender leaves and boughs, and then throwing them into fiſh-ponds, has often been practiſed by villains to deſtroy the fiſh, which ſoon after grow ſtupid, float with their bellies upwards on the top of the water, and frequently die. Some ſorts of fiſh that will eat theſe apples, are often found dead in the water, and if taken while alive and eaten often prove poiſonous; even the large white crab that burrows in the ſand is not, if near theſe trees, to be made uſe of for food. We ſhall conclude this account with mentioning a remarkable inſtance of the goodneſs of Providence, that wherever a manchaneel tree grows, there is found either a white wood or a fig tree near it, the juice of either of which is an infallible antidote againſt the poiſon; ſalt water is no leſs efficacious, and as theſe trees grow by the ſea-ſide, this remedy is alſo near at hand.

Among the vegetables of a lower growth are Guinea and Indian corn, and a vaſt variety of plants, the moſt valuable of which is the ſugar-cane, and many medicinal herbs.

With reſpect to the animals, the ſheep bred here are, as in the other Caribbee Iſlands, hairy like goats: for to be covered with wool would be as prejudicial to them in theſe hot climates as it is uſeful in cold countries, for ſhelter and warmth; yet as cloathing is neceſſary, eſpecially in the rainy ſeaſon, to the inhabitants, the want of wool is abundantly ſupplied by the cotton tree, of which there are here ſeveral ſorts which annually ſupply the inhabitants with the fineſt wool in the world.

They have coach-horſes from England, ſaddle-horſes from New England, and others for carts and common uſes from Bonaviſta, the Cape Verd Iſlands, and Curaſou. They have alſo a breed of their own, which is mettleſome, ſwift, and hardy, but not ſtrong enough for much ſervice. The firſt planters brought black cattle from Bonaviſta and the Iſle of May; and a few of their breed ſtill continues. They have aſſes, which are of extraordinary uſe, becauſe they can carry burthens where horſes cannot paſs.

Among the number of animals, either peculiar to or brought to this iſland, there is not one that is mortally venomous; while many of the neighbouring French iſlands are infeſted with vipers, and other poiſonous ſnakes. There are here but three ſpecies of reptiles that can be properly called venomous, the black ſpider, the forty-leg, and the Surinam ſcorpion.

A full grown ſcorpion of the common ſort is about ten inches long, the ſkin ſoft but ſcaly, and of a dull copper colour. The reverend Mr. Hughes obſerves, that the very young ones are ſurpriſingly preſerved from danger; for when this threatens, the parent ſcorpion opens her mouth and ſwallows them, and afterwards voids them when the danger is over.

The Surinam ſcorpion is, however, only three inches in length, from the head to the extremity of the tail. From the fore-part of the neck riſe two claws, about three quarters of an inch long, divided into three joints, each claw near its extremity ending in a long, ſlender, whitiſh forceps. It has two eyes, which are black, ſmall, and ſhining, with four pair of legs, the hindermoſt being the longeſt: each joint of the legs, as well as the back, is marked with ſeveral faint whitiſh liſts, the intermediate ſpace being of a ruſſet colour, mixed with blackiſh ſpots. The tail is divided into ſix joints, and at the extremity of the laſt appear two ſmall horny crooked ſtrings in the form of a wide extended forceps, the upper being double the length of the lowermoſt: the longeſt coming from the upper ſide of the laſt joint of the tail, the other from the lowermoſt part, the intermediate ſpace being fleſhy. When this ſcorpion walks or runs ſhe generally curls up her tail in a ring, and when provoked extends it to its full length, and with a quick motion darts it into her adverſary. Thoſe who have the misfortune to be ſtung by them, endure very acute pain for ſeveral hours, and the fleſh near the wound generally turns livid; but the wound is not mortal. Theſe ſcorpions are chiefly to be found among old boards, old books, or other looſe papers. They never bear any young but once: the female carries her young upon her

back, and as theſe grow in ſtrength the parent decays and dies.

Monkeys are not very numerous in this iſland; they chiefly reſide in inacceſſible gullies, eſpecially where there are many fruit-trees. They do great miſchief to the neighbouring planters, by digging out of the earth their yams and potatoes, and ſometimes breaking and carrying off the ripe ſugar-cane. But as a premium is granted for deſtroying both theſe and the racoons, they rather decreaſe than multiply.

The moſt deſtructive quadrupeds, with reſpect to their ſugar-canes, are the rats, which are ſo numerous that the annual loſs to the inhabitants of the pariſhes of St. Joſeph and St. Andrew alone is computed at no leſs than two or three thouſand pounds.

The birds of this iſland are not very numerous; there are none of them remarkable for their notes, nor for the beauty of their feathers, excepting the humming-bird. The tame fowls are much the ſame as thoſe in England; beſides which they have the Guinea fowl, Muſcovy ducks, and rumpleſs fowls.

The ſhores afford a great variety of ſhell-fiſh, ſome of which are exceeding beautiful, and a variety of other productions. "We are no ſooner, ſays our author, ad-"vanced to the ſhore on the weſt ſide of the iſland, but "we are, eſpecially in calm mornings and evenings, "pleaſed with the ſight of groves of corals, ſea-feathers, "and ſea-rods; the former grow in thick cluſters, yield-"ing an embrowned ſhade, and remain, as ſturdy oaks, "unmoved; the latter, with their numerous pliant "branches, wavingly bend with the undulating ſlow "motion of the water. The interſperſed, vacant, ſandy "ſpaces reſemble ſo many bright lawns, which pleaſe by "a kind of regular confuſion."

Among the more extraordinary kinds of fiſh are the flying-fiſh, the toad-fiſh, the ink-fiſh, which is ſo called from its diſcolouring the water with a black liquid when in danger of being caught, by which means it becomes inviſible to the enemy; the cat of nine-tails, and the ſcuttle-fiſh, both of which, as well as the ink-fiſh, eject a black liquid; the old-man, the old-wife, the dolphin, the mud-fiſh, the ſtar-fiſh, and the ſhark. This laſt fiſh we have already deſcribed in the courſe of this work; but we cannot forbear mentioning a very unequal and hazardous combat with that voracious animal by a common ſailor, which may perhaps be conſidered as heroic an inſtance of diſintereſted friendſhip and perſonal bravery as any recorded in hiſtory. The account we find in the reverend Mr. Hughes's Natural Hiſtory of Barbadoes, and ſhall give it in his own words.

"About the latter end of queen Anne's wars, captain "John Beanis, commander of the York Merchant, ar-"rived at Barbadoes from England. Having diſembark-"ed the laſt part of his lading, which was coals, the "ſailors, who had been employed in that dirty work, "ventured into the ſea to waſh themſelves; there they "had not been long, before a perſon on board eſpyed a "large ſhark making towards them, and gave them no-"tice of their danger; upon which they ſwam back and "reached the boat, all but one; him the monſter over-"took almoſt within reach of the oars, and griping him "by the ſmall of the back, his devouring jaws ſoon cut "him aſunder, and as ſoon ſwallowed the lower part of "his body; the remaining part was taken up and carried "on board, where his comrade was. His friendſhip with "the deceaſed had been long diſtinguiſhed by a reciprocal "diſcharge of all ſuch endearing offices, as implied an "union and ſympathy of ſouls. When he ſaw the ſever-"ed trunk of his friend, it was with an horror and emo-"tion too great for words to paint. During this affect-"ing ſcene the inſatiable ſhark was ſeen traverſing the "bloody ſurface in ſearch after the remainder of his prey; "the reſt of the crew thought themſelves happy in being "on board, he alone unhappy, that he was not within "reach of the deſtroyer. Fired at the ſight, and vowing "that he would make the devourer diſgorge, or be ſwal-"lowed himſelf in the ſame grave, he plunges into the "deep armed with a ſharp-pointed knife. The ſhark "no ſooner ſaw him, but he made furiouſly towards him; "both equally eager, the one of his prey, the other of "revenge. The moment the ſhark opened his rapacious "jaws, his adverſary dexterouſly diving, and graſping "him with his left hand ſomewhat below the upper "fins, ſucceſsfully employs his knife in his right hand, "giving him repeated ſtabs in the belly: the enraged "ſhark, after many unavailing efforts, finding himſelf "overmatched in his own element, endeavours to diſ-"engage himſelf, ſometimes plunging to the bottom, "then mad with pain, rearing his uncouth form, now "ſtained with his own ſtreaming blood, above the foam-"ing waves. The crews of the ſurrounding veſſels ſaw "the unequal combat, uncertain from which of the "combatants the ſtreams of blood iſſued; till at length "the ſhark, much weakened by the loſs of blood, made "towards the ſhore, and with him his conqueror; who, "fluſhed with an aſſurance of victory, puſhes his foe "with redoubled ardour, and, by the help of an ebbing "tide, dragging him on ſhore, rips up his bowels, and "unites and buries the ſevered careaſs of his friend in one "hoſpitable grave."

This ſtory, our author adds, is of ſo extraordinary a nature, that he would not have dared to give it his reader, had he not been authorized by the teſtimony of a very credible gentleman, who was ready to confirm, by oath, the truth of what is here related.

SECT. XXI.

Of the different Inhabitants, the Diviſions of the Iſland, and a particular Deſcription of Bridge Town, the Capital; with the Government and Trade of Barbadoes.

THE inhabitants of Barbadoes conſiſt of the maſters, who are either originally Engliſh, Scots, or Iriſh; with a few Dutch, French, Portugueſe, and Jews: the white ſervants, and the black ſlaves. The maſters, who conſiſt of the merchants and planters, both clergy and laity; lawyers, phyſicians, &c. live very elegantly, having a number of ſervants for their plantations and houſhold, rich equipages, fine liveries, and the moſt wealthy of them have pleaſure-boats in which they make the tour of the iſland.

The white ſervants are either by covenant or purchaſe, and are of two ſorts, ſuch as ſell themſelves in Great Britain or Ireland, for four years or more, and ſuch as are tranſported thither for their crimes. When the term of the covenant-ſervants is out, the Britiſh ſervants have each five pounds, the others but forty ſhillings. Their work is not ſo hard as that of our day-labourers, yet their encouragement is greater; and if they are good for any thing, they may be employed upon their own terms when their time is expired. They are not allowed near ſo much fleſh as thoſe who are employed in our country farms, yet they do not want; for the planters give them Engliſh biſcuit, which the negroes have not; and the chief of them are ſupplied from their maſters tables.

The ſervitude of the blacks is perpetual, and thoſe maſters who are men of humanity have a double intereſt in taking care of them, becauſe if a negro dies the owner loſes forty or fifty pounds; while by the death of a white ſervant he only loſes the wages he pays to another to ſupply his place, during the remainder of his term. The buſineſs of the blacks lies moſtly in the field, except thoſe who are taken into the ſugar-mills, ſtore-houſes, and dwelling-houſes, where the handſomeſt and neateſt maids are made menial ſervants, and the cleverеſt fellows lacquies, coachmen, and grooms: others are frequently employed as coopers, joiners, maſons, and the like. A ſlave who is a good mechanic is worth a hundred and fifty or two hundred pounds, and even much more has been given for a boiler of ſugar. The negroes are purchaſed out of the Guinea ſhips, after being all viewed naked, and are frequently allowed two or three wives, that they may increaſe the planter's ſtock; for their poſterity to all generations are ſlaves, unleſs they are reſtored to liberty. The women are very conſtant to the man who paſſes for their huſband. Their choiceſt fare is plaintanes, which they boil or roaſt; and they have twice or thrice a week either ſalt fiſh, mackarel, or ſalt pork, with ſome bread made of Indian corn of the produce of the country, fetched from Carolina.

Every negro family has a cabbin built with ſticks, withs, and plantane leaves. Theſe ſtand round the planter's houſe, with a garden, where they plant yams, potatoes, caſſava roots, &c. and breed goats, hogs, and fowls, for their own eating or for ſale. The negroes born in Barbadoes are much more uſeful than thoſe brought from Guinea, and thoſe that come children from Africa make much better ſervants when they are grown up, than thoſe that come over at years of maturity; but it is reckoned that a fourth part of the negroes die in ſeaſoning.

Every plantation has a chief overſeer, who is allowed a hundred or one hundred and fifty pounds a year, beſides two or three under him, with accomptants, and other officers. The country being too hot for hunting and hawking, the planters and other gentry are obliged for the moſt part to divert themſelves by playing at cards, dice, tables, quoits, and bowling; likewiſe by reſorting to balls and concerts.

The principal diſeaſes of this iſland are the dry-gripes, ſo called from its affecting that part of the body with great coſtiveneſs and pain; but this dreadful diſeaſe was formerly much more frequent and fatal than it has been of late. There are likewiſe other kinds of colics, the yellow jaundice, hyſteric diſorders, diarrhœas, and dyſenteries; fluxes are alſo very common, eſpecially in the rainy ſeaſons, when by catching cold the perſpiration is interrupted, and what ſhould have been exhaled through the ſkin is thrown upon the bowels; they are alſo cauſed by eating immoderately of fruit. The yellow fever is another fatal diſeaſe, as are alſo the ſmall-pox, the meaſles, the leproſy, and the yaws. The laſt appears in fleſhy knobs as large as a thimble, covering the face, breaſt, arms, and other parts of the body.

The precincts of this iſland, with their reſpective pariſhes, are as follow:

In the ſouth part of the iſland are St. Michael's or Bridge precinct, containing the pariſhes of St. Michael, St. George, and St. John. In St. James's, or the Hole precinct, are the pariſhes of St. Thomas and St. James; and in St. Peter's, or Speight's precinct, is the pariſh of St. Peter, with All Saints chapel.

In the eaſt part is Oſtine's precinct, which contains the pariſhes of Chriſt church and St. Philip's.

In the north is St. Andrew's Overhill, or Scotland precinct, which contain the pariſhes of St. Andrew and St. Joſeph.

In the weſt is only the pariſh of St. Lucy.

Bridge Town, the capital, is reckoned the fineſt and the largeſt in all the Caribbee Iſlands. It is ſeated in the ſouth-weſt part, in the thirteenth degree north latitude, and in the ſixtieth degree weſt longitude, and was at firſt called St. Michael's, from the name of its church; but received its preſent denomination from a bridge erected over the waters, that after rains flow from the neighbouring marſhes. It is ſituated in the innermoſt part of Carliſle-bay, which is large enough to contain five hundred ſhips. The houſes, which are of brick and ſtone, are lofty, and amount to about twelve hundred; they have glazed windows, and many of them are ſaſhed: the ſtreets are broad, and one of them, named Cheapſide, has the rents as dear as thoſe of the houſes of Cheapſide in London. The wharfs and quays are very neat and convenient, defended by ſeveral forts. The firſt to the weſt is James fort, which is mounted with eighteen guns: the next to this is Willoughby's, built on a ſmall neck of land that runs out into the ſea, and is mounted with twenty guns: there are three batteries between this and Needham's fort, which is alſo mounted with twenty guns. Above Needham's, and more within land, is the Royal citadel called St. Anne's. Charles fort is built on Needham's-point, and lies out in the ſea to the windward of the bay and town. From this a platform runs to Ormond's fort. On the eaſt ſide of the town is a ſmall fort of eight guns, and a magazine built of ſtone, where the powder and ſtores of the iſland are kept under a ſtrong guard. In ſhort, this is both the ſtrongeſt and richeſt town in all the Caribbees; the ſtore-houſes and ſhops being generally as well furniſhed as thoſe in London.

The church, which is as large as many of our cathedrals, has a noble organ, a good ring of bells, and a curious clock. In the town are alſo large taverns and eating-houſes, with a poſt-houſe, packet-boats being eſtabliſhed by the government to carry letters monthly to and from this place. This is the ſeat of the governor, council, and aſſembly; and alſo of the court of chancery. The number of militia for this town and St. Michael's precinct is no leſs than twelve hundred men, who are called the Royal regiment of foot guards. There is here a college founded and well endowed by the liberality of that great man colonel Chriſtopher Codrington, who was a native of this iſland, and was diſtinguiſhed by a great number of amiable and uſeful qualities. The town has alſo a convenient free-ſchool, and an alms-houſe of twenty poor widows.

There are ſeveral other towns; but they are ſmall: indeed every part of the iſland is ſtrewed with gentlemen's houſes, encompaſſed by fields of ſugar-canes, and the bloom and fragrance of orange, lemon, lime, and citron trees, guavas, papas, aloes, and a vaſt multitude of other elegant and uſeful plants. Even the negro huts, though mean, contribute to the beauty of the country; for they ſhade them with plantane trees, which give their villages the appearance of ſo many beautiful groves.

The government of this iſland reſembles that of the others, and the inhabitants ſupport the expence of their own eſtabliſhment, which is very conſiderable, with great credit. The governor's place is worth at leaſt five thouſand pounds a year, and the reſt of the officers have conſiderable incomes. The people provide very handſomely for their clergy, who are of the church of England, which is the religion eſtabliſhed here as it is in the other iſlands; and here are very few Diſſenters. There is in general a greater appearance of order and decency than in any other colony in the Weſt Indies; and there is no place comparable to Barbadoes, in the number of the people, the cultivation of the ſoil, and thoſe elegancies and conveniencies which reſult from both.

The iſland can raiſe five thouſand men of its own militia, and has generally a regiment of regular troops, though it is ſeldom complete. It is fortified by nature all along the windward ſhore by the rocks and ſhoals; ſo that near two-thirds are utterly inacceſſible. On the leeward ſide it has good harbours; but the whole coaſt is protected by a line of ſeveral miles in length, defended by twenty-two caſtles and forts, and twenty-ſix batteries. All freemen here are obliged to enter themſelves in the regiment of their own diſtrict, and there is a law here obliging all perſons who deſign to leave the iſland to give notice of it at the ſecretary's office, three weeks before their departure.

The number of inhabitants amounts at preſent to twenty-five thouſand whites, and near eighty thouſand negroes; and there are ſhipped from hence above twenty-five thouſand hogſheads of ſugar, valued at three hundred thouſand pounds; beſides rum, molaſſes, cotton, ginger, and aloes: an immenſe peopling and produce for a country that does not contain above a hundred thouſand acres of land.

The inhabitants of Barbadoes trade with New England, Carolina, Penſylvania, New York, and Virginia for lumber, bread, flour, Indian corn, rice, tobacco, ſalt beef and pork, fiſh, pulſe, and other proviſions; with Guinea for negroes; with Madeira for wine; with Tercera and Fayal for wine and brandy; with the iſles of May and Curaſſou for ſalt; and with Ireland for beef and pork. The other goods which they import from Great Britain and Ireland are Oſnabrugs, which are the chief wear of their ſervants and ſlaves; linen of all ſorts, with broad cloth and kerſeys for the planters, their overſeers, and families; ſilks and ſtuffs for their ladies and houſhold ſervants; red caps for their ſlaves of both ſexes; ſtockings and ſhoes of all ſorts; gloves and hats; millinery-ware and perukes; laces for linen, woollen, and ſilks; ſtrong beer, pale beer, pickles, candles, butter, and cheeſe; iron-ware, as ſaws, files, axes, hatchets, chiſſels, adzes, hoes, mattocks, gouges, planes, augers, nails; lead, powder, and ſhot; braſs and copper-wares; all ſorts of India goods and toys, coals, and pantiles.

The voyage is commonly five or ſix weeks outward-bound, and ſix or ſeven homeward. The planters ſend

to Guinea guns, powder, ball, perpetuanas, hats, and other wearing apparel, which they have from England, and diſpatch ſmall veſſels thither to bring ſlaves for their plantations, which muſt be recruited every year with twenty or thirty negroes to every four or five hundred acres; ſo that, notwithſtanding the means uſed to make the ſlaves propagate, this iſland alone is ſaid to receive a ſupply of a hundred thouſand negroes every thirty years; and yet at the end of that time their number was never found to be increaſed. It cannot be here improper to mention, that upon a parliamentary enquiry in 1728, it appeared, that in three years only the number of negroes ſent to Barbadoes, Jamaica, and Antigua alone amounted to forty-two thouſand.

SECT. XXII.

A conciſe Hiſtory of the Iſland of Barbadoes.

IT is not diſtinctly known when this iſland was firſt diſcovered and ſettled, but it was probably about the year 1625. When the Engliſh firſt landed here they found the country extremely wild, it having not the leaſt appearance of its ever having been peopled even by ſavages. There was no kind of beaſt of paſture, nor any marks of cultivation; yet as the climate was good, and the ſoil appeared fertile, ſome gentlemen of ſmall fortunes in England reſolved to become adventurers. The firſt planters had not only the deſolateneſs of the place and the extreme want of proviſions to ſtruggle with, but the trees were generally ſo large, of a wood ſo hard and ſtubborn, with wide ſpreading tops, that they proceeded in the neceſſary work of clearing the ground with a difficulty that muſt have ſubdued any ordinary patience. And even when they had tolerably cleared a ſmall ſpot, the firſt produce it yielded for their ſubſiſtence, probably for want of ſowing the ſeed in a proper ſoil, was ſo ſmall and ordinary, at the ſame time their ſupplies from England were ſo ſlow and precarious, that nothing but an invincible courage, and a firmneſs that cannot be ſufficiently commended, could have carried them through the diſcouragements they met with in the noble work of cultivating and peopling a deſerted part of the earth. But by degrees things wore a more favourable aſpect; ſome of the trees yielded fuſtic for the dyers; cotton and indigo were found to agree well with the ſoil; tobacco then becoming faſhionable in England, anſwered tolerably; and the country gradually began to ſubmit to culture, and to lay aſide its ſavage appearance.

This happy change, and the ſtorm that ſome time after began to gather in England, encouraged many to go over; but ſtill the colony received no encouragement from the government, which at that time underſtood the advantages of colonies but little; and the court took no other notice of this iſland than to grant it to the earl of Carliſle, which proved of no advantage to the ſettlement. However, as this colony had the hardieſt breeding, and the moſt laborious infancy of any of our ſettlements in this part of America, ſo it was far ſtronger, and grew with greater ſpeed, even to a height that ſeems incredible; for in this ſmall iſland in the year 1650, which was little more than twenty years after its firſt eſtabliſhment, it contained upwards of fifty thouſand whites of all ages and ſexes, with a much greater number of blacks and Indian ſlaves. The former of theſe ſlaves they bought; but the latter they acquired by the moſt baſe and diſhonourable methods; for they ſeized upon thoſe unhappy people, without any pretence, in the neighbouring iſlands, and carried them into ſlavery: a practice which rendered the Caribbee Indians their moſt inveterate enemies.

The ſmall iſland of Barbadoes, peopled by upwards of a hundred thouſand ſouls, was not yet above half of it cultivated, nor was the induſtry of the inhabitants at a ſtand. A little before the period juſt mentioned they learned the art of making ſugar; and this enlarging the ſphere of their trade, they grew prodigiouſly rich and numerous.

The government in England being about this time in the hands of Cromwell, confined the trade of Barbadoes to the mother country; for before it had been entirely managed by the Dutch. The ſeverity with which the royal party were treated, now obliged ſeveral gentlemen of very good families to ſettle in the iſland, which were far from being peopled like ſeveral other colonies by fugitives, and perſons in unhappy circumſtances. After the Reſtoration it continued ſtill advancing by very haſty ſtrides. King Charles II. ſoon after his aſcending the throne, created thirteen baronets from the gentlemen of this iſland, ſome of whom were worth ten thouſand pounds a year, and none ſo little as one thouſand.

On the thirty-firſt of Auguſt, 1675, the iſland was afflicted with a moſt dreadful hurricane, which it is ſaid was not inferior in its deplorable conſequences to the earthquake that happened at Jamaica; for it left never a houſe or tree ſtanding, except the few that were ſheltered by ſome neighbouring hill or cliff. Some hours before the ſtorm began the heavens were overcaſt with thick clouds of a black reddiſh hue; the air calm, but ſultry; and the more it loſt its expanſive force, the cloſer the clouds condenſed, and the blacker they appeared. In the afternoon, when the violence of the ſtorm began, the wind was high, and varying almoſt in an inſtant to every point of the compaſs; but ſettled chiefly at north, being attended with dreadful rain, thunder, and lightning. The ſea, where not guarded with high cliffs, overflowed its banks above an hundred yards, and during the day-light nothing was to be ſeen but one rueful ſpectacle of almoſt univerſal ruin. The night as it came on was uſhered in with a continued rumbling noiſe in the air, with the increaſe of wind, rain, thunder, and lightning; eſpecially the latter, which now with redoubled force darted, not with its uſual ſhort-lived flaſhes, but in rapid flames, ſkimming over the ſurface of the earth, as well as mounting to the upper regions. The next morning, when the ſtorm was abated, the whole iſland, ſays our author, afforded a lively but terrible idea of the tenth Egyptian plague; for there was ſcarce a houſe but lamented one dead in it, or in general ſomething equal or worſe. Several families were entirely buried in the ruins of their houſes, and there were few that eſcaped but with the loſs of ſome relation, friend, or acquaintance.

This dreadful calamity happened in the meridian of this ſettlement, when their whites were computed to be much more than fifty thouſand, and their ſlaves were increaſed to upwards of a hundred thouſand of all kinds. They employed four hundred ſail of ſhips, one with another of a hundred and fifty tons, in their trade. Their annual produce, conſiſting of ſugar, indigo, ginger, exported cotton, &c. amounted to upwards of three hundred and fifty thouſand pounds, and their circulating caſh at home was two hundred thouſand. Perhaps no country in the world was ever peopled in the ſame proportion; nor has land of the ſame dimenſions which produces any thing like the ſame profits. But ſince that time the iſland has been upon the decline. The growth of the French ſugar iſlands, and the ſettlement of Antigua, St. Chriſtopher's, Nevis, and Montſerrat, as well as the greater eſtabliſhment in Jamaica, have drawn away a vaſt number of the people. A terrible contagion attacked the iſland in the year 1692; it raged like a peſtilence; twenty have died in a day in their principal town, and all parts of the iſland ſuffered in proportion. This ſickneſs continued, with ſome abatements, for ſeveral years, and is ſaid to have rendered the climate leſs healthful than it was before. At the ſame time with this diſtemper war raged, and the Barbadians, who raiſed a good number of men, loſt many of them in fruitleſs expeditions againſt the French iſlands. All theſe cauſes contributed to reduce the number and opulence of this celebrated iſland; but it is only in compariſon with itſelf, that it can be conſidered in any other than the moſt flouriſhing condition, even at this day.

SECT. XXIII.

Of TABAGO, *or* TOBAGO.

Its Situation, Extent, Climate, Soil, Produce, particularly its valuable Spices, an Account of its Animals, and a conciſe Hiſtory of its ſeveral Revolutions.

TABAGO, the moſt eaſterly of all the Caribbee Iſlands, is ſeated in the eleventh degree ten minutes

north latitude, about thirty-five leagues to the ſouth-eaſt of St. Vincent, forty leagues eaſt of Grenada, twelve leagues north-eaſt of Trinidad, and between thirty and forty north-eaſt of the Spaniſh Main. It is thirty-two miles in length from the ſouth-eaſt to the north-weſt, and about nine broad from eaſt to weſt, the whole being above ſeventy miles in compaſs; ſo that it is rather larger than Barbadoes, or indeed than any of our Leeward Iſlands. At a ſmall diſtance from the north-eaſt extremity is a ſmall iſland called Little Tabago, which is two miles in length and a mile in breadth.

The climate of Tabago is not ſo hot as might be expected from its being ſeated ſo near the equator; and it is ſaid to enjoy one favourable circumſtance, which is of the greateſt advantage, this is its lying out of the courſe of thoſe hurricanes that have ſometimes proved ſo fatal to the other Weſt India iſlands.

The ſurface of the iſland is agreeably diverſified with hills and vales; its north weſt extremity is mountainous; but no part of it is rugged or impaſſable. Its ſoil is of different kinds; but in general its mould is black, rich, and proper for producing, in the greateſt plenty, whatever is raiſed in other parts of the Weſt Indies. The many ſprings on the iſland contribute to its healthfulneſs, and its bays and creeks are ſo diſpoſed as to be very commodious for all kind of ſhipping: yet its ſituation requires fortifications, eſpecially as the natural richneſs of the iſland ſerves but to render it the more inviting to invaders.

The valuable trees which grow in Tabago are perhaps its richeſt produce; for, beſides its producing the different kinds of wood to be found in the Weſt India iſlands, the Dutch, by whom it was once ſettled, affirm, that both the true nutmeg and the cinnamon tree, with that which produces the real gum copal, grows upon this iſland. The Dutch can indeed be ſcarcely ſuppoſed to be deceived in the natural properties of thoſe valuable trees, which they acknowledge to be, in ſome reſpects, different from thoſe in their plantations in the Eaſt Indies; yet a great doubt remains, whether they are the original productions of Tabago, or whether they had not been imported and planted there from the Eaſt Indies. Tho' the latter is the moſt probable opinion, yet as the fact itſelf, which is undiſputed, evinces that thoſe rich ſpices may be cultivated upon the iſland, it renders it an object highly worthy the attention of the public. This iſland is alſo ſaid to produce five different kinds of pepper, the long, the cod, the bell, the round, and Jamaica pepper, all which we are told grow upon the iſland without culture.

The ſoil naturally produces Indian and Guinea corn; but no Engliſh grain, except peaſe and beans, can be raiſed there. The fig-trees produce as good fruit as thoſe of Spain and Portugal. The pomegranate, the pine-apple, the banana, the prickle-apple, oranges of two ſorts; lemons and limes of both kinds, ſour and ſweet, are found in plenty upon this iſland; and the marmalade made of its guavas is inferior to none. Plantanes grow here of an excellent kind, as do tamarinds, grapes, the cuſtard-apple, the ſour-apple, the papaw-apple, the mammee-apple, and the yellow plum are plentiful here. The cherries that grow upon the iſland are but indifferent. The cocoa-nut, of which we have given a deſcription in treating of Aſia, grows here to ſuch perfection, that the Indians call it God's-tree, as producing both meat, drink, and cloathing. Cucumbers, muſk and water melons, pomkins, and gourds, likewiſe thrive here. The inhabitants have alſo potatoes, yams, caſſava-root, onions, carrots, parſnips, and turnips.

Horſes, cows, aſſes, ſheep, deer, goats, and rabbits, were probably introduced by the Courlanders and Dutch, and their breed are ſtill to be found on the iſland. Here are alſo the pickery, which reſembles a hog, armadilloes, and guanoes.

Its ſhores are ſtored with excellent fiſh, particularly with turtle of every kind, and mullets of a moſt delicious taſte, with other ſorts unknown in England: no iſland, perhaps in the world, can boaſt of ſuch variety of fowl.

We ſhall now give a conciſe hiſtory of this iſland, which was firſt diſcovered by Columbus in 1498; but it does not appear that the Spaniards ever made any ſettlement upon it. At length, in 1628, William, earl of Pembroke, obtained a grant of this iſland from king Charles I. but dying ſoon after, the deſign of peopling it dropped. About the year 1632, ſome Zealanders trading in theſe ſeas, took ſuch a liking to this iſland, that upon their return home, they engaged the company of merchants, to which they belonged, to ſettle it; and it received the name of New Walcheren, from one of the largeſt iſlands in the province of Zealand. The new colony ſoon encreaſed to about two hundred; but being attacked by the Spaniards and Indians, they were all of them exterminated.

Some years after, James duke of Courland ſent a colony of his own ſubjects to this iſland, who ſettled upon what was afterwards called Courland-Bay, and erected a ſmall regular fort, with a town in its neighbourhood. Here they lived ſo inoffenſively, that they remained unmoleſted either by the Caribbees or the Spaniards; and found the ſoil ſo good, that the colony ſoon made an excellent appearance. They were ſupplied from their own country with all kinds of utenſils, and flouriſhed to ſuch a degree as to awaken the jealouſy of the Dutch, who revived their claim. In 1654, Meſſ. Adrian and Cornelius Lampſin of Fluſhing, two Dutch merchants, fitted out ſome ſhips, and landed ſome men on Tobago; but finding the Courlanders too powerful to be oppoſed, took poſſeſſion of a different part of the iſland now called Rockley-Bay, acknowledging themſelves under the protection of the duke of Courland.

But the duke, having given umbrage to Charles Guſtavus of Sweden, had the misfortune to be taken priſoner in 1658, and to be carried to Riga. This news reaching Tobago, the Dutch beſieged and took the Courlanders fort, and thus became maſters of the whole iſland; but promiſed to reſtore the fort as ſoon as the duke ſhould recover his liberty.

The court of France ſoon after inſerting Tabago among the other iſlands granted to the French Weſt-India company; and the Dutch planters, thinking this a favourable opportunity for eſtabliſhing themſelves under ſo powerful a protection, Lampſin, in 1662, applied to the court of France, where he had ſuch intereſt, that he was created baron of Tobago, and becoming ſole proprietor of the iſland, under the crown of France, ſent over M. Hubert de Beveren as governor. The new governor called the town his countrymen had built, Lampſinburg; and gave the ſame name to the harbour, and alſo to a regular fortreſs he erected at the ſame time. He likewiſe built Fort Beveren; and beſides raiſing ſeveral other forts for the ſecurity of the colony, laid the foundation of a new town, which he intended to call New Fluſhing. Mean while the planters proceeded with great ſpirit; they laid out cacao walks, which ſerved equally the purpoſes of beauty and profit; erected indigo-works and ſugar-mills; and Tobago ſeemed as if it would ſoon rival the moſt flouriſhing of the Engliſh Weſt-India ſettlements.

The duke of Courland, being at length reſtored to his liberty by the treaty of Oliva, demanded of the States General the reſtoration of his fort on the iſland of Tobago; but not meeting with any ſucceſs, he applied to Charles II. king of England, who granted to him that iſland, on conſideration of certain ſervices reſerved to the crown of Great Britain; this only ſerved to put the Dutch at Tobago on their guard: but ſoon after, in the firſt Dutch war, the Engliſh privateers deſtroyed the Dutch forts and colony of Tobago; however, in the ſucceeding war carried on by the French and Dutch againſt England, the Engliſh were, in their turn, diſpoſſeſſed of the iſland, and the Dutch reinſtated in it. It afterwards ſerved as a rendezvous for the combined fleets of the two nations, who by this means did prodigious damage to the Engliſh trade; but before the end of the war, Sir John Harman attacked and defeated their joint ſquadrons, and totally deſtroyed the remains of that of France. The Dutch, however, after the defeat of their fleet, and that of their allies, not only kept poſſeſſion of Tobago, but in five years time fortified it with three ſtrong forts, and a numerous artillery; ſo that it was conſidered as impregnable; yet Sir Tobias Bridges, in 1673, made a deſcent upon the iſland, which he not only plundered, but carried away four hundred of the inhabitants priſoners.

The peace which took place the next year between the Engliſh and Dutch, left the latter once more in poſſeſ-

ſion

ſion of this iſland; and they even conquered from the French the iſland of Cayenne. They kept it however but a ſhort time; for the count of D'Etrees, vice-admiral of France, ſoon after reconquered Cayenne, and appeared before Tobago. James Binkes, the admiral of Zealand, was then lying in Great Rockley harbour, with a ſtrong ſquadron of Dutch ſhips, which the count attacked by ſea and land, on the third of March 1677; when, after a deſperate engagement, the Glorieux, the count's ſhip of ſeventy guns, with ſeveral others, being blown up, he was obliged to retire, having firſt deſtroyed in the engagement great part of the Dutch ſquadron. Towards the end of the year the count was reinforced with a ſtronger ſquadron, when landing his men, he regularly inveſted the principal fort in the iſland, which he found ſo ſtrong, that he was obliged to bombard it; but the third bomb that was thrown fell upon a magazine of powder, which blew up the fortreſs, together with admiral Binkes, and the greateſt part of the officers and garriſon. The count then completed the reduction of the iſland, and on the twenty-ſeventh of December the ſame year, entirely deſtroyed the Dutch colony.

After this, the Engliſh publiſhed propoſals for ſettling the iſland; but theſe were never carried into execution: and at the peace of Aix-la-Chapelle, Tobago was one of the four iſlands that were declared neutral. Notwithſtanding this, the marquis de Caylus, governor of the French iſlands, ſent troops and men to fortify and ſettle it; but the Britiſh court warmly remonſtrating to the court of France, againſt ſo manifeſt a violation of the peace, the French diſavowed his proceedings, ordered him home, and the ſettlement to be diſcontinued. In this ſtate it remained till the definitive treaty of Fontainbleau, by which Tobago was ceded to Great Britain; after which the government of it was given by his preſent majeſty to colonel Melvil, and meaſures taken to ſell the land in ſhares, and people the country.

SECT. XXIV.

Of GRANADA, *and the* GRANADILLAS, or GRANADINES.

A Deſcription of Grenada, or Granada, and of the ſmaller Iſlands; their Situation, Extent, Produce, and Hiſtory.

THE chief of theſe iſlands, named Granada, or Grenada, is ſituated in the twelfth degree north latitude, and in the ſixty-firſt degree forty minutes weſt longitude. It is the laſt of the Windward Caribbees, and lies thirty leagues north of New Andaluſia, on the continent. It is ſaid to be about thirty miles in length, in ſome places fifteen in breadth, and about ſixty-ſix in circumference.

Granada and the Granadines produce very fine timber; the latin tree, which grows here, has a tall body, and its leaves, when tied together, ſerve as thatch for houſes; experience has proved, that its ſoil is fit for producing ſugar, tobacco, and indigo; and upon the whole it carries with it all the appearances of becoming as flouriſhing a colony as any in the Weſt Indies of its dimenſions.

A lake on the top of a high hill in the middle of the iſland ſupplies it with ſtreams of freſh water, which render the ſoil extremely fertile, and it abounds with wild game; among the fowl are wood-pigeons, thruſhes, and parrots; and among the fiſh are eels, mullets, and cray-fiſh.

Several bays and harbours lie round the iſland, ſome of which might be fortified to great advantage; ſo that it is very convenient for ſhipping, and has the happineſs of not being ſubject to hurricanes. The chief port, called Lewis, is on the weſt ſide, in the middle of a large bay, with a ſandy botom; and it is ſaid that a thouſand veſſels from three hundred to four hundred tons may ride ſecure from ſtorms, and that a hundred ſhips of a thouſand tons each may be moored in the harbour: beſides, a large round baſon, which is parted from it by a bank of ſand, if cut through would contain a conſiderable number of ſhips. At preſent large ſhips, on account of this ſand-bank, paſs within eighty paces of one of the mountains that lie at the mouth of the harbour; the oppoſite mountain lying at about half a mile diſtance. One of theſe mountains, when the Engliſh reduced the iſland, was ſtrongly fortified, and might have made a good defence, but ſurrendered without firing a gun.

With reſpect to the hiſtory of this iſland, it will be proper to obſerve, that in 1638 the famous M. de Poincy attempting to make a ſettlement here, was driven off by the Caribbees. Afterwards M. Parquet, governor of Martinico, carried over two hundred men from that iſland, furniſhed with preſents to procure the favour of the natives, and with arms to ſubdue them, ſhould they prove untractable. The number of the French are ſaid to have frighted the ſavages into ſubmiſſion; and we are told that their chief not only welcomed the new ſettlers, but, in conſideration of their being preſented with ſome hatchets, knives, ſciſſars, toys, and the like, yielded to Parquet the property of the iſland, only reſerving to themſelves their habitations. The French began with raiſing tobacco, which proved remarkably good; but they had ſcarcely got in one crop, when they began to diſcover that all the ſeeming complaiſance of the natives was diſſembled; who now took every opportunity of cutting off their new gueſts. This produced a war, and the colony having received a reinforcement of three hundred men from Martinico, drove the natives to a mountain, where, having exhauſted all their arrows and other weapons, they rolled down trunks of trees on their enemies. They were ſoon after joined by other ſavages from the neighbouring iſlands, and attacked the French with freſh vigour, but were again defeated; yet were ſo deſperate, that forty of them who had eſcaped the ſword, threw themſelves from a precipice into the ſea. The French then vented their rage on the habitations of the natives, levelled them with the ground, and deſtroyed their proviſions.

Freſh ſupplies of Caribbees however arriving, the war was renewed, and they killed many of their enemies; on which the latter came to a reſolution of exterminating the whole race upon the iſland, and a hundred and fifty attacking them by ſurprize, inhumanly murdered, not only the men, but the women and children; and likewiſe ſet fire to their canoes, to cut off all communication between the ſurvivors and the Caribbees of the neighbouring iſlands. The French were here the ſavages, and not the Caribbees.

Theſe barbarities exaſperated the Caribbees ſtill more againſt the French; they became their irreconcileable enemies, and by their frequent oppoſition at laſt obliged Parquet to deſiſt from his deſign of peopling the iſland, his property in which he ſold to the count de Cerillac in 1657 for thirty thouſand crowns. The count ſent thither as governor a perſon of brutal manners, who by his behaviour made the better ſort of the French abandon it; and ſoon after he was ſhot by thoſe that remained. In 1664 there remained no more than a hundred and fifty planters out of five hundred, who, when the count bought it, were ſettled on the iſland; yet he ſold it to the French Weſt India company for a hundred thouſand crowns: but in 1674 they were obliged to ſurrender all their rights in it to the king.

After this the iſland continued to be inhabited chiefly by the French; but was never fully ſettled. In the laſt war, when Granada was reduced by the Engliſh, the French inhabitants, who were not very numerous, were ſo amazed at the reduction of Guadaloupe and Martinico, that they loſt all ſpirit, and ſurrendered without making the leaſt oppoſition. Afterwards the full property of this iſland, and of the Grenades, which bear nearly the ſame products as Grenada, were confirmed to the crown of Great Britain by the definitive treaty of 1763, and are now in part ſettled by the ſubjects of Great Britain.

We have now concluded our account of the Britiſh dominions in America; an amazing tract of country, much improved, and ſtill capable of immenſe improvements.

CHAP. V.

Of the FRENCH AMERICAN Dominions, particularly LOUISIANA, and the FRENCH WEST INDIAN Iſlands.

SECT. I.

Of LOUISIANA.

Its Situation, Extent, and Produce; with a conciſe Deſcription of New Orleans; and ſome Obſervations with regard to the French Policy, with reſpect to their Colonies.

LOUISIANA was, till lately, conſidered as a much more extenſive country than it is at preſent; M. de Liſle extending it on the north to Canada; on the eaſt to the provinces of New York, Penſylvania, Virginia, Carolina, and Georgia; on the ſouth to the Gulph of Mexico; and on the weſt to New Mexico, New Spain, and unknown countries inhabited by Indians. But by the ſeventh article of the late treaty of peace, a great part of this country, containing all on the eaſt-ſide the river Miſſiſſippi, was ceded to Great Britain; and of this we have already given as accurate an account as it was poſſible for us to obtain.

The country at preſent named Louiſiana, extends from the twenty-ninth to the fortieth degree of north-latitude, and from about the eighty-eighth to the ninety-ſixth or ninety-ſeventh degree weſt-longitude from London. The ſoil is very indifferent near the mouth of the Miſſiſſippi; but the country contains a great deal of excellent land, well ſtocked with a variety of trees, planted by the hand of nature; the ſoil on the ſouth is adapted to the cultivation of indigo, cotton, tobacco, and rice, and the north, to that of wheat; but ſeveral ſpots of great extent, on the eaſtern ſide of the Miſſiſſippi, are no leſs fertile.

With reſpect to the vegetables, and the wild animals, they are, in general, the ſame as thoſe we have deſcribed in treating of Virginia, and the other Britiſh plantations. The Miſſiſſippi, with the many ſmaller rivers that water this country, abound with a variety of fiſh; but their banks are much infeſted with alligators, and ſnakes of a very large ſize; as the air of the low-lands, near the rivers, is with muſketoes.

The iſle of Orleans, at the mouth of the Miſſiſſippi, is a very beautiful and fertile ſpot of ground, on which the French have a conſiderable city, named New Orleans, which is the capital, and indeed the only city of Louiſiana. It is fortified in a regular manner, and according to ſome French authors, has about ſix hundred handſome houſes, and five pariſh churches; with ſtraight and handſome ſtreets, that croſs each other at right angles: but the buildings are chiefly of wood, and not remarkable for their beauty.

The French have ſeveral other ſettlements in the country, and are ſuppoſed by major Rogers, to amount to about one hundred thouſand; the negroes are alſo very numerous; and he obſerves, that as the number of the inhabitants increaſes very faſt, it may in a ſhort time become a very formidable colony.

Before we proceed farther, in the deſcription of the French colonies, it will give ſome ſatisfaction to the reader to know the plan of conduct which France has purſued, with regard to this intereſting and important ſubject. They are ſenſible that as the mother-country is ultimately to receive all the benefits of their labours and acquiſitions, the proſperity of their plantations muſt be derived from the attention with which they are regarded at home: for this reaſon, the plantations are particularly under the care and inſpection of the council of commerce, a board compoſed of twelve of the moſt conſiderable officers of the crown, aſſiſted by the deputies of all the conſiderable trading cities and towns in France, who are choſen out of the richeſt and moſt intelligent of their traders, and paid a handſome ſalary for their attendance at Paris, from the funds of their reſpective cities. This council ſits once a week, when the deputies propoſe plans for redreſſing every grievance in trade; for raiſing the branches that are fallen; for extending new ones; for ſupporting the old; and in fine, for every thing that may improve the working, or promote the vent of their manufactures, according to their own lights, or the inſtructions of their conſtituents. They have a watchful eye upon every article of commerce; and not only propoſe improvements themſelves, but hear the propoſals of others, which are neither diſdainfully rejected, nor raſhly received. They neither render the acceſs to them difficult, by affecting ſtate; nor admit the vexatious practice of fees, and perquiſites, in their inferior officers; nor ſuffer forms and methods to load and incumber that buſineſs they were ſolely intended to advance. They ſummon and examine thoſe who are ſuppoſed to be the moſt competent judges of the matter before them, even the meaneſt artizans; but though they examine theſe men, they are determined by their own opinion. When they are ſatisfied of the uſefulneſs of any regulation, they propoſe it to the royal council, where their report is always received with particular attention. An edict to enforce it accordingly iſſues; and is executed with a punctuality that diſtinguiſhes their government, and which alone can render the wiſeſt regulations any thing better than ſerious mockeries. To this body the care of the plantations is particularly entruſted.

The government of their ſeveral colonies is in a governor, an intendant, and a royal council. The governor is inveſted with a great deal of power; which on the ſide of the crown, is checked by the intendant, who has the care of the king's rights, and whatever relates to the revenue; and on the ſide of the people, it is checked by the royal council, whoſe office it is to ſee that the people are not oppreſſed by the one, nor defrauded by the other; and they are all checked by the conſtant and jealous eye which the government at home keeps over them; the officers of all the ports of France being charged, under the ſevereſt penalties, to interrogate all captains of ſhips coming from the colonies, on the reception they met with at the ports to which they have ſailed? how juſtice was adminiſtered to them? what charges they were made liable to, and of what kinds?

That the colonies may be as little burthened as poſſible, the governor's ſalary is paid by the crown: he has no perquiſites, and is ſtrictly forbidden to carry on any trade, or to have any plantations in the iſlands, or on the continent; or any intereſt whatever in goods or lands within his government, except the houſe he lives in, and a garden for his convenience and recreation. All the other officers are paid by the crown, out of the revenues of the mother country; the fortifications are built and repaired, and the ſoldiers paid out of the ſame funds.

In all the French iſlands judges of the admiralty are appointed, to decide in a ſummary manner all diſputes between merchants, and whatever has any relation to trade. Theſe judges, before they are appointed, are ſtrictly examined as to their ſkill in the marine laws, which have been improved and digeſted in France, with ſuch care and good ſenſe, that all law-ſuits are quickly decided; though in other reſpects, the practice of the law admits of as much chicanery, and has as many, if not more delays, than with us.

That the colonies may be properly repleniſhed with people, every ſhip that ſails from France for America, is obliged to carry a certain number of indented ſervants: thus all veſſels of ſixty tons, or under, are to carry

three; from ſixty to a hundred, four; and from a hundred and upwards, ſix ſervants, of ſound and ſtrong bodies, between the ages of eighteen and forty. Before their departure, they are examined by the officers of the admiralty, to ſee whether they are the perſons required by law; as they are alſo by the commiſſary, on their landing in America, where they are to ſerve three years. The avarice of the planters makes them always prefer negro ſlaves, becauſe they are more in ſubjection than the Europeans, may be more worked, are ſubſiſted with leſs difficulty, and are beſides the entire property of their maſter, which would in time render the ſafety of the colony extremely precarious. The planters are therefore obliged to keep a certain number of white ſervants in proportion to their blacks; and the execution of this law is inforced by the commiſſary, who adjuſts the price, and forces the planters to take the number of ſervants required by the ordinance, who would otherwiſe be a burden upon the maſters of ſhips who brought them.

As to the negroes, they are not left, as with us, with their bodies and ſouls wholly at the diſcretion of the planter. Their maſters are obliged to have them inſtructed in the principles of the Romiſh religion. Methods are alſo taken to protect the ſlaves from the cruelty of the planters, and to preſerve the colony from the ill effects that might ariſe from treating them with a lenity not conſiſtent with their condition. In ſhort, the Code Noir, and other ordinances relative to theſe unhappy beings, ſhew a very juſt and ſenſible mixture of humanity and ſteadineſs. Their planters, however, as well as ours, have the common error of working theſe unhappy creatures in a manner not ſuitable to their conſtitutions, and the nature of the climate.

We ſhall only add, that all debts, though contracted by the planters in France, are levied with great eaſe; for the proceſs being properly authenticated, is tranſmitted to America, where it is admitted as proved, and levied on the planter's eſtate, of whatever kind it be. Care is however taken, that while compulſory methods are uſed to make the planter do juſtice, the ſtate ſhall not loſe the benefit ariſing from the induſtry of an uſeful member of the community; the debt is always levied according to the ſubſtance of the debtor; in ſuch a manner, that one of the parties is not ſacrificed to the other; the creditor is ſatisfied; the debtor is not ruined; and the credit of the colonies is kept up at home, by the ſure methods that are uſed for recovering all demands in the plantations.

Some of theſe regulations, for which we are obliged to a judicious work lately publiſhed, entitled, An Account of the European Settlements in America, would doubtleſs be of great uſe, were they to be introduced into our colonies, eſpecially the iſlands, where proper regulations are much wanted, and where they might be eaſily rendered conformable to the mode of thoſe royal governments.

SECT. II.

Of HISPANIOLA, *or* ST. DOMINGO.

Its Name, Situation, Extent, Climate, and Produce. A conciſe Account of the Buccaneers, and the Manner in which a Part of this Iſland became Subject to the French. Their Trade; the principal Places in the Iſland; with a conciſe Account of St. Lewis, and of the Iſle of Vache, or Cows-Iſland.

WE ſhall now proceed to the iſland of Hiſpaniola, or St. Domingo, which was diſcovered by Columbus in his firſt voyage in 1492, and by him called Hiſpaniola; but afterwards building a city, which he called St. Domingo, in honour of his father Dominic, the name was firſt extended to that quarter, and at length the whole iſland was called St. Domingo, by which name it is as well known as by that of Hiſpaniola.

This iſland, part of which belongs to the Spaniards, is the largeſt of all the Antilles, next to Cuba, it extending from the ſeventeenth degree thirty-ſeven minutes, to the twentieth degree north latitude, and from the ſixty-ſeventh degree thirty-five minutes, to the ſeventy-fourth degree fifteen minutes weſt longitude; it being about four hundred and twenty-ſix miles from eaſt to weſt, and almoſt one hundred and twenty-four where broadeſt, from north to ſouth. It lies in the middle between Cuba and Jamaica, on the north-weſt and ſouth-weſt, and Porto Rico on the eaſt, and is ſeparated from the latter only by a narrow channel.

The climate is extremely hot, but cooled and refreſhed by breezes, yet the air is not reckoned unwholeſome; for ſome of the inhabitants are ſaid to live to above a hundred years of age. Its ſalubrity is ſaid to be owing in a great meaſure to its beautiful variety of hills and vallies, woods and rivers, which every where preſent themſelves to the view.

This iſland is allowed to be the moſt fruitful and the pleaſanteſt in the Weſt Indies; its foreſts contain cabbage-trees, palms, elms, oaks, pines, and other trees, taller and larger, with more beautiful and better taſted fruit than in moſt of the other iſlands, particularly pine-apples, bananas, oranges, lemons, citrons, limes, grapes, dates, and apricots. Here are alſo all the birds common to the Weſt Indies. In the ſavannas, or meadows, are innumerable herds of black cattle, that run wild in the country; horſes enough in the French part of it to ſupply all their neighbouring colonies, beſides wild horſes and wild hogs of the breed brought over by the Spaniards. The hunters ſhoot the beves for their hides, as they do in Cuba; beſides, there is ſcarce a country in the world better watered, either by brooks or navigable rivers, which are all full of fiſh, as the coaſt is with turtle. In the ſands of theſe rivers gold-duſt is found, and it had formerly mines of gold, ſilver, and copper.

The chief commodities of the iſland are hides, ſugar, indigo, cotton, cacao, coffee, ginger, tobacco, ſalt, wax, honey, ambergriſe, and various kinds of drugs and wood for dying; but it produces little corn. The French here are ſaid to equal, if not outnumber, the Spaniards, who both together fall very ſhort of what the extent and fertility of the iſland is capable of ſupporting.

This country was treated with the utmoſt ſeverity by the Spaniards, who in battle and cold blood deſtroyed no leſs than three millions of men, women, and children, and entirely extirpated the inhabitants, by many of whom, at their firſt ſettlement in this iſland, they had been treated with kindneſs.

We have already mentioned the Spaniards attempting to ruin St. Chriſtopher's, when divided between the Engliſh and French; but by this unjuſt act they brought upon themſelves a very ſevere revenge: for ſeveral of the French inhabitants, who were expelled from St. Chriſtopher's, being reduced to great indigence, began to think of deſperate courſes. They betook themſelves to piracy, and uniting with ſome Engliſh, Dutch, and other reſolute fellows, they reſolved to begin a piratical war with the Spaniards. At firſt they ſatisfied themſelves with taking their ſhips, and deſtroying their trade. This they did effectually; but ſoon encouraged, and ſtrengthened by this ſucceſs, they landed upon the continent of New Spain and Terra Firma, burning and plundering the open country. Their number and boldneſs increaſing with their ſucceſs, they aſſembled and took ſome of their ſtrongeſt fortreſſes and opulent cities, particularly Porto Bello, Campeachy, and Maracaibo; they even took the city of Panama by ſtorm, and burnt it, after defeating an army which came to its relief. In all theſe places, and in the others they had taken, they gained an incredible booty, and committed the moſt unheard of cruelties. Another party of theſe pirates paſſing the ſtreights of Magellan, and entering the South Sea, rendered the whole coaſt of Peru, Chili, and the coaſt of Mexico one ſcene of deſolation; while they were every where attended with ſucceſs, becauſe they every where acted with the bravery and conduct that, in a more juſt cauſe, would have merited the higheſt honours.

Theſe pirates, whom we improperly call Buccaneers, the French denominated Flibuſtiers, from the Dutch fly-boats, in which they made their firſt expeditions. The Buccaneers are perſons who hunt wild cattle in America

merica for their hides and tallow: ſome of whom joined the Flibuſtiers in their firſt expeditions, and from them the Engliſh gave the name of Buccaneers to the whole body. Theſe people frequently brought their prizes and plunder to Jamaica, as we have already obſerved, by which they greatly enriched that iſland. Others finding that the Spaniards were ſo weak in Hiſpaniola that they had in a manner deſerted a conſiderable part of the iſland, made it a place of rendezvous. They who hunted the cattle found the deſerts left by the Spaniſh tyranny a proper place for exerciſing their proper profeſſions. To theſe two ſorts of people were added a third, who were ſome of the French in the Leſſer Antilles; who finding how much might be gained by ſupplying men who were laviſh in their expences, and not very exact in their bargains, and perceiving that no part of America afforded a better ſoil, paſſed over to the iſland, and exerciſed the employment of planters and merchants. Theſe three ſorts of people, who were mutually of uſe to each other, lived in very good harmony. Indeed they were ſeveral times diſlodged by the Spaniards; but they ſtill returned with new ſtrength; ſo that it was with difficulty that the Spaniards were able to retain one part of the iſland.

The French court beheld in ſilence the progreſs of theſe people, and whenever complaints were made they diſavowed their proceedings: but when they at length found the French in Hiſpaniola numerous, ſtrong, and wealthy, they owned them as ſubjects, ſent them a governor, and regular forces to defend them in what they had done: the old method of piracy was ſtill connived at, while the trade of ſkins increaſed and the plantations extended. At length the French obtained a legal right by the ceſſion which the Spaniards made them of the north-weſt part of the iſland, by the treaty of Ryſwic in 1697, the beſt and moſt fertile part; and this is the principal ſettlement of the French in the Weſt Indies, and in all America.

This ſettlement begins at a large plain called Bahaia on the north ſide of the iſland, about thirty leagues eaſt of Cape Francois, extending all along the coaſt; from thence to the weſt, reaching on the ſouth ſide as far as Cape Morgon; it being two hundred leagues in circuit, and, including the windings, about a hundred more.

This colony, if it may be ſo called, has ſince met with great encouragement from France, which in 1726 had no leſs than thirty thouſand whites, and a hundred thouſand negroes; they made ſixty thouſand hogſheads of ſugar of five hundred weight each; the indigo was half as much in value as the ſugar; they likewiſe exported large quantities of cotton, and alſo ſent a conſiderable quantity of cacao and ginger to France. Since that time they have raiſed coffee here to a very great amount, and all the other branches of their commercial products have ſince that period increaſed to an aſtoniſhing degree. A Spaniſh writer of great judgment, who was well informed, and who wrote about ſeventeen years ago, reckons the produce of the plantations near Cape Francois, the capital of French Hiſpaniola, and which were exported from that ſingle town, at thirty thouſand tons in ſugar, tobacco, indigo, and coffee, which at the loweſt calculation cannot amount to leſs than ſix hundred thouſand pounds ſterling. If to this be added the exports of the two conſiderable ports of Petit Guaves and Leogane, and the other inferior ones, which are ſuppoſed to ſend out at leaſt as much as the capital, the exported produce of the iſland muſt be annually worth one million two hundred thouſand pounds. There is another branch of trade of extraordinary advantage to the mother-country, which is that they carry on with the Spaniards wholly in the manufactures of France, and for which they receive their returns in ſilver; and this article alone is ſaid to bring annually to France no leſs than two millions of dollars.

The principal places in the iſland are Cape Francois, which is ſituated on the northern part, and is by the French often called the Cape, by way of eminence. It ſtands in the nineteenth degree thirty-five minutes north latitude, and in the ſixty-eighth degree forty-nine minutes weſt longitude, and contains about eight thouſand whites and blacks. In the middle of it is a ſpacious ſquare, about three hundred paces in length and breadth, at which ſeven or eight ſtreets terminate: but this town was deſtroyed in the beginning of the reign of king William by the Engliſh and Spaniards in conjunction. The town is neither walled nor paled in, and is ſaid to have only two batteries, one at the entrance of the harbour, and the other before the town.

Leogane, on the weſt ſide, though inferior in point of ſize, is a good port, a place of conſiderable trade, and the ſeat of the French government, which is in the hands of the governor and an intendant, who are mutually a check upon each other. There are beſides two other towns conſiderable for their trade, Petit Guaves at the weſt end of the iſland, and Port Louis on the ſouth-weſt part.

The capital city belonging to the Spaniards is St. Domingo, ſituated in the eighteenth degree ſeven minutes north latitude, and in the ſixty-ninth degree twenty-ſeven minutes weſt longitude. It is a large well built city, with a good port, and has ſeveral magnificent ſtructures, particularly the houſes of the king of Spain's collectors; with a fine cathedral, ſeven large monaſteries, and two nunneries; beſides a mint, and a college, which has a revenue of four hundred ducats; an univerſity, and an hoſpital endowed with twenty thouſand ducats a year. This city is the ſeat of an archbiſhop, and the reſidence of the governor-general of the Spaniſh Indies and of the judges of the royal courts. The greateſt part of the little trade the Spaniards have in this iſland is carried on from this port, which has fifteen fathoms water at the bar, is large and ſafe, it being defended by ſeveral batteries and a caſtle, with other fortifications. The town is built of ſtone after the Spaniſh manner, and has a large ſquare market-place in the middle of it, about which are the cathedral and other publick buildings; and from this ſquare the principal ſtreets run in a direct line, they being croſſed by others at right angles. The town is almoſt of a quadrangular form, and its ſituation very delightful, between a large navigable river on the weſt, the ocean on the ſouth, and a fine fruitful country on the north and eaſt.

In the French part of Hiſpaniola are the two following iſlands.

St. Louis is about ſix leagues to the north-eaſt of the iſle of Vache, and is ſcarce half a mile long and not a quarter of a mile over; but the French have here a fort. This iſland is juſt high enough not to be over-flown at high water. It is ſeparated from Hiſpaniola by a ſtreight not three quarters of a mile in breadth, where ſmall veſſels ride in deep water cloſe to the ſhore. There is not a drop of freſh water in the iſland, and the rain ſoaks through it immediately as if it were a ſieve; ſo that thoſe who live upon it fetch their water every day from a little river in Hiſpaniola, at the diſtance of a mile and a half. In 1737, an hurricane in this little iſland levelled a town with the ground, except the church and two houſes: ſeveral dwellings about the fort were alſo blown down; the ſhips that were at anchor under it were caſt upon the coaſt, or driven out to ſea; but ſome veſſels and magazines were burnt by lightning, ſeveral perſons were drowned, and all the ſugar-canes and cotton trees in the iſland and its neighbourhood were deſtroyed.

Vache, or Cows-Iſland, is about three leagues from Hiſpaniola, and five or ſix leagues in length. The ſoil is very good, and it has two or three tolerable ports, one of which is able to receive ſhips of three hundred tons burthen. The iſland is conveniently ſeated for a trade with the Spaniſh colonies on the continent of America, and for maintaining an intercourſe with the iſland of Cayenne, the only French ſettlement on the coaſt of South America. It received its name from its being uſed for the grazing of black cattle and hogs, and here the Buccaneers uſed formerly to rendezvous to ſhare the ſpoils they took from the Spaniards.

There are many other ſmall iſlands round Hiſpaniola, moſt of which are uninhabited.

SECT.

SECT. III.

Of ST. BARTHOLOMEW, MARIGALANTE, *and* DESEADA.

Their Situation, Extent, and Produce; with a ſhort View of their Hiſtory.

ST. Bartholomew's is ſituated in the eighteenth degree north latitude, and in the ſixty-ſecond degree thirty minutes weſt longitude, twenty-five miles north of St. Chriſtopher's, and thirty north-eaſt of Saba; it is reckoned only fifteen miles in circumference, but produces tobacco and caſſava, and is covered with trees that give it a delightful appearance, as the ſope tree, the calabaſh tree, the canapia tree, which yields a very pleaſant and ſalutary gum, lignum-vitæ, and iron-wood. On the ſhore are found the fiſh called the ſea-ſtar and the ſea-apple; and has alſo an infinite variety of birds. It has, however, no freſh water, but the rain ſaved by the inhabitants in ciſterns. It is encompaſſed by ſo many rocks, that it is dangerous for ſhips of great burthen to come near it. The harbour is, however, a very good one, and from thence in time of war the French greatly annoy our trade.

This iſland was peopled in 1648, by Poincy the French governor of St. Chriſtopher's; and as the ſoil was thought but indifferent, the French were ſuffered to enjoy it without moleſtation till the year 1689, when Sir Timothy Thornhill landed upon it. The inhabitants had, during their long tranquility, fortified their iſland with batteries and breaſt-works, which extended over two acres of ground, and were double paliſadoed round with ſtakes ſix feet high. Sir Timothy however made himſelf maſter of theſe works, and after ravaging the iſland, carried off about ſeven hundred of the inhabitants with their cattle and effects, ſending the men to Nevis, and the women to St. Chriſtopher's. The Engliſh government thinking this proceeding too ſevere, ſuffered the inhabitants to return to the iſland, but they were to poſſeſs it as Engliſh ſubjects. However, at the peace of Ryſwic it was reſtored to the crown of France. During the firſt war with France, that broke out under George II. this iſland was ſo convenient to the French for privateering, that above fifty Engliſh ſhips were carried into its harbour; and therefore, two privateers from Antigua attacked the French by ſurprize, and reduced the inhabitants before they had time to defend themſelves, making near four hundred white people priſoners, of whom one hundred and forty were fit to bear arms, and alſo three hundred negroes. It was however reſtored to the French, who have retained the poſſeſſion of it ever ſince. Its chief productions for exportation are drugs and lignum vitæ, with lime-ſtone, which the inhabitants ſend to the neighbouring iſlands.

The iſland of Marigalante is ſeated in the ſixty-firſt degree weſt longitude, and in the fifteenth degree forty minutes north latitude, about thirty miles north-eaſt of Dominica, and forty ſouth-eaſt of Guadaloupe: it was diſcovered by Columbus in 1493, who gave it the name of his own ſhip.

This iſland, which is about ſixteen miles from north to ſouth, and four from eaſt to weſt, is full of hills; along the eaſtern ſhore run high rocks, ſo perpendicular, that they ſeem formed by art, and give ſhelter to a prodigious number of tropic birds, they being as full of holes as a pigeon-houſe. On the ſouth-eaſt ſide of the iſland are black rocks; but the weſtern ſhore is plain. The iſland has ſeveral large grottos, with many little ſtreams and ponds of freſh water: it is covered with trees; and particularly abounds with tobacco, and the wild cinnamon tree. Its product is the ſame with the reſt of the Caribbee iſlands, and the plantations are on the ſouth ſide. At the time of its being laſt reduced by the Britiſh arms, it annually produced no more than a thouſand hogſheads of ſugar.

The French began to ſend colonies hither about the year 1647; and, after a long conteſt, remained in poſſeſſion of it; but it was afterwards twice plundered by the Dutch; and in 1691, general Codrington and commodore Wright ſailed thither from the Leeward iſlands, and landing their men, took the town and fort without oppoſition, made the governor and his lieutenant priſoners, and ruined the plantations. Since that time Marigalante could ſcarcely be called an object of military operations, and the Engliſh became twice maſters of it, excluſive of its laſt ſubmiſſion, without reſiſtance, and by the late definitive treaty it was reſtored to France.

Deſeada, or Deſirada, that is, The Deſireable Iſland, received its name from Columbus, it being the firſt of the Caribbee Iſlands he diſcovered in his ſecond voyage in 1493. It is ſituated in the ſixteenth degree twenty minutes north latitude, and in the ſixty-firſt degree twenty minutes weſt longitude; about twenty miles to the north-eaſt of Guadaloupe. It extends ſixteen miles in length, and two in breadth. Some part of it is very fertile, the ſoil being proper for the cultivation of ſugar and cotton, of which laſt it produces the beſt in all the French iſlands. Deſeada was of importance during the late war, on account of the convenient ſhelter its ports afforded to privateers; it was however then taken by the Engliſh; but was reſtored to France by the definitive treaty of 1763.

SECT. IV.

Of GUADALOUPE.

Its Name, Situation, Mountains; with a particular Deſcription of a Volcano, called the Mount of Sulphur. The Climate, Vegetables, and Animals. With a conciſe Account of the little Iſlands called Xaintes, or All Saints. A Hiſtory of Guadaloupe, and an Account of its Trade.

THE iſland of Guardaloupe, or Guadaloupe, was thus called by Columbus, from the reſemblance of its mountains to thoſe of that name in Spain. It is ſituated in the ſixteenth degree ſix minutes north latitude, and in the ſixty-ſecond degree weſt longitude, about thirty leagues to the north-weſt of Martinico, and is the largeſt, as well as the fineſt iſland belonging to the French in thoſe parts, it being about forty-five miles in length, and thirty-eight in breadth; and is divided into two parts by a ſmall arm of the ſea, or rather a narrow channel, through which no ſhip can venture; but the inhabitants paſs it in a ferry-boat. The country on the eaſt ſide, which is called Grand Terra, is deſtitute of freſh water, which abounds in the other diviſion, and is defended by fort Louis, with a redoubt which commands the road. The weſtern part is called Baſſe Terra, and here the metropolis ſtands, which is defended by a citadel and other fortifications.

This iſland is encumbered with many high mountains and precipices, to which the inhabitants uſed to convey their moſt valuable effects in time of danger: here are alſo many beautiful plains watered by brooks and rivers, which fertilize the ſoil, and enable it to produce a great quantity of ſugar, cotton, indigo, tobacco, and caſſia; bananas, pine-apples, rice, maize, ginger, mandioca, and potatoes.

In this iſland is a hill, called the Mountain of Sulphur, which riſes to a great height; the top of it is bare, with nothing upon it but fern, and ſome ſorry ſhrubs laden with moſs; but it affords a fine view of Dominica, Marigalante, Martinico, Montſerrat, Nevis, and the other neighbouring iſlands. Upon the higheſt part is a rugged platform covered with burnt ſtones of all ſizes, and from ſeveral clefts and chinks iſſue ſmoke. On the eaſt ſide are two mouths which open into a pit of ſulphur, one of which is an oval hole of about a hundred feet in its greateſt diameter, out of which alſo frequently riſes thick clouds of black ſmoke, accompanied with ſparks of fire. The negroes who ſell brimſtone fetch it from this mountain. About two hundred paces below the loweſt of theſe mouths are three pools of very hot water, four or five paces from one another; that of the largeſt is very dark coloured, and ſmells like the water in ſmith's forges: the ſecond is whitiſh, and has the taſte of allum: the third is blue, and has a vitriolic taſte. Here are alſo ſeveral ſmall ſprings, which uniting their ſtreams, form ſeveral torrents. The middle and bottom of this burning mountain are extremely different from

from the top of it, they being covered with tall trees and herbage, watered by a number of rivulets, and cultivated with all poſſible care and induſtry.

Near the little iſland of Goyaves are found ſprings that are boiling hot, and are ſaid to contain many medicinal properties, particularly in the cure of dropſies.

In the Grand Terre are ſeveral indentings made by the ſea and the land, capacious enough to ſhelter veſſels from ſtorms, and ſhaded by palmeto trees, to which they may be faſtened. That called the Great Col de Sac affords excellent riding for ſhips of all burthens.

The air is clear and ſalubrious, and among the vegetables are the copau tree, famous for its ſanative balſam or oil: the milk ſhrub, from whoſe fibres are preſt a liquor that reſembles milk; and the corbary tree, which bears fruit covered with a ſhell, within which is a downy pulp of a ſaffron colour, that yields a gum, which being hardened in the ſun becomes very clear and ſolid, ſo that the native Caribbees formerly uſed it for bracelets and other ornaments.

The moſt remarkable bird is one ſaid to be peculiar to this iſland and Dominica, though it is a bird of paſſage. It is called the devil bird, from the blackneſs of its plumage, and is of the ſize of a young pullet. Its wings are long, its legs ſhort, and its feet, which are like thoſe of a duck, have ſtrong claws: its beak is crooked, ſharp, hard, and in length about an inch and a half: its eyes are large, and ſerve to diſtinguiſh fiſh, which it catches at night in the ſea; but it is unable to bear the light in the day-time when flying; ſo that theſe birds often ruſh upon interpoſing objects and fall down. After their fiſhing in the night they repair to the Devil's Mountain, where they lodge by pairs in holes like rabbits. They continue there during the months of October and November, tho' they are ſeen ſingly in other months; but all of them diſappear in May, and are never ſeen again till September. The negroes of the iſland have a peculiar way of hunting theſe birds with dogs and hawks. Their fleſh, when cured of its fiſhy taſte, is good and nouriſhing food, and, during their ſeaſon, the negroes and poor of the iſland ſubſiſt upon them.

The gulphs on the coaſts of Guadaloupe contain turtles, ſharks, land-crabs, and many kinds of fiſh.

The bees of Guadaloupe are entirely different from thoſe of Europe, they being black, ſmaller, and without ſtings. They never hive but in hollow trees, and their wax, which is of a dark purple approaching to black, is too ſoft for candles, and cannot be bleached. Theſe bees, inſtead of making combs, depoſit their honey in bladders of wax, of about the form and ſize of a pigeon's egg: but this honey is ſaid never to harden, nor become of any other conſiſtence than that of olive oil.

The iſland is peſtered with an inſect called a ravet, ſhaped like a May bug, of an offenſive ſmell, and preying upon paper, books, and furniture; and whatever they do not gnaw is diſcoloured by their ordure. Theſe offenſive inſects, which are very numerous and appear chiefly by night, would be intolerable, were it not for a large ſpider which entangles them in its web, and takes all opportunities of ſurprizing them, on which account the inhabitants are very careful not to offer the leaſt injury to theſe ſpiders.

Under the government of Guadaloupe are comprehended Deſeada, juſt deſcribed, and the iſlands of Xaintes, or All Saints. Theſe laſt are three in number, and their ſoil is pretty much the ſame with that of Guadaloupe. The weſtermoſt iſland, which is the beſt, is about nine miles in compaſs; but none of theſe iſlands ſeem ever to have been properly inhabited, on account of their being deſtitute of freſh water, though they produce all the other neceſſaries of life.

We have no account of the hiſtory of this iſland from the time of Columbus to the inſtitution of the French general company of the American iſlands in 1635, who being unable of themſelves to plant or cultivate their iſlands, empowered M. St. Olive, their lieutenant-general of St. Chriſtopher's, and M. du Pleſſis, to contract with ſome merchants of Dieppe for ſettling Guadaloupe. The religious differences in France ſoon produced adventurers, who, beſides the inducement of enjoying liberty of conſcience, were ſtimulated by views of intereſt. Thoſe merchants contracted with four hundred men, who were obliged to ſerve them four years, but many of the proteſtant adventurers were far from imagining that the new ſettlement was under the direction of cardinal Richlieu, who ſent with them four Dominican friars, provided with full powers from pope Urban VIII.

The adventurers happened to make an unfortunate choice of the place on which they landed, for the ſoil was bad: as an addition to this misfortune, D'Olive and Du Pleſſis diſagreed in the partition of their command, and had been guilty of an unpardonable overſight, in not being provided with ſufficient ſtores; for on examining them, they found no more left than could maintain them for two months, on which the two chiefs dividing them, as well as the men and ammunition, agreed to ſeparate.

The natives, ſo far from ſhewing any diſlike to them, aſſiſted them in raiſing their huts, and not only furniſhed them with caſſava bread, but with ſeed for raiſing tobacco, cotton, and peaſe; and taught them to catch turtle and fiſh. The French probably made an ungrateful return for this kindneſs, ſince they were ſoon after afflicted with a dreadful famine, of which many died: others retired to St. Chriſtopher's, and thoſe who remained were reduced to the horrible neceſſity of devouring even the dead bodies of their companions, which they dug from their graves. Mean while a ſhip arriving from Dieppe with one hundred and forty men, landed a month's proviſion; but that being ſpent, the famine and mortality ſtill continued. However, by ſome means or other, ſome of them lived for near five years; but their bodies were reduced to ſuch a ſtate of weakneſs, as to be unable to clear the ground, or raiſe either corn, plants, roots, or fruit.

Amidſt theſe calamities Du Pleſſis died, and the command devolved ſolely on D'Olive, whoſe inſatiable avarice and cruelty equalled the affliction of the famine. D'Olive broke with the natives, numbers of whom he maſſacred, as the readieſt means of procuring ſubſiſtence. They applied to the Caribbees of the neighbouring iſlands, who attacking the French, ſuch numbers were cut off, that thoſe who remained ſcarce deſerved the name of a colony. During this period it appears ſeveral reinforcements were ſent them both from Europe and St. Chriſtopher's; but the French writers tell us, that all their convoys of proviſions miſcarried. Mean while D'Olive's ambition for command would not even ſuffer him to entertain the thoughts of reſigning this miſerable colony; and he ſent over a Dominican, as his agent to the court of France, which was filled with complaints againſt him, to ſolicit ſpeedy ſupplies. The Dominican repreſented the coloniſts as rebellious heretics, and D'Olive was appointed ſole governor of the colony. The governor on receiving his commiſſion, aſſembled his officers to hear it read; but while this ceremony was performing, the Dominican church, with all its rich furniture, was conſumed by fire. D'Olive's repeated applications for freſh ſupplies were now without effect, and the dreadful ſituation he was in affected his brain; and becoming blind, he went to St. Chriſtopher's, where he was put under an arreſt by M. de Poincy, governor-general of the French iſlands. Supplies of men were now ſent to Guadaloupe; but their officers behaved with ſuch tyranny, that the men broke out into rebellion, and M. de Poincy was obliged to ſend over five hundred men from St. Chriſtopher's to reduce them.

The colony after this ſuffered greatly by other bad governors, by hurricanes, and by ſwarms of caterpillars.

It was afterwards under the New Weſt-India Company; but in 1674, was taken into the king's hands, whoſe miniſters adopted a commercial ſyſtem, and it ſoon became the moſt flouriſhing colony ſubject to France. It was fortified with forts and redoubts, which were in ſo good a condition in 1702, when admiral Bembow made a deſcent upon the iſland, with a conſiderable body of land forces, that he did not think proper to attack them; but was ſatisfied with deſtroying many of their plantations and open villages.

However, in 1759 a fleet of ten men of war, beſides frigates and bomb-ketches, under the command of com-

modore Moore, with a body of land forces commanded by general Hopſon, after making an unſucceſsful attack on Martinico, ſailed for Guadaloupe. This ſquadron began to bombard the town and citadel of Baſſe Terre, and notwithſtanding many batteries erected on the ſhore, the houſes and churches were that night every where in flames, and the powder of the magazines blown about the enemies ears. The next day the Engliſh landed, and found both the town and citadel abandoned, but the iſland was far from being taken. The French, with their armed negroes, threw up intrenchments on the mountains, and bravely reſolved to defend themſelves as long as poſſible. Soon after general Hopſon died, and the command devolved upon major general Barrington. The Engliſh were harraſſed by perpetual alarms, and fatigued with conſtant duty; they however gained one paſs after another, and ſtill advanced, alert in the hour of caution, and invincible whenever they attacked. They frequently ſuffered from concealed fires out of the woods, and from lurking parties of armed negroes, that could not be diſcovered. At length the French governor, finding all reſiſtance vain, ſent a flag of truce, by which means Guadaloupe was ſurrendered to the Engliſh.

After the French king took Guadaloupe under his immediate protection, it became incomparably the moſt profitable colony belonging to that crown. Many mercantile writers of great credit, who were upon that iſland, after its being conquered by the Engliſh, confidently affirmed that before that period, it produced more ſugar than all the Britiſh ſugar iſlands put together: ſome have raiſed the quantity annually exported from Guadaloupe, and its dependencies, to the incredible number of one hundred and fifty thouſand hogſheads; but more moderate calculations have fixed them at one hundred thouſand, beſides its coffee, cinnamon, and other commodities.

Since the French by the treaty of 1763, re-entered into poſſeſſion of this iſland, they ſeem more ſenſible than ever of its importance, and have endeavoured to bring it nearly to the conſtitution of a Spaniſh colony, by publiſhing an ordinance that no foreign veſſel ſhould navigate nearer its coaſts than the diſtance of a league, or ſend any boat aſhore, without a written permiſſion from the intendant, on the penalty of the confiſcation of the veſſel and cargo, paying three hundred livres, and ſuffering a year's impriſonment.

SECT. V.

Of MARTINICO.

Its Situation, Extent, Climate, the Face of the Country, and its Produce. Its Government, principal Towns, Trade, and Hiſtory.

MARTINICO is not only the chief, but the largeſt of the French Caribbee Iſlands, and is ſituated between the fourteenth and fifteenth degrees of north latitude, and between the ſixtieth degree thirty-three minutes, and the ſixty-firſt degree ten minutes weſt longitude, about twenty leagues north-weſt of Barbadoes. It is near ſixty miles in length from the north-weſt to ſouth-eaſt; but is of a very unequal breadth, and about one hundred and thirty miles in compaſs.

The air is hotter here than at Guadaloupe, but hurricanes have neither been ſo frequent nor ſo violent as in that and ſome of the other Caribbee iſlands. Though Martinico is generally ſaid to be healthful to the people ſettled upon it, yet it is certain, that the great quantity of water that runs through it, creates an humidity, very noxious to the conſtitutions of the inhabitants. The iſland is likewiſe much ſubject to epidemical diſeaſes, which are chiefly brought over in ſhips from Aſia and Africa.

The country is hilly within the land, and at a diſtance reſembles three diſtinct mountains. Alſo on the north ſide are three rocks, ſo ſituated, that at ſea, they give it the appearance of three ſeparate iſlands.

It is ſaid to have no leſs than forty rivers, ſome of which are navigable a great way up the country. However, beſides the ſtreams, which in the rainy ſeaſon overflow the dales and ſavannas, there are ten rivers that are never dry, which run from the mountains into the ſea, and ſometimes overflowing their banks, carry away trees and houſes. Some of the hills are cultivated, and on their ſteep aſcents grows tobacco, which is better than that in the valleys: other hills are overgrown with trees, that afford ſhelter to wild beaſts, and abundance of ſnakes. The other produce of the iſland is much the ſame with that of Barbadoes, namely, ſugar, cotton, indigo, ginger, aloes, pimento, Indian figs, bananas, pine apples, melons, caſſia, mandiaca, potatoes, and other roots. With reſpect to the firſt, it is computed that here are made, one year with another, ten thouſand hogſheads of ſugar, each weighing about ſix hundred pounds weight. The chief proviſions, beſides hogs, are Guinea pigs, turkies, wood-pigeons, ortolans, frogs, and lizards. The coaſt abounds with commodious bays and harbours, in which are plenty of turtle.

Martinico is not only the chief of the French Caribbee Iſlands, but the reſidence of the governor-general and an intendant. It is likewiſe the ſeat of a ſovereign council, which ſuperintends all their other iſlands, and even their ſettlements in Hiſpaniola. This council conſiſts of the governor-general, the intendant, the governor of the iſland, an attorney-general, the lieutenant-governor for the crown, and twelve counſellors. Their power is very extenſive, for this council judges in the laſt reſort upon all matters brought by way of appeal. The governor-general, if upon the iſland, is preſident of the council, or, during his abſence, the intendant. If both are abſent the eldeſt counſellor then preſent collects the votes, and pronounces the ſentence of the court. The other officers of the iſland are two lieutenant-governors, one for Capes Terre, and another for Baſſe Terre, with a ſecretary of the marine, who has a very extenſive commiſſion. This iſland, before it was ſubdued by the Engliſh, could raiſe ten thouſand white inhabitants fit to bear arms, and above forty thouſand negroes. Beſides this force, ſome companies of regulars were always quartered in the iſland; ſo that the French pretended that it was impregnable.

The principal places in Martinico are St. Peter's and Port Royal.

St. Peter's, the capital of Martinico, was built in 1665, in order to overawe the mutineers of the iſland, who rebelled againſt its proprietors, the ſecond Weſt India company, who were at the ſame time the proprietors of all the French Antilles. The town extends along the ſhore, and a battery, which commands the road, is erected on the weſt ſide, which is waſhed by the river Royolan, or St. Peter. The principal entry to the fort is from the eaſt. Upon the high ground, which overlooks the town, is built a wall, which extends thirty-five fathoms, is well mounted with cannon, and has a large tower at each extremity: this fortification commands the parade and the town. The fort has neither ditch nor covert-way; but the walls are four feet and a half thick, with a parapet and battlements of ſtone; and the gates are defended by ſtrong paliſadoes. The parade is a ſquare which extends each way about three hundred feet, and is ſurrounded on three ſides by houſes, from which run five ſtreets, and on the other ſide is the fort. The town is divided into three wards; the middle, which is properly St. Peter's, begins at the fort, and runs weſtward to the battery of St. Nicholas, which is mounted with eleven guns, and is ſeated on an eminence. Under the walls of the ſecond ward ſhips at anchor ride more ſecurely than under the fort, on which account this ward is called the Anchorage; it extends from the battery of St. Nicholas to that of St. Robert, which bounds the town on the weſt ſide. The third ward, called the Gallery, extends along the ſea-ſide from Fort St. Peter to the Jeſuits river, and is the moſt populous part of the city; but the fortifications, formidable as they appear on paper, made a very inadequate defence againſt the Engliſh when they reduced the iſland. The houſes of St. Peter's ward are neat, commodious, and elegant, particularly thoſe of the governor of the iſland, the intendant, and the other officers. The pariſh-church of St. Peter is a magnificent ſtone building belonging to the Jeſuits, a hundred and twenty feet long, and thirty-ſix wide, with a noble front of the Doric order. The church of the Anchorage, which belongs to the Jacobine

cobine friars, is likewiſe of ſtone, and is ninety feet long by thirty. There are alſo two chapels belonging to each church. Nothing can be more delightful than the walk from the yard in which this laſt church ſtands to the Jacobine convent. It is formed by two rows of fine orange trees, and croſſed by two others half a mile in length. The kitchen-garden of the convent is furniſhed with all kinds of delicious fruit. The Jeſuits cloyſter is built with marble and free-ſtone, and commands a very fine proſpect over a great variety of gardens and vineyards.

Fort Royal, the next place of great conſequence in Martinico, is twenty-one miles diſtance by land, and twenty-ſeven by water from Fort St. Peter, but the road is ſo very inconvenient, that travellers generally chuſe to go by water. This fort is built on an eminence fifteen fathoms above the ſurface of the ſea, by which it is almoſt ſurrounded, there being only a neck of land about fifteen fathoms over; ſo that the fort may be ſaid to be built on an iſthmus. It is of earth, and defended by two ſmall demi-baſtions and a half-moon, a wet ditch, a glacis, and a covert-way paliſadoed. On the flank of one of the demi-baſtions is the harbour, from which a flight of ſteps leads up to a fortified platform. On that ſide the fort is ſhut up by a double wall, and towards the ſea is a parapet with ſome port-holes. The ſoil on which the town is built is a kind of quickſand, but though it contains regular ſtreets and a large church belonging to the Capuchins, it is ſaid to be much inferior to St. Peter's.

Cul de Sac Robert is ſeated in a large bay almoſt two leagues deep, with two ſmall iſlands at its entrance, which, by breaking the force of the waves, render the bay a fine, ſafe, natural harbour; for it will hold many of the largeſt ſhips, and theſe may in ſeveral places reach the ſhore by a plank.

Fort Trinity lies at the bottom of Trinity-bay, and is formed by Point de Caravel on the eaſt ſide, and on the weſt by an iſthmus about two hundred feet broad. The lieutenant governor of Capes Terre has his reſidence in Trinity Town, in which are a conſiderable number of merchants, and, for its convenient ſituation for the European trade, and the ſafety of its port, is become one of the moſt thriving places in the iſland, it having very conſiderable manufactures of cotton, ſugar, cocoa, and other commodities, the produce of the iſland being much the ſame with that of Barbadoes.

In 1637 M. d'Eſnambuc brought from St. Chriſtopher's, which then belonged to the crown of France, a hundred ſoldiers to Martinico, all well provided for forming a colony. He landed at Baſſe Terre, which lies on the weſt and ſouth parts of the iſland, and it is ſaid the inhabitants yielded up all that coaſt, on which he built a fort called St. Peter. The natives retiring to Cape Terre, the new coloniſts applied themſelves to the cultivation of potatoes, cotton, mandiaca, and tobacco; and d'Eſnambuc retiring to St. Chriſtopher's, left du Pont, his lieutenant, governor in Martinico. The French pretend that the inhabitants forming plots againſt them murdered them whenever they had an opportunity, but by their own accounts they were the aggreſſors. Hoſtilities daily multiplying, they gave no quarter to the natives, who ſending to the neighbouring iſlands, were joined by other Caribbees, to the number of fifteen hundred, who landed from their canoes under their fort. The French governor had removed all his men and proviſions within his intrenchments, and the Caribbees, imagining the fort to be abandoned, advanced within piſtol ſhot of the walls. This was what du Pont had foreſeen, and watching his time, he poured upon them a full diſcharge of his cannon and muſketry, which killing one-half of them, the ſurvivors fled to their canoes. This ſecured the French the quiet poſſeſſion of their ſettlements, which they greatly enlarged, and ſoon after the natives ſued for peace.

The French now divided the iſland into five wards, or pariſhes, each containing a church, or chapel, an armoury, ſtore-houſes, dwelling-houſes, and other conveniences. At length they learned from M. Poincy the art of cultivating the ſugar-cane, from which they ſoon reaped great advantages.

About the year 1646 many of the inhabitants refuſed to pay their impoſts to the Weſt India company, which produced an inſurrection that was quelled by the death of the chief ringleaders. About this time the Portugueſe recovering from the Dutch the poſſeſſion of Braſil, the former landed at Martinico with ſome rich Jews who offered to ſettle there, which was ſtrongly oppoſed by the Jeſuits, on the pretence that they would introduce Judaiſm and hereſy into the iſland; but the wealth with which they were poſſeſſed, induced the governor to allow them a ſettlement in a ſeparate quarter. However, the climate not agreeing with them, many of them died, while others removed from the iſland, and the few who ſtaid ſet up public-houſes, by which they acquired fortunes.

At this time the Caribbees took arms, and nothing but the moſt horrid maſſacres enſued: many of the more diſſolute among the French ſpirited up the natives, and Parquet, who was then governor, was beſieged in his own houſe, where he muſt have periſhed had not ſome Dutch ſhips arrived, who ſeeing ſeveral parts of the iſland in flames, landed three hundred men, and defeated the natives. This gave Parquet an opportunity of taking the field, and the original inhabitants, together with the negroes who had joined them, were every where ſlaughtered or obliged to fly to Dominica and St. Vincent, by which means the French became maſters of Capes Terre, and at laſt of the whole iſland.

In 1650, the old Weſt-India company ſold Martinico, St. Lucia, Grenada, and the Grenadines, to Parquet, for fifty thouſand livres; but in 1664, Lewis XIV. obtained the poſſeſſion of this iſland, and granted it to a new Weſt-India company; but ten years after ſuppreſſed that company, and all the above iſlands became part of his domain. After this Martinico was attacked by the famous Dutch admiral De Ruyter; and the Engliſh made many unſucceſsful expeditions againſt this iſland.

In 1700, the French ſettled in Martinico were computed at fifteen hundred, beſides the negroes they employed, and a great number of Caribbees, who were readmitted into the iſland, but were obliged to work as ſlaves, and to live among the French, that they might have no opportunity of forming plots and conſpiracies. In 1727, was a dreadful earthquake, which, with ſhort intervals, laſted eleven hours, and threw down St. Peter's fort. Many people loſt their lives, and beſides churches, convents, and other public buildings, above two hundred ſugar-works were ruined. One mountain was levelled, another cleft in two, and copious ſtreams of water iſſued from the chaſm. However, a few years recovered the iſland, the inhabitants having the Guadaloupe ſugars ſhipped from hence, with many other advantages.

The Engliſh had in vain attempted to take Martinico, but in 1761 the court formed the reſolution of ſending an armament againſt that iſland ſuperior to any that had ever been ſeen in thoſe ſeas. Eleven battalions were drawn from New York, a conſiderable draught was made from the garriſon of Belleiſle, and all the troops that had been cantoned in the Leeward Iſlands were ordered to rendezvous at Barbadoes: general Monckton, who had bravely diſtinguiſhed himſelf at the conqueſt of Quebec, was appointed to command the land forces, while rear admiral Rodney had the command of the fleet.

On the ſeventh of January following the whole armament arrived at St. Anne's-bay in Martinico, where Sir James Douglas, a captain under Mr. Rodney, ſilenced ſome batteries that were raiſed on the ſhore; but in this ſervice the Engliſh loſt the Raiſonable, yet all her men, guns, and ſtores were ſaved. After having found a ſafe landing-place, and having ſilenced all the batteries, the troops landed without oppoſition. Several ſkirmiſhes paſſed after their being on ſhore, to the diſadvantage of the French, and the Engliſh encamped upon the heights above the Cas de Navires; but upon examining the country they found the grounds interſected with gullies and ravines, with rivulets between them, and wherever they were paſſable the French had erected batteries for their defence.

Though the French regulars were not very formidable, yet the militia, the mulattoes, and negroes, all of whom were in arms, were numerous, brave, and well diſciplined. The Engliſh happened to land at a place where there were greater obſtructions than any-where elſe in the iſland.

iſland. The view of the army was bounded by two great eminences, Morne Garnier and Morne Tortenſon, both of them fortified with the utmoſt care, though they ſeemed almoſt inacceſſible by nature. Morne Tortenſon was firſt to be attacked, and batteries were raiſed to defend the Britiſh troops in their paſſing a very wide gulley, lying between them and it. Three diſpoſitions were made for the attack. It was begun by the grenadiers under major Grant; brigadier Rufane, with his diviſion, aſſiſted by a thouſand ſeamen in flat-bottomed boats, fell upon the enemies redoubts along the ſhore; and brigadier Walſh, with his brigade, and the left infantry under colonel Scott, after attacking the left of a plantation, were to endeavour to get round the enemy. All theſe operations were performed with aſtoniſhing impetuoſity and ſucceſs. The attack began at break of day, and by nine in the morning the enemy, having been driven from poſt to poſt, were obliged to abandon Morne Tortenſon to the Engliſh, who were to the laſt degree amazed, upon viewing its ſtrength and ſituation, at the dangers they had ſurmounted, and the numerous redoubts of the French, all of them mounted with cannon. The enemy, after ſuffering ſeverely, fled, part of them to Morne Garnier, and part of them to Fort Royal, the Britiſh grenadiers purſuing them to the bridge of the laſt mentioned place, where they even made ſome priſoners.

General Monckton took poſſeſſion of certain poſts proper for carrying on the attack againſt Morne Garnier, and erected batteries on Morne Tortenſon for carrying on that againſt Fort Royal. Some days after the French preſuming that their enemies were entirely diſcouraged, and wanted only a pretext to make the beſt of their way back to their ſhips, attacked the Britiſh light infantry, and colonel Haviland's brigade, who, with the utmoſt ardour and intrepidity, repelled their enemies, improved their own defenſive ſituation into a moſt vigorous charge, and being well ſupported, purſued the enemy acroſs the ravine, where they ſeized their batteries, and took poſt even in the enemy's redoubt; and happily improving the advantage, Morne Garnier was by nine at night, with all its works, in the poſſeſſion of the Engliſh.

General Monckton now prepared to batter the citadel of Fort Royal, from the eminences he had gained, which the enemy perceiving, on the third of February beat the chamade, and accepted of a capitulation.

The conqueſt of Martinico in a manner cloſed the operations between the Engliſh and French in America, during the late war. It even ſtruck the court of Verſailles with greater conſternation than they had even felt for the loſs of Canada, and the rather becauſe their miniſters at foreign courts had, in no very decent terms, reproached that of London with want of judgment in fitting out an armament againſt an iſland, that might ſecurely bid defiance to all their power, by its artificial, as well as natural ſtrength, and the number, ſpirit, and martial diſpoſition of its inhabitants. The people of Martinico remained with great tranquility under the military government of the Engliſh during the ſhort time they held it, and even ſeemed well pleaſed at their change of maſters. In ſhort, this iſland was reſtored to the French by the definitive treaty of 1763.

We have now finiſhed the deſcription of the French Caribbee Iſlands, only it is neceſſary here to obſerve, that St. Lucia, which, by miſtake, we have placed among the iſlands ceded to Great Britain, was delivered to France by the late treaty of peace, and ought to have been placed here.

St. Croix, or Santa Cruz, another of the Caribbee Iſlands, has, till very lately, been conſidered as belonging to France, and is therefore placed among the iſlands of that nation in Salmon's Grammar, and all the other geographical works in which it is mentioned; but being deſerted by France, it was ſeized by the late king of Denmark.

SECT. VI.

Of CAYENNE, *or* EQUINOCTIAL FRANCE.

Its Situation, Extent, and Produce; with a conciſe Deſcription of the Iſle of Cayenne.

THE country we are now to deſcribe lies on the coaſt of Terra Firma, and conſiſts of a part of the continent, and an iſland called Cayenne.

Equinoctial France is ſeated between the equator and the fifth degree of north latitude, and between the fiftieth and fifty-fifth degree of weſt longitude, extending two hundred and forty miles along the coaſt, and three hundred miles within land; it being bounded on the north by Surinam, on the eaſt by the Atlantic ocean, on the ſouth by Amazonia, and on the weſt by Guiana.

All the coaſt is very low, but within land there are fine hills very proper for ſettlements; the French have, however, not yet extended them ſo far as they might; but they raiſe the ſame commodities which they have from the Caribbee Iſlands, and in no inconſiderable quantities. With reſpect to the climate, vegetables, and animals, we ſhall give a particular account of them when we come to treat of Terra Firma.

The iſle of Cayenne is ſeated at the mouth of a river of the ſame name, in the fifth degree north latitude, and is about forty-five miles in circumference. The anchorage for veſſels is between Cape Caperon in the iſland and that of Corbin in Terra Firma, where above a hundred ſhips may ride ſecurely. The iſland is exceſſively unhealthy, though not ſo bad as formerly. It has ſeveral pleaſant hills, very convenient for ſettlements, and is almoſt cut in two by a river of ſalt water, which affords an eaſy communication between the ſeveral plantations, and facilitates the tranſportation of merchandize. The iſland is alſo watered by ſeveral ſprings proper for drinking, and for turning ſugar mills. The French have a fort oppoſite the road, on a little riſing ground at the point of the iſland; but though it is pretty conveniently ſituated, it wants freſh water, of which they can have none but the rain they ſave in ciſterns. There are in the iſland ſeveral meadows which produce very good graſs. The principal commodities of the iſland are ſugar and roucou, for they have neglected the cultivation of indigo. However, ſince the year 1722, they begun to plant coffee ſhrubs, and the coffee berries are brought to be full as good as thoſe of Arabia. The French who ſettled here about the year 1635, built the fort which they called St. Lewis, and near it is a ſmall town of two or three hundred houſes, inhabited by the ſoldiers of the garriſon and by all ſorts of tradeſmen. About four leagues from the town to the north-eaſt of the fort is a village called Armire, ſeated on a riſing ground, the lower part of which is inhabited by Jews and negroes, and the upper part, which has a chapel, is inhabited by French and negroes. There are ſeveral other plantations of French ſcattered up and down the iſland, with ſome other fortifications beſides the fort already mentioned.

CHAP.

CHAP. VI.

Of the AMERICAN Dominions of the DUTCH and DANES.

SECT. I.

Of ST. EUSTATIA, SABA, *and* ST. MARTIN'S.

Their Situation, Extent, Climate, Face of the Country, Produce, Trade, and Hiſtory.

ST. Euſtatia is ſituated three leagues north-weſt of St. Chriſtopher's, and is only a mountain riſing out of the ſea like a pyramid, but almoſt round. The air is wholeſome, but the iſland is ſubject to terrible ſtorms of thunder, hurricanes, and earthquakes. Its chief produce is tobacco, and the Dutch are ſaid to have here five thouſand white people and fifteen thouſand negroes. Its ſituation renders it the ſtrongeſt of all the Caribbee Iſlands, there being but one good landing-place, which may be eaſily defended by a few men, and the haven is commanded by a fort mounted with guns. It is only the very top of the mountain that is covered with wood; for though it is ſo ſmall, and inconveniently laid out by nature, the induſtry of the Dutch have made it turn out to very good account, and it is fully peopled; the ſides of the mountain are divided and laid out into neat plantations, in which they raiſe ſugar and tobacco. On the ſummit is a pretty large plain, which harbours wild beaſts. In this, as well as in ſeveral of the adjacent iſlands, there are neither rivers nor ſprings of freſh water, but the inhabitants are ſo careful that they never want proper ſupplies of water from their ponds and ciſterns which receive the rain. There are ſeveral ſtore-houſes well ſupplied with all neceſſaries, and particularly with European commodities, which they ſell to their neighbours at a very high price, whenever they are diſappointed with ſupplies from England or France; and they alſo carry on a contraband trade with the Spaniards.

The Dutch took poſſeſſion of this iſland in 1635, and the States granted it to certain merchants of Fluſhing, who ſoon ſettled a colony upon it of about ſix hundred families. In 1665 it was conquered by the Engliſh, but was ſoon after retaken by the united forces of the French and Dutch, after which it had a French garriſon; but it was reſtored to the Dutch by the treaty of Breda. In 1689 it was conquered by the French, from whom it was taken the very next year by the Engliſh, under Sir Timothy Thornhill, who allowed the French only their lives and their baggage, and is ſaid to have had only eight of his own men killed and wounded in the attack, though the fort was mounted by ſixteen great guns, encompaſſed by a ſtrong double paliſado, and defended on one ſide by a deep ditch and a narrow bridge over it to the gate, which admitted only one man at a time. The iſland was again reſtored to the Dutch by the treaty of Ryſwic, and they have ever ſince remained in the quiet poſſeſſion of it.

Saba is a ſmall but pleaſant iſland, thirteen miles north-weſt of Euſtatia, and thirty ſouth-weſt of St. Bartholomew's. It is four or five leagues in compaſs, and is ſaid to have formerly belonged to the Danes. At firſt ſight it ſeems only a rock, but a Dutch colony ſent from St. Euſtatia to manure it, found in it a valley ſufficient to employ and ſubſiſt many families; but it has the misfortune of having no port. The fiſhing about it, eſpecially for the bonetta, is very plentiful, and it is in no want of other neceſſary refreſhments. The ſea on its coaſts is ſo ſhallow, that ſtones may be ſeen at the bottom, and nothing but ſloops can come near, nor even they, but at a ſmall ſand creek on the ſouth ſide of the iſland, to which the inhabitants draw their canoes. There is a road cut from the top of the rock to the bottom; but it is ſo ſteep, that it reſſembles an impregnable fortification, formed by the hand of nature. The inhabitants, for their greater ſecurity, have in many places, by the ſide of the rock piled up heaps of ſtones on ſcaffolds, ſo diſpoſed, that by only pulling a rope the ſcaffolds fall, and inſtantly diſcharge ſuch a ſhower of ſtones, as are enough to cruſh a whole army to pieces. The French Buccaneers ſurpriſed, and thought to have maſtered this iſland in 1688, but miſcarried. Labat ſays, when he was here in 1701, the iſland was divided into two parts, containing no more than about fifty families, who lived in genteel, convenient, and well furniſhed houſes, but traded for the moſt part in ſhoes, by making which, and raiſing indigo and cotton, they purchaſed ſlaves, good furniture, and were in eaſy circumſtances. The inhabitants live in great harmony, and are ſaid to make it a practice to dine at one another's houſes; for there being no ſhambles here, as in the other more conſiderable iſlands, they kill their cattle in turn.

St. Martin's is ſeated in the eighteenth degree fifteen minutes north latitude, between Anguilla on the north-weſt, and St. Bartholomew on the ſouth-eaſt, about fifteen miles from each, and is twenty-one miles in length, twelve in breadth, and forty-two in circumference. It has commodious bays and roads on the north-weſt ſide, with ſome good ſalt pits, and lakes of ſalt water, which run a great way within the land, and abound with good fiſh and turtle; but has no freſh water, except what comes from the clouds, and is ſaved in ciſterns.

In this iſland are ſeveral trees, from whence diſtil various gums; with plenty of the candle-wood-tree, the ſmall ſticks of which when dry, are lighted up inſtead of candles, and yield a very fragrant ſmell, ariſing from the gum contained in the wood: but its tobacco, which is eſteemed the beſt in the Caribbees, is the chief commodity that employs the care of the inhabitants.

Here are great flocks of the birds called flamens, parrots without number, turtle-doves, and many other fowl.

Formerly the Spaniards kept a garriſon here, to prevent other nations ſettling on the iſland; but about the year 1650, they blew up their fort, deſtroyed their ciſterns, burned their houſes, and abandoned the place. Then came the French and Dutch, and ſharing the iſland between them, lived very friendly together, and had their particular churches in their reſpective quarters. The French had that part next Anguilla, which was in every reſpect the beſt half, and the other ſide of the iſland, in which the Spaniſh fort ſtood, remained to the Dutch, by virtue of the partition-treaty made between the two nations: but in 1744 ſome Engliſh, under the deputy-governor of Anguilla, aſſiſted by two privateers from St. Chriſtopher's, drove the French out of their half of the iſland, and took poſſeſſion of it themſelves, ſince which time it has belonged to the Engliſh and Dutch.

SECT. II.

Of CURASSOU, *or* CURACAO.

Its Situation, Extent, Produce, Trade, and the great Advantages the Dutch receive from it. With a conciſe Deſcription of the Iſlands of Bonaire and Aruba.

THE iſland of Curaſſou, or Curaçao, is the only place of importance poſſeſſed by the Dutch in the Weſt-Indies. The northermoſt point is ſettled in the twelfth degree forty-five minutes north latitude, about twenty-five leagues from the continent, and is about thirty miles long,

long, and ten broad. At the eaſt end is a good harbour, called Santa Barbara; but the chief harbour is about three leagues from the ſouth-eaſt end, where the Dutch have a very good town, and a ſtrong fort. Ships bound thither are obliged to keep cloſe to the harbour's mouth, and have a rope ready to ſend one end aſhore at the fort; for there is no anchoring at the entrance of the harbour, and the current always ſets to the weſtward; but being got in, it is a very ſecure port. At the eaſt end are two hills, but the reſt of the land is pretty level.

Though it is naturally barren, it produces a conſiderable quantity both of ſugar and tobacco; and here are alſo very great ſalt-works, which furniſh a good deal for the Engliſh iſlands, and for which there is a conſiderable demand from our colonies on the continent; but the trade for which it is chiefly valued, is the contraband, conſtantly carried on between the inhabitants and the Spaniards, and that carried on between them, the Engliſh, and the French in time of war.

The Dutch ſhips from Europe touch at this iſland for intelligence, or proper pilots, and then proceed to the Spaniſh coaſts for trade, which they force with a ſtrong hand, it being very difficult for the Spaniſh guarda coſtas to take theſe veſſels; for they are not only ſtout ſhips, with a number of guns, but are manned with large crews of choſen ſeamen, deeply intereſted in the ſafety of the veſſels and the ſucceſs of the voyage. They have each a ſhare in the cargo, of a value proportioned to the ſtation of the owner, ſupplied by the merchants upon credit, and at prime coſt: this animates them with uncommon courage, and they fight bravely, becauſe every man fights in defence of his own property. Beſides this there is a conſtant intercourſe between this iſland and the Spaniſh continent.

Curaſſou has numerous ware-houſes, always full of the commodities of Europe and the Eaſt Indies. Here are all ſorts of woollen and linen cloths, laces, ſilks, ribbons, iron utenſils, naval and military ſtores, brandy, the ſpices of the Moluccas, and the calicoes of India, white and painted. Hither the Dutch Weſt India, which is alſo their African company, annually bring three or four cargoes of ſlaves, and to this mart the Spaniards themſelves come in ſmall veſſels, and cary off not only the beſt of the negroes, for whom they give a very high price, but great quantities of all the above ſorts of goods; and the ſeller has this advantage, that the refuſe of ware-houſes and mercers ſhops, with every thing that has grown unfaſhionable and unſaleable in Europe, go off here extremely well, every thing being ſufficiently recommended by its being European. The Spaniards pay in gold and ſilver, coined or in bars, cacao, vanilla, Jeſuits bark, cochineal, and other valuable commodities. The ſhips that trade directly from Holland to the Spaniſh continent not only touch here, on their outward paſſage, to gain intelligence or aſſiſtance, but on their return put in here to complete what is wanting of their cargo with the ſugar, tobacco, ginger, and other produce of the iſland itſelf.

The trade of Curaſſou, even in time of peace, is ſaid to be annually worth to the Dutch no leſs than five hundred thouſand pounds ſterling; but in time of war the profit is ſtill greater, for it is then in a manner the common emporium of the Weſt Indies: it affords a retreat to ſhips of all nations, and at the ſame time refuſes none of them arms and ammunition. The intercourſe with Spain being then interrupted, the Spaniſh colonies has ſcarce any other market from whence they can be well ſupplied either with ſlaves or goods. The French come hither to buy the beef, pork, corn, flour, and lumber, which the Engliſh bring from the continent of North America, or which is exported from Ireland; ſo that the trade of this iſland flouriſhes extremely.

This is far from being owing to any natural advantage whatſoever: for it ſeems as if it were the fate of the Dutch to be every where obliged, both in Europe and America, to exert their ingenuity and patience in oppoſing an unfriendly ſoil; for the iſland is not only barren, and dependent on the rains for its water, but the harbour is naturally one of the worſt in America. The Hollanders have indeed entirely remedied that defect; they have upon this harbour one of the largeſt, and by far the moſt elegant and cleanly towns in the American iſlands. The publick buildings are numerous and handſome, the private houſes commodious, and the magazines large, convenient, and well filled. Almoſt all kinds of labour is here performed by engines, ſome of them ſo admirably contrived, that ſhips are at once lifted into the dock, where they are completely careened, and then furniſhed with naval ſtores, proviſions, cannon, and every thing proper either for war or trade.

Bonaire is ſeated in the ſixty eighth degree ten minutes weſt longitude, and the middle of the iſland is laid down in the twelfth degree ſixteen minutes north latitude. It is about twenty leagues from the continent, and is ſixteen or ſeventeen leagues round. The road is on the ſouth-weſt ſide near the middle of the iſland, where a pretty deep bay runs in. The inhabitants are chiefly employed in raiſing maize and Guinea corn, yams, and potatoes; and alſo in grazing.

Aruba, which alſo belongs to the Dutch, is ſeven or eight leagues to the weſtward of Curaſſou. The two laſt iſlands have no trade of conſequence, but are chiefly employed in raiſing freſh proviſions for the principal iſland, and for the refreſhment of ſuch ſhips as uſe thoſe ſeas.

The trade of all the Dutch American ſettlements was originally carried on by the Weſt India company alone. At preſent ſuch ſhips as go upon that trade pay two and a half per cent. for their licences; the company, however, reſerve to themſelves the whole of what is carried on between Africa and the American iſlands.

SECT. III.

Of DUTCH GUIANA, *or* SURINAM.

Its Situation, Extent, Produce, Trade, and Government.

DUTCH Guiana begins at the river Maroni, in the ſixth degree twenty minutes north latitude, and extends to the mouth of the river Oroonoko. The mouth of the river Maroni is ſo choaked up with ſand banks, that often ſhift their places that no veſſel of above twenty tons can enter it, and even thoſe not without danger. The river runs moſtly from ſouth to north, it is about a league broad, and all the coaſt from Maroni to Surinam, which is about fifty-five miles, is low and commonly covered with water. This country is generally reckoned unwholeſome. From the end of November to the month of July, the weather is pretty temperate, on account of the clouds which ſhelter the people from the ſun, the great rains that fall at that time, and the north-eaſt wind, which continually blows: but during the reſt of the year the weather is ſultry hot.

The climate is however greatly improved, and rendered much more ſalutary than it was formerly by the induſtry of the Dutch, who have cut avenues through the woods, and made paſſages for currents of air that carry off the unwholeſome exhalations that proved fatal to the firſt coloniſts; and notwithſtanding the inconveniencies under which it once laboured, the great number of Dutch who have plantations here, have raiſed this colony to a very flouriſhing condition, ſo that it has extended itſelf thirty leagues above the mouth of the river Surinam; but it will probably never be extended much higher on account of the cataracts, which render it impoſſible to navigate the rivers, and the rocks which prevent their penetrating farther into the country; and even theſe have the advantage of forming a rampart for the ſecurity of the colony, againſt the inroads of the Indians who inhabit the mountains, and who cannot be civilized.

The chief ſettlement is at Surinam, a town built upon the river of the ſame name, in the ſixth degree ſixteen minutes north latitude, and this name now extends to the adjacent country for above a hundred miles round. Of this diſtrict the Hollanders regard themſelves as the ſovereign, and are ſaid to behave with the haughtineſs peculiar to that nation wherever they have gained the ſuperiority; a conduct, ſays a modern writer, by no means agreeable to the phlegm of that people, or the wiſdom of the conſtitution, ſince by gaining the deteſtation of the natives,

natives, they furniſh the means to any enterprizing European power to ſupplant them.

The planters and traders of this place take the name of the ſociety of Surinam; the ſettlement being the joint property of the Dutch Weſt-India company, the city of Amſterdam, and the proprietary of Samelſdyck: but in what manner their different rights aroſe, or how they were formed, we cannot learn.

The colony is now in the moſt flouriſhing ſituation, and a prodigious trade is carried on, not only with Europe, but with the Weſt-India iſlands. The river of Surinam facilitates commerce, and the Dutch have been careful to improve the natural ſituation by all that art and induſtry could beſtow. They have a fort called Zelandia, built with brick, about two leagues from the entrance, and at a little diſtance from it, a ſmall town called Paramairamba, containing about four hundred houſes. There are no leſs than ſeven or eight inland towns, all of which are rich, populous, and commercial, which evidently proves the aſſiduity with which that nation improves every advantage they have once obtained.

The chief trade of the colony conſiſts in the produce of the country, as ſugar, cotton, gums, tobacco, coffee, flax, ſkins, and wood for dying. For the tilling of the ground the proprietors have ſlaves, whom they purchaſe of the Weſt India company, who carry thither every year a certain number from Guinea.

The country is under the command of a governor, who has under him a commandant, and is appointed by the directors of the Weſt-India company, but muſt be approved by the States General, and take an oath to them, as well as to the directors. The governor has a ſovereign authority in their name over the whole colony, both in civil and military affairs. Yet in thoſe of moment he is obliged to aſſemble and conſult with the political council, of which he is preſident, as he is alſo of the court of juſtice; yet he has only one vote in each, and is obliged to determine according to the majority of voices. The political council is compoſed of the governor, the commandant, who is the firſt counſellor, and nine other members. The council, or court of juſtice, conſiſts only of five counſellors, a ſecretary, and a bailiff or mayor, beſides the governor. This great officer has the diſpoſal of all vacant employments, civil and military, till ſuch time as he can receive orders from the court of directors; and forms ſuch regulation as he imagines moſt conducive to the ſecurity of the colony againſt attacks of an enemy.

The troops kept in pay for the defence of the colony conſiſt of four companies of foot, each commanded by a captain, a lieutenant, an enſign, and two ſerjeants, and of which the governor is colonel. Beſides there is a militia compoſed of eight companies of burghers.

SECT. IV.

St. Thomas's *and St.* Croix, *or* Santa Cruz.

Their Situation, Extent, Produce, and Trade, with the Revolutions that have happened in the laſt iſland.

ST. Thomas's, the principal iſland ſubject to the Danes, is ſituated in the ſixty-fourth degree twenty minutes weſt longitude, and in the eighteenth degree thirty minutes north latitude. It has a ſafe and commodious harbour, in which are two mounds, that ſeem as if formed by nature for raiſing batteries upon them. Though the iſland is only fifteen miles in circumference, it is ſubject both to the Danes and Brandenburghers, but the latter are under the protection of the former. Almoſt in the center of the harbour is a ſmall fort, without ditch or outworks, and about fifty or ſixty paces to the weſt of it begins the town, which chiefly conſiſts of one long ſtreet; at the end of which is the Daniſh factory, a large building with convenient warehouſes both for the ſtowage of their commodities, and for the reception of the negroes, in which they trade with the Spaniards. On the right ſide of this factory is the Brandenburgh quarter, which conſiſts of two little ſtreets, full of French refugees from Europe and the iſlands. Moſt of the houſes are of brick, built and tiled after the Dutch manner, but only one ſtory high, on account of the badneſs of the foundation; for before they have dug three feet deep, they meet with water and quickſand.

The iſland produces oranges, citrons, lemons, guavas, bananas, mandiaca, millet, potatoes, and moſt ſorts of fruit and herbage, particularly ſugar and tobacco; but it is much infeſted with muſketoes. Theſe iſlands, ſo long as they remain in the hands of the Daniſh Weſt-India company, were ill managed, and nothing like the proper advantage was made of them; but that wiſe and benevolent prince, the late king of Denmark, bought up the company's ſtock, and laid the trade open, and ſince that time the iſland of St. Thomas has been ſo greatly improved, that it is ſaid to produce upwards of three thouſand hogſheads of ſugar at a thouſand pounds weight each, and others of the Weſt-India commodities in tolerable plenty. In time of war privateers bring in their prizes here for ſale, and a great many veſſels trade from hence along the coaſt of Terra Firma, and return with money in ſpecie or bars, and valuable merchandize.

St. Croix is about five leagues eaſt of St. Thomas's, eight from Porto Rico, and about thirty weſt of St. Chriſtopher's. It is ſeated in the eighteenth degree north latitude, and in the ſixty-fifth weſt longitude. It is about ten or twelve leagues in length, and about three on the eaſt ſide where it is broadeſt. The air is extremely unhealthy, but this will probably continue no longer than till the woods, with which the iſland is at preſent almoſt covered, are farther cleared, and room left for a proper circulation of the air. The ſoil is black, eaſy to be cultivated, very fertile, and produces ſeveral fine trees proper for the joiner and cabinet-maker, with ſugar canes, oranges, lemons, pomegranates, citrons, a ſort of papay called mamee, which is ſaid to bear once a month excellent fruit, ſhaped like a woman's breaſt, from whence it takes its name.

A large bay on the north ſide has a baſon and a ſmall iſland, and in another on the ſouth ſide oppoſite to it, the country is indented by the ſea with ſo many inlets, that it ſeems one continued marſh, intermixed with a number of ſmall iſlands, whence it has been called the drowned country.

With reſpect to its hiſtory; the Spaniards deſtroyed the natives, and, as in other places, ſoon after deſerted it, after which it lay for a long time deſolate; but it had afterwards ſeveral maſters in a ſhort compaſs of time; the Engliſh and Dutch, after diſputing the ſole poſſeſſion of it, ſhared it between them; but, in 1649, the Engliſh being moſt numerous, ejected their neighbours, and were ſoon after turned out themſelves by the Spaniards from Porto Rico, who in a deſcent burnt the houſes, put all the men they found in arms to the ſword, and ſent off the reſt with their wives and baggage to the iſland of Barbuda. Some Dutch from St. Euſtatia and St. Martin hearing that the Engliſh were expelled, and imagining that the Spaniards were alſo gone, came thither to repoſſeſs it, but the Spaniards being ſtill there, and ten times more numerous, attacked them by ſurprize, and forced them to ſurrender priſoners; but while the Spaniards were preparing to carry them to Porto Rico, Poincy, the French commander, came with a ſuperior force, upon which the Spaniards were glad to quit both the place and their priſoners, whom Poincy carried back to St. Euſtatia; and the next year, which was 1651, having reimburſed the Dutch merchants at Fluſhing for the expences they had been at in ſettling the colony, he made an acquiſition not only of this iſland, but of St. Martin's, St. Bartholomew's, and ſeveral others, for the uſe of the knights of Malta, of whom he was grand maſter. This iſland was afterwards purchaſed of thoſe knights by the French Weſt India company; but the French abandoning it in 1696, the Danes obtained the poſſeſſion of it, and it belonged to the Weſt India company till it was purchaſed by his late Daniſh majeſty. It was however then a perfect deſart, but it has begun to ſettle very faſt, for ſeveral perſons from the Engliſh iſlands, and among them ſome of great wealth, have gone to ſettle there.

We have now gone through the countries and iſlands in America poſſeſſed by the Engliſh, French, Dutch, and Danes; the remaining part belongs to Portugal and Spain; but, before we begin with their dominions, we ſhall conclude this chapter with the characters of the ſeveral European nations, as they regard America, which we ſhall extract from the ingenious author of a work intitled, An Account of the European Settlements.

"There ſeems, ſays he, to be a remarkable providence in the caſting the parts, if I may uſe that expreſſion, of the ſeveral European nations who act upon the ſtage of America. The Spaniard, proud, lazy, and magnificent, has an ample walk in which to expatiate; a ſoft climate to indulge his love of eaſe; and a profuſion of gold and ſilver to procure him all thoſe luxuries his pride demands, but which his lazineſs would refuſe him.

"The Portugueſe, naturally indigent at home, and enterprizing rather than induſtrious abroad, has gold and diamonds, as the Spaniard has, wants them as he does, but poſſeſſes them in a more uſeful, though leſs oſtentatious manner.

"The Engliſh, of a reaſoning diſpoſition, thoughtful and cool, and men of buſineſs, rather than of great induſtry, impatient of much fruitleſs labour, abhorrent of conſtraint, and lovers of a country life, have a lot which indeed produces neither gold nor ſilver; but they have a large tract of a fine continent; a noble field for the exerciſe of agriculture, and ſufficient to furniſh their trade without laying them under great difficulties. Intolerant as they are of the moſt uſeful reſtraints, their commerce flouriſhes from the freedom every man has of purſuing it according to his own ideas, and directing his life after his own faſhion.

"The French, active, lively, enterprizing, pliable, and politic; and though changing their purſuits, always purſuing the preſent object with eagerneſs, are notwithſtanding tractable and obedient to rules and laws which bridle their diſpoſitions, and wind and turn them to proper courſes. This people have a country, where more is to be effected by managing the people than by cultivating the ground: where a pedling commerce, that requires conſtant motion, flouriſhes more than agriculture and a regular traffic; where they have difficulties which keep them alert, and where their obedience ſerves them for perſonal wiſdom. In the iſlands the whole is the work of their policy, and of a right turn their government has taken.

"The Dutch have got a rock or two on which to diſplay the miracles of frugality and diligence, which are their virtues, and on which they have exerted theſe virtues, and ſhewn thoſe miracles."

CHAP. VII.

Of PORTUGUESE AMERICA, containing BRASIL.

SECT. I.

Its Name, Situation, Extent, Face of the Country, Climate, Vegetables, and Minerals; with a particular Account of the Gold and Diamonds of Braſil, the Manner in which they are obtained, and the Regulations in relation to them.

THE Portugueſe, by whom this country was firſt diſcovered, gave it the name of the Holy Croſs; but it afterwards obtained the name of Braſil, or Brazil, from the great quantity of Braſil wood which grows there, which was known in Europe and called braſil, before the diſcovery of the extenſive country that bears its name.

Braſil is ſeated between the mouth of the great river of the Amazons under the equator, and the river Plata in the thirty-fifth degree ſouth latitude, and between the thirty-fifth and fifty-firſt degree of weſt longitude; it being bounded on the north by the mouth of the river Amazon and the Atlantic ocean, on the eaſt by the ſame ocean, on the ſouth by the river Plata, and on the weſt by a chain of mountains which divide it from Spaniſh America and the country of Amazons; it being two thouſand five hundred miles in length along the coaſt from north to ſouth, and about nine hundred miles in breadth. The ſettlements of the Portugueſe, however, reach but a ſmall diſtance within land.

With reſpect to the coaſt of Braſil, it is proper to obſerve, that, beginning at the mouth of the river of the Amazons, it runs eaſtward as far as Cape St. Roque, which is thirteen hundred and fifty miles, from whence it winds to the ſouthward quite to the Spaniſh province of Paragua, ſo that almoſt the whole country lies under the torrid zone.

As to the face of the country, the land near the coaſt is, in general, rather low than high; but extremely pleaſant, it being interſperſed with meadows and woods, the trees of which are, for the moſt part, ever-greens; but on the weſt, far within land, are mountains in which are innumerable ſprings and lakes, from whence iſſue abundance of rivers, that fall into the great rivers the Amazon and the Plata, or run acroſs the country from weſt to eaſt, and fall into the Atlantic ocean; theſe laſt are very numerous, and of great uſe to the Portugueſe in turning their ſugar-mills, and meliorating their lands, which they annually overflow.

The north of Braſil lying almoſt under the equator, this, like other countries in the ſame ſituation, is ſubject to great rains and variable winds, particularly in March and September, when they have ſuch torrents of rain, with ſtorms and tornadoes, that the country is overflowed, and the air at that ſeaſon rendered unhealthy. But, with reſpect to the more ſouthern provinces, no country within the tropics has the heat more tolerable, or the air more healthful, it being conſtantly refreſhed with breezes from the ſea, and in the inland parts the winds from the mountains are ſtill cooler than thoſe that blow from the ocean.

The ſoil of Braſil is generally good, producing very large trees of various ſorts, fit for any uſe. Their ſavannas, or meadows, are covered with graſs and herbs, and where cultivated produce every thing proper for the climate, as ſugar-canes, tobacco, cotton, indigo, maize, and fruit.

The chief of the foreſt trees are the ſapiera, the vermiatico, the commeſſerie, the guiteba, and the ſerrie; ſpeckled wood, three kinds of mangrove trees, and the manchineel.

The ſapiera is a very tall tree, which has good timber, made uſe of in building houſes; the vermiatico is alſo a tall ſtraight-bodied tree, of which planks are made two feet broad, and of the trunks they likewiſe make canoes, they being only ſcooped hollow and ſhaped ſomething like a boat at the head and ſtern: though they are ſo narrow as frequently to overſet, yet they cannot ſink, and the Indians, who excel in ſwimming, make no difficulty when they are overſet to turn them up again.

The guiteba and commeſſerie are chiefly uſed in building of ſhips, and are as much eſteemed for that uſe as oak is with us, and are even ſaid to be a more hard and durable wood. The ſerrie tree reſembles the elm, and is very durable in water. Their mangrove trees are red, white, and black: the red are uſed in tanning leather,

of the white they make maſts and yards for their barks, and of the black good planks; both the white and black being much larger than in the gulph of Mexico. There grows here alſo a wild cocoa-nut tree, neither ſo tall nor ſo large as thoſe in the Eaſt or Weſt Indies, nor are the nuts a quarter ſo big, but are in eſteem for making beads for roſaries, bowls of tobacco-pipes, and other toys. At the top of the tree among the branches grows a long ſort of black thread, reſembling horſe hair, but much longer. Of theſe they make cables, that are very ſtrong, laſting, and ſerviceable, for they will not rot like cables made of hemp, though they lie expoſed to heat and wet. They have alſo three ſorts of cotton trees, but very little of the right Weſt India cotton ſhrub of which cotton cloth is made.

With reſpect to fruits, they have ſeveral kinds of European grapes, oranges, lemons, pomegranates, and pomecittrons, which were tranſplanted thither by the Portugueſe. They have alſo jenipahs, papaus, caſhews, ſourſops, cuſtard apples, cabbage trees, the true cocoa-nut, guavas, bananas, and plantanes.

The jenipah is a kind of fruit of the calabaſh or gourd kind, of the ſize of a duck egg, ſomewhat of an oval ſhape, and of a grey colour; but the ſhell is neither ſo thick nor ſo hard as that of the calabaſh. It is full of a whitiſh pulp mixed with ſmall flat ſeeds, and both the pulp and ſeeds are taken into the mouth, but on ſucking the pulp they ſpit out the ſeeds. It is of an agreeable ſharp taſte, and very innocent. The tree that bears it has ſome reſemblance to the aſh, is ſtraight bodied, and of a good height, clear from limbs till near the top, where the branches put forth a ſmall head.

The ſourſop is a fruit as large as a man's head, of an oval ſhape, and when ripe green on one ſide and yellowiſh on the other. The coat or outſide is pretty thick, and very rough, with ſmall ſharp knobs, and the inſide is full of a ſpongy pulp, with black kernels of the ſhape and ſize of pumpkin-ſeeds. The pulp is very juicy, of a pleaſant taſte, and wholeſome. The tree or ſhrub that bears this fruit, is only ten or twelve feet high, with a ſmall ſhort trunk, from which the branches grow pretty ſtraight up. This fruit alſo grows both in the Eaſt and Weſt Indies.

Beſides theſe here are many ſorts of fruit not to be met with any where elſe, as ariſahs, mericaſahs, petangoes, &c. The ariſah is an excellent fruit, ſomewhat bigger than a large cherry, and ſhaped like a Catharine-pear, it being ſmaller at the ſtem, and ſwelling bigger towards the end. They are of a greeniſh colour, and have ſmall ſeeds, are ſomewhat tart, yet very pleaſant and wholeſome.

The mericaſah is an excellent fruit, of which there are two ſorts; one that grows on a ſmall tree or ſhrub, which is accounted the beſt, and the other growing on a kind of vine, which is uſually planted about arbours for the ſake of the ſhade, they having many broad leaves. The fruit is as large as a ſmall orange; it is round, green, and when ripe it is ſoft, and full of a white pulp, mixed with little black ſeeds, and is very tart, pleaſant, and wholeſome.

The petango is a ſmall red fruit, that alſo grows on ſmall trees. It is of the ſize of a cherry, but not ſo round, having one flat ſide, and five or ſix ſmall ridges. It is a very pleaſant tart fruit, and has a large flattiſh ſtone in the middle.

The mungaroo is a fruit as large as a cherry, red on one ſide and white on the other, and contains ſmall ſeeds.

The muſteran de avo is a round fruit, of the ſize of a large haſle nut, covered with thin brittle ſhells of a blackiſh colour. It has a ſmall ſtone in the middle, incloſed with a black pulpy ſubſtance.

They have likewiſe plenty of callavances, pine apples, water-melons, muſk-melons, cucumbers, yams, potatoes, caſſavas, cabbages, turnips, onions, leeks, and a variety of ſallading, with ſeveral kinds of drugs, as ſaſſafras, ſnake-root, &c.

No ſort of corn thrives in Braſil like maize, for wheat and rye grow too rank, and run up into ſtraw. Their ſeed time is at the beginning of the rainy ſeaſon, and their harveſt a little after it is over. The trees and ſhrubs proper to the country bear leaves, bloſſoms and fruit all the year round; and the ſame is obſerved of their oranges, limes, and ſome other fruits that have been carried thither. It is ſaid that thoſe who would have ripe grapes all the year, only prune their vines at different times to effect it, and they produce a fine luſcious grape as ſweet as honey; and yet they can make no wine here that will keep.

As to their minerals they have gold and ſome ſilver; and here are found plenty of rich diamonds, jaſper, emeralds, and other precious ſtones.

Gold was firſt found in the mountains which lie adjacent to the city of Rio Janeiro. The occaſion of its diſcovery is variouſly related; but the common account is, that the Indians on the back of the Portugueſe ſettlements, were obſerved by the ſoldiers employed in an expedition againſt them, to make uſe of this metal for their fiſhing-hooks; and their manner of procuring it being enquired into, it appeared that great quantities of it were annually waſhed from the hills, and left among the ſand and gravel that remained in the valleys after the running off, or evaporation of the water. It is now little more than ſixty years ſince any quantities of gold worth notice have been imported from Braſil to Europe; but from that time the annual imports from thence have been continually augmented by the diſcovery of places in other provinces, where it is to be met with as plentifully as at firſt about Rio Janeiro. And it is now ſaid, that a ſmall ſlender vein of it ſpreads through all the country, at about twenty-four feet from the ſurface; but that this vein is too thin and poor to anſwer the expence of digging. However, where the rivers or rains have had any courſe for a conſiderable time, there gold may always be collected, the water having ſeparated the metal from the earth, and depoſited it in the ſands: whence it is eſteemed an infallible method of procuring it, to divert a ſtream from its channel, and to ranſack its bed. Indeed there are properly no gold mines in Braſil, all the gold being collected either from rivers, or the beds of torrents after floods.

The ſlaves, who are principally negroes, are kept in great numbers to examine the bottoms of rivers, the gullies of torrents, and to waſh the gold found in them from the ſand and dirt. The regulation of the duty of theſe ſlaves is very ſingular, for they are each of them obliged to furniſh their maſter with the eighth part of an ounce of gold every day; and if they are either ſo fortunate or induſtrious as to collect a greater quantity, the ſurplus is generally conſidered as their own property, and they have the liberty of diſpoſing of it as they think fit: ſo that it is ſaid ſome negroes, who have accidentally fallen upon rich waſhing places, have themſelves purchaſed ſlaves, and have afterwards lived in great ſplendor, their original maſter having no other demand on them than the daily ſupply of the above eighth part, which, as the Portugueſe ounce is ſomewhat lighter than our troy ounce, may amount to about nine ſhillings ſterling.

The quantity of gold thus collected in the Braſils, and annually returned to Liſbon, may in ſome degree be eſtimated from the amount of the king's fifth: this has been computed one year with another at one hundred and fifty arroves of thirty-two pounds Portugueſe weight, which at four pounds the troy ounce, makes very near three hundred thouſand pounds ſterling; and conſequently the capital of which this is the fifth, is about a million and a half ſterling. The annual return of gold to Liſbon cannot be leſs than this, though it be difficult to determine how much it exceeds it. It has been ſuppoſed that the gold exchanged for ſilver with the Spaniards at Buenos Ayres, and what is privately brought to Europe, amounts to near half a million more, which will make the whole annual produce of the Braſilian gold near two millions ſterling; a prodigious ſum to be found in a country, which at the cloſe of the laſt century was not known to furniſh a ſingle grain.

As to diamonds, the diſcovery of theſe valuable ſtones is ſtill more recent, it being ſcarce forty years ſince the firſt were brought to Europe. They are found in the ſame manner as the gold, in the gulleys of torrents and beds of rivers, but only in particular places, and not ſo univerſally ſpread through the country. They were

frequently found in washing the gold, before they were known to be diamonds, and were consequently thrown away with the sand and gravel separated from it. It is well remembered that numbers of very large stones, that would have enriched the possessors, have passed unregarded through the hands of those who afterwards bore with impatience the mortifying reflection. However, about forty years ago a person acquainted with the appearance of rough diamonds, imagined that these pebbles, as they were then esteemed, were of the same kind: but it is said there was a considerable interval between the first starting of this opinion, and its being confirmed by proper trials, it being difficult to persuade the inhabitants, that what they had been long accustomed to despise, could be of such importance as this discovery supposed. And it is said, that in this interval a governor of one of their places procured a good number of these stones, which he pretended to make use of in playing at cards instead of counters. But it was at last confirmed by skilful jewellers in Europe, who were consulted on this occasion, that these stones were real diamonds, and many of them not inferior, either in lustre or any other quality, to those of the East Indies. Upon this determination the Portuguese in the neighbourhood of the places where they had been found, began to search for them with great assiduity; and they had even hopes of discovering considerable masses of them, as they perceived large rocks of crystal in many of the mountains from whence the streams came that washed down the diamonds.

It was however soon represented to the king of Portugal, that if such plenty of diamonds should be found, as their sanguine conjectures seemed to indicate, this would so debase their value, that besides ruining all the Europeans who had any quantity of Indian diamonds in their possession, it would render the discovery itself of no importance, and prevent his majesty from receiving any advantages from it. On these considerations the king thought proper to restrain the general search for diamonds, and for that purpose erected a diamond company, with an exclusive charter. This company, in consideration of a sum paid to his majesty, is vested with the property of all diamonds found in Brasil: but to prevent their collecting too large quantities, and thereby reducing their value, they are prohibited from employing above eight hundred slaves in searching for them. And to prevent any of his other subjects from acting the same part, and to secure the company from being defrauded by interlopers, he depopulated a large town, with a considerable district round it, and obliged the inhabitants, who were said to amount to six thousand, to remove to another part of the country; for this town being in the neighbourhood of the diamonds, it was thought impossible to prevent such a number of people who were on the spot, from frequently smuggling.

SECT. II.

Of the Beasts, Birds, Reptiles, Insects, amphibious Animals, and Fishes, of Brasil: containing a particular Description of the Ant-Bear and Armadillo.

THE beasts that were found in this country on its being first discovered, were in general the same with those of Mexico and Peru, particularly the Peruvian sheep, the pecaree, called by the Europeans the hog, from their bearing some resemblance to that animal, a great variety of monkeys, deer, hares, and rabbits, some lions and tygers; but these are neither so large nor so fierce as those of Africa; the ant-bear, the porcupine, the racoon, and flying squirrel, the armadillo, the opossum, the guano, and the sloth.

The ant-bear is as long and as tall as a middle sized dog; his hind legs resemble those of a bear, but his fore legs are more slender: his fore feet are flat, and divided into four toes, armed with long claws; but those behind have five toes. His head is long, with a sharp snout, small round black eyes, and very black ears: the tongue is said to be upwards of two feet in length, but very slender: he is obliged to bend part of his back when he keeps it within his mouth, the jaws being otherwise too short to contain it. He lives upon ants, and when he has found any of their nests, he opens the upper part of them with his claws, that he may have room to put in his snout and his tongue: this is besmeared with a slimy liquor, and is soon covered with ants, when he draws it into his mouth and swallows them. This he repeats as long as they will run into the same snare. The tail of this animal in some measure resembles that of a fox; it is generally two feet long, almost flat, and covered with hair from fifteen to twenty inches long; it is harsh, very strong, and he can move it just as he pleases; when he turns it upon his back, it entirely covers it, and defends him from the rain, which he greatly dislikes.

The armadillo has his head, body, and tail, covered with a shield of a bony substance, forming most beautiful scales. On the upper part of the neck are two joints that he may move his head, and on the back seven divisions, with a yellow skin between each. The feet are covered with a thinner shield, but the lower parts of the body are without this covering. The head is like that of a hog, with a sharp snout. He has small eyes sunk deep in the head, and a narrow pointed tongue. The ears are naked, brown, and short, and the teeth of a middle size. The feet resemble hands, with five fingers and roundish nails. The tail at the root is near four inches thick, but grows gradually less to the end, where it terminates in a point. It lives upon melons, potatoes, and other roots, but will not eat flesh, and generally lies hid in the ground, which he turns up with the snout. This animal has a quick feeling, and will roll himself up like a ball. The flesh is white, fat, and delicate, but is best when seasoned with spices to quicken the taste.

Their fowls are maccaws, parrots, parroquets, the quam, the curasoe, the bill-bird, the cockrecoe, the crab-catcher, the fishing-hawk, and the humming bird; curlieus, partridges, wood-pigeons, herons, and pelicans; they have also great variety of singing birds, several species of wild ducks, wild geese, and common poultry; and there is not any sort of the latter in Europe that has not been carried thither by the Portuguese. However, in these hot climates fowls of all kinds are dry meat, nor is their mutton very good; the pork is esteemed the best flesh, and is here thought of easy digestion. All the horses, cows, sheep, asses, hogs, and cats, were brought hither from Europe.

In some parts of Brasil the heat of the climate is thought to favour the generation of a great variety of poisonous insects and reptiles; and it is certain that no country produces a greater variety of serpents, some of which are said to be of an incredible length. The rattle-snake and other reptiles of the same species grow to an enormous size, and the serpent called ibibaboca is affirmed to be seven yards long, half a yard in circumference, and possessed of a poison instantaneously fatal to mankind. Indeed the accounts authors have given of the monstrous size of these reptiles in this country are so very improbable, that it is dangerous to give any credit to what they say. That they are large and numerous is not doubted; and it has been justly observed, that Providence has thought fit to give an alloy, by these inconveniencies, to the many advantages of this invaluable country, in order to dispense her blessings more equally among the inhabitants of the earth in general.

Here are also scorpions, centepees, spiders, and other insects that are venomous and of an extraordinary size. Their ants are almost as troublesome here as in Africa, marching in great bodies, and devouring every thing in their way. Here is also the fire-fly, which seems to differ but little from the glow-worm, except in having wings: when a number of these fix on the boughs of trees, they in the night appear at a small distance like so many stars. There are said to be here twelve several sorts of bees, some of which have vast nests in hollow trees in the woods, and others in holes of the rocks, and yield great quantities of honey and wax.

With respect to the amphibious animals, they have the three kinds of turtle, the hawks-bill, the loggerhead, and the green turtle; which last is most excellent food. The lakes and rivers abound with crocodiles, and they have a creature which the Portuguese call cachora de agua,

or the water-dog. It is as big as a maſtiff, is covered with hair of a dark colour, and has a long head with four ſhort legs: he lives in freſh water lakes and ponds; but comes on ſhore to ſun himſelf, and is ſaid to be good food.

Their ſeas, lakes, and rivers are full of excellent fiſh; the lean fleſh of the whales, of which there are plenty on this coaſt, is eaten by the ſlaves and poor people of Braſil. The beſt fiſh on the coaſt is the manattee, which is as large as an ox. They have alſo the ſword-fiſh, thraſher, paracood, cavally, old-wife, gar-fiſh, mullet, mackarel, ſnook, turpoon, oyſters, crabs, ſhrimps, prawns, and other ſhell fiſh. Their beſt river fiſh reſembles our perch, and they have others not unlike pike and carp.

SECT. III.

Of the Diviſions of Braſil; with a Deſcription of the City of St. Salvador the Capital, and the Manners of its Inhabitants.

BRASIL is uſually divided into fifteen provinces, or captainſhips, of which eight only are annexed to the crown, the reſt being fiefs made over to ſome of the nobility on account of their extraordinary ſervices, who do little more than acknowledge the ſovereignty of the king of Portugal, and his repreſentative the viceroy of Peru. However, the whole gives the title of prince to the preſumptive heir to the crown of Portugal. Theſe captainſhips are, Paria, Maragnan, Siara, Poligi, or Rio Grande, Parayba, Tamara, Pernambuco, Seregippe, Batria de Todos Santos, Ilheos, Porto Seguro, Spirito Sancto, Rio Janeiro, St. Vincent, and Del Rey.

The principal city is St. Salvador, alſo called the city of Bahia, which is in the province of the ſame name, and was thus called from the commodiouſneſs of its harbour. It is ſeated on a hill, in the twelfth degree eleven minutes ſouth latitude. It is populous, magnificent, and beyond compariſon the moſt gay and opulent city in all Braſil. The trade carried on here is prodigious; the gentry are polite; but the vulgar, who have acquired wealth, are intolerably inſolent and brutal. In this city are no leſs than twelve or fourteen thouſand Portugueſe, with three times that number of negroes. The harbour is capable of receiving ſhips of the greateſt burthen, and its entrance is guarded by a ſtrong fort called St. Antony. There are other ſmall forts that command the harbour, one of which is built upon a rock about half a mile from the ſhore. Cloſe by this fort all ſhips muſt paſs that anchor here, and muſt alſo ride within half a mile of it, between this and another fort that ſtands on a point at the inner part of the harbour. Beſides theſe there is another fort on the hill upon which the town ſtands.

Here are about four hundred ſoldiers in garriſon, who commonly draw up and exerciſe in a large parade before the governor's palace, and many of them attend him when he goes abroad. They are decently dreſſed in brown linen, which, in theſe hot countries, is far more agreeable than woollen.

The city conſiſts of about two thouſand houſes, the greateſt part of which cannot be ſeen from the harbour; but as many as appear in ſight, being intermixed with trees, and placed on a riſing hill, afford a fine proſpect. The houſes are handſomely built, moſtly of brick or ſtone. The churches, convents, and hoſpitals, are not only built in the moſt ſumptuous manner, but adorned with every thing rich and coſtly, particularly with fine paintings. The upper town has many ſplendid ſtructures, particularly the cathedral of St. Salvador. The church which lately belonged to the Jeſuits college is very magnificent, and built of marble brought from Europe; and that college is a fine edifice. The viceroy's palace is a moſt ſumptuous building, as is alſo the palace of the archbiſhop, the courts of judicature, the hoſpitals, &c. The principal ſtreets are large, and all of them paved; there are alſo ſeveral ſquares, and many gardens, both within the city and its neighbourhood, in which are a great variety of fruit-trees and flowers, ſallading, and plants for the kitchen.

Moſt of the ſtreets are, however, ſo ſteep as to be impaſſable for coaches or chairs, to ſupply which defect the rich cauſe themſelves to be carried out in a kind of cotton hammocs, called ſerpentines, which are borne on the negroes ſhoulders by the help of a bamboo, about twelve or fourteen feet long. Moſt of theſe hammocs are blue, and adorned with fringes of the ſame colour; they have a velvet pillow, and above the head a kind of teſter with curtains, ſo that the perſon carried cannot be ſeen, unleſs he pleaſes; but may either lie down or ſit up, leaning on his pillow. When he has a mind to be ſeen he puts by the curtains, and ſalutes his acquaintance whom he meets in the ſtreets; for they take a pride in complimenting each other in their hammocs, and will even hold long conferences in them in the ſtreets; but then the two ſlaves who carry them make uſe of a ſtrong well-made ſtaff, with an iron fork at the upper end, and pointed below with iron; this they ſtick faſt in the ground, and reſt the bamboo, or pole, to which the hammoc is fixed, on two of theſe, till their maſter's buſineſs or compliment be over. Scarce any man of faſhion, or any lady, will paſs the ſtreets without being carried in this manner.

The lower claſs of the people are inſolent, and the ſoldiers given to all manner of vice; and ſome of them are dangerous aſſaſſins. The women are more ſtrictly watched than in Portugal, yet ſometimes find means to elude the vigilance of their keepers. However, the huſbands make no ſcruple to ſtab or poiſon their wives, if they find them falſe.

The chief mechanic trades in this city are hatters, ſmiths, ſhoe-makers, ſawyers, carpenters, coopers, taylors, and butchers. All theſe buy negroes, whom they train up to their ſeveral employments. Theſe ſlaves are alſo very uſeful as porters, for as there is here a great trade by ſea, and the landing-place is at the foot of the hill too ſteep for the paſſage of carts, there is great need of ſlaves to carry the goods up into the town: but the merchants have the convenience of cranes with ropes, one end of which goes up, while the other is let down. The houſe in which the crane is ſtands on the brow of the hill towards the ſea, and there are planks ſet ſhelving all the way up, againſt which the goods ſlide as they are hoiſted up or let down.

SECT. IV.

Of the different Inhabitants of Braſil, their Manners and Cuſtoms; with a more particular Account of the Braſilians.

THE preſent inhabitants of Braſil are Portugueſe, Creoles, Meſtizes, Negroes, and Braſilians. The Portugueſe of Europe, who enjoy the places of truſt and profit, are the feweſt in number; the Creoles, or thoſe born of Portugueſe parents in Braſil, are more numerous; and the Meſtizes, or mixed breed, are ſtill more numerous than either; for few of the Portugueſe have been without black or tawney miſtreſſes, and the iſſue of theſe having intermarried they are multiplied extremely. The Negroes are alſo very numerous, and thoſe ſlaves are much more valued than the Braſilians, they being of a more robuſt conſtitution and fitter for labour; for as they come from the coaſt of Africa oppoſite to Braſil, which is much hotter, they endure fatigue in the hot ſeaſon better than the original natives; nor are the latter very numerous, the Portugueſe in their invaſion of the country, like the Spaniards in their conqueſts, deſtroying the unfortunate natives by all the cruel ways they could invent.

The portrait given us of the manners and cuſtoms of the Portugueſe in America by the moſt judicious travellers, is very far from being favourable. They are deſcribed as a people who, while ſunk in the moſt effeminate luxury, practiſe the moſt deſperate crimes: of a temper hypocritical and diſſembling; of little ſincerity in converſation, or honeſty in dealing; lazy, proud, and cruel. In their diet penurious; for, like the inhabitants of moſt ſouthern climates, they are much more fond of ſhew, taſte, and attendance, than of the pleaſures of free

ſociety,

ſociety, and of a good table; yet their feaſts, which are ſeldom made, are extravagantly ſumptuous.

The pride, indolence, luxury, and cruelty of the maſters has, among other cauſes, been attributed to their being bred up among ſlaves, who perform all the buſineſs; and to their being permitted to keep a prodigious number of negroes, not merely to work in the field, nor for domeſtic employments, but ſolely for ſtate, to attend their perſons, and form their train. Theſe become as corrupt as their maſters, who make them the inſtrument of their crimes; and giving them an unbounded and ſcandalous licence, employ them as bullies or aſſaſſins whenever they are diſpoſed to terrify or ſeek revenge. Indeed nothing can be conceived more adapted to create the worſt diſorders than the unnatural junction of ſlavery, idleneſs, and a licentious life. They are ſuffered to go armed, and there are vaſt numbers who have merited or bought their freedom; and this is ſuffered in a country where the negroes are ſaid to be ten to one of the Portugueſe and Creoles.

However, this picture is perhaps too highly coloured; it at beſt does not reſemble thoſe in the northern captainſhips, nor thoſe in the moſt ſouthern, by the Rio Janeiro, who are far from being ſo effeminate and corrupted as thoſe of St. Salvador, which, beſides being in a climate favourable to indolence and debauchery, is the capital city, and in all reſpects worſe than the others.

Before the Portugueſe planted Braſil the country was not divided into provinces, but was all one great common, every tribe and family inhabiting and cultivating what part of it they thought fit, and removing their dwellings wherever they pleaſed; only every man was conſidered as the proprietor of the ground he planted, till he removed and left it for another place he liked better. Their towns uſually conſiſted of five or ſix great houſes, each of which contained two or three hundred people, and ſometimes many more. Over theſe the head of the tribe or family preſided. Their houſes were built of long poles, reeds, and palmeto leaves; and their furniture only conſiſted of hammocs of cotton net-work faſtened to poles, in which they ſlept; ſome earthen pots and pans, and their gourds and calabaſhes, which being cut in half, ſerved them for pails, tubs, and drinking-cups; for they have them of all ſizes: beſides which they had baſkets, in which they carried their proviſions. The ornaments of their houſes were their bows, arrows, ſpears, and other arms.

In this extenſive country were alſo ſome nations that had no ſettled abode; but living in tents, continually removed from place to place; and both theſe and the former ſlept as often without doors as within, tying their hammocs to the boughs of trees, and making fires near them to prevent the ill effects of the cold dews that fell in the night, or to keep off the wild beaſts and noxious vermin.

The Portugueſe and Dutch writers call the Braſilians who inhabit the north part of the country Tapuyers, and thoſe who dwell in the ſouth Tupinambes; but divide theſe into ſeveral petty nations differing in language, tho' very little in their manners and cuſtoms.

The Tapuyers are of a good ſtature, and of a dark copper colour; their hair black and hanging over their ſhoulders; but they have none on their bodies or faces, and go almoſt naked, the women only wearing at their waiſt a ſlight covering of leaves. Their ornaments are glittering ſtones hung upon their lips or noſtrils, bracelets of feathers about their arms, and a circlet of feathers upon their heads. Some paint their bodies of all manner of colours, while others rubbing them with gums ſtick beautiful feathers upon them, which makes them at a diſtance look more like fowls than human creatures.

The Tupinambes, who inhabit the ſouth of Braſil, are of a moderate ſtature, and of a leſs dark complexion than their northern neighbours, who lie nearer the line; but neither of them are ſo black as the Africans in the ſame latitude, for there were no negroes in America before they were tranſported thither by the Spaniards and Portugueſe. Theſe people have however flat noſes, which are not natural, but made ſo in their infancy; a flat noſe there being eſteemed a beauty: they have alſo black curled hair on their heads, and paintthemſelves like the northern Braſilians.

The general food of all the Braſilians was caſſava bread, of which they made cakes like our ſea biſcuit; they alſo uſed to feed on other roots, fruit, and herbs, with ſuch veniſon as they took in hunting, and with fiſh and oil. They have been repreſented by many writers as canibals, and all the Braſilians have been charged with eating human fleſh; but this appears to be nothing more than a ſlander caſt upon them to give a colour to the cruel treatment they have met with from their conquerors. The general liquor drank by the natives is ſpring water, of which they have the beſt and the greateſt variety in the world; but they have other kinds of liquor made of the juice of their fruits or honey, with which they ſometimes get very drunk, ſitting whole days and nights over their cups. They were formerly acquainted but with few arts, except ſpinning, weaving, and forming their bows, arrows, lances, darts, and building their houſes, which did not want any great contrivance. They had, however, ſome knowledge of the virtues of ſeveral herbs and drugs, which they frequently adminiſtered with ſucceſs to the ſick. Hunting, fiſhing, and fowling, were rather their buſineſs than diverſion, they being neceſſary for the ſupport of their families, in a country where they had neither corn nor tame cattle. Drinking, ſinging, and dancing, were their principal diverſions; theſe they practiſed on their rejoicing days, on a victory, or the birth of their children. They are ſtill great ſmoakers, and take the ſtrongeſt tobacco: their pipes are a hollow cane or reed, and the bowl a large nut ſhell, that holds almoſt a handful of tobacco.

The Portugueſe will not allow that the Braſilians had any kind of religion, and yet confeſs that they had prieſts, and admitted of a ſtate of rewards and puniſhments, according to their valour or cowardice. The prevailing notion among them is, that after death the good ſhall viſit their anceſtors, who dwell in a delightful place beyond the Andes. They believe in certain inviſible beings, the diſpenſers of good and evil, the rewarders of virtue, and the puniſhers of vice. As to their having no temples, this may poſſibly ariſe from their profound reverence of the Deity, who is not to be circumſcribed by time or place, or worſhipped in the mean houſes erected by human labour, but under the glorious canopy of the heavens.

Nor is the opinion of their living without any regard to government more agreeable to truth; for even thoſe writers who deny that they had any policy ſpeak of their kings, chiefs, and generals, and even admit that there was a ſcale of ſubordination among them. If one man injured another, he was obliged to make him ſatisfaction in kind if poſſible, and no people on earth diſplay more hoſpitality and civility to ſtrangers, which is acknowledged by the Portugueſe writers themſelves, even while they are endeavouring to ſtigmatize thoſe generous people with the odious appellation of cannibals.

The rites obſerved at funerals is a farther proof of their belief of a future ſtate. The friends and relations of the deceaſed ſet up a lamentable howl, praiſing alternately the beauty, virtue, ſtrength, and talents of their departed relation, crying out in the moſt melancholy voice, that they ſhall never ſee him more till they dance with him beyond the mountains. When theſe lamentations had laſted for the ſpace of ſix hours, preparation was made for burying of the corpſe in a ſitting poſture, and a dome erected over it by way of vault: here they depoſited meat and drink, his arms, and whatever was uſeful to him when alive. As to the maſter of the family, his tomb was uſually in the middle of his own houſe, and his monument was generally adorned with the moſt beautiful feathers and other ornaments.

Such, according to the moſt authentic relations, were the ancient Braſilians, and ſuch, with very little variation, are the modern race, where the manners of the Portugueſe and thoſe of the negroes have not mingled with their original cuſtoms.

In ſhort, the native Braſilians are at preſent a tractable and ingenious people, ready to learn any art or ſcience the Portugueſe will teach them, and take nothing ſo kindly of the prieſts as their inſtructing their children, which has given them an opportunity of making many converts;

converts; thoſe who live under the Portugueſe generally conform to their cuſtoms in eating, drinking, and cloathing, and few of theſe go naked.

SECT. IV.

Of the Government, Forces, and Trade of Braſil.

THE government of Braſil is in the Vice-roy, who, as we have already obſerved, reſides at St. Salvador. He has two councils, one for criminal, the other for civil affairs, in both which he preſides: but to the infinite prejudice of the ſettlement, all the delay, chicanery, and multiplied expences incident to the worſt part of the law, and practiſed by the moſt corrupted lawyers, flouriſh here; at the ſame time that juſtice is ſo relaxed, that the greateſt crimes are often ſuffered to paſs with impunity.

The Portugueſe in Braſil are ſufficient to maintain the dominion of that country againſt any other power; they have a good number of European regular troops; the militia too is regulated, among whom there are ſome bodies of Indians and free negroes. On the other hand, the Portugueſe, Creoles, Meſtizes, Negroes, and Braſilians, are now in a manner one people, their religion the ſame, and their blood intermixed by marriages; and therefore, however they may diſagree among themſelves while they have no enemy to contend with, they would infallibly unite againſt all the reſt of the world. This is an advantage which both the Spaniards, Portugueſe, and the French have over the Engliſh in America; for they always make the natives and negroes where they have any power, of their own religion; and theſe, in a ſhort time, diſcover as much zeal for their ſuperſtition as the Portugueſe themſelves, who would never bear that any people who bore the name of heretics ſhould plant themſelves among them; nor is the circumſtance of marriage and alliance inconſiderable: theſe lay ſtrong obligations upon all people to unite againſt ſtrangers, and this the Engliſh do not enough conſider, when they prohibit their people matching with the natives or negroes. Inſtead of this we treat the latter with greater cruelty than thoſe nations who are leaſt diſtinguiſhed for their humanity. Hence they generally remain in a ſeparate intereſt, and inſtead of ſerving their maſters faithfully, are ever conſpiring to cut their throats, or to eſcape out of their hands.

The trade of Portugal is carried on upon the ſame excluſive plan obſerved by the other European nations with the American colonies, and reſembles the Spaniſh method in not ſending out ſingle ſhips, as the convenience of the ſeveral places, and the judgment of the European merchants, may direct; but by annual fleets, which ſail at ſtated times from Portugal, and compoſe three flotas, bound to as many parts in Braſil, namely, to Fernambuca in the northern part, to Rio Janeiro at the ſouthern extremity, and to the bay of All Saints in the middle, where is the capital, of which we have given a deſcription, and there all the fleets rendezvous on their return to Portugal.

The trade of Braſil is very great, and increaſes every year; which is the leſs ſurpriſing as the Portugueſe have opportunities of ſupplying themſelves with ſlaves for their ſeveral works at a much cheaper rate than any other European power that has ſettlements in America; they being the only European nation that has eſtabliſhed colonies in Africa; and theſe being very conſiderable, both for their extent and the number of their inhabitants, they have of courſe advantages in that trade which no other nation can have, and every year draw from thence into Braſil between forty and fifty thouſand negroes; and for this the ſituation of Braſil is very convenient, it being nearer to Africa than any other part of America. Hence it is principally that Braſil is the richeſt, moſt flouriſhing, and growing eſtabliſhment in all America. The ſugar exported from thence is very great, and it is finer than what any of ours, the French, or Spaniſh ſugar plantations ſend us. Their tobacco is alſo remarkably good, though not raiſed in ſuch large quantities as in our American colonies. The northern and ſouthern parts of Braſil abound with horned cattle; theſe are hunted for their hides, of which no leſs than twenty thouſand are annually ſent into Europe.

A conſiderable part of the gold brought from Braſil is coined in America: thus, that coined at Rio Janeiro bears an R, and that which is ſtruck at St. Salvador, or the Bay, is marked with a B. Of the diamonds, there is ſuppoſed to be returned to Europe the value of one hundred and thirty thouſand pounds. This, with the ſugar, which is principally the cargo of the Fernambuca fleet, the tobacco, the hides, the valuable drugs for medicines and manufactures, may give ſome idea of the importance of this trade, not only to Portugal, but to all the trading powers of Europe.

The chief commodities the European ſhips carry thither are not the fifteenth part of the produce of Portugal; they conſiſt of the woollen goods of all kinds of England, France, and Holland; the linens and laces of Holland, France, and Germany; the ſilk of France and Italy; ſilk and thread ſtockings, hats, lead, tin, pewter, iron, copper, and all ſorts of utenſils wrought in theſe metals from England; as well as flour, ſalt fiſh, beef, and cheeſe. They have oil from Spain: wine, with ſome fruit, is nearly all they are ſupplied with from Portugal.

Though the profits in this trade are great, few Portugueſe merchants trade upon their own ſtock; they are generally credited by the foreign merchants, whoſe commodities they ſell, eſpecially by the Engliſh. In ſhort, though in Portugal as well as in Spain all trade with their plantations is ſtrictly forbidden to ſtrangers, yet, like all other regulations that contradict the very intention for which they were made, they are little attended to. The Portugueſe is, indeed, only the truſtee and factor; but his fidelity is equal to that of the Spaniſh merchant, and that has ſcarce even been ſhaken by any public or private cauſe. This is extremely ſurprizing in the Portugueſe, who in all other reſpects are far from being remarkable for their integrity, and is a ſtriking inſtance how far a cuſtom originally built upon a few examples, and a conſequent reputation built upon that, will be able to affect in ſucceſſion men of very different natural characters and morals.

England is at preſent moſt intereſted in the trade of Portugal, both for home conſumption, and what they want for the uſe of the Braſils; and deſerves to be moſt favoured, as well from the ſervices the Engliſh have always done that crown, and from the ſtipulations of treaties, as from the conſideration that no other people conſumes ſo much of the produce of Portugal. However, the French have become very dangerous rivals to us in this, as in many other branches of trade.

SECT. V.

ST. CATHARINE'S.

Its Situation, Extent, Face of the Country, Vegetables, Animals, and Climate.

BEFORE we take leave of Braſil, we ſhall take notice of St. Catharine's, the principal iſland on the coaſt of the ſouthern part of this country. It is no where above ſix miles in breadth, though about twenty-ſeven in length, extending from the twenty-ſeventh degree thirty-five minutes ſouth latitude to the twenty-eighth, and lying in the forty-ninth degree forty-five minutes weſt longitude from London.

Though it is of a conſiderable height, it is ſcarce perceivable at ten leagues diſtance, it being then obſerved under the continent of Braſil, the other mountains there riſing exceeding high; but on a nearer approach it is eaſily diſtinguiſhed, and may be known by a number of ſmall iſlands lying at each end, and ſcattered along the eaſt ſide of it. The harbour is defended by ſeveral forts.

The ſoil is truly luxuriant, ſpontaneouſly producing fruit of many kinds, and the ground is covered with one continued foreſt of trees of a perpetual verdure, which from the exuberance of the mould are ſo entangled with briars, thorns, and underwood, as to form a thicket abſolutely impenetrable, except by ſome narrow paths which the inhabitants have made for their own convenience. Theſe, with ſome ſpots cleared for plantations

along the ſhore facing the continent, ſeem the only uncovered parts of the iſland. The woods are extremely fragrant from the many aromatic trees and ſhrubs with which they abound; and the fruits and vegetables of all climates thrive here, almoſt without culture, and are to be procured in great plenty; ſo that here is no want of oranges, lemons, citrons, pine-apples, peaches, apricots, melons, and plantains; there are alſo abundance of onions and potatoes.

The fleſh proviſions are however much inferior to the vegetables; there are indeed to be purchaſed ſmall wild cattle, ſomewhat like buffaloes; but theſe are very indifferent food, their fleſh being of a looſe contexture, and generally of a diſagreeable flavour, owing perhaps to the wild calabaſh on which they feed. There are alſo great plenty of pheaſants, but they are far inferior in taſte to thoſe we have in England. The other proviſions are monkeys, parrots, and fiſh of various ſorts, which abound in the harbour, are extremely good, and eaſily caught.

The water both on the inland and the oppoſite continent is excellent, and preſerves at ſea as well as that of the Thames, for after it has been in the caſk a day or two, it purges itſelf, ſtinks moſt intolerably, and is ſoon covered with a green ſcum, which in a few days ſubſides to the bottom, leaving the water as clear as cryſtal, and perfectly ſweet.

Theſe are the advantages of the iſland; but it has ſeveral inconveniencies attending it, particularly with reſpect to the climate; for the woods and hills which ſurround the harbour, prevent a free circulation of air; and the vigorous vegetation which conſtantly takes place there, furniſhes ſuch a prodigious quantity of vapour, that all the night, and a great part of the morning, a thick fog covers the whole country, and continues till either the ſun gathers ſtrength to diſſipate it, or it is diſperſed by a briſk ſea breeze. This renders the place cloſe and humid. Strangers are here alſo much peſtered with a multitude of muſkettos, which are all day extremely troubleſome, and at ſun ſet, when they retire, they are ſucceeded by an infinite number of ſand-flies, which though ſcarce perceivable to the naked eye, make a great buzzing, and wherever they bite, raiſe a ſmall bump in the fleſh, which is ſoon attended with a painful itching, like that ariſing from the bite of an Engliſh harveſt bug. This iſland is ſubject to a governor appointed by the king of Portugal, and has a garriſon of ſoldiers for its defence.

SECT. VI.

A conciſe Hiſtory of Braſil.

BRASIL is ſaid to have been firſt diſcovered by Americus Veſputio, a Florentine, who had the good fortune to be honoured with giving his name to the immenſe continent ſome time before found out by Columbus. This was in the year 1498, but he then ſailed no farther than to the fifth degree of ſouth latitude. Afterwards, being employed by the king of Portugal, he ſailed again to Braſil, and extended his diſcoveries to the fifty-ſecond degree of ſouth latitude; and the ſame year his Portugueſe majeſty ſending a fleet to the Eaſt Indies under the admiral Peter Alvarez Capralio, he ſtanding out to ſea to avoid the calms upon the coaſt of Africa, fell in with the continent of South America, and landing in the ſeventeenth degree of ſouth latitude gave the country the name of Santa Cruz, which, as we have already ſaid, it ſoon after loſt, and obtained the name of Braſil. The admiral ſent one of his ſhips back to Portugal with an account of this diſcovery, the richneſs of the country, and its agreeable ſituation; and with the reſt continued his voyage to India. His majeſty, pleaſed with the account, reſolved to ſend a colony thither, and the firſt ſettlement was made; but this was performed in a very improper manner, for it was only by baniſhing thither a number of criminals of all kinds. This introduced an evil diſpoſition into the firſt principles of the colony, and made the ſettlement extremely difficult, from the diſorders they introduced, and the offence they gave to the original inhabitants. This ſettlement likewiſe met with ſome interruption from the court of Spain, who conſidered the country as within their dominions. However, the affair was at length accommodated by a treaty, in which it was agreed, that the Portugueſe ſhould poſſeſs all the country lying between the river of the Amazons and the river Plate.

Their right being thus confirmed, the Portugueſe purſued the ſettlement with great vigour: conſiderable grants were made to thoſe who were inclined to become adventurers; and many of the nobility of Portugal procured an intereſt in a country that promiſed ſuch great advantages. The natives were in moſt parts ſubdued, and the improvement of the colony advanced apace. In a little time the crown became attentive to ſo valuable an acquiſition; the government was new modelled, many exorbitant grants recalled, and every thing ſettled on ſo advantageous a footing, that all the ſea-coaſts for upwards of two thouſand miles were in ſome meaſure ſettled, to the great benefit of the mother country. The Portugueſe conqueſts on the coaſt of Africa greatly forwarded this ſettlement, by the number of negroes it afforded the ſettlers for their works; and this was the firſt introduction of negroes into America.

But in the very meridian of the proſperity of the Portugueſe, when they were in poſſeſſion of a moſt extenſive empire, and a flouriſhing trade in Africa, Arabia, India, the iſlands of Aſia, and one of the moſt valuable parts of America, they were ſtruck by one of thoſe blows which inſtantly decides the fate of kingdoms. Don Sebaſtian, one of their greateſt princes, loſt his life in an expedition againſt the Moors, and by that event the Portugueſe loſt their liberty, Portugal being abſorbed in the Spaniſh dominions.

Soon after the ſame yoke which galled the necks of the Portugueſe, becoming inſupportable to the inhabitants of the Netherlands, ſeven provinces ſhook it off; and not ſatisfied with forming themſelves into an independent ſtate, and ſupporting their independency by a ſucceſsful defenſive war, with amazing ardour purſued the Spaniards into the remoteſt receſſes of their extenſive territories, and grew rich, powerful, and terrible by the ſpoils of their former anceſtors. They particularly attacked the poſſeſſions of the Portugueſe, took almoſt all their fortreſſes in the Eaſt Indies, and then turned their arms upon Braſil, unprotected by the Spaniards, and betrayed by the cowardice of the governor of the principal city. They would have conquered the whole iſland, had not Don Michael de Texeira, the archbiſhop, who was deſcended from one of the nobleſt families in Portugal, believed that in ſuch an emergency the danger of the country ſuperſeded the common obligations of his profeſſion: he took arms, and at the head of the monks, and a few ſcattered troops, put a ſtop to the conqueſts of the Dutch, making a gallant ſtand till ſuccours arrived, and then reſigned the commiſſion, with which the public neceſſity and his own courage had armed him, into the hands of a perſon appointed by authority. By this ſtand he ſaved ſeven of the captainſhips out of fourteen into which Braſil is divided, the reſt falling into the hands of the Dutch, who conquered and kept them with the utmoſt bravery and conduct.

To the brave count Maurice of Naſſau the Dutch owed ſeveral of theſe conqueſts, the eſtabliſhment of their colonies, and the advantageous peace by which they were ſecured to them. But as it is natural for a mercantile people to be deſirous of ſudden profit, and as this colony was not under the immediate government of the ſtates, but ſubject to the Dutch Weſt India company, they, from principles narrowed by avarice and mean ſentiments, could not bear the preſent profits of the colony ſhould be ſacrificed to its future ſecurity. The prince kept up more troops and erected more fortreſſes than they were willing to allow him, and therefore treated him in ſuch a manner as obliged him to reſign.

The ſchemes of the company now took place; ſeveral perſons were ſent over who were to have the management of the colony, and who by their parſimony were to reimburſe the company the ſums the colony had coſt. The chief of the illuſtrious perſons who were the ſucceſſors of the great count Maurice of Naſſau, one of the ableſt,

ableſt, braveſt, and moſt worthy men of that family, ſo famous for producing heroes, were Mr. Hamel, a merchant of Amſterdam; Mr. de Baſſis, a goldſmith of Harlem; and Mr. Bulleſtraet, a carpenter of Middleburg; all men of good ſenſe and great fidelity to the company: but unfortunately for the republic, as well as their maſters, they underſtood trade better than the art of government. They ſent over to Holland the produce of thoſe lands which count Maurice had aſſigned for maintaining the fortifications, which in the mean time ran to ruin. They gave licences upon very eaſy terms to the ſoldiers to return home, which leſſened the expence of the army. The charge of a court was retrenched, the debts of the company exacted with the utmoſt rigour and ſeverity, their gains now increaſed cent. per cent. and in their opinion every thing was in a moſt flouriſhing ſtate. But in a ſhort time all theſe fine appearances ended in the total loſs of the country, and the entire ruin of the Weſt India company. The hearts of the ſubjects were loſt by their penurious way of dealing, the ſeverity of their proceedings, and their rigorous exactions; thoſe of the Portugueſe who had beeen long ſettled in the country, and had ſubmitted to the Dutch government, were now treated with very little ceremony: they therefore purchaſed fire-arms and ammunition of the government, and as they paid a very high price, they obtained whatever they wanted; joined the Portugueſe who came from Europe to their aſſiſtance; by degrees recovered all the towns the Hollanders were in poſſeſſion of, and in 1654 drove them entirely out of the country; ſince which time it has continued in the poſſeſſion of the crown of Portugal.

CHAP. VIII.

Of the SPANISH AMERICAN Dominions.

SECT. I.

Of the Iſle of CUBA.

Its Situation, Extent, Face of the Country, Climate, Soil, Vegetables, and Animals; with a particular Deſcription of the Havanna, the Manners and Cuſtoms of the People, and the Hiſtory of the Iſland.

OUR deſire to place the American dominions of each of the ſeveral European powers in one view, made it neceſſary to leave the Weſt India Iſlands, to which we now return, and ſhall give as perfect, and at the ſame time as conciſe an account of them as we are able.

The iſland of Cuba is ſeated between the twentieth degree north latitude and the tropic of Cancer, and between the ſeventy-fourth and eighty-fifth degree fifteen minutes weſt longitude; it extends ſix hundred and ſixty miles in length, from Cape St. Antonio on the weſt to Cape Maize on the eaſt, but is very narrow in proportion, it being generally from thirty to forty miles in breadth. It is ſeated twenty-five leagues to the north of Jamaica, ſixty miles to the weſt of Hiſpaniola, and a hundred miles to the ſouth of Cape Florida, commanding the entrance of the gulphs of Mexico and Florida, and of the windward paſſage.

The natives had given it the name of Cuba before it was diſcovered by Columbus, who at firſt called it Juanna, from Don John, and afterwards Ferdinandino, from king Ferdinand V. who was king of Spain when this iſland was diſcovered; but it ſoon after recovered its American name of Cuba, which it ſtill retains.

A ridge of mountains run almoſt through the iſland from eaſt to weſt, in which are mines of copper, which furniſh the Spaniſh plantations with the metal for all their braſs guns; and gold duſt being found in the ſands of the rivers, it is conjectured that there are veins of gold, if not of ſilver, in the mountains. Theſe mountains are ſhaded with trees, but the land near the ſhore is generally a plain champaign country. Abundance of rivulets run from the north and ſouth ſides of theſe eminences, but none of them are large, for they fall into the ſea after a very ſhort courſe. No place in the world has better harbours, the chief of which are the Havanna on the north weſt, which is one of the fineſt and moſt commodious havens in America; and that of St. Jago, which is at the bottom of a large bay, at the eaſt end of the iſland.

The rainy ſeaſon is in the months of July and Auguſt, when the ſun is vertical, and conſequently the weather muſt be extremely hot was the ſun not clouded, and the air freſhed by the torrents of rain which then fall. The faireſt ſeaſon is when the ſun is fartheſt from them, and then the morning is much the hotteſt part of the day, for towards noon the ſea breeze begins to blow pretty briſkly, and thus continues till the evening. The trade wind in theſe ſeas blows from the north eaſt. At the full and change of the moon, from October to April, they have briſk north or north weſt winds, which in December and January frequently become ſtorms, though this is uſually called the fair ſeaſon.

This iſland is ſaid to have in general the beſt ſoil, for ſo large a country, of any in America, and to produce all the commodities known in our American iſlands, particularly ginger, long pepper, and other ſpices, caſſia fiſtula, maſtic, and aloes. Here are large cedars and other odoriferous trees, oaks, pines, palm-trees, plenty of large vines, and fine cotton trees. There are two ſorts of fruit here, called camitor and guanavana; the firſt reſembles a China orange, and grows on a tree which has a leaf green on one ſide, and of a cinnamon colour on the other. The other is in the form of a heart, green without, and with ſome thorny prickles within: it has alſo ſome ſtones, and a tart juice. Their other fruits are plantanes, bananas, guavas, lemons, &c. here are alſo many large walks of cocoas. The country produces tobacco and ſugar, ſaid to be the beſt in the Weſt Indies, though in no great quantity for want of hands to cultivate the canes, but their ſugar works have both water mills and horſe mills.

The black cattle formerly brought hither by the Spaniards, have multiplied to ſuch an extraordinary degree, that numbers have run wild in the woods, and for want of people to eat the fleſh, many fine fat beaſts are killed purely for their hides, and left to rot on the ground. However, a great deal of fleſh is cut into pieces, and dried in the ſun, in order to ſerve for ſhips proviſions. There are here alſo horſes, mules, ſheep, hogs and wild boars, wild and tame fowl, parrots, and partridges with blue heads; the ſhores abound with ſea fowl, particularly with a ſort of cranes that are white when young, but of ſeveral colours when old. Here are likewiſe large turtle, and there is no place where the ſeas and rivers abound more with alligators. The fiſh are chiefly barbel and ſhads.

This iſland is far from being improved as it might; for here, ſays our author, are more churches than plantations, more prieſts than planters, and more lazy bigots than labourers. To this it is owing, that this large iſland, with a luxuriant ſoil, capable of producing abundance of food, and which is perhaps eaſier procured and obtained here than in any other part of the world, here being foreſts which, beſides the cattle juſt mentioned, afford plenty of veniſon; yet does not produce for exportation, including even their hides and tallow, their

ſugar,

ſugar, tobacco, and ſnuff, near the value of our little iſland of Antigua.

Here are many conſiderable towns, but though St. Jago ſtill retains the name of the capital, it is greatly inferior to the Havannah, which is by far the fineſt city in the iſland.

The Havannah is ſeated on the north weſt coaſt of the iſland, in the twenty-third degree twelve minutes north latitude, and in the eighty-ſecond degree thirteen minutes weſt longitude. It was built by Diego de Velaſquez, who landed here in the beginning of the ſixteenth century with three hundred Spaniards, and with the aſſiſtance of Bartholomew de las Caſas conquered Cuba. The laſt gentleman, after turning a Dominican friar, was made biſhop of Chiapa, in New Spain, and diſtinguiſhed himſelf greatly by his zeal in the cauſe of humanity; and from him we have the hiſtory of the Spaniſh cruelties, both here and in other parts of the Weſt Indies. Its fort is ſaid to be the moſt frequented, as well as the beſt in all the iſlands, and one of the fineſt in the world; it being ſo large, that a thouſand ſail of ſhips may commodiouſly ride in it in the utmoſt ſafety, without either anchor or cable, no wind being able to hurt them; and is ſo deep, that the largeſt veſſels anchor at a ſmall diſtance from the ſhore. The entrance, which has no bar to obſtruct it, is by a channel about three quarters of a mile in length, but ſo narrow, that only one ſhip can go in at a time. The harbour into which it leads at the north weſt corner, is a long ſquare lying north and ſouth; the other three corners forming three creeks or bays.

This city ſtands in the moſt fertile part of the iſland, on the weſt ſide of the harbour, in a delightful plain that extends along the ſhore, and backwards it is waſhed by two branches of the river Lagida. The city is of an oval form, and begins about a quarter of a mile from the mouth of the harbour. The buildings, which are of ſtone, are very handſome, but not lofty, and the ſtreets are narrow, but clean. Here are eleven churches and monaſteries, two handſome hoſpitals, and a fine ſquare in the middle of the town, encompaſſed with uniform buildings. The churches which are magnificent, are richly adorned, the lamps, candleſtics, and ornaments for the altars, being of gold and ſilver. Some ſilver lamps of moſt curious workmanſhip, are ſo large as to weigh two hundred marks, each mark being half a pound. The church of the Recollects has twelve beautiful chapels, and in their monaſtery are cells for fifty fathers. St. Clare's church has ſeven altars, all adorned with plate, and the nunnery contains a hundred women and ſervants. The church of the Auguſtines has thirteen altars, and that of St. John de Dieu nine altars, with a hoſpital for ſoldiers, that has a revenue of twelve thouſand pieces of eight.

The city on the land ſide is encompaſſed with a wall defended by baſtions, and a caſtle on the ſide towards the harbour; at the harbour's mouth are alſo two other ſtrong caſtles to defend its entrance: the ſtrongeſt of theſe has lines, which extend to the caſtle firſt mentioned, and is called the Moro fort: it is built on a rock at the foot of too hills, in which is cut a deep ditch, filled with ſea water. The walls are of a triangular form, with three large baſtions planted with forty heavy cannon. From this caſtle runs a line mounted with twelve prodigious long pieces of cannon, lying level with the water, each carrying a ball of thirty-ſix pounds, and theſe are by way of eminence called the twelve apoſtles. At the point between this caſtle and the ſea is a tower, with a round lanthorn at the top, where a man continually watches to ſee what ſhips are approaching, of which he gives notice by putting out as many flags as there are ſhips. The ſecond of the caſtles at the harbour's mouth is called the Puntal, and ſtands on a plain ground on the ſide of the entrance, oppoſite to the former. It is a regular fortification, with four good baſtions well planted with cannon. The third fort, which was that firſt mentioned, is called El Fuerte, or, The Fort, by way of eminence: it is a ſmall but ſtrong work towards the end of the narrow channel, with four regular baſtions, and another platform mounted with about ſixty large heavy braſs cannon. Beſides theſe three forts there are two others, each of twelve guns, which ſtand on the ſhore four or five miles from the port. That to the eaſt is called Coxemar, and that to the weſt Bariavans. Theſe forts have in the whole one hundred and twenty guns.

This city is of more importance to the Spaniards than any other in America, it being the place of rendezvous for all their fleets in their return from that quarter of the world to Spain; and from its lying at the mouth of the gulf of Florida, through which they are all obliged to paſs, it has been called by the Spaniards, the key of the Weſt Indies. Here rides the navy of the king of Spain; and here meet in September the merchant ſhips from ſeveral Spaniſh ports, both of the continent and iſlands, to the number of fifty or ſixty ſail, to take in proviſions and water, in order to return to Spain in a body. Within the city is a continual fair till their departure, which is generally before the end of the month, when proclamation is made, forbidding any that belong to the fleet to ſtay in the town on pain of death, and upon firing a warning gun, they all go on board.

The inhabitants are generally more familiar than at La Vera Cruz, and the women in particular have more liberty, but do not go abroad without their veils. Many of them ſpeak French, and dreſs after the French mode, ſome of that nation having ſettled there ſince Spain fell to the houſe of Bourbon. The diet moſt in uſe are hogs and turtle, with which all the ſhips complete their ſtore of proviſions. The pork is eſteemed very nouriſhing, and contrary to that of other countries is binding. They cut the fleſh of the turtle into long ſlices, and ſtrewing ſalt over them, dry them in the wind. The wine here is pretty cheap, but proviſions are in general dear, eſpecially wheat bread, which is frequently ſold at a penny an ounce, particularly when the galleons are here; this is aſcribed to the want of wheat, which does not thrive here, and therefore all they have is imported from abroad. The inhabitants, however, in general make uſe of bread made of the caſſava root. While the fleets are here, a fowl ſells for a noble, and fruit and other things in proportion, ſo that a man can ſcarce live for two pieces of eight a day.

The other principal towns in the iſland are Santa Cruz, which is ſeated ſixty-three miles to the eaſt of the Havannah, on the ſame coaſt, and has a very good harbour. Porto del Principe, on the ſame coaſt, ſtands about three hundred miles ſouth eaſt of the Havannah; it was formerly a rich town, and was taken by the Buccaneers, after a ſtout reſiſtance. Near it are ſome ſprings of bitumen.

St. Jago is ſeated in the twentieth degree two minutes north latitude, and in the ſeventy-fifth degree forty-ſeven minutes weſt longitude, at the bottom of a ſpacious bay, on the ſouth eaſt ſide of the iſland, about ſix miles from the ſea. The entrance to the bay is narrow, and within it are ſmall iſlands, which ſhelter it from ſtorms, and form a commodious harbour. It is a biſhop's ſee, and has a cathedral; it had once alſo a good trade, which is now removed to the Havannah, and though the city has juriſdiction over half the iſland, it has dwindled almoſt to nothing.

Though this iſland was diſcovered in 1492, it was not completely conquered till the year 1511. The natives were treated with all the cruelty that the united paſſions of ſavage bigotry, ſuperſtition, and avarice could invent; and it is ſaid that ſome millions of them were cut off, and that at laſt orders were ſent from the court of Spain to exterminate the few remains of its original inhabitants, which was accordingly executed with barbarous punctuality; ſo that the hiſtory of Cuba is no other than a relation of the moſt horrible maſſacres, which were induſtriouſly concealed by the Spaniards; for theſe monſters finding gold upon the iſland, concluded that it muſt come from concealed mines, and therefore tortured vaſt numbers of the natives, to make them diſcover where theſe mines lay; and it is ſaid, that in the ſingle year when the governor Velaſquez arrived on the iſland, no fewer than ſix hundred thouſand of the natives were put to death.

The houſes of the Havannah were at firſt of no better materials than wood, and that town was ſo inconſiderable in 1536, that it was taken by the crew of a French pirate ſhip, who obliged the inhabitants to pay ſeven hundred ducats to ſave it from being burnt. The very

day after the pirates departure three Spaniſh ſhips from Mexico arrived at the Havanna, and having unloaded their cargoes, ſailed in purſuit of the pirate ſhip; but ſuch was the cowardice of the Spaniſh officers, that the pirate took all their three ſhips, and returning to the Havanna obliged the inhabitants to pay them ſeven hundred ducats more.

To prevent the like accidents for the future, the inhabitants of the Havanna built their houſes of ſtone, and ran up a fort at the mouth of the harbour: but as the town was ſtill open on the land ſide, the Engliſh cruizers paid it ſeveral unwelcome viſits, and more than once drove the Spaniſh inhabitants into the woods, while they plundered the place. During the war between Henry II. of France with Spain, a Dieppe ſhip, with no more than ninety men, plundered St. Jago, and afterwards attacked the Havanna; but the Spaniards had been ſo often uſed to thoſe viſits, that they had retired to the woods; ſo that the French found no inhabitants there. After remaining for ſome time in the town, ſearching in vain for plunder, two Spaniards came to them, ſeemingly to treat of the ranſom of the town, but in reality to obſerve their numbers. The French demanded ſix thouſand ducats for ranſom-money, which the two deputies pretended was more than the inhabitants could raiſe, and took their leave. Upon their return to their countrymen, the majority came to a reſolution to ſurprize the French ſword in hand, and accordingly a hundred and fifty of them came, under cover of the night, to cut them off while aſleep; but the French, after loſing four of their number, ſtood to their arms, and ſoon put the Spaniards to flight. After this, by daubing the windows and doors of the houſes with pitch and tar, of which they found great plenty, they ſet fire to the town, and afterwards pulled down the walls and the fort. In the year 1669 the Engliſh Buccaneers under captain Morgan took the city of Havanna, and would have kept it could they have had the king of England's protection.

In July 1741, admiral Vernon and general Wentworth landed at Walthenam harbour in the ſouth-eaſt part of the iſland, with a ſquadron of ſhips, made an encampment, and erected a fort on the ſhore, to which they gave the name of Cumberland harbour and fort. They continued there till almoſt the end of November following, when the ſickneſs of the men obliged them to abandon the iſland.

The importance of the Havanna to the Spaniards was never thoroughly underſtood till after the ſucceſſion of the houſe of Bourbon to the throne of Spain, and then nothing was wanting that could contribute to render it impregnable.

When the amazing ſucceſſes of Great Britain in the late war united the three branches of the houſe of Bourbon, France, Spain, and Naples, in what was called the Family Compact, the miſtakes of the former plans of war againſt Spain were obſerved, and it was reſolved to begin the operations by the attack of the Havanna. This momentous plan depending ſo entirely upon military knowledge, his majeſty referred, in a great meaſure, the execution of it to his uncle, the late duke of Cumberland, whoſe long experience in the army undoubtedly rendered him the beſt judge of the abilities of the officers who were to be employed in the execution of it. The chief command was given to the earl of Albemarle, the diſciple of his royal highneſs in the art of war. Admiral Pocock, who had acquitted himſelf ſo much to the honour and intereſt of his country in the Eaſt Indies, had the command of the fleet, and Sir James Douglas was ordered to reinforce him with his ſquadron from Martinico.

The main fleet ſailed on the fifth of March 1761, and was joined by Sir James Douglas with his reinforcement on the twenty-ſeventh of May off the north-weſt point of Hiſpaniola; the whole armament then conſiſting of nineteen ſhips of the line, eighteen ſmaller ſhips of war, and about a hundred and fifty tranſports, with ten thouſand regular troops on board, which were to be joined about the time the operations were to commence by four thouſand troops more, who were ordered from North America. The admiral, preſſed by time, reſolved to run along the northern ſhore of the iſland, through the old ſtreights of Bahama, which form a narrow paſſage, bounded on each ſide by dangerous ſands and ſhoals about nine hundred miles in length. This the approach of the hurricane ſeaſon rendered in ſome meaſure neceſſary, and the admiral having procured from lord Anſon an excellent chart of thoſe ſtreights, conducted their paſſage with ſuch ſucceſs, that they got clear of all danger by the fifth of June.

Fourteen Spaniſh men of war, beſides ſmaller ſhips, were then lying in the baſon of the harbour of Havanna. The admiral, with twelve ſail of the line, bore away to block them up, and to make a diverſion on one ſide, while the landing was effected on the other, between the two forts, Barcarans and Coxemar, the firſt of which was taken poſſeſſion of by the Mercury man of war, and the other by the Dragon; their garriſon, which conſiſted of armed peaſants and negroes, flying into the woods. Mean while the earl of Albemarle, favoured by the fire of the Dragon, paſſed the Coxamar river, and the army lay under arms along the ſhore.

On the eighth of June lord Albemarle marched to Guanamacoa, about ſix miles from the landing-place, and ſaw ſix thouſand of the enemy, drawn up very advantageouſly, as if they intended to diſpute his paſſage to that village, but they were ſoon diſperſed; the next day his lordſhip formed the army into two bodies; one commanded by general Elliot lay towards the ſouth-eaſt of the harbour, extending conſiderably into the country, in order to cover the ſiege, and ſecure the foraging parties ſent out for proviſions. The other was commanded by general Keppel, and was employed in the attack of Moro caſtle, while colonel Howe was poſted with a detachment to cut off the communication between the town and the country, and keep the enemy's attention divided. The hardſhips the Engliſh army ſuſtained in carrying on the ſiege of the Moro caſtle, were inexpreſſible: the earth was every where ſo thin, that it was with great difficulty they could cover themſelves in their approaches. There was no ſpring or river near them; it was neceſſary to bring water from a great diſtance, and ſo precarious and ſcanty was this ſupply, that they were obliged to have it brought from their ſhips: roads for communication were to be cut through thick woods; the artillery were to be drawn a vaſt way over a rough rocky ſhore, and ſeveral of the men dropped down dead with heat, thirſt, and fatigue. In ſhort, the ſiege of Moro caſtle was carried on with the utmoſt difficulty; and the fire continued with equal fury on both ſides. To give the greater effect to the batteries, the Dragon, Marlborough, and Cambridge, laid their broadſides againſt the north eaſt part of the Moro, and a moſt dreadful cannonading enſued for ſeven hours, both from the forts and the ſea; but the ſituation and ſtrength of the caſtle gave it great advantages over the ſhips, which were terribly ſhattered and obliged to ſheer off. The enemy in the fort, who kept up a communication with the town, had landed two detachments of grenadiers of five hundred men each, with a great number of negroes and mulattoes, to attack the works of the Engliſh on the right and left; but they were defeated with the loſs of above two hundred men, and a great number wounded. At length the batteries from the army had diſplaced many of the enemy's guns; but when it was thought that a ſpeedy period would be put to the immenſe labours of the beſiegers, the grand battery took fire, and with it was conſumed the labour of ſix hundred men for ſeventeen days.

Sickneſs, the badneſs of proviſions, and the ſcarcity of water, with the heat of the climate, had at length killed or rendered uſeleſs two-thirds of the army, and the ſeamen were in very little better condition, while the growing diſtempers of the ſeaſon, and the expoſed ſituation of the ſhips, threatened deſtruction both to the land and ſea forces. After inexpreſſible toil the beſiegers batteries again took fire, and they had now nothing to truſt to but the arrival of their reinforcemen's from North America, becauſe whatever loſſes the Spaniards ſuſtained in the day time, were repaired in the night. At length the arrival of the Jamaica fleet inſpired the troops with freſh hopes. On the twenty-ſecond of July, a vigorous ſally of fifteen hundred men, divided into three parties, was

made from the town, but they were repulſed with the loſs of four hundred men, while that of the beſiegers did not exceed fifty men. The ditch which ſecured the caſtle was cut in the rock about ſeventy feet deep, and forty wide, and though the enemy ſent two boats and a floating battery out of the harbour, to fire grape-ſhot and ſmall arms into the ditch where the miners were at work, they were not only repulſed, but a mine was ſprung, which threw a part of the wall into the ditch, and left a breach, which though ſmall, the troops were ordered to ſtorm. The garriſon of Spaniards within the caſtle was ſtill conſiderable; but the ſoldiers mounting the breach, entered the fort with ſuch amazing intrepidity, that the Spaniards, who had been regularly drawn up to reſiſt them, loſt all the ſpirit they had before exerted. Four hundred of them were cut to pieces, or periſhed in the water; four hundred threw down their arms, and received quarters. The marquis de Gonzales, the ſecond in command, was killed while endeavouring to ſtop the ſhameful flight of his men: Don Lewis de Velaſco, the governor, with about a hundred of the garriſon, bravely defended their colours till he was killed, to the extreme regret of his generous conquerors. The Spaniards then directed their fire againſt Moro caſtle, now in the poſſeſſion of the Engliſh. New batteries were erected by the beſiegers, who battered both the Puntal and the town from forty-three pieces of cannon and eight mortars, with ſuch ſucceſs, that flags of truce appeared in all quarters of the Havannah, and a meſſenger was ſent to the Britiſh camp to ſettle the capitulation, which was ſigned on the fourteenth of Auguſt, by which the men of war in the harbour, as well as the forts and the town, were delivered up to the Engliſh. And thus, ſays our author, a prophecy which had been long current with the Spaniards in thoſe parts was fulfilled, namely, that the Engliſh ſhould one day walk as maſters through the ſtreets of the Havannah. However, this important conqueſt was reſtored to Spain in the nineteenth article of the definitive treaty of 1763.

SECT. II.

Of Porto Rico.

Its Name, Situation, Extent, Face of the Country, Climate, Soil, Vegetables, and Animals. A Deſcription of the City of Porto Rico, and a conciſe hiſtory of the Iſland.

THE next iſland belonging to Spain, is that of Hiſpaniola, but as the moſt valuable part of it belongs to the French, we have placed it among the American iſlands ſubject to France. We now therefore come to Porto Rico, the laſt of the great Antilles that remains to be deſcribed.

This iſland, which was diſcovered by Columbus in 1493, received from him the name of St. John; but the chief town being afterwards built upon a harbour called Rico or Rich, as is ſuppoſed from its excellence, the whole iſland has ſince obtained the name of Porto Rico. It is ſituated between the eighteenth degree and forty minutes north latitude, and between the ſixty-fifth and ſixty-ſeventh degree weſt longitude, lying about eighteen leagues from the north eaſt point of Hiſpaniola, extending one hundred and fifty miles from eaſt to weſt, and between forty and fifty in breadth.

The ſoil is beautifully diverſified with woods, vallies, and plains, and is extremely fertile. It abounds with fine meadows, and a ridge of mountains runs through the iſland from eaſt to weſt. The north part, which is more barren than the ſouth, has been repreſented by travellers as having mines of quickſilver, tin, and lead, with ſome of gold and ſilver; but there are none of the latter worked at preſent. It is well watered with ſprings and rivers, and there are reckoned no leſs than twenty-three that fall into the ſea on the north or ſouth ſide.

The rains which uſually render the ſeaſon unhealthy, generally fall in June, July, and Auguſt, which would otherwiſe be extremely hot, the ſun being vertical, and the wind is at ſouth eaſt, while at other times it is at north eaſt. From eight in the morning till four in the afternoon they have a ſea breeze, but from ſix in the morning till this refreſhing gale ſprings up, the air is very hot; but the moſt ſultry part of the day is at five in the afternoon, and the coolеſt from three in the morning till ſix.

The ſoil produces a long coarſe graſs, on which the cattle feed, but the inhabitants never make it into hay. It bears good ſhip timber, and variety of fruit trees, particularly cocoas, pine-apples, mammees, guavas, papahs, bananas, plantanes, palms, muſk-melons, oranges, limes, pomegranates, citrons, grapes, plums, figs, Jamaica pepper, ſpeckled wood, caſſia fiſtula, the ſenſitive plant, and the baſtard cinnamon, together with rice and Indian corn; but they make moſt of their bread of the caſſava root. The common liquor here, beſides water, is made of malaſſes and ſpices mixed together; but the better ſort drink a liquor made of ſpices alone, and all the wine is brought from abroad.

The iſland is well ſtocked with wild cattle, which were originally of Spaniſh breed, with goats, hogs, and ſheep. Their pork is excellent, as is alſo the fleſh of their kids; but their mutton is poor dry food. Here are great flocks of parrots, wood-pigeons, and other wild and tame fowl, with all manner of European poultry, and plenty of fiſh.

The inhabitants are ſaid not to exceed ten thouſand. This iſland might, however, be rendered one of the moſt flouriſhing of all the Spaniſh colonies, if it was not for the miſchief to which it is too liable from great droughts, hurricanes, and the deſcent of privateers, by which all the ſea-ports have been frequently ruined. The principal commodities exported from hence are ſugar, ginger, hides, cotton thread, raw cotton, caſſia, maſtic, &c. They have alſo great quantities of ſalt, and make conſiderable profit of their oranges, lemons, and ſweetmeats. The inhabitants have many good veſſels, in which they trade to various parts of America.

The city of Porto Rico is ſeated on the north ſide of the iſland, in a peninſula which joins to the continent by a cauſeway in the eighteenth degree twenty minutes north latitude, and the ſixty-fifth degree thirty-five minutes weſt longitude. It is well-built, populous, and both the ſeat of the governor and the ſee of a biſhop. The cathedral has a monaſtery belonging to it; but the heat of the climate renders it inconvenient to make uſe of glaſs-windows, and their canvas and wooden lattices diſfigure their buildings. The city is defended by a citadel and a caſtle, and is the center of the contraband trade uſually carried on by the Engliſh and French with the ſubjects of the king of Spain, notwithſtanding the ſeverity of the laws, and the extraordinary precautions taken to prevent it; hence it is large, and better inhabited than moſt of the Spaniſh cities in America.

When this iſland was taken by the Spaniards, it is ſaid the natives amounted to no leſs than ſix hundred thouſand, and had the character of a brave gallant people; but the Spaniards, by the advantage they had over them in the art of war, with much difficulty reduced them, and have ſince by degrees quite extirpated them. After which no more gold was to be found on the iſland; though the natives had a great deal of it, and on that account were murdered, that the Spaniards might have it all to themſelves.

In 1595 Sir Francis Drake burnt the ſhips in the harbour of Porto Rico, and three years after the town was reduced by the earl of Cumberland, who fitted out a fleet at his own expence, in which were two regiments of queen Elizabeth's troops. He conquered the town with great difficulty, and had thoughts of keeping it; but loſing four hundred of his men, who died of the bloody flux in a month's time, he abandoned it, after demoliſhing the forts, and carried off eighty pieces of braſs cannon and a great quantity of plate. In 1615 it was taken and plundered by the Dutch; but they could not take the caſtle, which is now in a better condition than ever, as are alſo the other forts.

SECT.

SECT. III.

Of the Iſlands of TRINIDAD *and* MARGARETTA.

Their Situation, Extent, and Produce; with ſome Obſervations on the Conduct of the Spaniards with reſpect to their Weſt India Iſlands, and the Continent.

THERE are ſeveral other ſmaller iſlands belonging to Spain in this ſea, particularly Trinidad, or Trinidada, which is ſeated in the tenth degree thirty-eight minutes north latitude, and in the ſixtieth degree twenty-ſeven minutes weſt longitude, forming one ſide of the ſtraights of Paria, or Bocca de Drago, and New Andaluſia, in Terra Firma. It is about ſixty-two miles in length, and forty-five in breadth. The ſoil is fruitful, producing ſugar, fine tobacco, Indian corn, variety of fruit, and ſome cotton trees. It was taken by Sir Walter Raleigh in 1595, and by the French in 1676, who plundered the iſland and extorted money from the inhabitants.

About five degrees to the weſtward of Trinidad is Margaretta, which is ſeated near the northern coaſt of New Andaluſia, from which it is ſeparated by a ſtraight twenty-four miles broad. It is fifteen leagues in length, ſix in breadth, and, as it is always verdant, affords a very agreeable proſpect. The iſland is very fertile, it abounding with paſtures, maize, and fruit; and has many groves. A great number of boats were formerly employed here in fiſhing for pearls; but this fiſhery is much declined, if not diſcontinued.

There are ſeveral other ſmall iſlands near the laſt of little conſequence, at leaſt to the Spaniards, who ſeem to have paid but ſmall attention to the cultivation of the larger and more valuable, and we do not find any thing relating to them worthy the obſervation of the reader. We ſhall therefore conclude this ſection, and our account of the Spaniſh Weſt India iſlands, with ſome obſervations on the conduct of the Spaniards, with regard to their ſettlement of them.

The Spaniards, by a ſeries of the moſt inhuman and impolitic barbarities, having exterminated the original inhabitants of Cuba, Hiſpaniola, and Porto Rico, have left them comparatively ſo many deſarts, and deprived themſelves of a thouſand advantages they might have enjoyed by an equitable trade with the natives. The commerce between the iſlands and the Spaniſh continent is carried on by the Barlevento fleet, conſiſting of ſix ſhips of good force and burthen, who annually make the tour of Cuba, Hiſpaniola, Porto Rico, and the coaſt of Terra Firma, not only to carry on the commerce between them, but to clear the ſea of pirates and illicit traders; and now and then a regiſter ſhip from Spain is bound to one or other of them. The Spaniards have hitherto ſeemed to keep poſſeſſion of them, rather to prevent any other nation growing too powerful in thoſe ſeas, than from the profit they expected to derive from them: for it is certain, that ſhould any other nations obtain the poſſeſſion of all theſe iſlands, the trade of the American continent, and perhaps the continent itſelf, would be entirely at their mercy. The Spaniards have, however, lately taken ſome ſteps towards the better ſettlement of Porto Rico; and are beginning to open the American trade to ſome other towns in Spain beſides Cadiz. They have made a difference in point of duty between their own manufactures and thoſe of foreigners; and are opening their eyes to the true intereſt of their country.

"Hitherto, ſays an ingenious author, the tide of wealth "that conſtantly flowed from America into Spain ran "through that kingdom like a haſty torrent, which, far "from enriching the country, hurried away with it all "the wealth it found in its paſſage. No country in "Europe has received ſuch vaſt treaſures as Spain. In "no country in Europe is ſeen ſo little money: for "from the time that the Indies fell into the hands of "Spain, the affairs of that monarchy have been conſtantly going backward. In America their ſettlements were "carried on conformably to that genius, and to thoſe "maxims which prevailed in their government in Europe. No means of retaining their conqueſts but by "extirpating the people; no ſchemes for the advancement of trade; no attempts at the reformation of abuſes, "which became venerable in proportion to the miſchiefs they had ſuffered by them: in government, "tyranny; in religion, bigotry; in trade, monoply.

"When the Spaniards found, to their ambition, which "was boundleſs, that they had joined a treaſure which "was inexhauſtible, they imagined there was nothing "too vaſt for them to compaſs. They embraced a thouſand projects at once; many of them noble ones in "theory; but to be executed with different inſtruments "in different parts of the world, and all at a vaſt expence of blood and treaſure. The wars, which were "the reſult of theſe ſchemes, and the Indies, which "were to ſupport them, were a continual drain, which "carried off their people, and deſtroyed all induſtry in "thoſe who remained. The treaſure which flowed in "every year from the New World, found them in debt "to every part of the Old; for to the reſt of their revenues they had forgot to add that, which is a great "revenue itſelf, and the great ſupport of all the others, "œconomy. On the contrary, an ill order in their "finances at home, and a devouring uſury abroad, ſwallowed up all their treaſure, whilſt they multiplied the "occaſions for it. With the beſt ſcheming heads in "Europe, they were every where outrivalled; with "brave and well-diſciplined troops, they were almoſt "always defeated; with the greateſt treaſures, they were "in want; and their armies were ill provided, and ill "paid. Their friends exhauſted them by trade; their "enemies by plunder. They ſaw new ſtates ariſe out "of the fragments of their dominions; and new maritime powers ſtart up from the wrecks of their navy. "In ſhort, they provoked, troubled, and enriched all "Europe; and at laſt deſiſted through mere want of "ſtrength. They were inactive, but not quiet; and "they were enervated as much by their lazineſs, during "this reſerve, as they had been weakened before by their "ill-judged activity. At preſent the politicks of Spain, "with regard to America, ſeem to be to preſerve South "America, and particularly the navigation of the South "Seas as much as poſſible to themſelves; to deſtroy "effectually the contraband trade, and to encourage the "export of their own manufactures."

CHAP.

CHAP. IX.

Of the SPANISH Dominions on the Continent of AMERICA; and firſt of NEW MEXICO, CALIFORNIA, and MEXICO, or NEW SPAIN.

SECT. I.

Of the Spaniſh Dominions on the American Continent in general: their Situation, Extent, Climates, and Produce: with ſome Reflections on the Conduct of the Spaniards with reſpect to Population, and the Manner in which Spain became impoveriſhed by the Acquiſition of Gold and Silver.

WE now come to the continent of Spaniſh America, which is of an amazing extent, it reaching from the thirty-fourth degree of north to the fifty-third degree of ſouth latitude; extending from Cape Sebaſtian, the moſt northern point of California, to the ſtreights of Magellan, a ſpace of between ſix and ſeven thouſand miles, the whole coaſt of which is on one ſide entirely Spaniſh; but on the other is Braſil, and a comparatively inconſiderable French and Dutch ſettlement. A great part indeed of this country is poſſeſſed by the natives, and ſome places lie deſolate; but Spain claims the dominion of the whole: however, it muſt be confeſſed, that only a very ſmall part of it is really cultivated by the Spaniards.

The climate in ſo great an extent of country muſt differ according to the latitude, and other circumſtances; and thus the general opinion, that the Spaniſh American dominions are unhealthy, is, like many other general propoſitions, at the ſame time both true and falſe. Thoſe colonies within or near the tropics are in many places exceeding hot, while others are remarkably cool; ſome where the climate is exceeding hot are both healthy and pleaſant, while others have an almoſt peſtilential air. Several of the provinces in New Spain and Peru are bleſſed with almoſt every advantage, and no country affords more delightful ſpots than are to be found in New Mexico in the north, Buenos Ayres in the ſouth, and ſeveral other countries on both ſides the Line in the temperate zones. Where the lands have never been cleared, where the ſoil is marſhy and ſwampiſh, where periodical deluges of rain pour down from the heavens, we may eaſily believe the climate muſt be unhealthy, and all theſe meet in ſome of the Spaniſh dominions in America.

The ſoil differs no leſs than the climate: ſome countries conſiſt of the moſt beautiful lawns, paſtures, fields, and meadows, watered with fine ſtreams, ſhaded with groves, and variegated with hills and valleys; while others only preſent to the eye dreary deſarts, dreadful rocks, and mountains of a ſtupendous height, vaſt foreſts, and the moſt tremendous ſcenes of wild, rude, and uncultivated nature. Several of the Spaniſh plantations are wonderfully rich and fruitful, abounding in corn, the moſt beautiful paſtures, trees that afford fruit, ſhade, and ornament, odoriferous ſhrubs, medicinal plants, woods, and roots, with flowers delightful to the ſenſes; in ſhort, almoſt every thing that nature or art produces, in any quarter of the globe, may here be found growing ſpontaneouſly, or raiſed by labour, in its greateſt perfection. In the boſom of the earth have been found immenſe treaſures of gold and ſilver, and in ſhort, this extenſive territory alſo produces emeralds, pearls, rich drugs, dyeing woods, tobacco, ginger, coffee, cotton, and ſweetmeats: and for the convenience of navigation, it is furniſhed with the nobleſt rivers in the world.

If we take a view of the country with reſpect to its inhabitants, we ſhall find the reaſon why theſe colonies have proved of little ſervice to Spain. The impolitic expulſion of the Moors proved an irreparable blow to that monarchy; and the colonization of America increaſed the evil. Yet though Spain was almoſt depopulated by the conſtant migration of her people to the continent of America and the Weſt India iſlands, ſtill the number was very inadequate to the purpoſe of rendering the plantation populous and flouriſhing, eſpecially as the cruelty of the firſt conquerors had almoſt extirpated the natural inhabitants. When America was firſt reduced, it was thought neceſſary to eſtabliſh great numbers of eccleſiaſtics in the country, for the inſtruction of the natives in the Chriſtian religion; and theſe have ſince multiplied to ſuch a degree, as to have the moſt pernicious effect upon population. Every province is filled with monaſteries, nunneries, and perſons condemned by ſuperſtition to celibacy, and doomed by the tyranny of the church to be denied the gratification of the moſt natural paſſion. The ſpirit of avarice and oppreſſion which reigns among all the officers of the crown, who are generally choſen out of families of diſtinction of broken fortunes, ſenſibly affects the ſtate by prejudicing the revenues, diſcouraging induſtry, and extinguiſhing public ſpirit. But what is of ſtill more importance is, that the fondneſs the Spaniards have ſhewn for gold and ſilver, has been equally prejudicial to the colonies, and to the mother country, ſince it has not only prevented thoſe commodities and manufactures which in themſelves would prove more valuable than the richeſt mines of gold and ſilver, but has diffuſed ſuch narrow and ſordid principles through the minds of the people, as are viſibly productive of the moſt fatal effects.

The juſtly celebrated baron de Monteſquieu, in his admirable work, intitled, The Spirit of Laws, after obſerving that from the time in which the Spaniards diſcovered the gold and ſilver of America, Spain has been inceſſantly declining, adds,

"Gold and ſilver are either a fictitious, or a repreſentative wealth. The repreſentative ſigns of wealth are extremely durable, and in their own nature but little ſubject to decay. But the more they are multiplied, the more they loſe their value, becauſe the fewer are the things they repreſent.

"The Spaniards, after the conqueſt of Mexico and Peru, abandoned their natural riches in purſuit of a repreſentative wealth, which daily degraded itſelf. Gold and ſilver were extremely ſcarce in Europe, and Spain becoming ſuddenly miſtreſs of a prodigious quantity of thoſe metals, conceived hopes to which ſhe never before aſpired. The wealth found in the conquered countries, great as it was, did not, however, equal that of their mines. The Indians concealed a part; and beſides, theſe people, who made no other uſe of gold and ſilver than to give magnificence to the temples of their gods, and to the palaces of their kings, ſought not for it with an avarice like ours. In ſhort, they had not the ſecret of drawing the metals from every mine, but only from thoſe in which the ſeparation might be made by fire.

"However, it was not long before the ſpecie of Europe was doubled; this appeared from the price of commodities; which was every where doubled.

"The Spaniards raked into the mines, ſcooped out mountains, invented machines to draw out water, to break the ore, and ſeparate it; and, as they ſported with the lives of the Indians, they forced them to labour without mercy. As the ſpecie of Europe ſoon doubled, the profit of Spain diminiſhed in the ſame proportion; and they had every year the ſame quantity of metal, which was become by one half leſs precious.

"In

An Accurate Map of SOUTH AMERICA,

Drawn from the

Sieur Robert.

Geog.r to the French King

with Improvements.

ATLANTIC OCEAN

PACIFIC OCEAN

SOUTH SEA

THE SOUTHERN OCEAN

GREAT

TERRA FIRMA

AMAZONS

PERU

BRASIL

PARAGUAY

CHILI

THE

Equinoctial Line

Tropic of Capricorn

Land discovered by Davis 1599.

The Tropes

The Galapagos Islands

Buenaventura R.

C. Blanco

C. Parico

Quito

Guayaquil

Puna

Arequipa

Arica

Potosi

Atacama

Coquimbo

Valparaiso

Imperial

Valdivia

Chiloe

Str.t of Magellan

Elizabeth Isles

Trinidad I.

Barbadoes

Granada

Tobago

Curaçoa

Surinam

Cayenna

North C.

R. of Amazons

Maragnan

Tapuyes

Olinda

Pernambuc

Rio Grande

Paraiba

Tamaraca

St. Augustin

Tupiques

Porto Seguro

Spiritus Santo

Rio Janeiro

St. Vincent

Ascension or Trinity I.

I. Martin Vaz

I. dos Picos

I. Fernandes de Noronha

Gr. Ascension

Saxemburg I.

Rio de la Plata

St. Antonio

Falkland Is.

Maldonado B.

Meridian of London

Longit. W. from London.

Longit. E. from London.

C. Bellin sculp.

" In double the time the ſpecie ſtill doubled, and the " profit diminiſhed another half.

" It diminiſhed even more than one half: let us ſee in " what manner.

" To extract the gold from the mines, to give it the " requiſite preparations, and to import it into Europe, " muſt be attended with ſome certain expence; I will " ſuppoſe this to be as one to ſixty-four. When the " ſpecie was once doubled, and conſequently became " one half leſs precious, the expence was as two to ſixty-" four. Thus the galleons, which brought to Spain " the ſame quantity of gold, brought a thing which was " really of leſs value by one half, though the expences " attending it had been one half higher.

" If we proceed doubling and doubling, we ſhall find " in this progreſſion, the cauſe of the impotency of the " wealth of Spain."

SECT. II.

Of NEW MEXICO.

Its Situation, Extent, Climate, Rivers, Face of the Country, and Produce. A conciſe Account of its Government, and of its Indian Inhabitants.

THE province of New Mexico will not admit of our being very explicit in our account of it, ſince its boundaries are by no means aſcertained, and the far greateſt part of it is ſtill in the hands of the natives, who have the happineſs ſtill to enjoy that invaluable bleſſing their liberty. It is however ſuppoſed to extend between the twenty-eighth and thirty-eighth degree of north latitude. On the north it is bounded by very high mountains, and a country utterly unknown, and never pervaded by Europeans. On the eaſt it has the ſpacious country of Louiſiana; on the weſt the Californian lake, and the river Colorado; while on the ſouth it is bounded by the province of Mexico Proper.

As it lies in the midſt of the temperate zone, it enjoys a very pleaſant climate. The ſummers, indeed, are very warm, and the winters pretty ſharp; but then the former are neither ſtifling nor unhealthy, nor the latter intenſely cold, or deluged with floods of heavy rain, but the air is clear and ſalubrious. Thus each ſeaſon is what is very deſirable, and extremely agreeable to an European conſtitution.

This country is finely watered with rivers and rivulets, though few of theſe are large or navigable. The Rio Solado and the Rio del Norte alone deſerve notice; the laſt flowing the whole length of the country, and then making a ſweep eaſtward, runs through the province of New Leon, and diſcharges itſelf into the gulf of Mexico. There are alſo ſeveral ſmaller rivers that fall into the Mexican ſea, and ſome bays, ports, and creeks, on that coaſt, which might eaſily be converted into excellent harbours, had the Spaniards any ſhare of that diligence and commercial ſpirit which animates the other maritime powers of Europe.

The land is beautifully interſperſed with riſing grounds and fertile plains, covered with trees, ſome of which are fit for timber, and others produce various kinds of fruit. Here are ſaid to be found gold and ſilver, turquoiſes, emeralds, and other precious ſtones. Here are all kinds of wild and tame cattle, eſpecially cows, with a prodigious variety of fowl; and the rivers are abundantly ſtored with the moſt delicious fiſh. In ſhort, it is affirmed to be one of the pleaſanteſt, richeſt, and moſt plentiful countries in America, or in any other part of the world.

New Mexico is divided by ſome geographers into fifteen provinces, and by many of the Spaniſh writers into eighteen, of which they give us the names.

Santa Fe, the capital, is a handſome well built town, ſeated near the ſource of the Rio del Norte, in the thirty-ſixth degree forty minutes north latitude, and in the one hundred and firſt degree fifteen minutes weſt longitude from London. It is regularly built, and is the ſee of a biſhop, ſuffragan to that of Mexico, and the ſeat of the governor of the country, who enjoys his poſt five years. This governor is enjoined to maintain a conſtant force of ſix hundred horſe, half of which number, ſays our author, is ſeldom kept up, their pay going into the governor's pocket, which alone would make a conſiderable ſalary, no leſs than four hundred and fifty pieces of eight being allowed for the annual ſupport of every ſoldier.

The natives are eaſy, generous, and pacific, yet extremely formidable on account of the dexterity with which they handle their bows and arrows. They are better provided for their defence than any other inhabitants of the new world. When the Spaniards firſt entered the country, they found the natives well cloathed, their lands cultivated, their villages neat, and their towns built of ſtone, in which they ſhewed ſome knowledge in architecture not drawn from the rules of art, but the convenience dictated by nature. Their flocks of cattle were numerous, and they ſeemed to live in a very comfortable manner. We are told, that they were ſo ſkilful in ſhooting, that at a conſiderable diſtance, they would diſcharge an arrow ſo true, as to ſhake the grain out of a ripe ear of Indian corn without breaking it. They were great lovers of mules fleſh, and upon that account frequently ſeized the mules of the Spaniſh travellers, leaving their cheſts of ſilver upon the road, becauſe they ſet no value upon that metal. They worſhipped the ſun and moon, but diſcovered a greater readineſs to embrace the doctrines of Chriſtianity than any other of the American nations, expreſſing no other diſlike to it, but a fear that it would oblige them to part with their freedom, to which they are extremely attached. Their princes were little more than the leaders of their armies, elected at the pleaſure of the people, for their wiſdom or valour.

The Spaniſh writers ſay, that New Mexico is inhabited by a great variety of different nations, intirely unconnected with each other; but the principal are the Apaches, the ſeveral tribes of whom are diſtinguiſhed by their towns and ſettlements. They are a brave, warlike, reſolute people, fond of liberty, and the inveterate enemies of tyranny and oppreſſion, of which the Spaniards had fatal experience towards the cloſe of the laſt century, when they took arms and ravaged the country planted by the Spaniards. At length they were rather appeaſed than ſubdued, and ever ſince have remained the allies, but not the ſubjects of Spain. This is all the account we are able to give of the preſent ſtate of New Mexico, from authors that deſerve any credit. The Spaniards have been very ſparing in their accounts of this country, which is probably owing either to their indolence or caution. However, they have probably but few towns here, and an inconſiderable part of the country is cultivated, compared with its extent.

SECT. III.

Of CALIFORNIA.

Its Situation, Extent, Climate, Face of the Country, Vegetables, and Animals. With an Account of the Manners and Cuſtoms of the Natives.

CALIFORNIA, the moſt northern part of the Spaniſh dominions on the continent of America, towards the Pacific ocean, received the name of New Albion, from Sir Francis Drake, who took poſſeſſion of it in the name of queen Elizabeth. It is alſo called by ſome writers, Iſlas Carabiras. This province was for a long time conſidered as an iſland, but is now found to be a peninſula in the Pacific ocean, iſſuing from the north coaſt of America, and extending from Cape Sebaſtian, in the forty-third degree thirty minutes north latitude, to the ſouth eaſt, where it is terminated by St. Lucar, in the twenty-ſecond degree thirty-two minutes north latitude, the whole peninſula being eight hundred miles in length.

It is divided from Mexico by a gulf, in which are many iſlands. The peninſula is very unequal in breadth; towards the north it is near two hundred miles wide, but at the ſouthern extremity it tapers away, and is ſcarcely fifty miles over.

Though it lies for the moſt part in the temperate zone, the coaſt is very hot in ſummer, but the inland part is more temperate. In winter it is very cold, but healthy.

However, in ſo extenſive a country there muſt be great variations, both of ſoil and climate; and Califor-

hia has not only ſome of the moſt beautiful lawns, but has many of the moſt inhoſpitable deſarts in the univerſe. The lands to the weſtward of the river Colorado are level and fruitful, interſperſed with delightful woods, cool refreſhing ſprings and rivulets, and the moſt enchanting paſtures and meadows. Upon the whole, though California, on a general view, appears rather rough, craggy, and unpromiſing, yet we are aſſured, that with due culture it furniſhes every neceſſary of life.

California produces large quantities of timber fit for ſhip building; and among the ſhrubs is one called pitahaya, which is ſaid to be peculiar to California; its branches are finely fluted, and riſe vertically from the ſtem, ſo as to form a very beautiful top. The ſhrub bears no leaves, the fruit growing on the boughs, without ſhade or cover. It reſembles a horſe cheſnut, but contains a pulp, which has ſome reſemblance to that of a fig. In ſome it is white, in others yellow, and ſometimes red, but always exquiſitely delicious, it being a rich ſweet, tempered with a grateful acid. This peninſula has alſo moſt of the fruits to be found in other parts of America; and what is pretty extraordinary, there is here a ſpecies of manna, ſuppoſed to fall with the dew, and to become inſpiſſated on the leaves of the trees. Father Pinolo ſays, that without the whiteneſs of refined ſugar, it has all the ſweetneſs. Botaniſts are now agreed, that this manna is a juice exſudating from the tree, though the natives firmly believe that it drops down from heaven.

California has likewiſe all ſorts of domeſtic animals that are commonly uſed in Spain and Mexico, as horſes, mules, aſſes, oxen, ſheep, hogs, goats; and all other quadrupeds imported, thrive and increaſe in this country. Among the native animals is one called taye, which is of the ſize of a young heifer, and greatly reſembles it in its ſhape; but the head is like that of a deer, and the horns, which are thick and curved, reſemble thoſe of a ram. The hoof of this animal is large, round, and cloven; the ſkin ſpotted, but the hair thinner, and the tail ſharper than that of a deer. The fleſh is greatly eſteemed.

Father Torquemado deſcribes an animal ſomething like a buffalo, of the ſize of a ſteer, and nearly of the figure of a ſtag: its hoofs are cloven, like thoſe of an ox: its neck is long; on its forehead are horns, branched like thoſe of a ſtag, and its hair is a quarter of a yard long. The tail is a yard in length, and half a yard in breadth.

With reſpect to the feathered race, beſides the birds produced in other parts of America, there are ſaid to be many peculiar to this country; but we have no deſcription of any of theſe, the natural hiſtory of California being yet in its infancy. It is only mentioned, that the coaſt is plentifully ſtocked with peacocks, buſtards, geeſe, cranes, vultures, gulls larger than geeſe, cormorants, mews, quails, nightingales, larks, linnets, and moſt of the birds found in other parts of the world.

Inſects ſwarm here, as in moſt other warm countries; but they are neither ſo numerous nor ſo troubleſome, on account of the dryneſs of the ſoil and climate.

Turtle are caught in the utmoſt plenty on the coaſt, and the multitude and variety of fiſh with which the gulf of California and the Pacific ocean are ſupplied, is almoſt incredible. Salmon, turbot, barbel, ſkate, mackarel, pilchard, thornback, bonetos, ſoles, and all the reſt of the finny kind are caught here with very little trouble, together with pearl oyſters, fine eating oyſters, lobſters, and a variety of other excellent ſhell-fiſh. On the coaſt of the Pacific ocean is a ſmall ſhell-fiſh, which is perhaps the moſt beautiful in the world; its luſtre ſurpaſſing that of the fineſt pearl, and darting its ray through a tranſparent varniſh of an elegant vivid blue.

California is inhabited by ſeveral Indian nations, who are in general handſome, genteel, ſtrong, vigorous, and robuſt; of a healthy countenance, but very ſwarthy; but the paint with which they daub themſelves, and their making holes in their ears and noſtrils, are great diſadvantages to their appearance in the eyes of an European, though deemed a great beauty in their own. They ſay that their anceſtors came from the north, which might be reaſonably inferred from their ſituation, California being ſurrounded by the ſea, except on the north, where it joins the continent. They particularly mention the cauſe of their coming thither, alledging, that it aroſe from a quarrel at a banquet, at which the chiefs of all the nations were preſent. This was followed by a bloody battle, when the defeated party fled to the ſouth, to eſtabliſh ſettlements in a diſtant country, where they might at leaſt avoid ſervitude and oppreſſion. They are acquainted with no diviſions or poſſeſſions. On the firſt arrival of the miſſionaries, they were divided into tribes, which acknowledged no chief who had a right to tribute, homage, or external ceremonies. Every father was the prince of his own family, but the authority of parents over their children ceaſed as ſoon as they were able to provide for themſelves. Yet, in each tribe were two or more perſons who gave orders for gathering the productions of the earth, directed the fiſheries, and in caſe of a rupture with any neighbouring clan, headed the forces. This dignity was not acquired by blood, deſcent, or ſeniority: he who was the moſt brave, expert, and eloquent, was promoted to the command; but his authority was limited by thoſe who ſubmitted to his directions. This occaſional leader conducted them to the foreſts and ſea coaſts, in queſt of food; he ſent and received meſſages to and from the neighbouring nations; he gave the earlieſt notice of any impending danger; he ſpirited up the clan to revenge injuries; he directed the execution; and he headed the people in their wars. In all other particulars, every one was maſter of his own liberty.

Their houſes conſiſt of wretched huts, built near the few ſtreams, wells, or ponds, found in the country. As they are under the neceſſity of frequent migrations in ſearch of food, they eaſily ſhift their reſidence, it requiring only the labour of a few hours to build a little habitation fitted for all their purpoſes; and it is uſual with them, in the ſeverity of winter, to live in ſubterraneous caverns.

With reſpect to their dreſs, it conſiſts of a girdle, with a cloth round their waiſts, and a few ornaments about their hair, as ſtrings of pearls, which abound on the coaſt, and interweaving their locks with beautiful feathers. Some wear fillets of neat net-work. Their arms are likewiſe frequently adorned with net-work, or ſtrings of pearls, in the form of bracelets. The Indians of the north wear their hair ſhort, and inſtead of ſtrings of pearl, decorate the head with a ſplendid kind of tiara, made of mother of pearl, detached from the ſhell by a flint, and finely poliſhed on both ſides. Though many of the women go as naked as the men, yet they ſhew great regard to that decency, ſo neceſſary to the ſecurity of virtue. They generally, indeed, wear a kind of petticoat, made of palm-leaves; and all carefully conceal thoſe parts which decency teaches them to hide. A love of ornament prevails among the women more than the men.

Their greateſt ingenuity appears in their fiſhing-nets, which are made with admirable ſkill, of various colours, and ſuch diverſity of texture and workmanſhip, as cannot be deſcribed. Father Toraval ſays he can affirm, that of all the nets he ever ſaw in Europe and Mexico, none are comparable to theſe, either in the mixture of the colour, or the ſtrength and workmanſhip, in which they repreſent a great variety of figures. The nets are woven by the men, but the women ſpin and prepare the materials from plants, and a coarſe ſort of thread made from the palm. Some of them adorn the head and neck with theſe nets; they are likewiſe uſed for holding fruit, and the vegetable productions of the earth, as well as for catching fiſh.

They have a high feſtival at the gathering in of the fruits of the earth, when they reſign themſelves to feaſting, dancing, and mirth. Whole nights are then ſpent in jollity; they are even ſaid to act a kind of comedies, and to be very ſkilful in mimickry. Their dances are particularly extolled, and are ſaid to be of various kinds; their performers acquit themſelves with agility and gracefulneſs, repreſenting the different motions of war, fiſhing, hunting, marrying, and whatever is of moſt importance among them, by geſticulation and dumb ſhew.

The

The Jeſuits, who have given a deſcription of this country, have introduced ſo many abſurd and ridiculous circumſtances, that it is, perhaps, impoſſible to diſtinguiſh truth from fiction, in the account they give of the religion and cuſtoms of theſe people.

After all that has been ſaid of this extenſive country, it can hardly, with any propriety, be ſaid to be ſubject to Spain. The Jeſuit miſſionaries have indeed endeavoured to propagate the Romiſh religion, and a number of them have ſettled in the country, but at preſent a little Spaniſh town, near the Cape of St. Lucar, is the only place that can be ſtrictly called ſubject to Spain, and that is made no other uſe of than as a place of refreſhment for the Manilla ſhip, and its being the head reſidence of the miſſionaries.

SECT. IV.

Of MEXICO, *or* NEW SPAIN.

Its Situation, Extent, Climate, Soil, and Minerals, particularly Gold and Silver; its Vegetables, Beaſts, Birds, Inſects, and Fiſhes.

MEXICO, or New Spain, the firſt valuable acquiſition of the Spaniards on the continent of America, extends from the ſeventh degree thirty minutes to the thirtieth degree forty minutes: it is bounded on the ſouth eaſt by the iſthmus of Darien, and on the north-weſt by New Mexico; it is waſhed by the gulph of Mexico and the North ſea on the eaſt, and on the ſouth and weſt by the Pacific ocean, or South ſea. This country ſtretches along the Pacific ocean above two thouſand miles, and the coaſt towards the Atlantic ocean cannot extend leſs than ſixteen hundred; but the breadth is very unequal, for to the north-weſt it is ſuppoſed to be between ſix and ſeven hundred miles over, while towards the ſouth-eaſt the breadth cannot much exceed ſixty miles.

As the greateſt part of Mexico lies within the Torrid Zone, the air is exceſſively hot; but the heat is qualified with refreſhing ſhowers in the hotteſt months, and with land and ſea breezes, which blow alternately; in ſome parts the vapours riſing from a great number of lakes and rivers cool the air, and render it mild, ſoft, and pleaſant. The greateſt heats are during the months of February, March, and April, when the ſun is ſeldom obſcured by clouds, and the waters are ſo dried up, that in many places it is difficult to procure any. The rainy ſeaſon begins towards the cloſe of April, and continues till the month of September, and is always preceded by tempeſts of thunder and lightning, which increaſe till the month of June, at which time the rains fall as if a ſecond deluge was to enſue.

On the eaſtern coaſt, where the land is low, marſhy, and conſtantly flooded in the rainy ſeaſon, it is extremely unhealthy; the coaſt is far from being pleaſant, it being for the moſt part encumbered with almoſt impenetrable woods of mango trees, of a bare and diſagreeable aſpect, and which extend a conſiderable way into the water. The inland country, indeed, aſſumes a more agreeable aſpect, and the air is more temperate; here the tropical fruits grow in great abundance; the land is agreeably variegated, and the ſoil extremely fertile. On the weſtern ſide the land is not ſo low as on the eaſtern, is much better in quality, and abounds with plantations.

The Spaniards probably choſe to leave the eaſtern coaſt in its preſent ſtate of rudeneſs and deſolation, judging that a rugged and unwholeſome frontier is a better defence againſt an European army than fortifications and armies, that are maintained at a vaſt expence; or the ſtrength of the inhabitants, rendered by the climate effeminate and puſillanimous, and kept ſo by policy. Indeed it would be next to impoſſible to make any conſiderable eſtabliſhment on that coaſt, that could effectually anſwer the purpoſes of any power in Europe, without ſtruggling with the greateſt difficulties; and as for a ſudden invaſion, the nature of the country itſelf is a good fortification. In general few countries under the ſame aſpect of the heavens enjoy more of the benefits of nature, and the neceſſaries of life; but, like all the tropical countries, it is more abundant in fruit than in corn.

In almoſt all the accounts of New Spain, we are told that mines of gold and ſilver are found in moſt of its provinces. It is ſaid that there are no fewer than a thouſand different mines of ſilver, but gold only in the province of Veragua and New Granada; though the latter is indeed in Terra Firma, but is conſidered as a province of Mexico, from its being under the juriſdiction of the ſame viceroy. Gold is found either in grains, at the bottom of running ſtreams, or in mines. Acoſta affirms, that he has ſeen grains of pure gold that weighed two pounds, though in general they ſeldom exceed a twentieth part of that weight. The gold in the mines runs in veins through a hard ſtone, and it requires a great deal of labour and expence to ſeparate it, eſpecially as it is generally incorporated with ſilver or copper. Both the mines of gold and ſilver are uſually found in barren rocks, mountains, and ſuch places as are entirely unfit for paſture and tillage; as if nature had wiſely ordained that a fertile ſoil, fit for producing every thing neceſſary to the life of man, ſhould not be rendered uſeleſs by ſearching for thoſe metals, which frequently turn to its prejudice. Some of the mines are of an extraordinary depth; particularly that of Pachuca, which is above three hundred yards deep, and above a thouſand negroes are continually employed in it. From the mine called the Trinidada no leſs than forty millions of pieces of eight were drawn into the royal treaſury, free of all expences, in the ſpace of ten years.

Whoever diſcovers a mine of gold or ſilver is at liberty to work it, paying the king, and limiting himſelf within ſixty yards round the place upon which he has fixed. Beyond this ſpace another perſon may open a mine, leaving five yards between, to ſerve for a partition. All the gold and ſilver, either dug or found in grains, ought to be entered in the royal exchequer; and it is ſaid that, though great quantities are concealed, no leſs than two millions of ſilver marks, each weighing eight ounces, are annually entered, out of which they coin ſeven hundred thouſand marks into pieces of eight, half pieces of eight, quarter pieces, royals, and half royals; the value of the latter being about three-pence ſterling.

We cannot here forbear extracting ſome obſervations from an ingenious work we have often quoted, entitled, An Account of the European ſettlements in America. "Of the plenty of gold and ſilver which the mines of "Mexico afford, great things have been ſaid, and with "juſtice; as this, with the other Spaniſh colonies in "America, in a manner furniſh the whole world with "ſilver, and bears a great proportion in gold to the whole "of what the world produces. A late very judicious "collector of voyages ſays, that the revenues of Mexico "can hardly fall ſhort of twenty-four millions of our "money. He founds this upon a return made by the "biſhops of their tenths, which, without doubt, were "not over-rated; and that theſe amounted to one million and a half ſterling; that theſe are about a fourth "of the revenues of the clergy; and that the eſtates of "the clergy are about the fourth part of the whole revenues of the king, which at this rate amount to "twenty-four millions Engliſh. He takes another method of computing the wealth of this province, which "is by the fifth paid to the king of the gold and ſilver "dug out of the mines. This he obſerves, in the year "1730, amounted to one million of marks in ſilver, each "mark equivalent to eight ounces; ſo that if we compute this ſilver at five ſhillings per ounce, then the inhabitants receive from their mines ten millions in "money. For my part, I neither diſtruſt the candor "or good ſenſe of this writer; but I can hardly avoid "thinking he muſt be miſinformed in the accounts upon "which he has built his calculation. If New Spain "draws from her ſilver and gold mines ten millions annually, Peru, even ſince the decline of the mines of "Potoſi, has ſcarce ever been thought leſs rich in ſilver "than Mexico, and muſt therefore be rated at the ſame "proportion, and allowed to yield ten millions more annually. New Mexico abounds likewiſe in very rich "ſilver mines; but that we may not exceed, we will "allow for this province but two millions, which, allowing

" ing for the large produce of New Spain, is certainly " not above the proportion. Chili has, indeed, no in- " conſiderable mines of ſilver, but then thoſe of gold are " by far the richeſt in the world; and taking the com- " parative wealth of this province with the others, it " cannot be leſs than two millions, if we add to it what " is produced in Terra Firma; ſo that the gold and ſilver " raiſed in the Spaniſh colonies cannot be eſtimated at " leſs than twenty-four millions yearly."

Mexico has alſo quarries of jaſper, porphyry, and beautiful marble; and here alſo are found pearls, emeralds, and turquoiſes.

No country abounds more with grain, delicious fruit, roots, and vegetables of every kind, many of which are peculiar to the country, or at leaſt to America. The woods on the tops and declivities of mountains conſiſt either of fine foreſts or delightful groves of large trees of various kinds, unencumbered with bruſh-wood; ſo that a traveller may paſs through them on horſeback without any inconvenience. Among the moſt curious ſpecies of woods in this country are the cedar, bloodwood, maho, of which the natives make ropes and cables, lightwood, and other trees; of the fruit-trees and ſhrubs are the cabbage, cacao, or chocolate nut, the venilla, plantains, capadillo, avogato-peaer, mammee, mammee-ſapota, the prickly-pear, bibby, tamarind, and locuſt tree; the calabaſh, gourds of a prodigious ſize, grapes, and many others. To theſe may be added the grenadillo de China creeping plant, and the mayhey, which furniſhes the natives with thread for linen and cordage, and alſo with a balſam and liquor, which when fermented is as pleaſant and ſtrong as wine.

Trees are all the year in leaf, bloſſom, or fruit; and every month preſents the mingled appearance of ſpring, ſummer, and autumn.

Beſides maize, or Indian corn, the native grain of Mexico, the Spaniards have cultivated wheat, barley, peas, beans, and other corn, which, with roots and vegetables, are now found growing in every province. Rice grows abundantly, and flouriſhes, on account of the long wet ſeaſons.

Among the valuable commodities of New Spain are the following drugs: copal, anime, tacamahaca, caranna, liquid amber, oil of amber, balſam of Peru, which is found in Mexico, as well as in that country from which it takes its name, guyaiacum, the root mechoacan, China-root, and ſarſaparilla; all which are known in the ſhops of our apothecaries, and are of great uſe in a variety of diſtempers. The other commodities of New Spain are cotton, ſugar, cochineal, chocolate, feathers, honey, balſams, dying woods, ſalt, tallow, hides, tobacco, ginger, amber, pearls, precious ſtones, gold, and ſilver.

A conſiderable quantity of ſugar is raiſed in this country, ſo that there are more ſugar-mills than in any part of Spaniſh America; but all the ſugar is uſed in the country, and particularly in the monaſteries, in chocolate, ſweetmeats, preſerves, and confectionary wares. There is alſo a great home-trade in goods manufactured of cotton. They have the beſt indigo in the world, and the trade in that and cochineal is managed entirely by the merchants of Mexico and Carthagena, who export them to Europe. In the province of Guaxaca and Guatimala they raiſe the beſt and greateſt quantity of ſilk of any country in New Spain; but it is here only prepared for the needle. Cotton here is very good, and in great plenty: it is manufactured largely, for as it is light wear, ſuitable to the climate, and all other clothing being extravagantly dear, it is generally worn by the common people; the woollens and linens of Europe being rather luxuries worn only by perſons of ſome rank.

The number of their horned cattle is in a manner infinite; many of them run wild, and a very conſiderable trade is carried on in their hides and tallow. Sheep are numerous in Mexico, but it does not appear that wool is an article of any conſideration in their trade; and it is not probable that it is of a good kind, as it is ſcarce ever found uſeful between the tropics, where it is coarſe, ſhort, and hairy, except only in Peru, which enjoys a climate different from that of all other countries. Swine are equally numerous, and their lard is much in requeſt all over the country, where it is uſed inſtead of butter.

Beſides the beaſts already mentioned, which they have in common with us, they have ſeveral kinds of red and fallow deer, hares, rabbits, ſquirrels, foxes, otters, wild-cats, pole-cats, porcupines, jackalls, monkies, the pecaree, the warree, the guano, the ſloth, the armadillo, the racoon, and ounce.

The pecaree is a little, black, ſhort-legged animal, that has ſome reſemblance to a hog. Theſe herd together in great droves; and, what is moſt remarkable, the navel is ſaid to grow upon its back; and if it be not cut off as ſoon as the pecaree is killed, it inſtantly corrupts the whole carcaſe, which is otherwiſe very good food.

The warree is leſs than the pecaree, which it nearly reſembles, only its navel is in the uſual place. The ſkin is thick, and covered with hair, that looks like a coarſe fur. Both the pecaree and warree are ſo wild and fierce, that they will engage either man or beaſt. The Indians hunt them down with their dogs, and then ſhoot or kill them with ſpears.

The guano is ſhaped like a lizard; the body is as big as a man's leg, but grows tapering towards the end of its tail, which is very ſmall. They have four ſhort feet with claws, are of various colours, as of a dark and light brown, of a dark and light green, ſome of them yellow, and others ſpeckled. They live in water as well as upon the land, and both their fleſh and eggs are very good food.

The ſloth is about the ſize of a large ſpaniel, has a round head, ſmall eyes, and very ſharp teeth and claws: he feeds on the leaves of trees, and frequently kills them, not leaving a ſingle leaf on the tree he viſits; but he is ſo many days in getting down one tree, and climbing another, that though he be fat when he comes down, he grows lean before he can get to the top of the next tree. He receives his name from the ſlowneſs of his motions, for he is ſaid to be ſeveral minutes in moving one of his legs three inches, nor will blows make him mend his pace, for he ſeems inſenſible of ſtripes, and can neither be frightened nor provoked.

Here is an animal called a quaſh, which is bigger than a cat; its head reſembles that of a fox, with ſhort ears and a long noſe: the legs are ſhort, and it runs up trees like a cat; the body is covered with a fine yellow hair, and the fleſh is very good meat. The young ones may be tamed, and are as diverting as a monkey.

The monkeys of Campeachy are very ugly; they are much larger than a hare, and have tails two feet and a half long; the body and upper part of the tail are covered with a coarſe, long, black hair. They keep together twenty or thirty in a company, rambling over the woods, leaping from tree to tree, and if they meet with a ſingle perſon, he is in danger of being torn to pieces by them; at leaſt they chatter and make a terrible noiſe; ſome throw things at him, while others ſcatter their water and dung about his ears: they hang themſelves by the tail on the boughs, and ſeem to threaten him all the way he paſſes; but where two or three people are together they uſually ſcamper away.

With reſpect to the feathered race, we find in Mexico tame poultry, turkies, pigeons, parrots, parakeets, macaws, quams, curaſoes, cockricoes, bill-birds, humming-birds, black-birds, eagles, vultures, pelicans, cormorants, batts, and a multitude of others.

The macaw is ſhaped much like a parrot, but is twice as large; the feathers of the body are of ſeveral bright and lively colours, particularly red, blue, and green: it has a buſhy tail, with two or three long ſtraggling feathers, red or blue; the pinions of the wings of ſome of them are red, and of others blue; and their beaks yellow: they make a great noiſe in the morning, reſembling a hoarſe human voice: they will imitate not only the voices of the Indians, but their way of ſinging, and alſo mimic the noiſe of almoſt any bird or animal; and may be taught to talk. The natives tame them, and, when they are uſed to their houſes, ſuffer them to fly to the woods in the day-time, among thoſe that are wild, and they return in the evening to the houſe or plantation they belong to. There are great plenty of theſe birds in Mexico; and they are not only extremely beautiful and entertaining, but their fleſh, though black and pretty tough, is well taſted.

The

The quam is a wild land-fowl of the ſize of a hen-turkey, which it reſembles in its bill; the feathers are of a dun colour, the tail is ſhort, and darker than the reſt of the feathers. It feeds upon berries and other fruit, and the fleſh is very good food.

The curaſoe is larger than the quam, but much of the ſame ſhape: the cock has a crown of black or yellow feathers on his head, with red looſe fleſh on his neck like a turkey-cock; but the hen has neither. They have a big groſs voice, which the natives think melodious. The fleſh is tolerably good, but the bones ſo noxious that the natives bury them, and will not ſuffer a dog to eat them.

The cockricoes are of the colour of a partridge, but ſomewhat leſs, and their legs longer. They delight in creeks and watery places; are remarkable for their calling one another morning and evening, and are eſteemed delicious food.

They have two ſorts of pheaſants; the one of a dark colour, with black wings and tail, which they call gritones; and the other, much larger, called royal, from a tuft which appears like a crown upon its head. The batts of this country are as large as pigeons.

In all hot countries there are abundance of poiſonous and troubleſome reptiles and inſects, as ſnakes, ſcorpions, centipees, ſpiders, toads, ants, and muſkettoes.

Among the various kinds of ſerpents is a yellow ſnake, as big as the ſmall of a man's leg, and ſix or ſeven feet long. This is a lazy animal, that takes little pains to hunt for its prey, but lies concealed, and ſurprizes the lizards, guanoes, and other ſmall animals paſſing by. There is alſo a green ſnake, about the thickneſs of a ſmall cane, and four or five feet in length: theſe lie among buſhes and trees, full of leaves, and prey chiefly on ſmall birds. Here is alſo a dun-coloured ſnake about two feet long, that frequents houſes, and kills mice and other vermin, and is ſo harmleſs that no body endeavours to kill it. There are many other ſnakes, and particularly the rattle-ſnake, of which we have already given a very particular account.

The locuſt is an inſect that brings deſtruction where-ever it comes, and is moſt found in hot countries, where they ſometimes appear in ſuch clouds as to hide the ſun, and darken the brighteſt day. They are much like the graſshopper, but larger, and have wings. While Mr. Gage was in Mexico, a cloud of theſe inſects viſited that part of the country where he reſided, lighting upon the trees and ſtanding corn; and in one night devoured both the fruit and leaves of the trees, and conſumed the corn in every field where they fell. The high-ways were covered with them, and neither the plantations of ſugar or indigo eſcaped. Upon the approach of this winged army, all people were commanded out into the fields, with trumpets, braſs pans, kettles, and every thing that would make a noiſe, to frighten them away.

On the coaſts and the banks of the rivers are caught alligators, ſeveral ſorts of turtle, with oyſters and muſcles of a prodigious ſize, lobſters, crabs, and ſhrimps. Among the other fiſh are the paracoad, which is about three feet and a half in length, and it is ſaid will attack a man in the water. It is a firm well taſted fiſh, but ſome of them have been found unwholeſome food.

The gar-fiſh reſembles the former, but is leſs, and has a long ſharp bone in its ſnout, like a ſword-fiſh; only the ſword-fiſh's bone is flat, and indented like a ſaw, while that of the gar-fiſh reſembles a ſpear, it being round, ſmooth, ſharp at the end, and about a foot long. Theſe fiſh ſwim very ſwift, frequently leaping out of the water, and ſkimming, as it were, juſt above the ſurface, for twenty or thirty yards; then wetting their fins, ſpring forward again, darting themſelves with ſuch force, that they will ſtrike their long ſpear through the ſides of a canoe, or the body of a man, if they meet with him in the water. Theſe are eſteemed well taſted, wholeſome food.

Mullets and ſnooks are very plentiful; as are alſo Spaniſh mackerel, which reſemble thoſe of Europe, but are above a yard in length, and nine or ten inches round. Here are alſo the old-wife, the cavally, the turpom, and ſeveral other kinds of fiſh. In the lakes and rivers are pike and carp, with plenty of others that are excellent food.

SECT. V.

Of the three Audiences of Mexico, with whatever is moſt remarkable in each, including a Deſcription of the Cities and Trade of Mexico, Acapulco, Los Angelos, La Vera Cruz, and Guatimala.

IN order to give a more diſtinct idea of this extenſive country, it will be neceſſary to deſcribe it under its three grand diviſions, called audiences, Guadalajara, Mexico Proper, and Guatimala, all of which are under the government of the ſame viceroy, and are ſubdivided into ſeveral provinces.

Guadalajara, alſo called Galicia, is bounded on the north by New Mexico, on the eaſt and ſouth by the audience of Mexico, and on the weſt it is waſhed by the South ſea and the gulph of California; containing a ſpace of eight hundred miles in length, and above five hundred in breadth. It is divided into ſeven provinces, and being the moſt temperate diviſion of the empire, is generally pleaſant and healthy. Theſe provinces are Guadalajara Proper, Zacatecas, New Biſcay, Cinaloa, Culiacan, Chametlan, and Xaliſco.

The capital, called Guadalajara, is the ſeat of the royal courts of judicature, a biſhop's ſee, and is pleaſantly ſeated on the north banks of the river Bareinja. It has ſeveral churches, beſides the cathedral, with ſome monaſteries and nunneries. This audience is celebrated for the richneſs of the ſilver mines and its fertility. In each of the provinces are ſeveral towns, and that of Cinaloa is rendered extremely pictureſque, by a number of beautiful caſcades falling in ſtreams down the mountains. In this audience is the lake of Chapala, which is ſaid to be forty leagues in compaſs.

The audience of Mexico is beyond compariſon the moſt valuable of the Spaniſh dominions north of the equator. On the eaſt it is bounded by the gulph of Mexico, on the ſouth-eaſt by the audience of Guatimala, on the ſouth-weſt by the South ſea, and on the north-weſt by the audience of Guadalajara. It extends about ſix hundred miles in length, and in ſome places near as much in breadth; yet it is only about ſixty leagues in breadth from ſea to ſea acroſs the province of Guaxaca.

This audience, in rich commodities, gold, ſilver, and precious ſtones, far ſurpaſſes all the reſt of the empire, as it likewiſe does in its ſpacious extenſive vallies, the fertility of its arable lands, paſturage, and variety of fruits. The great lakes, rivers, and ſea-ports, with which it abounds, not only furniſh the inhabitants with plenty of excellent fiſh, but give them great advantages in trade, both foreign and domeſtic. It is divided into nine provinces, namely, Mexico Proper, Mechoacan, Panuco, Tlaſcala, Guaxaca, Tabaſco, Jucatan, Chiapa, and Soconuſco.

The province of Mexico Proper, which greatly exceeds the reſt, contains the capital, which is of the ſame name, and is ſeated in the lake of Mexico, on the eaſt ſide of a valley, at the foot of a range of hills, in the twentieth degree north latitude, and the hundred and firſt degree ten minutes weſt longitude, about a hundred and ſeventy miles weſt of the gulph of Mexico, and a hundred and ninety north of Acapulco. This is the capital of the kingdom, the reſidence of the viceroy, the ſeat of the firſt audience or chamber of juſtice, and the ſee of an archbiſhop. This is thought to be the moſt regular-built city in the world. It is a perfect ſquare, each ſide extending half a league, and conſequently the whole is about two leagues, or ſix miles in circumference. There is a great ſquare in the middle of it, from whence the ſtreets run in direct lines, either north and ſouth, or eaſt and weſt, croſſing each other at right angles; ſo that the length and breadth of the city may be diſcerned at the corner of every ſtreet. There are five entrances into it, but it has neither gates, walls, nor artillery. The houſes are built very ſtrong of brick and ſtone, but not very high, on account of its being ſubject to earthquakes, and great part of the town ſtanding upon a moraſs, this occaſions the foundations of ſome of them to ſink; but what is ſtill worſe, it is ſubject to inundations from the ſtreams which flow down from the mountains into the lake, ſo that it is often in danger of being

overflowed, and indeed many of the houſes and inhabitants have been actually ſwept away by floods, though they have been at a vaſt expence in making canals, dykes, and ſluices to carry off the water; ſo that it has often been debated, whether they ſhould not abandon the city, and build another upon better ground. All the buildings are convenient, and the public edifices magnificent. Here are twenty-nine cathedrals and churches, and twenty-two monaſteries and nunneries, of the wealth of which we may form ſome judgment from the revenue of the grand cathedral, which amounts to near eighty thouſand pounds ſterling a year, out of which the archbiſhop has fifteen thouſand pounds, beſides vaſt ſums that ariſe by perquiſites. The cathedral is a magnificent pile, built in the form of a croſs, which, with the cloyſters and dwellings of the clergy adjoining to it, take up a large ſpace of ground in the city, and was ſixty years in building, at the expence of above two millions of pieces of eight. The paintings, gilding, and carving are extremely fine, and it contains abundance of beautiful altars and chapels on each ſide; the high altar, which ſtands in the middle of the choir, coſt fifty thouſand pieces of eight. The image of the Virgin Mary is of maſſy ſilver, adorned with rubies and pearls to the value of thirty thouſand pieces of eight, and is once a year carried in proceſſion, when a number of maids draw lots for three hundred pieces of eight for their marriage portions. The chalice for the ordinary ſervice is worth eleven thouſand, being of gold, chaſed, and ſet with rubies. The hoſt is here carried to the ſick perſons not on foot, as in other countries, but in a coach drawn by four of the fineſt mules that can be had from Europe.

The great ſquare, or market, in the middle of the city is extremely magnificent, and has piazzas on one ſide, under which are ſome of the richeſt ſhops in the world; and on another ſtands the magnificent palace of the viceroy, the principal front of which faces the ſquare, and is not inferior to the palace at Naples.

The palace of the marquis de Valle, as it is called, is one of the nobleſt pieces of architecture any where to be met with. It is built on the very ſpot where formerly ſtood the palace of Motezuma, and takes up nearly the ſame ſpace.

Beſides the churches and monaſteries there are ſeveral hoſpitals richly endowed; among the reſt is one for young maids who are left orphans; theſe are handſomely maintained while they live ſingle, and are allowed five hundred pieces of eight when they marry. There is another hoſpital erected for thoſe who have venereal complaints, which has a revenue of thirty-ſix thouſand pieces of eight per annum; and a third for ſick prieſts.

The ſeveral trades have their reſpective ſtreets: a very ſpacious one that runs from the ſquare belongs to the goldſmiths, and has the ſhops furniſhed with ſuch a variety of utenſils and ornaments of gold, ſilver, and jewels, as is not to be paralleled in any city in the world, particularly with gilt plate in ſervices and ſets, and with vaſt quantities of rubies, emeralds, and pearls. The ſtreet of St. Auſtin, where the mercers expoſe their rich ſilks to ſale, has a very grand and beautiful appearance. The ſtreet called Tacuba, where the tradeſmen who deal in braſs, ſteel, and iron reſide, is very long and ſpacious. But Eagle-ſtreet, which is inhabited by the nobility, gentry, and great lawyers, is ſaid to excel all the reſt in magnificence.

The city is ſupplied with freſh water from a hill at three miles diſtance, to which an aqueduct ſupported on arches extends from the city.

There is a pleaſant park well planted and adorned with fountains, and other water-works, whither the quality of both ſexes and the gay part of the town reſort every evening, ſome in coaches, and others on horſeback; and here the young cavaliers endeavour to recommend themſelves to the ladies by feats of activity and horſemanſhip. Several hundreds of coaches are frequently ſeen here, with numerous retinues of black ſlaves. It is ſaid that the negro girls who run by the coaches of the ladies wear bracelets of gold, pearl necklaces, and jewels in their ears; while the black foot-boys are covered with lace and embroidery.

Though this city is no ſea-port, nor has a communication with the ſea by any navigable river, it has a prodigious commerce, and is itſelf the center of all the trade carried on between America and Spain on the one hand, and between America and the Eaſt Indies on the other; for here the principal merchants reſide; here the greateſt part of the buſineſs is negociated, and the goods that paſs from Acapulco to La Vera Cruz, or from La Vera Cruz to Acapulco, for the uſe of the Philippines, and in a great meaſure for the uſe of Peru and Lima, all paſs through this city, and employ an incredible number of horſes and mules in the carriage. Hither all the gold and ſilver comes to be coined; here the king's fifth is depoſited, and here is wrought all that immenſe quantity of utenſils and ornaments in plate which is every year ſent into Europe.

One of the principal diverſions of the citizens is fiſhing in boats upon the lake, whither they carry wine and cold proviſions to regale themſelves with upon the water. This lake, on the weſt ſide of which Mexico is ſituated, is about fifteen miles in length from north to ſouth, but the breadth is very unequal; however, in the broadeſt part it is ſomething more than twelve miles, and the north end of it is ſcarce ſo broad. To the north of this lake are three others that have a communication with it by canals, and on the ſouth are two other lakes, divided from it only by a cauſeway.

The neighbourhood of Mexico is rendered extremely pleaſant by the numerous palaces, country ſeats, monaſteries, and villages either on the iſlands in the lakes, or on the banks of the ſeveral lakes within view of the city, to which the citizens reſort in boats, when they are diſpoſed to retire from the hurry of the town.

It cannot be exactly aſcertained what number of people are in the city; it is certainly very conſiderable, and is by many computed at ſeventy or eighty thouſand. The bulk of the people are blacks and mulattoes, there having been abundance of black ſlaves brought hither, who have obtained their freedom and married with the natives, and their deſcendants are very numerous. There is alſo a ſtrange mixture of Spaniſh and Indian blood. The pure Spaniards, and thoſe deſcended from Spaniſh anceſtors on both ſides are a very ſmall number, both here and in the other towns of Mexico.

The port neareſt to this city is Acapulco, which is alſo in the province of Mexico Proper, and is a celebrated port on the South ſea, in the ſeventeenth degree north latitude, and the hundred and ſecond degree of weſt longitude, upwards of two hundred miles diſtant from the capital. It has one of the deepeſt, ſecureſt, and moſt commodious harbours in the South ſea, and indeed almoſt the only good one upon the weſtern coaſt of New Spain. The entrance of the harbour is defended by a caſtle of tolerable ſtrength; but the town itſelf is ill built, and makes but a miſerable figure except at the time of the fair, when it entirely changes its appearance, and becomes one of the moſt conſiderable marts in the world. About the month of December the great galleon, which makes the whole communication between America and the Philippines, after a voyage of five months, arrives here, loaded with all the rich commodities of the Eaſt; nutmegs, mace, cloves, pepper, cinnamon, china, Japan wares, callicoes plain and painted, chints, ſilks, muſlins of all ſorts, precious ſtones, and rich drugs. At the ſame time the annual ſhip from Lima arrives, and is computed to bring not leſs than two millions of pieces of eight in ſilver, beſides quickſilver, cacao, drugs, and other valueable commodities, to be laid out in the purchaſe of Eaſt India goods. Several other ſhips from different parts of Chili and Peru meet upon the ſame occaſion; and, beſides the traffic for the Philippine commodities, this cauſes a very large dealing for every thing thoſe countries have to exchange with one another, as well as for the purchaſe of all ſorts of European goods. The fair ſometimes laſts for thirty days. The goods are no ſooner diſpoſed of than the galleon prepares to ſet out on her voyage to the Philippines, with her returns chiefly in ſilver, but with ſome European goods and American commodities.

When this fair is over the town is comparatively deſerted; however, it remains during the whole year the moſt

conſiderable port in Mexico, from whence what exceeds their own conſumption is ſent by land-carriage to La Vera Cruz to paſs over to Terra Firma, to the iſlands, and a ſmall quantity even to Spain.

In the province of Tlaſcala, or Los Angelos, which is ſaid to be the beſt peopled by Indians of any in Mexico, is the city of Puebla de los Angelos, or the city of Angelos, which is ſeated in a fine valley on the banks of the river Zacatula, in the nineteenth degree of north latitude, twenty-five leagues to the eaſtward of Mexico. The buildings are principally of ſtone, and, like the other Spaniſh towns, has a beautiful ſquare in the middle, from whence run the principal ſtreets in a direct line, which are croſſed by others at right angles. On one ſide of the ſquare is the cathedral, which has a magnificent front, while the other three ſides have handſome uniform piazzas, under which are the ſhops of the principal tradeſmen. There are here many beautiful and magnificent parochial and conventual churches; with ſeveral rich monaſteries and nunneries. The city is the ſee of a biſhop ſuffragan to the archbiſhop of Mexico, and ſome judgment may perhaps be formed of the wealth of the inhabitants from the revenue of the biſhop and chapter; the former has eighty thouſand pieces of eight per annum, and there are two hundred thouſand more annually paid to the canons and officers of the church. The people of this city in general are exceeding wealthy, though the laity in this part of the world cannot pretend to vie with the clergy either in eſtates or influence.

In the province of Tlaſcala is alſo the city of La Vera Cruz, which is ſeated in the gulph of Mexico, in the nineteenth degree ten minutes north latitude, about two hundred miles ſouth-eaſt of Mexico. It is ſituated in a barren ſandy plain, but is conſiderable on account of its excellent harbour, which is naturally defended by rocks: but on one ſide the town is expoſed to clouds of dry ſand, and on the other to the putrid exhalations of bogs and marſhes, which impregnate the air with the moſt pernicious vapours. The town extends from eaſt to weſt, but is not more than half a league in circumference. The walls are of little uſe, the ſands being in many places level with the tops of them; but the caſtle and forts are ſo ſituated, as to be a defence to the ſhips in the harbour. The town is very poor, moſt of the houſes being no better than thatched cottages, inhabited by fiſhermen; but the Spaniſh garriſon conſiſts of a troop of ſixty horſe and two companies of foot. From this port the wealth of Mexico is poured out upon the Old World, and from this port they receive the numberleſs luxuries and neceſſaries that the Old World yields them in return. The annual fleet from Cadiz, called the flota, arrives about the latter end of November, and then vaſt multitudes reſort to La Vera Cruz from all parts, living in little huts or tents while the fleet remains there; their valuable merchandize being depoſited in ware-houſes built for that purpoſe. The fleet ſtays there during the winter, and upon its departure all the people of ſubſtance retire on account of their health.

This fleet, which ſails only from Cadiz, conſiſts of about fourteen or fifteen large merchant ſhips from four hundred to a thouſand tons burthen, under the convoy of three or four men of war. They are loaded with almoſt every ſort of goods which Europe produces for exportation; all ſorts of linens, woollens, ſilks, velvets, laces, cutlery, glaſs, watches, clocks, quickſilver, wrought iron, horſe-furniture, ſhoes, ſtockings, books, pictures, military ſtores, wine, and fruit; ſo that all the trading parts of Europe are highly intereſted in the cargo of the fleet. Spain ſends out little more than the wine and fruit, and this with the freight and commiſſions to the merchants, and the duty to the king, are almoſt all the advantages that kingdom derives from her commerce with the Indies. The ware-houſes of La Vera Cruz are conſtantly full of European goods and commodities, and its trade may be reputed nearly equal to all the commerce of Spaniſh America, though it is chiefly confined to the time the flota ſtays there.

The province of Tabaſco, which is waſhed on the north by the bay of Campeachy, is the place where logwood principally grows; the land near the coaſt is generally ſo flat and low, that it rains nine months every year, and, according to Dampier, remains under water ſix or ſeven months, during which the logwood-cutters uſually work up to the knees in mud and water in felling the trees; and can ſcarce find a dry ſpot to build their huts on. On the coaſt are almoſt impenetrable thickets of mangroves and bamboos; but farther up the country are fine ſavannahs and gentle riſing hills, adorned with variety of fruit-trees, and the banks of the river Tabaſco are ſhaded with large trees, particularly cabbage trees a hundred feet high.

The province of Jucatan is a peninſula ſeated in the gulph of Mexico, between the bays of Campeachy and Honduras, and is generally flat low land, with ſcarce any hills, unleſs on the weſtern part. It is thinly inhabited, for the air is exceſſive hot, and the lands near the coaſt frequently under water. Its chief produce is logwood, cotton, and ſalt. The only Spaniſh town in this extenſive coaſt is Campeachy, ſeated on the weſt ſide of the peninſula facing the ſea, and has a fine appearance, it being built of ſtone, and encompaſſed with a good wall; with a ſtrong citadel mounted with ſeveral pieces of heavy cannon placed at one end for its defence.

The audience of Guatimala forms a very fine country, capable of great improvements. It is bounded on the north-weſt by that of Mexico; on the north-eaſt by the North ſea; on the ſouth-eaſt by the province of Darien, or Terra Firma; and on the ſouth-weſt by the South ſea; thus enjoying every advantage of ſituation with reſpect to commerce. It is about a thouſand miles in length from the north-weſt to the ſouth-eaſt, but ſcarce half ſo broad in any part, and in ſome not a hundred miles in breadth: it is ſubdivided into the ſix following provinces: Guatimala Proper, Vera Paz, Honduras, Nicaragua, Coſta Rica, and Veragua; the two laſt provinces are, however, placed by the learned Don Antonio de Ulloa within Terra Firma.

This province is mountainous, filled with volcanoes that have dreadful fiery eruptions, and ſubject to earthquakes. It has, however, rich and fertile vallies that abound with corn, and paſtures that feed an incredible number of cattle; with rich drugs for dying, ſome ſilver mines, and ſugar plantations. Great quantities of bees-wax are alſo exported out of this province.

St. Jago de Guatimala, formerly the capital of the audience, and one of the fineſt cities in New Spain, was deſtroyed in 1541 by a dreadful earthquake and a neighbouring volcano. Never appeared a more terrible and awful ſcene: the day preceding it a prodigious noiſe was heard from a volcano ſeated in the mountain above the city, which was ſucceeded in the night by a furious exploſion, as if the mountain, ſays our author, had diſcharged all her bowels. This mountain has two tops, from one of which iſſued fire, and from the other a torrent of water, which ſwept all before it, and carried off the houſes and inhabitants. The horror of this ſcene was heightened by one of the moſt dreadful earthquakes ever felt in any part of the globe; and a hundred and twenty thouſand Spaniards and natives loſt their lives.

New Guatimala, the preſent capital of the audience and province, the reſidence of the preſident and royal courts, the ſee of a biſhop, the ſeat of an univerſity, and the center of the trade of theſe parts, is ſituated in a beautiful plain at a good diſtance from the fatal volcano; yet all their precautions cannot ſecure it againſt the dreadful earthquakes ſo frequent in this country. It is nevertheleſs well built and inhabited; the cathedral and pariſh-churches are exceeding rich, and here are two very fine monaſteries, a nunnery, and an hoſpital. The citizens trade largely, not only with all the provinces of Mexico, but even with Peru.

SECT. VI.

Of the different Ranks of People among the preſent Mexicans; with the Manners, Cuſtoms, and Government of the Spaniards and Creoles.

MEXICO is at preſent inhabited by a mixed people, conſiſting of the native Indians, the Spaniards, and the negroes; and the deſcendants of theſe are divided and diſtinguiſhed

diſtinguiſhed by various names; as the unmixed deſcendants of the Spaniards, who are called Creoli, or Creoles; the Meſtizes, or iſſue of the Spaniards by the native Indians; the Meſtiches, or the iſſue of ſuch iſſue; the Terceroons dez Indies, or the children of the laſt married to Spaniards; and the Quarteroons dez Indies, who are their deſcendants, and are allowed the ſame privileges as true Spaniards. The iſſue of an European and negro is called a mulatto; beſides which there is a mixed breed of negroes and Indians, which is generally deemed the loweſt rank of the people.

The whites are either born in Spain, or Creoles: the native Spaniards are moſtly in offices and in trade, and have the ſame characters and manners with the Spaniards of Europe; the ſame gravity of behaviour, the ſame natural ſagacity, the ſame indolence, and a ſtill greater ſhare of pride and ſtatelineſs; for they here conſider their being natives of Old Spain as a very honourable diſtinction, and are, in return, looked upon by the Creoles with no ſmall ſhare of hatred and envy. The latter have little of that firmneſs and patience which diſtinguiſhes the native Spaniard. They are deſtitute of courage, weak, and effeminate. Living in an enervating heat, ſurfeited with wealth, and ſpending their whole time in loitering and inactive pleaſures, they have nothing bold and manly, to fit them for making a figure in active life, and very few have any taſte for the ſatisfactions of a learned retiremen. They are luxurious without either variety or elegance, fond of ſhow and parade, temperate at their tables and in their cups, and merely from conſtitution and idleneſs make their whole buſineſs amour and intrigue, which they carry on in the old Spaniſh taſte, by doing and ſaying extravagant things, by bad muſic, worſe poetry, and exceſſive expences. The ladies are little celebrated for their chaſtity or domeſtic virtues; but exert all their genius and abilities in combating the reſtraints which are laid upon them.

It is allowed by the moſt judicious authors that the prieſts, monks, and nuns of all orders are upwards of one fifth of all the white people; but the clergy being here generally too ignorant to inſtruct by preaching, and too debauched in their manners to reform by their example, the people are little better for their numbers, wealth, or influence. Many of them are ſaid to be only adventurers from Old Spain, who without the leaſt regard to their character or their vows, direct all their ſtudies to raiſe a ſudden fortune, by abuſing the ignorance and extreme credulity of the people. Much attention is paid to mere mechanical methods of devotion. Moral duties are ſeldom mentioned. An extreme veneration for ſaints is ſtrongly inculcated, and forms the general ſubject of their ſermons, which are rather deſigned to raiſe a ſtupid admiration of their miracles, than an imitation of the ſanctity of their lives. However, it muſt be acknowledged, that there are ſome of the clergy who practiſe the duties of their ſtation, and are diſtinguiſhed by their learning and the purity of their manners; but theſe are very few.

As to the laity, it is ſaid there is not a more bigotted, or a lewder people upon earth: a preſent to the church wipes off the odium and the puniſhment of the greateſt crimes. The principal way in which they are inſtructed in religion, is by theatrical entertainments in their churches. There is ſcarce any part of the Goſpel, but is the ſubject of a play, which the loweſt of the people are here taught to act: one perſonates our Saviour, another Pilate, a third Herod, and ſo on: as their churches are exquiſitely fine, ſo is their muſic, both vocal and inſtrumental. The clergy collect the moſt harmonious voices, and have them taught to ſing not only anthems, but merry ſongs; and in their cloiſters are maſques, dances, and all the entertainments in which the laity indulge themſelves; and yet the people have their ſeaſons for penance and mortification, particularly in Lent, when they not only keep a rigorous faſt, but in their proceſſions laſh themſelves unmercifully. This is the exerciſe of the holy week before Eaſter, and in caſe of an earthquake, famine, or other general calamity, they endeavour by theſe auſterities, to appeaſe the wrath of heaven.

The civil government, adminiſtered by tribunals called audiences, conſiſts of a certain number of judges divided into different chambers, which have a greater reſemblance to the parliaments in France, than to our courts of juſtice. The viceroy himſelf preſides at the head of the chief of theſe chambers, when he ſees fit. His employment is one of the greateſt the king of Spain has in his gift, and his is perhaps the richeſt government entruſted to any ſubject in the world. All employments here are held by none but native Spaniards, and by them only for a limited time, which muſt not exceed three years. Jealouſy and avarice in this, as well as in every thing elſe that has a relation to the Indies, influences all public regulations; and every officer, from the higheſt to the loweſt, has the avidity which a new and lucrative poſt inſpires; ravenous becauſe his time his ſhort, he oppreſſes the people, and defrauds his ſovereign; another ſucceeds him with the ſame diſpoſitions; and no man takes care to eſtabliſh any thing uſeful in his office, knowing that his ſucceſſor will trample upon every regulation that is not ſubſervient to his own intereſt.

There are ſome troops kept in Mexico, and a good revenue appropriated for their maintenance, and for the ſupport of the fortifications; but the ſoldiers are few, ill-cloathed, ill-paid, and worſe diſciplined. Thus the military keep pace with the civil and eccleſiaſtical adminiſtration, and the whole form one regular ſcene of rapaciouſneſs, pride, arrogance, and oppreſſion.

SECT. VII.

Of the Perſons, Dreſs, Manners, Cuſtoms, Houſes, Food, and Feſtivals of the Mexicans, particularly of thoſe who are detached from the Spaniards, and ſtill enjoy their Liberty.

THE original Mexicans, like the other Americans, are in general tall, clean, well proportioned, and handſome, active, nimble, and remarkably ſwift of foot. They are of a deep olive complexion; their eyes large, lively, and ſparkling; the face round, and the features uſually agreeable. They wear their hair, either flowing looſe, cut ſhort, or twiſted and plaited on the head. Some nations within the limits of this vaſt country, differ widely from the general appearance and manners of the reſt; a few deem flat noſes the greateſt ornament, and early flatten thoſe of their infants, to produce that beauty on their faces; while others mould their thin tender ſkulls into a conical or pyramidical form, by means of compreſſion. Many of the Mexicans diſfigure themſelves with paint, or rather daubing, and repreſent on the body the figures of various birds and beaſts; or, in time of war, paint their faces red, to give them a warlike and bloody appearance: they alſo anoint their bodies with oil or fat, to prevent their being bit by muſquettoes, to preſerve the ſkin againſt the intenſe heat of the ſun, and to render their joints ſupple and pliant.

The people are however in general cloathed, though in a very different manner from the Spaniards; but in the province of Veragua, it is ſaid there is a nation where the men cloath nothing beſides the penis, which the vulgar are contented with wrapping in a leaf, while the great incloſe it in a caſe of gold or ſilver, of a conical form, adorned with jewels, letting the ſcrotum fall under it, in full view. This circumſtance, improbable as it appears, is mentioned by ſeveral authors; but with what degree of truth, we will not pretend to determine; yet it is ſaid that even theſe people, on feſtivals and other ſolemn occaſions, have a white or black cotton garment like a ploughman's frock, that reaches down to their heels; and if an European gives them a ſhirt or any other cloathing, they immediately put it on, and reckon themſelves very fine.

In general the Indians are fond of pendants, bracelets, and necklaces. The men wear a thin plate of gold or ſilver hanging over their upper lip, of an oval figure, in the form of a creſcent, the points of which gently pinch the bridle of the noſe, and faſten it on; the middle is about the thickneſs of a guinea, and it grows gradually thinner towards the edges. The women, inſtead of a plate, wear a ring, which goes through the bridle of the noſe, and by its weight ſometimes draws down it to the mouth. Theſe ſtrange kinds of ornaments they have of various ſizes; the larger ſort they lay aſide at their entertainments, and the ſmaller do not hinder their eating. Their great men likewiſe wear two gold plates of the

ſhape of a heart, a ſpan long at each ear, faſtened to it by a gold ring, which ſtretches the ear to an immoderate ſize. They alſo wear a kind of coronet or bandage of gold or ſilver about the head eight or ten inches broad, and indented on the upper ſide; others have only a bandage of cane painted red ſtuck round with beautiful feathers, ſtanding upright, and moſt of the Indians of both ſexes wear ſtrings of beads, teeth, ſhells, and other toys, hanging from the neck down to the breaſt.

Thoſe Indians who live in the Spaniſh towns wear a ſhort waiſtcoat and wide breeches, with a ſhort cloak of various colours, reſembling the Spaniſh dreſs; but their legs are bare, and only a few cover their feet with ſandals. The women wear a ſhort jacket of cotton or linen, over which flows a looſe robe, or a ſtraight petticoat, and ſometimes both. There are, however, ſuch varieties in dreſs, depending upon cuſtom and fancy, that it would be endleſs to enter upon particulars.

With reſpect to the genius, temper, and manners of the Mexicans, they ſeem to be greatly degenerated ſince their being conquered by the Spaniards. They were once ingenious, hoſpitable, civilized, and generous, except in the article of human ſacrifices; but now thoſe who live among the Spaniards are ſaid to be cowardly, treacherous, and ſtupid. The buildings, images, paintings, carvings, cotton cloths, manufactured feathers formed into beautiful pictures, and many other pieces of art, evince the genius of the ancient Mexicans; and the loſs of theſe is a demonſtration of the decline of that genius. Indeed the cauſe is not difficult to be aſſigned; their temples and images, on which they had laviſhed all the powers of art, being deſtroyed, themſelves reduced to a ſtate of ſervitude, and conſtrained to labour in the mines, to gratify the avarice of their new maſters; it is no wonder they were effectually diſcouraged from cultivating talents, that could only turn to their deſtruction, and gain them ſtripes inſtead of rewards. Beſides, the introduction of European arts, manufactures, and the implements of mechanics, made the Indians deſpiſe the inferiority of their own, all knowledge of which they ſoon forgot, without being able to acquire any degree of ſkill in the other, to the drudgery and lower branches of which they were confined. To what purpoſes then ſhould an Indian labour to improve talents that can only ſerve to render his bondage more irkſome? or why ſhould he ſtrive to accumulate that wealth, of which he knows he ſhall be ſtripped by his arbitrary maſter?

Thoſe Indians who have preſerved their freedom in the mountains and ſome other parts of the country are ſtill a brave, generous, and humane people, entirely untainted with the ſordid vices and corrupt manners of the inhabitants of the Spaniſh cities and towns. They ſpend their time in hunting, fiſhing, and field exerciſes; cultivate but little ſoil, ſow and plant what is juſt ſufficient to anſwer the purpoſes of nature, and allow nothing for the gratification of appetites founded on luxury.

The buſineſs of planting is performed by the women, after the men have cleared the ground. The females likewiſe execute all the domeſtic offices, ſpin, weave, and dreſs cotton and linen cloths for their own or their huſbands apparel. They are obedient and reſpectful to their huſbands, who return a mutual affection. This is at leaſt the picture given us by Engliſh and French travellers, though the Spaniards, perhaps to palliate their own conduct, ſpeak leſs favourably of them.

Theſe Indians live in thatched cottages, and obſerve little regularity in their towns; their houſes neither ſtanding contiguous, nor in any order, but are diſperſed here and there, only they have one common guard-houſe, or fort, ſeated on an eminence, to which they reſort on the approach of an enemy, or when they aſſemble in council. They never lay any deep foundations, but ſet up ſmall poſts ſeven or eight feet high, two or three feet aſunder, and cloſing up the intervals cover them with clay. They make the roof like that of an ordinary barn, and uſually cover it with palmetto leaves. The building is about twenty-four feet long, and twelve broad; the hearth is in the middle, and they have a hole over it, to let out the ſmoke: they have only the ground-floor, and uſe no partitions, ſo that the whole houſe forms but one room. Inſtead of beds they uſe hammocks, which are hung from the principal beam, and blocks of wood are their only ſeats and tables. Their furniture conſiſts of earthen veſſels, with calabaſhes of an uncommon ſize to hold their liquor; and their arms, bows, arrows, lances, darts, and quivers, with their tools, are hung as ornaments round the cottage.

Their guard-houſe is about a hundred and thirty feet long, and twenty-five broad; the walls nine or ten feet high, and the ridge of the roof about twenty feet in height, and thatched with palmetto leaves: they have narrow loop holes on the ſides, from whence they can repulſe an enemy with their arrows; they are ſeated, as hath been obſerved, on an eminence, and the ground is cleared of wood and ſhrubs for a good ſpace round, that an enemy may find no ſhelter from their arrows, or any place to lie concealed. They have ſtrong doors to defend the entrance; but the Spaniards eaſily burn them down by ſhooting flaming arrows into the palmetto leaves, which anſwer the purpoſe of thatch.

We ſhall now treat of the diet, exerciſes, feſtivals, and diverſions of thoſe Indians who ſtill enjoy their liberties. Their principal food is either Indian corn parched and ground into flour, and made into thin cakes, or fruit, roots, wild hogs, deer, &c. and ſometimes fiſh. They frequently go a-hunting in companies a week or a fortnight together, every man carrying with him his bow and arrows, a ſpear, a hatchet, and a long knife. Each man alſo takes a dog or two with him to beat for game. Some women alſo go with them to carry their proviſions of roaſted plantains, yams, potatoes, baſkets of parched Indian corn, and a few utenſils. The beaſts they hunt are chiefly the pecaree and warree, a ſort of wild hogs, of which we have given a deſcription. They alſo meet with a variety of fowls. They lodge at night wherever they happen to be at ſun-ſet, contriving to be near ſome river. They hang up their hammocks between the trees, and have ſcarce any other covering but a plantane leaf. They begin their hunting again at ſun-riſing the next morning. Their game, juſt mentioned, are not ſwift of foot, and uſually go together in droves of two or three hundred; but they ſometimes hunt a whole day without meeting any. When the beaſt is tired with the purſuit, or wounded, he will ſtand at bay with the dogs, till the maſter comes up and ſhoots him; he then ſtrikes his ſpear into the creature to let out the blood, embowels him, and cutting him in two pieces carries them on a ſtick laid acroſs his ſhoulder to a place where the women are appointed to wait: here they cut off the head of the animal, quarter and flea it; what they intend to preſerve they barbecue by laying it upon a wooden grate, under which is a fire of wood coals, which is kept up till the meat is as dry as a chip; and theſe pieces will keep a great while. When they have much game, the men aſſiſt the women in carrying it home; and when their ſtock of proviſions is almoſt ſpent, they go out again to look for more.

Whether their fleſh be dried, or freſh killed, they cut it into ſmall pieces, which they put into a kind of pipkin, adding ſome roots, green plantanes, or other fruit, with a great deal of pepper, ſtewing them together in water ſeven or eight hours, and not ſuffering them to boil, which reduces all the ingredients into a kind of pulp; they then pour it into an earthen diſh, or calabaſh, and ſetting it upon a wooden block that ſerves them for a table, ſit round it on leſſer blocks, all having a calabaſh of water ſtanding by their ſide on the ground, into which they frequently dip their fingers while they are eating. They have ſeldom more than one ſet meal in a day, but they eat plantanes and other fruit raw or roaſted almoſt all the day.

There is ſcarce any fleſh, fiſh, or fowl, but what the natives of Mexico eat either ſtewed or broiled on the coals: it does not appear that they uſe either knives, forks, or ſpoons, but fill their mouths with their hands, and tear the broiled fleſh off the bones with their teeth; but thoſe who are among the Spaniards conform to their cuſtoms, and every thing they eat is high ſeaſoned with pepper. Chocolate ſerves both for meat and drink in almoſt every province of Mexico, both among the free and thoſe called the civilized Indians, if they can obtain it; but it is ſo much uſed by the Spaniards, and ſuch quantities are

exported to Europe, that it is pretty ſcarce among the free Indians.

They have a great variety of liquors; the moſt ordinary drink is water, with the flour of Indian corn infuſed in it, and drank off preſently. This ſerves to keep them alive on a march, when they can get no other proviſions. They have a liquor named miſlaw, of which they have two ſorts; one made of plantanes freſh gathered, and the other of plantanes dried; the firſt they roaſt, and, peeling off the rind, maſh them in a bowl of water till they are diſſolved, and then drink the mixture; the other is made of cakes of plantanes dried over a ſlow fire: this they carry with them on journies, and drink it diſſolved in water. As their pine-apples are one of their moſt delicious fruits, an infuſion of theſe they are very fond of; and indeed they make an infuſion of almoſt all manner of fruits, adding honey to them at their entertainments: but the country affords no wine, for grapes will not ripen kindly in the rainy ſeaſon, and the heats at other times render the liquor ſour; for this reaſon ſcarce any country between the tropics affords good wine.

The Indians ſcarce undertake any buſineſs of conſequence without an entertainment. If they propoſe entering into a war, either with the Spaniards or any Indian nation, their chiefs are ſummoned to a conſultation, and eat and drink plentifully before they enter on their debates. A hunting-match, which uſually laſts ſome weeks, is alſo preceded by hard drinking. At weddings and other joyful occaſions they have their feaſts, where they continue drinking two or three days, till all the liquor is ſpent; and as they are very quarrelſome in their liquor, the maſter of the houſe always ſecures their arms before they begin to be merry; for they never go without them, if it be but to the next door. They uſually get ſo drunk as to be unable to ſtand, and having ſlept till they have become ſober, return home.

The men drink to one another at meals, but never to the women, who always ſtand by and wait upon their huſbands, while they are eating and drinking, ſerving them with liquor; even when at home the wife does not eat till the huſband has done; but the females feaſt among themſelves, when they are as merry as the men, and as little afraid of drinking to exceſs; they, however, take care to keep ſober till their huſbands are recovered, and indeed no ſooner perceive them in liquor, than they take them up and put them into hammocks. Both ſexes are alſo fond of ſmoking tobacco.

Their principal exerciſes, or rather employments, as hath been intimated, are hunting, ſhooting, and fiſhing; which they perform in order to provide for their families. Every man breeds up his ſon to theſe exerciſes, at which they are ſo dexterous when children, that it is ſaid a boy of eight years of age will ſplit a cane ſet up at twenty yards diſtance, with an arrow diſcharged from his bow, and kill a bird flying. But the moſt expert of all the Indians of Mexico are the Moſqueto Indians, who dwell in the province of Honduras. They are tall, well made, ſtrong and nimble, long viſaged, have a ſtern look, are hard favoured, and have lank black hair. Theſe people, who inhabit the ſea-ſhore and the banks of rivers, are bred to throw the lance, harpoon, and dart; draw the bow from their infancy, and they will turn aſide any miſſive weapons thrown at them with a ſmall cane no bigger than a gun-ſtick. Their principal employment is ſtriking fiſh, particularly the manatee and turtle. The Engliſh privateers, when they cruize on the Mexican coaſt, have uſually one or two of theſe Moſqueto men to ſtrike the fiſh, and they will take enough to maintain a ſhip's crew of a hundred men. When they ſerve the Engliſh they learn the uſe of the gun, and become exceeding good markſmen; they are alſo extremely daring in fight, and never give back while ſupported by the party that entertains them.

But to return to the Indians in general, who have their dances and muſic, if it may be called by that name, ſuch as wooden drums, and a kind of pipe made of a cane or reed, but very diſagreeable to an European ear; for they love every thing that makes a noiſe, how diſagreeable ſoever be the ſound: they will alſo hum over ſomething like a tune when they dance, but it does not appear that they have any thing like ſongs or ballads. They dance thirty or forty in a circle, ſtretching out their hands, and laying them on each others ſhoulders; ſtamp, jump, and uſe the moſt antic geſtures for ſeveral hours together, till they are heartily weary. Sometimes one or two of the company ſtep out of the ring, to divert the reſt by ſhewing tricks and feats of activity, throwing up their lances, catching them again, bending backwards, and ſpringing forwards with great agility.

CHAP. X.

Of TERRA FIRMA, or NEW CASTILE.

SECT. I.

The Situation, Extent, and Diviſions of Terra Firma; with a particular Deſcription of the Situation, Extent, Rivers, Face of the Country, and Climate of Terra Firma Proper; and of the Towns of Porto Bello and Panama: likewiſe an Account of the Pearl Fiſhery near the laſt City; and of a Scots Settlement on the Coaſt of Darien.

THE province of Terra Firma, or New Caſtile, is a very extenſive country, it being bounded on the north and eaſt by the North ſea; on the ſouth by part of Guiana and the country of the Amazons; and on the weſt by the South ſea, where the iſthmus of Darien alſo divides it from Mexico. Its greateſt length from the South ſea to the mouth of the river Oroonoko is upwards of thirteen hundred miles, and its greateſt breadth is about ſeven hundred and fifty; but in other places it is much pent in by the river Oroonoko, ſo that it is not above half that breadth, and towards the mouth of that river not above a hundred and eighty miles. It extends almoſt from the equator to the twelfth degree thirty minutes north latitude, and from the ſixty-ſecond to the eighty-third degree of weſt longitude.

Terra Firma is divided into the following diſtricts, or governments: the iſthmus of Darien, or Terra Firma Proper, Carthagena, Santa Martha, Rio de la Hacha, Venezuela, New Granada, New Andaluſia, and the province of Popayan.

The moſt northern of theſe is the country lying between the gulph of Darien and Mexico, along the coaſt of the South and North ſea, particularly diſtinguiſhed by the name of the iſthmus of Darien, and by ſome writers called the iſthmus of Panama. It divides North and South America, extending between the eighth and tenth degree north latitude, and between the ſeventy-eighth and eighty-ſeventh degree weſt longitude, in the form of a creſcent, round the bay of Panama for about three hundred miles in length, and ſixty in breadth, from the North ſea to the Pacific ocean. It is bounded on the eaſt by the river and gulph of Darien, which ſeparates it from Carthagena; on the ſouth by Popayan and the Pacific ocean, or South ſea; and on the weſt by the ſame ocean and Veragua.

The land has almoſt every where an equal ſurface, and is diſtinguiſhed by hills and valleys of great variety for height, depth, and extent. The valleys are generally watered with rivers, brooks, and perennial ſprings, ſome

ſome of which fall into the North and others into the South ſea: moſt of them riſe from a chain of higher hills than the reſt that extend the length of the iſthmus, in a manner parallel to the ſhore, and is in moſt parts neareſt the North ſea, from which it is ſeldom above ten or fifteen miles diſtant. On the north ſide of this main ridge, which is a continuation of the Andes, there are either no hills at all, or only gentle declivities. This ſide of the country is every where ſo covered with woods, that it is all one continued foreſt: nor is the main ridge itſelf carried on every where with a continued top; but is rather a range of diſtinct hills, and accordingly has frequent large valleys disjoining the ſeveral eminences that compoſe its length; and ſome of them are even ſo deep as to admit a paſſage for rivers.

Some of the rivers that water the country are pretty large, though few of them are navigable. On the north coaſt they are for the moſt part ſmall; for as they generally riſe from the main ridge, which lies near that ſhore, they have but a ſhort courſe. The Darien, from which the iſthmus is ſuppoſed to take its name, is indeed a very large river, but its depth at the entrance is not anſwerable to the wideneſs of its mouth. The river Chagre is pretty conſiderable; for though it riſes from the ſame ridge, it has a long bending courſe from the ſouth and eaſt part of the iſthmus. The river Conception is alſo conſiderable: theſe three fall into the North ſea. Into the South ſea fall the Santa Maria, the Congo, and the Cheapo.

In the river Chagre are bred a great number of alligators; and all the foreſts and woods near it are full of wild beaſts, eſpecially different kinds of monkeys, of various colours, as black, brown, and reddiſh; there is alſo the ſame diverſity in their ſize, ſome being a yard long, others half a yard, and others ſcarce a foot. The fleſh of all theſe different kinds is highly valued by the negroes, eſpecially that of the red; but however delicate the meat may be, ſays the learned Don Antonio Ulloa, the ſight of them is enough to make the appetite abhor them; for when dead they are ſcalded, in order to take off the hair, whence the ſkin is contracted by the heat; and when thoroughly cleaned looks perfectly white, and greatly reſembles a child of about two or three years of age when crying: yet the ſcarcity of food in many parts of America renders their fleſh valuable; and not only the negroes, but the Creoles, and the Europeans themſelves, make no ſcruple of eating it.

But to return, nothing can excel the proſpects which the rivers of this country exhibit. The moſt fertile imagination of a painter can never equal the magnificence of the rural landſcapes drawn by the pencil of nature. The groves, which ſhade the plains, and extend their branches to the rivers; the various dimenſions of the trees that cover the eminences; the texture of their leaves; the figure of their fruits, and the various colours they exhibit, form a moſt delightful ſcene, that is greatly heightened by the infinite variety of creatures with which it is diverſified. The different ſpecies of monkies ſkipping in troops from tree to tree, hanging from the branches; and in other places, fix, eight, or more of them, linked together, in order to paſs a river, with the dams carrying their young on their ſhoulders, throwing themſelves into odd geſtures, and making a thouſand grimaces, will perhaps appear fictitious to thoſe who have not actually ſeen it; but if the birds are conſidered, our reaſon for admiration will be greatly augmented. Theſe, from their great abundance, ſeem to have had their origin on the banks of the rivers, while the beauty and variety of their various plumage conſpire to charm the eye. Here are all the various kinds of parrots, parroquets, cotores, the tulcan, the gallinazo, the wild and royal peacock, the turtle dove, the heron, and many others.

The weather is much the ſame here as in other places of the torrid zone, inclining rather to the wet extreme. The rains begin in April or May, and are very violent during the months of June, July, and Auguſt: it is then very hot, whenever the ſun breaks out of a cloud, there being no breezes to fan and cool the air, it is all a glowing heat. About September the rains begin to abate, but it is November or December, and perhaps the beginning of January, before they are quite gone; ſo that the rainy weather laſts two-thirds of the year. They firſt come, like our ſudden April ſhowers, one in a day; at length a ſhower falls almoſt every hour, frequently accompanied with violent thunder and lightning; during which the air has often a faint ſulphureous ſmell, where pent up among the woods. After this variable weather there will be, for about a month or ſix weeks, a ſettled continued rain of ſeveral days and nights, without thunder and lightning, but extremely vehement, conſidering the length: yet at certain intervals, even in the wetteſt part of the ſeaſon, are intermixed ſeveral fair days, with only tornadoes or thunder ſhowers, and that ſometimes for a week together. Theſe thunder ſhowers uſually cauſe a ſenſible wind by the clouds preſſing the atmoſphere, which is very refreſhing from its moderating the heat; but as it ſhakes the trees of the foreſt, their dropping is as troubleſome as the rain itſelf. When the ſhower is over, you hear a great way together the croaking of frogs and toads, and the humming of muſkettoes, which chiefly infeſt the low ſwampy grounds near the rivers. The floods cauſed by the heavy rains often beat down the trees; ſo that they frequently bar up the rivers till they are cleared by another flood.

The ſoil of the inland part of the country is generally very good, and for the moſt part conſiſts of black fruitful mould. The hills are every where fertile to the top, though more fruitful nearer the bottom; but even the tops of the main ridge are covered with very flouriſhing trees. Indeed the ſoil ſeems capable of producing all the vegetables proper to the climate; yet the trees on the tops and ſides of the hills in the inland country are very different from thoſe in the ſea. The woods on the hills forming a large foreſt of timber trees, or a delightful grove of trees of ſeveral kinds, are very tall, with little or no underwood, and placed at ſuch a diſtance from each other, that a horſe may gallop among them a great way, and eaſily avoid them: their tops are generally very large and ſpreading, and it is probably their ſhade and dropping which hinder any thing elſe growing in the rich ground among them; for in the open ſavannas, or where the ground is cleared by induſtry, there is great plenty of ſmaller vegetables. On the ſea-coaſt, where the ſoil is frequently ſwampy drowned land, eſpecially near the mouths of rivers, the trees are not tall, but ſhrubby; conſiſting of mangroves, brambles, bamboos, &c. not growing in the manner of groves, but in a continued thicket.

The trees on the iſthmus are many of them the ſame as thoſe in Mexico, and they have alſo many of the ſame animals.

The principal towns in this province are Porto-Bello and Panama.

The town of St. Philip de Porto-Bello is ſituated in the ninth degree thirty-four minutes thirty-five ſeconds, north latitude, and in the eighty-ſecond degree five minutes, weſt longitude, from London; and ſtands on the declivity of a mountain that ſurrounds the whole harbour. Moſt of the houſes are built of wood; but in ſome the firſt ſtory is of ſtone, and the reſt of timber; but they amount only to about one hundred and thirty: moſt of them are however large and ſpacious. It conſiſts of one principal ſtreet, extending along the ſtrand, with others ſmaller croſſing it, and running from the declivity of the mountain to the ſhore. There are alſo ſome lanes in the ſame direction with the principal ſtreet, where the ground admits of it. Here are two large ſquares, one oppoſite to the cuſtom-houſe, which is of ſtone, adjoining to the quay; the other faces the great church, which is alſo of ſtone, large, and decently ornamented. Here are alſo two other churches, one called Nueſtra Signora de la Merced, with a convent of the ſame order; but both the church and convent are mean and ruinous; the other is St. Juan de Dios, which is a ſmall building, in no better condition than the former.

At the eaſt end of the town is a quarter called Guinea, where the negroes of both ſexes, whether ſlaves or free, have their habitations. This quarter is much crouded when the galleons are here. The mulattoes and other poor families alſo remove either to Guinea, or to cottages erected near it, or built upon the occaſion. Great numbers of artificers from Panama, who flock to Porto-Bello

to

to work at their reſpective buſineſſes, likewiſe lodge in this quarter for cheapneſs. Towards the ſea is a large tract between the town and Gloria-caſtle, where barracs are erected, and are principally filled with ſhips crews, who keep ſtalls of ſweet-meats and other eatables brought from Spain: but at the concluſion of the fair the ſhips put to ſea, and all theſe buildings are taken down; after which the town returns to its former tranquility.

The name of this port ſignifying Fine Port, or Harbour, indicates its being commodious for all ſhips; and though its entrance is very wide, it is well defended by Fort St. Philip. On the ſouth-ſide of the harbour, oppoſite to the anchoring place, is a large caſtle, called Saint Jago de la Gloria, to the eaſt of which, at the diſtance of two hundred yards, begins the town, having before it a point of land projecting into the harbour, on which ſtood a ſmall fort, called St. Jerom. All theſe were demoliſhed by admiral Vernon, in 1739, with only ſix ſhips under his command. Among the mountains, which ſurround the whole harbour, is one at its utmoſt extremity, remarkable for its ſuperior height. Its top is always covered with clouds, of a denſity and darkneſs ſeldom ſeen in thoſe of this atmoſphere: when theſe thicken, increaſe in blackneſs, and ſink below their uſual ſtation, it is a ſure ſign of a tempeſt; while on the other hand, their clearneſs and aſcent as certainly indicate the approach of fair weather. Theſe changes, however, are very frequent and ſudden.

The town is under the juriſdiction of a governor, who has the title of lieutenant general; he is always a gentleman of the army, and has under him the commandants of the forts that command the harbour. To theſe his juriſdiction is limited, the neighbouring country being full of mountains covered with impenetrable foreſts.

The inclemency of the climate of Porto-Bello is exceeding great: the heat is exceſſive, it being augmented by the ſituation of the town, which is ſurrounded with high mountains, without any interval to admit refreſhing winds. The trees on theſe mountains ſtand ſo thick as to intercept the rays of the ſun, and conſequently prevent their drying the earth under their branches: hence ariſe copious exhalations, which form large clouds that fall in violent torrents of rain; but this is no ſooner over, than the ſun breaks forth afreſh, ſhining with his former ſplendor; but has ſcarce dried the ſurface of the ground not covered by the trees, than the ſun is again concealed, and freſh ſhowers fall. Theſe torrents of rain, which, by their ſuddenneſs and impetuoſity, ſeem to threaten a ſecond deluge, are accompanied with ſuch dreadful tempeſts of thunder and lightning, as muſt daunt even the moſt reſolute ſtranger; and this dreadful noiſe is prolonged by the echoes from the caverns of the mountains, and the howlings and ſhrieks of the many kinds of monkeys which dwell in their foreſts: but what is ſtill worſe, the air is ſo unhealthy, that the galleons, or other European ſhips, which ſtay here any time, ſeldom leave it without burying half, or, at leaſt, one third of their men: hence it has been termed the grave of the Spaniards. It is univerſally aſſerted in that town, that the animals from other climates, on their being brought from Porto-Bello, ceaſe to propagate their ſpecies; thus hens brought from Panama, or Carthagena, immediately on their arrival, lay no more eggs. The horned cattle ſent from Panama, after being here a ſhort time, loſe their fleſh ſo as not to be eatable, though there is plenty of paſture; and it is certain that horſes and aſſes never breed here.

The number of inhabitants from the inclemency of the climate is very inconſiderable, and the greateſt part of theſe are negroes and mulattoes, there being ſcarce thirty white families; for none ſtay at Porto-Bello but thoſe whoſe employments oblige them to it, as the governor, the commanders of the forts, the civil officers of the crown, with the officers and ſoldiers of the garriſons.

Proviſions are ſcarce, and conſequently dear, particularly during the ſtay of the galleons and the fair, when there is a neceſſity for a ſupply from Carthagena and Panama. From the former are brought maize, rice, caſſava bread, hogs, poultry, and roots; and from the latter cattle. The only thing in plenty here is fiſh, of which there is a great variety, and very good. The adjacent country alſo abounds in ſugar-canes, and they make ſugar, molaſſes, and rum.

Snakes are extremely numerous, and the toads innumerable, ſwarming not only in damp and marſhy places, as in other countries, but even in the ſtreets, courts of houſes, and all open places in general. Thus, when it has rained in the night, the ſtreets and ſquares in the morning ſeem paved with them; ſo that you cannot ſtep without treading on them, which is ſometimes productive of troubleſome bites; for beſides their poiſon, they are ſo large that their teeth are ſeverely felt. They are generally about ſix inches long, and nothing can be imagined more diſmal than their croakings, during the night, in all parts of the town, the woods, and caverns in the mountains.

As the foreſts almoſt border on the houſes, the tygers often enter the ſtreets during the night, carrying off fowls, dogs, and other domeſtic animals, and ſometimes even boys have fallen a prey to them. Beſides the ſnares uſually laid for them, the negroes and mulattoes who fell wood in the foreſts of the mountains are very dexterous in encountering them, and ſome even ſeek them in their retreats. Their arms are only a lance, two or three yards long, made of a very ſtrong wood, with the point hardened in the fire, and a large ſcymetar. Thus armed, they ſtay till he flies at their left arm, which holds the lance, and is wrapped up in a ſhort cloak of baize. Sometimes the tyger ſeems to decline the combat, but his antagoniſt provokes him with a ſlight touch of the lance, which he no ſooner feels than he graſps it with one of his paws, and with the other ſtrikes at the arm which holds it: upon this, the perſon nimbly aims a blow with his ſcymetar, which he kept concealed in the other hand, and hamſtrings the creature, which immediately draws back enraged; but returning to the charge, receives another ſuch ſtroke, by which he is deprived of his moſt dangerous weapons, and rendered incapable of moving: after which the perſon kills him at his leiſure; and ſtripping off the ſkin, cuts off the head, with the fore and hind feet, and returns to the town with the trophies of his victory.

To return to Porto-Bello, which though ſo thinly inhabited, on account of its noxious air, becomes on the arrival of the galleons one of the moſt populous places in all South-America; for its ſituation on the iſthmus, between the North and South Sea, the goodneſs of its harbour, and its ſmall diſtance from Panama, have given it the preference, for the rendezvous of the joint commerce of Spain and Peru.

The inhabitants of Carthagena no ſooner receive advice that the Peru fleet has unloaded at Panama, than the galleons ſet ſail for Porto-Bello, where the concourſe of people is immediately ſo great, as to raiſe the rent of a middling chamber with a cloſet, during the fair, to a thouſand crowns, and ſome large houſes are let for that ſeaſon for four, five, or ſix thouſand crowns.

No ſooner are the ſhips moored in the harbour than a tent is erected in the ſquare, with the ſails of the ſhips, for receiving their cargo, and thither the bales are drawn on ſledges by the crew of every ſhip. While the ſeamen and European traders are thus employed, the land is covered with droves of mules from Panama, each drove conſiſting of above a hundred, loaded with cheſts of gold and ſilver, on account of the merchants of Peru. Some unload them at the exchange, and others in the middle of the ſquare; yet amidſt the hurry and confuſion of ſuch crowds, no theft, loſs, or diſturbance is ever known. He who has ſeen this place during the ſolitary time when it was poor, and a perpetual ſilence reigned every where, while every place wore a melancholy aſpect, muſt be filled with aſtoniſhment at the ſudden change, to ſee the buſtling multitudes, every houſe crowded, the ſquare and ſtreets encumbered with bales, and with cheſts of gold and ſilver, with the harbour full of ſhips and ſmaller veſſels; and, in ſhort, this abandoned town become the ſtaple of the riches of the Old and New World.

After the ſhips are unloaded, and both the merchants of Peru and the preſident of Panama arrived, the fair comes under deliberation, and the deputies of the ſeveral parties repair on board the commodore of the galleons, where, in the preſence of the commodore and the preſident of Panama, the former as patron of the Europeans, and the

latter of the Peruvians, the prices of the ſeveral kinds of merchandize are ſettled, and all preliminaries being adjuſted in three or four meetings, the contracts are ſigned and made public, that every one may conform to them in the ſale of his effects. Thus all fraud is precluded. The purchaſes and ſales, with the exchange of money, are tranſacted by brokers, both from Spain and Peru. After this every one begins to diſpoſe of his goods; the Spaniſh brokers embarking their cheſts of money, and thoſe of Peru ſending away the goods they have purchaſed in veſſels called chatas, and bongos, up the river Chagre, and thus the fair of Porto-Bello ends.

With reſpect to the hiſtory of this town, few places have been more unfortunate: in 1595 it was taken and ranſomed by Sir Francis Drake: in 1601 it was ſurpriſed by captain Parker: in 1699 it was taken by captain Morgan: in 1678, by captain Croxon; and in 1739, by admiral Vernon.

Panama, the moſt important place in the province, is built on the coaſt of the South Sea, in the eighth degree fifty-ſeven minutes forty-eight ſeconds, north latitude. But with regard to its longitude, there are various opinions, none of the aſtronomers were for a long time able, from the obſervations made on the ſpot, to aſcertain it; ſo that it was doubtful whether it lies to the eaſt or weſt of Porto-Bello; but Don Antonio de Ulloa has with great care determined the diſpute, and proved that it ſtands thirty minutes weſt of Porto-Bello. The houſes in general are of ſtone, but are only one ſtory high; however, from the ſymmetry of the windows, they make a handſome appearance. Without the city walls is an open ſuburb, larger than the city itſelf, and the houſes of the ſame materials and conſtruction. The decorations of the private houſes are elegant, but not coſtly, and though there are here no perſons of ſuch immenſe fortunes as in ſome other cities in America, yet it is not deſtitute of wealthy inhabitants, and all of them have a ſufficiency.

This city had the misfortune, in the year 1670, to be ſacked and burned by John Morgan, an Engliſh buccaneer, who had before taken Porto-Bello and Maracaybo, and retiring to the iſlands, every where publiſhed his deſign of going to Panama; upon which he was joined by many adventurers. He firſt ſailed to the river Chagre, where he landed ſome of his men, and battered the caſtle with his ſhips; but when he began to think it adviſeable to retreat, on account of the great number of his men killed and wounded by the fort, an extraordinary accident gave him ſucceſs. An arrow ſhot from the bow of an Indian, lodged in the eye of one of Morgan's companions; who being rendered deſperate with the pain, with a remarkable firmneſs and preſence of mind, plucked the arrow from the wound, and wrapping one of its ends in cotton or tow, put it into his muſket, which was ready loaded, and diſcharged it into the fort, where the roofs of the houſes were of thatch, and the ſides of wood. The arrow fell on one of the roofs, and immediately ſet it on fire, which was not at firſt obſerved by the beſieged, who were buſy in defending the place; but the ſmoke and flames ſoon informed them that the fort and magazine of powder were on the point of deſtruction. Such an unexpected accident filled them with terror and confuſion; and every ſoldier, being eager to ſave himſelf, abandoned the works, in order to eſcape the double danger, of being either burnt or blown up. The commandant, however, reſolving to do all in his power, ſtill defended the fort, with ſixteen or twenty ſoldiers, till he was ſlain; and Morgan obtained the fort, which was ſoon laid in aſhes.

Having ſurmounted this difficulty, he, with great part of his men, ſailed up the river in boats, leaving the ſhips at anchor; and having landed, marched towards Panama, and on the Sabana, a ſpacious plain before the city, had ſeveral ſkirmiſhes, in which Morgan always gained the advantage; ſo that he made himſelf maſter of the city; but found it almoſt forſaken; the inhabitants on ſeeing their men defeated, having retired into the woods. He now plundered it at his leiſure; and after ſtaying ſome days, agreed for a large ranſom, to leave it without damaging the buildings; but after the payment of the money, the city was ſet on fire by accident; a misfortune that rendered it abſolutely neceſſary to rebuild it, on which it was removed to its preſent ſituation, which is about a league and a half from the former, and much more convenient.

In this city is a tribunal, or royal audience, in which the governor of Panama reſides; and to this employment is annexed the poſt of captain-general of Terra Firma. The city has a court of inquiſition, a cathedral, and a chapter, conſiſting of a biſhop, and a number of prebendaries. The cathedral and convents are of ſtone; the latter are thoſe of the Dominicans, Franciſcans, Auguſtines, and fathers of Mercy; a college of Jeſuits, a nunnery of the order of St. Clara, and an hoſpital of St. Juan de Dios.

The harbour is formed in the road by the ſhelter of ſeveral iſlands, where the ſhips lie very ſafe. At the bottom of the ſea are a great number of pearls, and the oyſters in which they are found are remarkably delicious. This kind of fiſhery is of great advantage to the inhabitants of all the iſlands; and of this fiſhery we ſhall give a particular deſcription in treating of the trade of Panama.

The inhabitants are parſimonious, deſigning, inſidious, and ſtop at nothing when profit is in view. The ſame ſelfiſhneſs and parſimony reigns equally among the women, who when they go abroad begin to imitate the dreſs of thoſe of Peru, which conſiſts only of a gown and petticoats nearly reſembling thoſe worn in Spain; but at home, on viſits, and ſome particular ceremonies, their ſhift is the only cloathing from the waiſt upwards. The ſleeves are very long, broad, and quite open at the wriſt; and theſe, like the boſom, are adorned with very fine lace, the chief pride of the ladies of Panama. They wear girdles and five or ſix chaplets of beads about their necks, ſome ſet in gold, ſome of coral mixed with ſmall pieces of gold, and others leſs coſtly; but all of different ſizes; beſides theſe, they have one, two, or more gold chains, from which hang ſome relics. Round their arms they wear bracelets of gold and tombac; alſo ſtrings of pearls, corals, and bugles. Their petticoat reaches only from their waiſt to the calf of their legs, and from thence to a little above their ancle, a broad lace hangs from their under petticoat.

The land in the neighbouring country is left entirely to nature, nor does the leaſt veſtiges remain of its being formerly cultivated; whence the inhabitants are under the neceſſity of being ſupplied with every thing, either from the coaſt of Peru, or diſtant places in its own juriſdiction; and the ſhips of Peru are continually employed in exporting goods and proviſions from that country, as the coaſting barks are in bringing the produce of the ſeveral places in its juriſdiction; whence Panama is plentifully furniſhed with the beſt wheat, maize, cattle, and poultry, and the inhabitants are not ſo meagre and pale as thoſe who live at Carthagena and Porto-Bello.

From what has been ſaid of the commerce of Porto-Bello in the time of the galleons, an idea may be formed of that of Panama on the ſame occaſion; this city being the firſt where the treaſure from Peru is landed, and likewiſe the ſtaple for the goods brought up the river Chagre. This commerce is of the greateſt advantage to the inhabitants, both with regard to their letting their houſes, the freight of veſſels, the hire of mules and negroes. The city, during the abſence of the armada, is never without a great number of ſtrangers, it being the thoroughfare for all going to the ports of Peru in the South Sea, as alſo for any coming from thence to Spain; to which muſt be added the continual trade carried on by the Peruvian ſhips, which bring variety of goods; as meal of different ſorts, wine, brandy, ſugar, olives, oil, tallow, leather, and the like. The ſhips from Guayaquil bring cacao, and quinquina, or Jeſuit's bark. The coaſting barks, which make frequent trips from the adjacent ports, ſupply the city with hogs, poultry, hung-beef, hog's-lard, plantains, roots, and other food. The dearneſs of proviſions in the city, and its diſtrict, occaſioned by the great diſtance from whence they are brought, is amply compenſated by the multitude and value of the pearls found in the oyſters of its gulf, particularly thoſe near the iſlands Del Rey, Tabaga, and others, amounting in the whole to forty-three in number, forming a ſmall archipelago. At preſent they are found in ſuch plenty, that there are few perſons of ſubſtance near Panama who do not employ a

part of their ſlaves in this fiſhery, which is performed in the following manner:

The owners of negroes employ ſuch as are both expert ſwimmers, and are capable of holding their breath a long time: theſe they ſend to the iſlands, where they have huts built for their lodgings, and boats that hold eight, ten, or twenty negroes, under the command of an officer. In theſe boats they go to ſuch parts as are known to produce pearls, where the depth of the water does not exceed twelve or fifteen fathoms. Here they come to an anchor, and the negroes having a rope faſtened round their bodies, and the other end to the ſide of the boat, they carry with them a ſmall weight to accelerate their ſinking. On reaching the bottom, they take up an oyſter, which they put under their left arm, a ſecond they hold in their left hand, and a third in their right; with theſe three oyſters, and frequently another in their mouth, they riſe to take breath, and put them in a bag. When they have reſted themſelves ſome time, and recovered their breath, they perform a ſecond diving; and thus continue till they have completed their taſk, or their ſtrength fails. Each of theſe divers is obliged to deliver daily to his maſter, a certain fixed number of pearls; ſo that when they have the proper number of oyſters in their bag, they begin to open them, and deliver the pearls to the officer, till they have completed the number required; and if the pearl be but formed, it is ſufficient, without any regard to its being ſmall; and the remainder, however large or beautiful, are the negro's own property, the maſter not having the leaſt claim to them, the ſlaves being allowed to ſell them to whom they pleaſe, though they are generally purchaſed at a very ſmall price by the maſter. The negroes cannot however every day make up their number, and therefore are obliged to ſupply the deficiency.

Beſides the fatigue of this fiſhery, from the oyſters ſtrongly adhering to the rocks, they are in no ſmall danger from ſeveral kinds of fiſh, which either ſeize on them, or cruſh them by their weight againſt the bottom. The fiſhery on the whole coaſt is obnoxious to the ſame dangers; but theſe fiſh are much more frequent where ſuch riches abound. The tintoreras, and taburones, which are of an enormous ſize, feed on the bodies of theſe unfortunate fiſhermen; and the mantas or quilts preſs them to death. It wraps its fins round a man or any other animal that comes within its reach, and immediately deprives it of life by this preſſure. This fiſh, though of a prodigious ſize, in ſhape reſembles a thornback.

Every negro carries with him a ſharp knife to defend himſelf againſt theſe fiſhes, and if one of them offers to aſſault him, he attempts to ſtrike it, on which the fiſh inſtantly retires. The officers keep a watchful eye on theſe voracious animals, and on diſcovering them, ſhake the rope faſtened to the negroe's body to put him on his guard; and many upon ſeeing the diver in danger, have thrown themſelves into the water, and dived down to his aſſiſtance: but too often all their dexterity and precaution are incapable of preventing the diver being devoured, or his loſing a leg or an arm; and though ſeveral ſchemes have been tried to prevent theſe melancholy accidents, they have hitherto failed of ſucceſs.

The pearls of theſe fiſheries are generally of a good water, and ſome remarkable for their ſhape and ſize. A few of them are ſent to Europe, but the greateſt part are carried to Lima, where the demand for them is very great, they being not only univerſally worn there by perſons of rank, but from thence they are ſent into the inland parts of Peru.

Before we take leave of the Iſthmus, we ought not to omit obſerving, that near the north-weſt point of the gulph of Darien, a ſettlement was attempted by the Scots in 1699, who built a fortreſs, which they named New Edinburgh, and denominated the ſurrounding country New Caledonia. Several Engliſh and Hamburgh merchants engaged deeply in the adventure, and they were not only aſſiſted by an act of the Scots parliament, but by letters patent from king William III. The territory of which the adventurers took poſſeſſion, was governed by eight Indian chiefs, then at war with the Spaniards, who joyfully received the Scots, in hopes of being able, by their aſſiſtance, to expel their enemies.

For ſome time the new colony flouriſhed extremely, but their good fortune ſoon raiſed the jealouſy of the Engliſh Eaſt India company, and the complaints of the court of Madrid. The former repreſented this as an infringement of their charter, and the latter as a violation of the treaty ſubſiſting between Spain and Great Britain. Unhappily the Engliſh parliament interpoſed, and addreſſed his majeſty to vacate the charter granted to the Scots company. But though the Scots defended their rights with all the arguments of reaſon and juſtice, the influence of their adverſaries was too powerful, and all meaſures were taken to ruin the infant ſettlement. The Hamburghers were prevailed on to withdraw their ſubſcriptions; the merchants of London were even threatened with the miniſterial diſpleaſure; and orders were ſent to the Engliſh plantations to deny the coloniſts proviſions and aſſiſtance. In ſhort, ſuch was the power of faction and private intereſt, that the nation was robbed of the benefit of one of the moſt uſeful eſtabliſhments ever projected, the advantages of which muſt have fully appeared whenever a rupture happened between England and Spain; for while the iſthmus continued in the poſſeſſion of the colony, the Spaniſh treaſures muſt either have been detained in America, or have fallen into the hands of the Engliſh.

SECT. II.

Of CARTHAGENA.

The Situation, Extent, Face of the Country, Vegetables, and Animals of that Government: its Climate, and the Diſeaſes of the Inhabitants: a particular Deſcription of the City of Carthagena, its Trade, and Revenues; with the Manners and Cuſtoms of the Inhabitants.

THE government of Carthagena has the river of Santa Martha on the eaſt, which parts it from the province of that name; it has Popayan on the ſouth; the river and gulph of Darien on the weſt; and the North ſea on the north-weſt and north.

The country conſiſts of hills and valleys, covered with thick foreſts and groves. It is impoſſible to view without admiration the rich and perpetual verdure of the woods and plants it naturally produces: but of theſe advantages the natives make little uſe, their innate ſloth and indolence not allowing them to cultivate the gifts of nature, which here ſeem to be dealt out to them with a laviſh hand.

Though Carthagena has not the convenience of being furniſhed by its ſoil with the different kinds of European vegetables, it is in no want of others that are far from being contemptible, and of which the inhabitants eat with pleaſure: and though the Europeans at firſt ſeem to diſlike their ordinary food, they ſoon become ſo well accuſtomed to it, as to forget that of their own country. Thus, though the conſtant moiſture and heat of this climate will not admit of the cultivation of wheat, barley, and other European grain, it produces excellent maize and rice in ſuch abundance, that a buſhel of maize uſually produces an hundred. From this grain they make the bollo, or bread uſed in this country; and alſo uſe it in feeding hogs and fattening poultry. The method of making it is to ſoak the maize, and afterwards bruiſe it between two ſtones; it is then put into large bins filled with water, where, by rubbing and ſhifting it from one veſſel to another, they clear it from its huſk, and afterwards grind it into a paſte, and wrapping it up in plantain leaves boil it in water, and uſe it as bread; but in twenty-four hours time it becomes tough, and has a diſagreeable taſte. In families of diſtinction the bollo is kneaded with milk, which greatly improves it. They alſo make of the flour of maize ſeveral kinds of paſtry, and a variety of foods equally palatable and wholeſome. They have likewiſe caſſava bread, which is common among the negroes.

Wheat bread is not uncommon at the city of Carthagena; but as the flour comes from Spain, it is too dear for the common people, and is only uſed by the Europeans ſettled at Carthagena and a few Creoles, and by theſe

theſe only with their chocolate and conſerves. At all other meals they by cuſtom prefer bollo to wheat bread.

In this country the interwoven branches of the trees form a ſhelter impenetrable both to heat and light. The trees are not only large and lofty, but of an admirable variety, and entirely different from thoſe of Europe. The principal of theſe for dimenſions, are the acajou, the cedar, the maria, and the balſam tree. Of the firſt are made the veſſels uſed for fiſhing, and for the coaſt and river trade within the juriſdiction of this government; and the wood is compact, fragrant, and beautiful. The cedar is of two kinds, white and reddiſh; but the laſt is moſt eſteemed. The maria and the balſam tree, beſides the uſefulneſs of their timber, diſtil thoſe admirable balſams called maria oil, and balſam of Tolu, ſo called from a village, in the neighbourhood of which it is found in the greateſt plenty, and of a peculiar excellence.

Beſides theſe trees here are alſo the tamarind, the medlar, the ſapote, the papah, the caſſia, the palm, and the manchineel. The palm trees, riſing with their tufted heads above the branches of the others, form a grand perſpective on the mountains: theſe are of ſeveral kinds, and palm wine is extracted from them all, by boring a hole in the trunk, in which is placed a tap, with a veſſel under it, to receive the liquor. Guaiacum and ebony trees are equally common, and their hardneſs nearly approaches to that of iron.

Here are alſo many cotton trees, ſome planted and cultivated, and theſe are the beſt; others ſpontaneouſly produced. The cotton of both is ſpun and made into ſeveral ſorts of ſtuffs, which are worn by the negroes and the country Indians.

The cacao tree alſo grows in great plenty on the banks of the river Magdelena, and in other ſituations, which the tree delights in; but thoſe in the juriſdiction of Carthagena greatly excel what are to be found in other parts, both in the ſize and the goodneſs of the fruit. The chocolate made of it is little known in Spain; for as it is more eſteemed than that of other countries, the greateſt part of it is conſumed there, or ſent to other parts of America.

There are here a vaſt number of delicious fruits that evidently diſplay the exuberance of the ſoil, ſome reſembling thoſe of Spain, and others peculiar to the country. Thoſe of the ſame kind with the Spaniſh fruits are melons, water-melons, grapes, oranges, medlars, and dates. The grapes are not equal to thoſe of Spain; but the medlars as far exceed them. With regard to the reſt there is little difference.

Among thoſe peculiar to the country, the preference doubtleſs belongs to the pine-apple; hence its beauty, ſmell, and taſte have acquired it the denomination of queen of fruits. Many of the others have been mentioned already, and here are alſo plantations of ſugar-canes.

We ſhall now proceed to the animals, ſome of which are tame, and contribute to the uſe and pleaſure of the inhabitants; others are wild, and of ſuch different kinds and qualities, as diſplay in a ſurpriſing manner the wonderful variety of the works formed by the Author of nature. The quadrupeds and reptiles frequent the dry and deſart places, and are diſtinguiſhed by the prodigious variety of ſpots upon their ſkins; while the vivid plumage of the feathered race glows with exquiſite beauty, and the brilliant ſcales of one claſs of reptiles conceal the moſt active poiſons. The only tame animals are horned cattle and hogs, of which there are the greateſt plenty. Though the beef is not abſolutely bad, it cannot be ſaid to be palatable; for the conſtant heat of the climate renders the beaf lean, and deprives it of that ſucculency it would otherwiſe acquire; but the pork is delicate, and exceeds any in Europe. There are here wild boars, deer, rabbits, and tygers; the laſt make great havock not only among the cattle, but among the human ſpecies: their ſkin is very beautiful, and ſome are as large as ſmall horſes.

Here are alſo leopards, foxes, armadillos, ſquirrels, and many others, beſides innumerable kinds of monkeys, ſome remarkable for their ſize, and others for their colour. The fox's artifice in defending itſelf againſt dogs, or other animals, by whom it is purſued, by voiding its urine on its own tail, and ſprinkling it on them, here effectually anſwers its intention, the ſmell being ſo fetid, that the dogs are greatly diſordered by it, by which means the fox eſcapes. Indeed the ſtench is ſo great, that it may be ſmelt a quarter of a league from the place, and very often for half an hour after. What is here called the fox is little bigger than a large cat, but delicately ſhaped, and has a very fine ſkin of a cinnamon colour; the tail is not very buſhy, but the hair is ſpongy, and forms a bunch proper for this method of defence.

The birds ſeen in this hot climate are ſo very numerous, that it is impoſſible to give a full idea of the beauty and brilliancy of their various plumage; but the cries and croakings of ſome diſturb the pleaſure that would ariſe from the warblings of others. Here we ſee an inſtance of the equity obſerved by nature in diſtributing her favours, the plumage of thoſe birds being the moſt beautiful whoſe noiſe is the moſt offenſive; while on the other hand, thoſe whoſe appearance has nothing remarkable, excel in the ſweetneſs of their notes. This is particularly evident in the guacamayo, the beauty and luſtre of whoſe colours are abſolutely inimitable by painting, and yet nothing can make a more ſhrill and diſagreeable ſound.

The moſt extraordinary of all the birds ſeems to be the tulcan, or preacher. It is about the ſize of a common pigeon, but its legs much larger; its tail is ſhort, and its plumage of a dark colour; but ſpotted with yellow, purple, blue, and other colours, that have a beautiful effect on the dark ground. Its head greatly exceeds all proportion with reſpect to its body; but it would not otherwiſe be able to ſupport its bill, which is at leaſt ſix or eight inches from the root to the point: the lower mandible cloſes with the upper through the whole length, and both diminiſh inſenſibly to the end, when it ſuddenly bends, and terminates in a ſtrong ſharp point. The tongue is formed like a feather, and, as well as the inſide of its mouth, is of a deep red. The bill is variegated with all the bright colours that adorn the plumage of other birds: at the baſe, and alſo at the convexity, it is generally of a light yellow, forming a kind of ribbon, half an inch in breadth. The reſt is of a fine deep purple, except two ſtreaks near the root of a rich ſcarlet. The name of preacher has been given to this bird from its cuſtom of perching on the top of a tree above his companions while they are aſleep, and making a noiſe like ill-articulated ſounds, moving its head to the right and left, in order to keep off the birds of prey from ſeizing on the others. They are eaſily rendered ſo tame as to run about the houſe, and come when called. Their uſual food is fruit; but the tame eat other things, and in general whatever is given them.

Another extraordinary bird is the gallinazo, which is about the ſize of a pea-hen; but the head and neck ſomewhat larger. From the crop to the baſe of the bill, inſtead of feathers, it has a wrinkled glandulous rough ſkin, covered with ſmall warts and tubercles. Its feathers are black, which is alſo the colour of the ſkin; its bill is well proportioned, ſtrong, and a little crooked. Theſe birds are ſo numerous and tame in the city of Carthagena, that it is not uncommon to ſee the ridges of the houſes covered with them. They are alſo of great ſervice on account of their cleaning the city from all kinds of filth, greedily devouring any dead animal, and any thing moſt offenſive. They have ſo quick a ſcent, that they will ſmell a dead body at the diſtance of ten or twelve miles, and never quit it till they have entirely reduced it to a ſkeleton. The multiplicity of theſe birds found in ſuch hot climates is of the utmoſt conſequence, as otherwiſe the putrefaction cauſed by the exceſſive heat would render the air inſupportable to human life. At their firſt riſing they fly heavily, but ſoon after dart out of ſight. Though their legs are ſtrong and well proportioned, they hop along on the ground in a very aukward manner. They have the toes forward turning inwards, and one in the inſide turned a little backwards; ſo that the feet interfering occaſions their hopping and walking in the above manner. Each toe has long and thick claws.

There is another ſpecies of theſe birds, ſomewhat larger than the former, but only to be found in the country. In ſome of theſe the head and part of the neck are red, in ſome white, and in others a mixture of both theſe colours.

lours. At a ſmall diſtance from the crop they have a ruff of white feathers; and are equally fierce and carnivorous with the former: theſe are called the kings of the gallinazos; probably becauſe the number of them is but ſmall; and it is obſerved, that when one of theſe birds has faſtened on a dead beaſt, none of the others approach, till he has firſt eaten the eyes, which is generally the part he begins with firſt, and is gone to another place, when they all flock to the prey.

Batts are very common all over this government; but Carthagena is infeſted with ſuch an infinite number of them, that after ſun-ſet, when they begin to fly, they may, without exaggeration, be ſaid to cover the ſtreets like clouds. They are the moſt dexterous bleeders both of men and cattle; for the inhabitants being obliged, by the exceſſive heats, to leave the windows of their chambers open, the batts get in, and if they find a perſon aſleep with the foot bare, they inſinuate their tooth into a vein, with all the art of a moſt expert ſurgeon, ſucking the blood till they are ſatiated, after which it flows out of the orifice to the great danger of the perſon's life. The reaſon why the puncture is not felt, is attributed to the gentle and refreſhing agitation of the air by the batt's wings, throwing the perſon into a deeper ſleep, and thus preventing his feeling the ſlight puncture. This alſo happens to horſes, mules, and aſſes; but beaſts of a thicker ſkin are not ſo much expoſed to it. This account, which is extracted from the learned Don Antonio de Ulloa, is confirmed by M. Condamine, who obſerves, that there are ſome of a monſtrous ſize; and that they have entirely deſtroyed at Borja, and other places, all the black cattle which the miſſionaries had introduced there.

The great number of reptiles and inſects is not only an inconvenience to the inhabitants, but they are even very dangerous. The moſt common of the ſnakes, and at the ſame time the moſt poiſonous, are the coral-ſnakes, the rattle-ſnakes, and the willow-ſnakes. The firſt, which are generally between four and five feet in length, and an inch in diameter, make a very beautiful appearance, their ſkin being variegated with a vivid crimſon, green, and yellow. The head is long and flat, like a viper. Each mandible is furniſhed with a row of pointed teeth, through which, during the bite, they inſinuate the poiſon. The perſon bit ſwells to ſuch a degree, that the blood guſhes out through all the organs of ſenſe, and even the coats of the veins at the extremities of the fingers burſt.

The willow-ſnake reſembles in colour and form a ſtick of that tree, and as they frequently hang from the boughs, really ſeem to be a part of it, till a too near approach unhappily diſcovers the miſtake. Though their poiſon is leſs active than that of the others, it is mortal, unleſs a remedy be ſpeedily applied.

Scolopendra not only ſwarm in this country, but are of a monſtrous ſize, and are the more dangerous from their breeding in the houſes: they are generally a yard in length, and ſome a yard and a quarter, with about five inches in breadth. The back and ſides are covered with hard ſcales of a muſk colour tinged with red; but ſo articulated as not in the leaſt to impede their motion, and yet ſo ſtrong as to defend them againſt any blow; ſo that you can only kill them by ſtriking them on the head. They are very nimble, and their bite, without timely application, proves mortal.

Scorpions are not leſs common, and of different kinds, as black, red, muſk colour, and ſome yellow.

The ſoldier-ſnail, of which we have already given a deſcription, is here alſo dangerous, for the gripe which it gives with its two claws is attended with the ſame ſymptoms as the ſting of a ſcorpion.

There are here an infinite number of butterflies, which, though they differ in their figure, colours, and decorations, it is difficult to determine which are the moſt beautiful. But whatever pleaſure there be in ſeeing of theſe, it is far from equalling the pain which ariſes from the numberleſs muſkettoes, of which there are large clouds of four different ſorts, all of them extremely troubleſome.

The climate of Carthagena is exceſſive hot. From the month of May to the end of November is the ſeaſon they call winter, there being a continual ſucceſſion of thunder and tempeſts, the clouds precipitating the rain with ſuch impetuoſity, that the ſtreets of the capital have the appearance of rivers, and the country of an ocean. The inhabitants make uſe of this opportunity of filling their ciſterns, this being the only ſweet water they can procure. From the middle of December to the end of April the rains ceaſe, and the weather becomes agreeable, the heat being ſomething abated by the north-eaſt winds. This ſeaſon they call ſummer; beſides which there is another called the little ſummer of St. John, as about the feſtival of that ſaint the rains are intermitted, and refreſhing gales begin to blow, and continue about a month.

The almoſt invariable continuance of the great heats, without any ſenſible difference between night and day, occaſions ſuch profuſe perſpiration, that the wan and livid complexion of the inhabitants would make a ſtranger ſuſpect their being juſt recovered from ſome terrible diſtemper. In all their motions there is ſomething relax and ſluggiſh; it even affects their ſpeech, which is ſoft and ſlow, and their words generally broken: yet, notwithſtanding theſe appearances of ſickneſs and debility, they enjoy a good ſtate of health. Strangers from Europe generally retain their ſtrength and ruddy complexion about three or four months; but afterwards they are no longer to be diſtinguiſhed by their countenances from the old inhabitants.

The ſingularity of the climate is probably the cauſe of the ſingularity of ſeveral diſeaſes which here afflict mankind: ſome of theſe attack only the Europeans newly landed, and others are common to the inhabitants. The firſt kind carry off a multitude of people, and extremely thin the crews of European ſhips, but ſeldom laſts above three or four days. They are cauſed in ſome perſons by cold, and in others by indigeſtion, which ſoon bring on the black vomit, which very few recover. Some, when the vomit attacks them, are ſeized with ſuch a delirium, that, were they not tied down, they would tear themſelves to pieces, and expire in the midſt of the moſt terrible phrenſy.

The inhabitants throughout the whole extent of the government of Carthagena are very ſubject to the leproſy; and, in order to put a ſtop to the contagion of this diſtemper, there is without the capital an hoſpital called San Lazaro, in which all perſons of both ſexes labouring under this diſtemper are confined, without any diſtinction of age or rank; and if any refuſe to go, they are forcibly carried thither. But from thence the diſtemper is ſuffered to ſpread; for their allowance being too ſmall for their ſubſiſtance, thoſe who have no other ſupport are permitted to beg in the city, and from their intercourſe with thoſe in health, the number of lepers never decreaſes. The hoſpital reſembles a little town. Every perſon at his entering it, where he is to continue during life, builds a cottage, in which he lives in the ſame manner as before in his own houſe, none going out unleſs to aſk alms. The ground on which the hoſpital ſtands is encompaſſed by a wall, and has only one gate, which is always carefully guarded. They live a long time under this diſtemper, and as it greatly increaſes the natural deſire of coition, to avoid the diſorders that would reſult from this, which is almoſt impoſſible to be controuled, they are allowed to marry.

The itch and herpes are equally frequent among ſuch Europeans as are not ſeaſoned to the climate; and if neglected in the beginning, it is dangerous to attempt a cure.

A more ſingular and remarkable diſtemper, though leſs common, is the culebrilla, or little ſnake, which is perhaps a tumor cauſed by malignant humours ſettled longitudinally between the membrane of the ſkin, and daily increaſing in length, till it ſurrounds the part affected, which is uſually the arm, thigh, or leg. The external indications of it are a round inflamed tumor, a quarter of an inch thick, attended with pain, but not vehement, and a numbneſs of the part, which often ends in a mortification. The natives, who firmly believe it to be a ſmall ſnake, are very ſkilful in removing it. They firſt examine where the head is, as they call it, to which they apply

apply a ſmall ſuppurative plaſter, and gently foment the whole tumor with oil. The next day the ſkin under the plaſter is found divided, and through the orifice appears a kind of white fibre, about the ſize of coarſe ſewing thread, which they carefully faſten to a thread of ſilk, and wind the other end of it about a card, rolled up like a cylinder. After this they repeat the fomentation with oil, and the following day continue to wind about the cylindric card the part of this ſmall fibre that appears in ſight, and in this manner proceed till the whole is extracted, and the patient entirely cured. During this operation their chief care is not to break the culebrilla, becauſe, ſay they, it would then cauſe a humour to ſpread through the body, and produce a great quantity of ſuch little ſnakes, as they will have them to be, whence the cure would become extremely difficult.

The city of Carthagena is ſituated in the tenth degree twenty-five minutes forty-eight ſeconds north latitude, and in the ſeventy-ſeventh degree twelve minutes weſt longitude, three hundred and twenty miles ſouth of Port Royal in Jamaica, on a ſandy plain, which forms a narrow paſſage on the ſouth-weſt to a part called Tierra Bomba, as far as Bocca Chica. The fortifications both of the city and ſuburbs are conſtructed in the modern manner, and lined with free-ſtone. The garriſon, in time of peace, conſiſts of ten companies of regulars, each containing ſeventy-ſeven men, including the officers, beſides ſeveral companies of militia. The city and ſuburbs are well laid out, the ſtreets being ſtraight, broad, uniform, and well paved. The houſes are built of ſtone, except a few of brick, but chiefly conſiſt of only one ſtory above the ground-floor; however, the apartments are well contrived. All the houſes have balconies and lattices of wood, it being more durable in this climate than iron, which is ſoon corroded and deſtroyed by the moiſture and acrimonious quality of the nitrous air, from whence, and the ſmoaky colour of the walls, the outſide of the buildings make but an indifferent appearance. There are here a cathedral, a church dedicated to the Trinity, and a chapel of eaſe. The orders that have convents are thoſe of St. Francis in the ſuburbs, St. Auguſtine, St. Dominic, La Merced, that of the Jacobines, and the Recollects, a college of Jeſuits, and an hoſpital of San Juan de Dios. The nunneries are thoſe of St. Clara and St. Tereſa. The churches and convents are ſufficiently capacious, but not much ornamented in the inſide.

Carthagena, together with its ſuburbs, is equal to a city of the third rank in Europe. It is well peopled; but moſt of the inhabitants are deſcended from the Indians. The governor reſides in the city; it has alſo a biſhop, whoſe ſpiritual juriſdiction is of the ſame extent as that of the military and civil government: there is alſo a court of inquiſition. Beſides theſe tribunals, there is a ſecular magiſtracy, conſiſting of regidores, from whom every year are choſen two alcaldes, who are generally perſons of great diſtinction; and likewiſe a treaſury, in which all the taxes and money belonging to the king are received.

The bay is one of the beſt not only on the coaſt, but in all the known parts of the country. It extends two leagues and a half from north to ſouth, has a ſufficient depth of water, with good anchorage, and is ſo ſmooth that the ſhips are no more agitated than on a river. However, the many ſhallows at its entrance make the aſſiſtance of a good pilot neceſſary. The tides in this bay are very irregular, which is the caſe with almoſt the whole coaſt: it being often ſeen to flow a whole day, and afterwards ebb away in four or five hours; yet the greateſt alteration obſerved in its depth is two feet, or two feet and a half. The bay abounds with a great variety of wholeſome palatable fiſh, and a multitude of large turtle; but it is greatly infeſted with ſharks, which are extremely dangerous to ſeamen, as they immediately ſeize every perſon they diſcover in the water, and ſometimes even venture to attack them in their boats.

In this bay the galleons from Spain wait for the arrival of the Peru fleet at Panama, and on the firſt advice of this ſail away to Porto Bello. It is the firſt place in America at which the galleons are allowed to touch, and thus it enjoys the firſt-fruits of commerce by the public ſales made there. The ſales, though not attended with the ſame formalities as thoſe of Porto Bello, are very conſiderable: for the traders of the inland provinces of Quito, Popayan, and Santa Fe, lay out great ſums for ſeveral ſorts of goods, and thoſe ſpecies of proviſions that are moſt wanted in their reſpective countries. The traders bring gold and ſilver in ſpecie, ingots, and duſt; as alſo emeralds; for beſides the ſilver mines worked at Santa Fe, which are very numerous, there are others which yield the fineſt emeralds. The fair of Carthagena occaſions a great quantity of ſhops to be opened, and filled with all kinds of merchandize. This is a time of univerſal profit; to ſome by letting lodgings and ſhops; to others by the increaſe of their reſpective trades; and to others by the labour of their negro ſlaves, whoſe pay during this buſy time is proportionably increaſed; and it is not uncommon for ſlaves, out of their ſavings, after paying their maſters, and providing themſelves with neceſſaries, to purchaſe their freedom. This commercial tumult laſts only while the galleons continue in the bay; for they are no ſooner gone than ſilence and tranquility reſume their former place; for, with regard to the trade carried on with the other governments, it is not very conſiderable.

The inhabitants of this city may be divided into different tribes, who derive their origin from a coalition of whites, negroes, and Indians. The Europeans are not numerous; moſt of them, after acquiring a competent fortune, either return to Spain, or remove into the inland provinces, in order to increaſe it. The Europeans and Creoles ſettled at Carthagena carry on the whole trade of the place, while the other inhabitants are indigent, and reduced to have recourſe to hard labour for their ſubſiſtence. The dreſs of the whites, both men and women, differs but little from that worn in Spain; for perſons in high poſts have habits of the ſame form as in Europe, but with this difference, that they are all very light, the waiſtcoats and breeches being of fine linen, and the coat of ſome other thin ſtuff. Neckcloths are very uncommon, the neck of the ſhirt being adorned with large gold buttons, which generally hang looſe. On their heads they generally wear a cap of fine linen, and others go entirely bare-headed. Fans are worn by the men: theſe are made of a kind of palm, in the form of a creſcent, with a ſtick of the ſame wood in the middle.

The Spaniſh women wear a kind of petticoat made of thin ſilk, without any lining, and on their body a very thin white waiſtcoat; but even this is only worn in what they call winter, it being inſupportable in ſummer. They, however, always conceal their breaſts. When they go abroad they wear a mantelet, and on the days of precept go to the maſs at three in the morning, and return before the violent heat of the day, which begins with the dawn.

Thoſe women who are not perfectly of the white claſs wear over the above petticoat one of taffety, of any colour they pleaſe, except black; this is pinked all over, to ſhew the other they wear under it. On the head is a cap of fine white linen covered with lace, in the ſhape of a mitre, well ſtarched, and terminating forwards in a point. They never appear abroad without this and a mantelet on their ſhoulders. The ladies and other native whites uſe this as their undreſs: inſtead of ſhoes they wear, both within and without doors, a ſmall kind of ſlippers. In the houſe their whole exerciſe conſiſts in ſitting in their hammocks, and ſwinging themſelves for air. In theſe they paſs the greateſt part of the day, and men as well as women often ſleep in them, without regarding the inconvenience of being unable to lie at full length.

Both ſexes poſſeſs a great deal of wit and penetration, with a genius proper to excel in all kinds of mechanic arts. This is particularly conſpicuous in thoſe who apply themſelves to literature, who at a tender age ſhew a judgment which in other climates is attained only by a long ſeries of years. This happy diſpoſition continues till they are between twenty and thirty years old, after which they generally decline as faſt as they roſe; and frequently before they arrive at that age, when they ſhould begin to reap the advantage of their ſtudies, indolence checks their progreſs, and they forſake the ſciences, leaving the ſurpriſing effects of their capacity imperfect. This is doubtleſs owing to the want of proper objects for

exerciſing their talents, and the ſmall hopes of being preferred to any poſt anſwerable to the pains they have taken. However, there are often ſeen here perſons of extenſive talents, both in the ſpeculative and practical ſciences, who retain them in all their vigour to a very advanced age.

Charity is a virtue, in which the inhabitants of Carthagena remarkably excel; and did they not exert it in the moſt generous manner towards the Europeans who come thither to ſeek their fortune, they would often periſh with ſickneſs and poverty.

The houſes of perſons of wealth and diſtinction are ſerved with great delicacies; moſt of the diſhes are dreſſed in the manner of the country, and ſome of them are ſo agreeable, that foreigners are no leſs pleaſed with them than the natives. One of their favourite diſhes is the agiaco, there being ſcarcely a genteel family without it. This is compoſed of pork fried, birds of ſeveral kinds, plantains, maize, paſte, and ſeveral other things highly ſeaſoned with pimento.

The inhabitants of any figure generally make two meals a day, beſides a ſlight repaſt. Their breakfaſt is uſually compoſed of ſome fried diſh, paſtry of maize-flour, followed by chocolate. Their dinner conſiſts of a much greater variety; but at night they have only a ſlight regale of ſome ſweetmeats and chocolate. Some families indeed affect the European cuſtom of having regular ſuppers, though they are generally looked upon at Carthagena as detrimental to health.

The uſe of brandy is ſo common, that the moſt ſober people never omit drinking a glaſs of it at about eleven o'clock in the morning, alleging that it ſtrengthens the ſtomach, weakened by the conſtant perſpiration, and creates an appetite. Chocolate is ſo common that there is not a negro ſlave but conſtantly allows himſelf a regale of it after breakfaſt, and the negro women ſell it ready made about the ſtreets at the rate of a quarter of a real, or about five farthings a diſh. This, however, is mixed with maize flour; but that uſed by people in good circumſtances is neat and worked as in Spain. This they alſo conſtantly drink an hour after dinner, but never without eating ſomething with it. They alſo make great uſe of ſweetmeats and honey, never drinking a glaſs of water without previouſly eating ſome ſweetmeats.

The paſſion for ſmoaking is no leſs univerſal: the ladies and other white women ſmoke only in their houſes; but the women of the other caſts, and the men in general, regard neither time nor place. This cuſtom the ladies learn from their childhood, probably from their nurſes, who are negro ſlaves; and it is ſo common among perſons of rank, that thoſe who come from Europe learn it, if they intend to make any conſiderable ſtay in the country.

The natives are fond of balls, which in houſes of diſtinction are conducted in a very regular manner. They open with Spaniſh dances, and are ſucceeded by thoſe of the country, which are not without ſpirit and gracefulneſs. Theſe are accompanied with ſinging, and the parties ſeldom break up before day-light: but the balls of the populace are intermixed with indecent geſtures, and a continual round of drinking, which frequently produces quarrels.

Their burials and mournings are alſo ſomething ſingular, and in theſe they endeavour to diſplay their grandeur. If the deceaſed be a perſon of rank, his body is placed on a pompous catafalco erected in the principal apartment of the houſe, amidſt the blaze of tapers. The corpſe lies there twenty-four hours, or longer, during which it is viſited by the acquaintance of the family, and the lower claſs of women, who come to lament the deceaſed. Theſe women, who are generally dreſſed in black, come in the evening, or during the night, into the apartment where the corpſe lies, and throwing themſelves on their knees, riſe and extend their arms to embrace it; then in a doleful tone, mixed with horrid cries, they begin their lamentations, which always conclude with the name of the deceaſed. Afterwards they begin in the ſame diſagreeable tone his hiſtory, rehearſing all his good and bad qualities, not even omitting his amours, till at length, quite ſpent, they withdraw to a corner of the apartment ſtored with wine and brandy, on which they never fail plentifully to regale themſelves. No ſooner are theſe departed from the body, than others ſucceed, till the women have taken their turn. The ſame is afterwards repeated by the ſervants, ſlaves, and acquaintance of the family, which continues without intermiſſion during the remainder of the night. The funeral is alſo accompanied with the like noiſy lamentations, and even after the corpſe is depoſited in the grave the mourning is continued in the houſe for nine days; during which time the mourners never ſtir from the apartment, where they receive the compliments of condolance, and in the night are attended by their relations and intimate friends.

Before we conclude this article, it will be proper to give a conciſe account of the hoſtilities this city has ſuffered from foreigners, by whom it has been frequently attacked, taken, and plundered. The firſt invaſion was made in 1544, ſoon after its eſtabliſhment by certain French invaders, conducted by a Corſican pilot. In 1585 it was taken and almoſt deſtroyed by Sir Francis Drake, the ſcourge of the new Spaniſh ſettlements. M. de Pointis came before it in 1597 with a ſquadron of privateers, under the protection of the French king; and, after obliging the fort of Bocca Chica to ſurrender, whereby the entrance of the bay was laid open, he landed his men, and beſieged Fort Lazaro, the taking of which was followed by the ſurrender of the city; but the capitulation was no ſecurity againſt the rage of avarice, which had conſigned it to pillage. This conqueſt has been attributed to a private correſpondence between the governor and Pointis; and what increaſes the ſuſpicion is, that he embarked on board the French ſquadron, at his departure, taking with him all his treaſures and effects, none of which had ſuffered by the general calamity. In 1741 it ſuſtained a long ſiege from the Engliſh under admiral Vernon; but they were obliged to retire after they had made themſelves maſters of moſt of the forts and harbours, which was principally owing, beſides the ſtrength of the place, to the great mortality among the troops, and the differences that aroſe between the admiral and general.

SECT. III.

A conciſe Account of the Government of Santa Martha, Rio de la Hacha, Venezuela, New Andaluſia, and New Granada; their Situation, Extent, Climates, Produce, and principal Towns.

THE government of Santa Martha is bounded on the eaſt by Rio de la Hacha, on the ſouth by New Granada, on the weſt by Carthagena, and on the north by the North ſea; extending about a hundred and forty miles from eaſt to weſt, and about two hundred from north to ſouth.

The country is extremely mountainous, and ſome of theſe mountains, eſpecially that called Santa Martha, is ſaid to be higher than the pike of Teneriffe. From hence reſult conſiderable advantages to the inhabitants, the air being cooler and more wholeſome than in ſome other parts of America near the equator. The air, however, is extremely ſultry by the ſea-coaſt; yet the mountains in the interior country are covered with ſnow, and the cold ſo intenſe, that while the people in one place are ſcorched with the ſun-beams, others at ſixty miles diſtance are ſhivering with the rigours of the ſeaſon. It rains very much in the months of September and October in that part of the country which lies towards the ſea-coaſt; but there is little rain in the other months, becauſe the eaſt and north winds which blow there diſperſe and drive away the clouds. The valleys of this country are exceeding fruitful, and produce oranges, lemons, pine-apples, grapes, and many other fruits. The country abounds in rich gold mines, and in the mountains are found ſapphires, emeralds, jaſper, and marble moſt beautifully veined. At a league and a half's diſtance from the city of Santa Martha are ſalt-ponds, where they get very good ſalt, which is exported into the neighbouring provinces.

The city of Santa Martha, which gives name to the province, is ſituated on a branch of the Rio Grande near

the mountains of Santa Martha, in the eleventh degree thirty-four minutes north latitude. Formerly the city was flouriſhing and populous; but is much decayed ſince the Spaniſh fleets no longer touch there. The inhabitants amount to about three thouſand ſouls, including all degrees: it is honoured with the reſidence of the governor of the province, and is the ſee of a biſhop, ſuffragan to the metropolitan of New Granada. The houſes are built with canes, and covered with palmeto leaves; and ſome with pantiles. This town has frequently ſuffered by hoſtile fleets; for in 1525 it was entirely ruined by Sir Francis Drake, and the next year was plundered by Sir Anthony Shirley; in 1630 it was taken by the Dutch, and was afterwards frequently pillaged by the Buccaneers.

On the eaſt ſide of the Rio Grande, about twenty miles from the capital, is ſeated the town of Baranca del Malambo, a place of conſequence on account of the briſk trade carried on by the inhabitants. The merchandize of New Granada is brought down hither in boats, and conveyed to the bay about forty miles below the town, or elſe directly to Santa Martha by a branch of the Rio Grande.

On the ſouthern frontier of Santa Martha is ſeated the little province of Rio de la Hacha, in the form of a peninſula, between the gulph of Venezuela on the eaſt and a bay of the North ſea to the weſtward. The country is pleaſant, tolerably healthy, and exceeding fertile. The rains are not ſo violent as in Santa Martha, though there are frequent tornadoes and thunder ſhowers. In the middle of the province are ſome mines of jaſper and chalcedony, and on the coaſt a very rich pearl-fiſhery, in which the Indians are chiefly employed, and, notwithſtanding the vigilance of the Spaniards, reap the chief profits. The inhabitants of the open country ſtill enjoy the bleſſing of liberty, and form a numerous, reſolute, and brave nation.

Rio de la Hacha, the capital, which gives name to the province, and takes its own from the river, at the mouth of which it is ſituated, was formerly called Nueſtra Senora de los Remedios, and ſtands in the eleventh degree ſix minutes north latitude, about a hundred and twenty miles from the city of Santa Martha, and contains only about a hundred houſes. The town was formerly rich, but it was ſo often taken by the Buccaneers, that in 1682 the Spaniards abandoned it, but were afterwards induced to return, and defend it by building ſtrong fortifications.

Venezuela, the next province, is bounded on the eaſt by New Andaluſia, on the ſouth by New Granada, on the weſt by Rio de la Hacha, and on the north by the North ſea, and includes the diſtrict of Caraccas; extending, according to ſome authors, four hundred miles along the coaſt of the North ſea, and near three hundred into the interior country. The climate is moderately temperate, and the ſoil ſo rich and fertile as to produce two harveſts every year, and to feed great herds of black cattle and flocks of ſheep. The famous lake of Maracaibo, which is eighty leagues in compaſs, adds equally to the beauty and convenience of the province; but though the water of the lake and the rivulets which flow from it are drank, yet they are brackiſh and unwholeſome, and the natives are in great want of freſh water. The inhabitants of this province are ſaid to exceed a hundred thouſand, including Spaniards, mulattoes, and negroes.

Venezuela, or Cora, the capital of the province, is ſeated on the north-eaſt part of the peninſula, on the banks of the North ſea, and lies in about the tenth degree forty minutes north latitude. It is the reſidence of the governor, the ſeat of the courts of juſtice, and the ſee of a biſhop; but is neither remarkable for its commerce, its opulence, or buildings: its ſituation alone in the midſt of the waters engages attention, and from hence it is that it has been called Venezuela, or Little Venice.

The town of Maracaibo, though inferior in dignity to the former, is more elegant, pleaſant, and wealthy. It fronts the lake of the ſame name, and has a great number of ſplendid buildings, adorned with balconies that command a proſpect of the lake at a great diſtance. The inhabitants are reckoned to exceed four thouſand, eight hundred of whom are ſaid to be capable of bearing arms. Here is a governor dependent on the governor of the province, and it contains a large pariſh-church, four convents, and an hoſpital. Small veſſels are continually trading to this place with the merchandize and manufactures of all the towns contiguous to the great lake; particularly with cacao, or chocolate, indigo, ſugar, tobacco, and green hides. Maracaibo is alſo a celebrated port for ſhip-building, for which it is very convenient.

With reſpect to the country of Caraccas, it extends as far as Cape Blanco; but the coaſt is rocky and mountainous: it is, however, interſperſed with ſmall fertile valleys, which are ſubject, at certain ſeaſons of the year, to dry north-weſt winds; but is in general bleſſed with a clear air, and a wholeſome climate. A very extenſive illicit trade is carried on with this coaſt by the Engliſh and Dutch, notwithſtanding all the vigilance of the Spaniards, who have ſcouts perpetually employed, and breaſtworks raiſed in all the valleys.

Caraccas, the chief town in the diſtrict, is ſituated in the tenth degree ten minutes north latitude, at a conſiderable diſtance from the ſea. It is ſaid to be large, wealthy, populous, and extremely difficult of acceſs, on account of the ſteep and craggy hills, over which an enemy muſt march to it.

Porto Cavallo is a ſea port town on this coaſt, which was unſucceſsfully attacked in the late war by admiral Knowles.

New Andaluſia is allowed to be a pretty large province, the boundaries of which are not exactly known. However, it has a part of Guiana and New Granada on the ſouth, alſo part of New Granada and Venezuela on the weſt, the North ſea on the north, and the river Oroonoko on the eaſt; including the diſtricts of Camana and Paria, it extends, according to the moſt reaſonable limits, five hundred miles from north to ſouth, and about two hundred and ſeventy from eaſt to weſt. The interior country is woody and mountainous, variegated with fine valleys, that yield corn and paſturage. The produce of the country chiefly conſiſts in ſugar, tobacco, medicinal roots, gums, dying drugs, Braſil wood, and ſome valuable timber. To theſe may be added pearls, for which the Spaniards fiſh along the coaſt.

Cumana, or Comana, the capital of New Andaluſia, to which it ſometimes gives its name, ſtands in the ninth degree fifty-five minutes north latitude, and in the ſixty-fifth degree thirty minutes weſt longitude from London, about nine miles from the North ſea. It was built by the Spaniards in the year 1520, and is defended by a ſtrong caſtle, capable of making a vigorous defence, as appeared in the year 1670, when it was aſſaulted by the Buccaneers, who were repulſed with great ſlaughter.

New Granada, ſometimes called Santa Fe, and Caſtella del Oro, is bounded on the north by Santa Martha, Rio de la Hacha, and Venezuela; on the eaſt alſo by Venezuela; on the ſouth by Peru; and on the weſt by Popayan. The whole country is ſuppoſed to include a ſpace of three hundred and thirty-ſix miles in length, and near as much in breadth.

Though it lies between the firſt and ninth degree of north latitude, the climate is remarkably temperate; ſo that ſeveral writers affirm, that their equality of day and night is undiſturbed by any variety of ſeaſons; but, upon a ſtrict examination, this does not appear to be ſtrictly true, there being in reality two ſummers and two winters. The country is beautifully variegated with hills and valleys covered with verdure. The mountains contain gold, ſilver, and emeralds; and the valleys are enriched with all the neceſſaries of life, as corn, cattle, roots, and fruit: they produce likewiſe great quantities of guaiacum, gums, balms, drugs of various kinds, and other valuable articles of commerce.

The capital of the kingdom, as it is called, is the city of Santa Fe de Bogata, ſeated on the banks of the lake Gatavita. It is the reſidence of the royal audience, and of an archbiſhop, who has for his ſuffragans the biſhops of Carthagena, Santa Martha, and Popayan. The city is large, populous, opulent, well built, and adorned with magnificent palaces and fine houſes; but as we can meet with no particular deſcription of it for leſs than a century paſt,

paſt, we may reaſonably conclude that it is much changed ſince that time. There are, beſides the capital, Tunia, Marida, Trinidada, and Truxillo.

SECT. IV.

Of the Government of POPAYAN.

Its Situation, Extent, Diviſions, Climate, Soil, and Produce; with a particular Deſcription of the Plant called Cuca and the Mopa-mopa, the dreadful Inſect named the Coya, and the Manner of obtaining Gold from the Mines. A Deſcription of the City of Popayan, and its Government.

WE now come to the government of Popayan, which is bounded on the north by the government of Carthagena; on the eaſt by the kingdom of New Granada; on the ſouth by Peru; and on the weſt its ancient boundary was the South ſea; but it has ſince been contracted by the new government of Choco; ſo that only a part of it reaches to the ſea. Its extent is not preciſely determined; but it is from eaſt to weſt about eighty leagues, and little leſs from north to ſouth. This government is divided into two juriſdictions, of which that on the north and eaſt belong to Santa Fe, or New Granada, while all thoſe parts which lie towards the ſouth and weſt are reckoned in the province of Quito.

The climate varies according to the ſituation of places, ſome being more cold than hot, others the reverſe, and ſome throughout the whole year enjoy a continual ſpring, particularly Popayan the capital. The ſame may be ſaid of the ſoil, which produces in great abundance the corn and fruit proper to its ſituation, and the farmers breed great numbers of horned cattle and ſheep. The juriſdiction of Popayan is, however, ſubject to dreadful tempeſts of thunder, lightning, and earthquakes.

Among the plants of the country of Popayan grows the cuca, an herb ſo eſteemed by the Indians in ſome provinces of Peru, that they would part with any kind of proviſions, the moſt valuable metals, gems, or any thing elſe, rather than want it. It grows on a weak ſtem, which for ſupport twiſts itſelf round another ſtronger vegetable: its leaf is about an inch and a half or two inches in length, and extremely ſmooth. The Indians make uſe of it for chewing, mixing it with a kind of chalk or whitiſh earth, called mambi. They put into their mouth a few leaves of cuca, and a proper quantity of mambi, and chewing them together, at firſt ſpit out the ſaliva, but afterwards ſwallow it; thus moving it from one ſide of the mouth to the other, till its ſubſtance is quite drained, when it is thrown away and immediately replaced by freſh leaves. This herb is ſo nutritive and invigorating, that they labour whole days without any thing elſe, and on the want of it find a decay in their ſtrength. It alſo preſerves the teeth ſound, and fortifies the ſtomach. Great quantities of this herb are cultivated by the Indians in the ſouthern provinces of Peru, and it makes no ſmall article of trade; a vaſt deal of it is in particular carried to the mine towns, that the owners of the mines may furniſh the Indians with it, who otherwiſe could not be brought to work, or would not have ſtrength to go through it. This plant is the ſame with the betel of the Eaſt Indies, and it is uſed there in the ſame manner: the Eaſtern nations, as the reader has already ſeen, are exceſſively fond of their betel, and the Indians of Peru and Popayan are no leſs ſo of their cuca.

In the moſt ſouthern diſtricts of Popayan are certain trees which yield a reſin called mopa-mopa, of which is made a varniſh, which is not only exquiſitely beautiful, but will bear boiling water, and even acids. The method of applying it is to diſſolve ſome of the reſin in one's mouth, and then wet the pencil with it; afterwards it is dipped in the colour which is to be laid on, and when dried has all the luſtre of the Chineſe lac; but with this ſuperior quality, that it never wears off nor becomes moiſt, though rubbed with ſpittle. The cabinets, tables, and other furniture made by the Indians of this country are carried to Quito, where they are highly valued.

In the valleys of Neyba, and others within this juriſdiction, is an inſect extremely remarkable for the venom it contains. Its common name is coya, or coyba: it is ſhaped like a ſpider; but is much leſs than a bug. Its colour is of a fiery red, and, like the ſpider, is generally found in the corners of walls and among the herbage. Its venom is ſo extremely malignant, that on ſqueezing the inſect, if any of it happens to fall on the ſkin, either of man or beaſt, it immediately penetrates into the fleſh, and cauſes large tumours that are ſoon ſucceeded by death. The only remedy hitherto known is on the firſt appearance of a ſwelling to ſinge the party all over the body with a flame of ſtraw, or the long graſs growing in thoſe plains. In order to this the Indians of that country lay hold of the patient, ſome by the feet and others by the hands, and with great dexterity perform the operation; after which the perſon is thought to be out of danger. However, though this inſect is ſo very noxious, yet ſqueezing it between the palms of the hands is attended with no conſequence, the callous preventing the vermin reaching the blood: accordingly the Indian muleteers ſqueeze them between the palms of their hands to gratify the curioſity of the paſſengers; but ſhould a perſon of a delicate hand make that trial, the effect would doubtleſs be the ſame as on any other part of the body.

The people who travel along theſe valleys, where they are ſo much in danger from theſe coyas, are warned by the Indians who attend them, that if they feel any thing ſtinging or crawling on their neck or face, to be careful not to ſcratch the part, nor even ſo much as lift up their hand to it, the coya being of ſo delicate a texture, that it would immediately burſt; and as there is no danger while they do not eject the humour in them, the perſon acquaints ſome of the company with what he feels, and points to the place, where if it be a coya, the other blows it away. The beaſts who are incapable of ſuch warning, are by inſtinct taught a precaution againſt the danger; for before they offer to touch the herbage with their lips, they blow on it with all their force, in order to diſperſe any of theſe pernicious vermin; and when their ſmell acquaints them that they are near a neſt of coyas, they immediately leap, and run to ſome other part. Thus they ſecure themſelves from the venom of theſe inſects, though ſometimes a mule, after all his blowing, has been known to take in ſome with his paſture, on which after ſwelling to a frightful degree, it expires on the ſpot.

Every part of the juriſdiction of Popayan abounds in mines of gold, great numbers of which are ſtill worked, and new mines are daily diſcovered. In the gold mines in theſe parts the gold is not incorporated with ſtone or other heterogeneous bodies; but is found diſperſed and mixed with the earth and gravel, as ſands are found mingled with earths of different ſpecies. Thus the whole difficulty conſiſts in ſeparating the grains of gold from the earth, which is eaſily done by running conduits of water.

The manner of extracting the gold throughout the whole juriſdiction of Popayan, is to dig out the earth of the mine, and lay it in a reſervoir made for that purpoſe; and when this is filled, water is conveyed into it through a conduit. They then ſtir the whole, which ſoon turns to mud, and the lighteſt parts are conveyed away through another conduit, which ſerves as a drain, and this is continued till only the moſt ponderous parts, as little ſtones, ſand, and gold remain at the bottom. They then go into the reſervoir with wooden buckets made for that purpoſe, in which they take up the ſediment, then moving them circularly and uniformly, and changing the water, the leſs ponderous parts are ſeparated, and at laſt the gold remains at the bottom of the bucket clear from all mixture. It is generally found in grains as ſmall as thoſe of ſand, though ſometimes what are called ſeeds, are found among it of different ſizes; but generally they run ſmall. The water iſſuing from the firſt reſervoir is ſtopped in another a little beneath it, and there undergoes a like operation, in order to ſecure any ſmall particles of gold, which from their extreme minuteneſs might be carried off by the current of the water being mixed with the earth, and other ſubſtances. And laſtly, this water is paſſed into a third reſervoir; but the ſavings here are

generally inconſiderable. The labourers are negro ſlaves; ſome of whom are employed in waſhing, while others bring earth; ſo that the waſhers are kept in continual employment. The fineneſs of this gold is generally of twenty-two carats, ſometimes more, even to twenty-three, and it is ſeldom below twenty-one.

The city of Popayan, one of the moſt ancient in theſe parts, ſtands in a large plain, which on the north ſide affords an uninterrupted proſpect of the country. It is ſituated in the ſecond degree twenty-eight minutes north latitude, on the eaſt ſide of a mountain of a middling height called M, from its reſembling that letter, and being covered with a variety of trees, affords an agreeable proſpect. The city is of a middling ſize, with broad, ſtraight, and level ſtreets, which, though not every where paved, are equally convenient. The foot-path near the houſes being paved in all parts, and the middle of the ſtreets being compoſed of hard ſmall gravel, they are never dirty in rainy weather, nor duſty in dry. The houſes are built with unburnt bricks; thoſe of note have one ſtory, and the others only a ground-floor. The church was erected into a cathedral in the year 1547, and is the only pariſh-church in the city. Here are likewiſe convents of Franciſcans, Dominicans, and Auguſtines, with a college of Jeſuits, all of which have churches; and in the latter is a grammar-ſchool. Here are alſo two nunneries. From the mountain of M iſſues a river, which by running through the city, beſides other conveniences, carries away all its ſoil. Two bridges are erected over it, one of wood, and the other of ſtone; and its waters have a particular medicinal virtue. In this mountain is alſo a ſpring of very fine water; but it not being ſufficient to ſupply the whole city, it is conveyed to the nunneries and the houſes of people of rank.

A little above a league to the north of Popayan runs the river Cauca, which is very large and deep, its current rapid, and ſubject to dangerous ſwellings in the months of June, July, and Auguſt.

The inhabitants of Popayan, where the negroes abound, are chiefly deſcended from the marriages of the whites and negroes, ſo that the number of Indians here are in general very few. This government, however, has many large villages of them, and it is only in the capital and other Spaniſh towns that they are ſo greatly outnumbered by the negroes. The inhabitants of Popayan are computed at between twenty and twenty-five thouſand, and among theſe are many Spaniſh families. While other towns ſee their inhabitants daily decreaſing, Popayan conſtantly increaſes; for the many gold mines worked all over its juriſdiction afford employment to the indigent, and conſequently occaſion a great reſort of people to theſe parts. The city of Popayan is the conſtant reſidence of the governor, whoſe office being merely civil, it is not neceſſary, as in many other places, that he ſhould be acquainted with military affairs: however, within the juriſdiction of his government all civil, political, and military affairs are under his direction. He is alſo the chief magiſtrate of the city, beſides whom are two alcaldes annually choſen, and a proper number of regidores. Here is a chamber of finances, into which are paid the ſeveral branches of the royal revenue, as the tribute of the Indians, the duty on goods, the fifth of the metals, and the like. The eccleſiaſtical chapter is compoſed of the biſhop, whoſe annual revenue amounts to ſix hundred thouſand dollars; the dean, who has five hundred; the archdeacon, chanter, rector, and treaſurer, who have each four hundred. This ſee is a ſuffragan of the archbiſhop of Santa Fe de Bogota. As Popayan lies within the juriſdiction of the inquiſition of Carthagena, it has a commiſſary from thence. Here is alſo another of the croiſade; but the authority of theſe judges does not extend beyond the dioceſe, which is far leſs than the extent of the government, a conſiderable part of it being under the juriſdiction of the archbiſhop of Quito.

CHAP. XI.

Of PERU, including QUITO, LIMA, and LOS CHARCOS.

SECT. I.

Of QUITO.

The Situation and Extent of Peru in general, and of Quito in particular. Of the Climate, Diſeaſes, Soil, and Produce of the latter; with a Deſcription of ſome of the moſt remarkable Fruits; as alſo of the City of Quito, the Manners and Cuſtoms of the Inhabitants, and their Trade.

THE great empire of Peru is bounded on the north by Popayan, laſt deſcribed, on the eaſt by the Andes, on the ſouth by Chili, and on the weſt by the Pacific ocean; extending between the equator and the twenty-fifth degree ten minutes ſouth latitude, and between the ſixtieth and eighty-firſt degree of weſt longitude, that is about eighteen hundred miles in length, and its greateſt breadth does not much exceed three hundred and ninety.

This country is divided into three grand diviſions, Quito, Lima, or Los Reyes, and Los Charcos. As to its climate, mines, ſoil, and produce, they differ greatly in different parts of the country; we ſhall therefore treat of theſe in deſcribing its ſeveral diſtricts.

The extenſive province of Quito is bounded on the north by Popayan, and includes a part of that government, and alſo by Santa Fe de Bogota; on the ſouth by the governments of Piura and Chachapoyas; on the eaſt it extends over the whole government of Maynas and the river of the Amazons to the meridian of demarkation, which divides the Spaniſh from the Portugueſe dominions; and on the weſt it is bounded by the South ſea; extending, according to Antonio de Ulloa, ſix hundred leagues in length, and about two hundred in its greateſt breadth; but this greatly exceeds the computation of all other of the great geographers. He, however, obſerves, that it muſt be owned a great part of thoſe vaſt dominions are either inhabited by nations of ſavage Indians, or have not hitherto been ſufficiently peopled by the Spaniards, if indeed they have been thoroughly known; and that all the parts that can properly be ſaid to be peopled, and actually ſubject to the Spaniſh government, are thoſe intercepted by the two Cordilleras of the Andes, which in compariſon to the extent of the country may be termed a ſtreet, or lane, fifteen leagues, or ſometimes more, from eaſt to weſt; which is the diſtance intercepted between the two Cordilleras: but to this muſt be added ſeveral detached governments, ſeparated by very extenſive tracts, inhabited by free Indians.

In order to form a right judgment of the happy temperature of the air of Quito, it is neceſſary to correct our ideas of the heat in latitudes cloſe to the equator; for experience here ſhews, that in this reſpect the climate of Quito differs from all others, ſince in the center of the torrid zone, or rather under the equinoctial, the heat is not only very tolerable, but even in ſome places the cold is painful; while others enjoy all the advantages of a perpetual ſpring, the fields being conſtantly covered with verdure, and enamelled with flowers of the moſt lively colours. The mildneſs of the climate, free from the extremes of heat and cold, and the conſtant equality of

the day and night, render this country, which from its ſituation might be thought to be parched by the conſtant heat of the ſun, and ſcarcely inhabited, both pleaſant and fertile; for nature has here ſcattered her bleſſings with ſo liberal a hand, that this country in ſeveral reſpects ſurpaſſes thoſe of the temperate zones, where the viciſſitudes of winter and ſummer, and the change from heat to cold, cauſe the extremes of both to be more ſenſibly felt. However, in different parts of the country the air is very different; in one part are mountains of a ſtupendous height and magnitude, with their ſummits covered with ſnow. The plains are temperate, the valleys hot, and, according to the high or low ſituation of the country, are found all the variety of gradations of temperature poſſible to be conceived between the extremes of heat and cold.

Quito, the capital, is ſo happily ſituated, that neither the heat nor cold is troubleſome, though both may be felt in its neighbourhood; and what renders this equality more delightful is, that it is conſtant throughout the whole year, the difference between the ſeaſons being ſcarce perceptible. Indeed the mornings are cool, the remainder of the day warm, and the nights of an agreeable temperature. Theſe being almoſt the only variations, the inhabitants make no difference in their dreſs during the whole year; for though ſome wear ſilks or light ſtuffs, at the ſame time that others are dreſſed in ſubſtantial cloth, the former are as little incommoded by the cold, as the latter are by heat.

The winds, which are healthy, blow continually, for the moſt part from north to ſouth; but never with any violence, though they ſometimes ſhift their quarters, but without any regard to the ſeaſon of the year; and were it not for ſome inconveniences to which this country is ſubject, it might be conſidered as the moſt happy ſpot on the earth: but when on the other hand theſe diſagreeable circumſtances are conſidered, all its beauties are buried in obſcurity; for here are dreadful and amazing tempeſts of thunder and lightning, and the inhabitants, in the midſt of their ſecurity, are often ſurprized by deſtructive earthquakes. The weather, during the whole morning till one or two in the afternoon, is generally extremely delightful; a bright ſun and a clear and ſerene ſky are commonly ſeen; but then the vapours begin to riſe, the whole atmoſphere is covered with black clouds, which bring on ſuch dreadful tempeſts of thunder and lightning, that all the neighbouring mountains tremble, and the city frequently feels their dreadful effects. Soon the clouds diſcharge themſelves in ſuch impetuous torrents of rain, that the ſtreets appear like rivers, and the ſquares, though ſituated on a ſlope, like lakes. This generally continues till ſun-ſet, when the weather clears up, and nature again puts on the beautiful appearance of the morning. Sometimes indeed the rains continue all night, and they have been known to laſt three or four days or more ſucceſſively. On the other hand, this general courſe of the weather has its exceptions, three, four, ſix, or even eight fine days ſucceeding each other.

The diſtinction of winter and ſummer conſiſts in a very minute difference: the interval between the month of September and thoſe of April, May, or June is here called the winter ſeaſon, and the other months compoſe the ſummer. In the former ſeaſon the rain chiefly prevails, and in the latter the inhabitants frequently enjoy whole days of fine weather; but whenever the rains are diſcontinued for above a fortnight, the inhabitants are in the utmoſt conſternation, and public prayers are offered up for their return. On the other hand, when they continue a ſhort time without intermiſſion, the like fears prevail, and the churches are again crouded with ſupplicants for obtaining fine weather; for a long drought produces dangerous diſeaſes, and a continual rain, without intervals of ſun-ſhine, deſtroys the fruits of the earth.

It is probably owing to ſome unknown quality of the air that the city of Quito is entirely free from muſkettoes and other inſects of that kind, which in hot countries render life almoſt a burthen. They are not even known to the inhabitants, and even a flea is ſeldom ſeen here, nor are the people moleſted with venomous reptiles. The only troubleſome inſect here is the nigua, or pique, a very ſmall inſect ſhaped like a flea, but hardly viſible to the ſight. They live among the duſt, and inſinuate themſelves into the legs, the ſoles of the feet, or toes, and pierce the ſkin with ſuch ſubtlety that there is no being aware of them, till they have made their way into the ſkin, and taken up their lodging between that and the membrane of the fleſh, where ſucking the blood they form a nidus covered with a white and fine tegument, reſembling a flat pearl, where it depoſits its eggs, and as the number of theſe increaſes the nidus enlarges. There is an abſolute neceſſity of extracting it, for otherwiſe it would burſt of itſelf, and thus ſcatter an infinite number of ſmall nits, which becoming niguas would in a manner undermine the whole foot. Theſe cauſe extreme pain, eſpecially during the operation of extracting them; for ſometimes they penetrate even to the bone. Theſe inſects are very common at Carthagena, and many other places, as well as here.

Though the plague is unknown here, and in every other part of America; they have other diſeaſes that have many ſymptoms of it, as maligniant ſpotted fevers and pleuriſies, which, when they prevail, ſweep away prodigious numbers. Another diſeaſe here is called vicho, or mal del valle, which is a kind of gangrene in the rectum, and to which perſons afflicted with the flux are moſt liable. The venereal diſeaſe is ſo common, that few perſons are free from it, and its commonneſs effaces the diſgrace with which it is attended in other countries. During the continuance of the north and north-eaſt winds, which are the coldeſt, the inhabitants are afflicted with painful catarrhs. Canine madneſs is entirely unknown in America; but there is here a diſeaſe that in ſome reſpects reſembles it, and in others the ſmall-pox; this diſeaſe few or none eſcape, but having once had it, are never more afflicted with it. The ſymptoms are convulſions in every part of the body, a continual endeavour to bite, a delirium, and vomiting blood. Thoſe whoſe conſtitutions are unable to ſupport the conflicts of this diſtemper, periſh; but this is equally common throughout all South America.

The fertility of the ſoil is incredible, for the fruits and beauties of the ſeveral ſeaſons are ſeen here at the ſame time, and the curious European obſerves with a pleaſing admiration, that while ſome herbs of the field are fading, others of the ſame kind are ſpringing up; while ſome flowers loſe their beauty, others blow to continue the enamelled proſpect: thus, when the fruits of the trees have attained their maturity, and the leaves begin to change their colours, freſh leaves bloſſom, and fruit are ſeen in their proper gradations in ſize and ripeneſs on the ſame tree. The ſame inceſſant fertility is conſpicuous in the corn, both reaping and ſowing being carried on at the ſame time. That corn which had been lately ſown is coming up, that which has been longer ſown is in ear, and the more advanced is perfectly ripe; ſo that the declivities of the neighbouring hills exhibit all the beauties of the four ſeaſons in one ſingle view. Though all this is generally ſeen, yet there is a ſettled time for the grand harveſt: but ſometimes the moſt favourable ſeaſon for ſowing in one place is a month or two after that of another, though their diſtance does not exceed three or four leagues. Thus in different ſpots, and ſometimes in one and the ſame, ſowing and reaping are performed throughout the whole year, the forwardneſs or retardment naturally ariſing from the different ſituations, as mountains, riſing grounds, plains, and valleys; and the temperature being different in each, the beſt times for performing the ſeveral operations of huſbandry muſt alſo differ.

The only article of food of which there is here any ſcarcity is pulſe; but this deficiency is ſupplied by roots. The principal of theſe are the camates, arucachas, yucas, ocas, and papas. The three former are the natives of hot countries, and cultivated in the plantations of ſugar-canes, and in the ſpots called valleys and yungas, the former ſignifying here plains in a bottom, and the latter on the ſides of the Cordilleras; but both in a hot expoſure. In theſe are produced plantanes, guincos, Guinea pepper, granadillas, and others natural to warm climates. The cold parts produce pears, peaches, apricots, nectarines, melons, water-melons, quaitambos, and aurimelos. The parts which can neither be denominated hot nor cold produce frutillas, or Peruvian ſtrawberries. The

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ſucculent fruits which require a warm climate are likewiſe here in great plenty throughout the whole year, as China and Seville oranges, lemons, citrons, limes, cidras, and toronjas. Theſe trees are full of bloſſoms and fruit all the year round, equally with thoſe that are natives of the climate, and abundantly ſupply the tables of the inhabitants.

We ſhall now give a particular account of ſome of the moſt remarkable of theſe fruits.

The chirimoya is univerſally allowed to be one of the moſt delicious fruits in the world. Its dimenſions are various, it being from one to five inches in diameter. Its figure is imperfectly round, flatted towards the ſtalk, where it forms a kind of navel; but all the other parts are nearly circular. It is covered with a thin ſoft ſhell, which adheres ſo cloſely to the pulp, as not to be ſeparated from it without a knife. The outward coat is green, variegated with prominent veins, forming all over it a kind of network. The pulp is white, and contains a large quantity of juice reſembling honey, of a ſweet taſte, mixed with a gentle acid of a moſt exquiſite flavour. The ſeeds are formed in ſeveral parts of the pulp, and are ſomewhat flat. The tree is high and tufted, the ſtem large and round, but with ſome inequalities full of elliptic leaves, terminating in a point. The bloſſom differs little from the colour of the leaves, which is a darkiſh green; and though far from being beautiful, is remarkable for its incomparable fragrance, and are therefore ſo much admired by the ladies, that they purchaſe them at any price.

The granadilla in its ſhape reſembles a hen's egg, but is larger. The outſide of the ſhell is ſmooth, gloſſy, and of a faint carnation colour, and the inſide white and ſoft. The ſhell contains a viſcous liquid ſubſtance full of very ſmall and delicate grains, leſs hard than thoſe of the pomegranate. This medullary ſubſtance is ſeparated from the ſhell by a fine and tranſparent membrane. This fruit has a delightful ſweetneſs blended with acidity, very cordial and refreſhing, and ſo wholeſome that there is no danger of indulging one's appetite.

The laſt of the fruits we ſhall mention is the frutilla, or Peruvian ſtrawberry, which is very different from that of Europe in ſize; for though they are here generally not above an inch in length, they are much larger in other parts of Peru; but their taſte, though juicy, and not unpalatable, is not equal to thoſe in Europe.

The city of Quito is ſeated in thirteen minutes thirty-three ſeconds ſouth latitude, on the eaſtern ſkirts of the weſt Cordillera of the Andes, thirty-five leagues weſt of the coaſt of the South ſea. The city is built on the acclivity of the mountain of Pichincha, which riſes far above the clouds, and ſurrounded by others of a middling height, among a number of breaches or clefts, ſome of which are of a conſiderable depth, and run quite through the city, ſo that great part of the buildings ſtand upon arches: this renders the ſtreets irregular and extremely uneven. Near the city are two ſpacious plains, one on the ſouth three leagues in length, and the other on the north about two leagues in extent; and both being interſperſed with ſeats and cultivated land, greatly add to the proſpect of the city, they being continually covered with a lively verdure enamelled with flowers. This ſcene is beautifully diverſified with a multitude of cattle feeding on the eminences. Theſe two plains contract as they approach the city, and at their junction form a neck of land covered with thoſe eminences on which part of Quito ſtands. It may perhaps appear ſtrange, that, notwithſtanding two ſuch beautiful and extenſive plains are ſo near, the city ſhould be placed in ſo inconvenient a ſituation; but the firſt founders were fond of building it on the ſpot where ſtood the ancient capital of the Indians. It was formerly in much greater repute than it is at preſent, for the inhabitants now daily decreaſe, and whole ſtreets of Indian huts are entirely forſaken.

The principal ſquare is ſpacious, well built, and furniſhed with ſome very magnificent buildings. On one ſide of the ſquare ſtands the cathedral, and oppoſite to it is the epiſcopal palace; the third ſide is taken up by the town-houſe; the fourth by the palace of the audience; and in the center is an elegant fountain: but the ſquare is rather diſfigured than adorned by the palace of the audience, the greateſt part of it being ſuffered to run to ruin, and only a few halls and offices taken care of. Four ſtreets terminating at the angles of the ſquare are ſtraight, broad, and handſome; but at the diſtance of three or four hundred yards from the ſquare begin the troubleſome declivities, which deprive the inhabitants of the uſe of coaches or any other wheel-carriages.

Except the four ſtreets above-mentioned, all the reſt are crooked, and deſtitute both of order and ſymmetry. Some of them are croſſed by breaches, and the houſes ſtand on the ſides of their winding, coarſe, and irregular projections. Some parts are ſituated at the bottom of theſe breaches, and others on their ſummits. The principal ſtreets are paved; but thoſe which are not are almoſt impaſſable after rain.

Beſides the chief ſquare there are two others, both very ſpacious, with ſeveral others that are ſmaller. In theſe the greateſt part of the convents are ſituated, and thence make a very handſome appearance, their fronts being adorned with all the embelliſhments of architecture, particularly the Franciſcan convent, which is built of free-ſtone, and from the diſpoſition of the parts, and the elegant taſte of the whole, is ſaid to be equal to the moſt admired buildings in Europe. The principal houſes are very large, and ſome of them have ſpacious and well contrived apartments, though none are above one ſtory in height, which is ſeldom without a balcony towards the ſtreet; but their doors and windows are very low and narrow. They are built with unburnt brick, cemented by a mortar of uncommon hardneſs, that was in uſe among the ancient Indians.

The city is divided into ſeven pariſhes, including the cathedral, which, beſides the richneſs of its furniture, is ſplendidly adorned with tapeſtry and other coſtly decorations; but others of the pariſh-churches are mean; tho' the chapel del Sagrario is very large, built wholly of ſtone, and its architecture executed in an elegant taſte.

The convents of monks are thoſe of the Auguſtines, Dominicans, and the fathers of Mercy, who are the heads of provinces: beſides theſe there is another of Franciſcan Recollects, another of Dominicans, and another of the fathers of Mercy; a college of Jeſuits, and two colleges for ſeculars, in one of which is an univerſity under the patronage of St. Gregory. Here are alſo ſeveral nunneries, as that of the Conception, the orders of St. Clare, St. Catharine, and two of bare-footed Thereſians. The college of Jeſuits, as well as all the convents of monks, are very large, well built, and ſplendid; and the churches belonging to them magnificently decorated, eſpecially on ſolemn feſtivals, when the vaſt quantities of wrought plate, rich hangings, and coſtly ornaments expoſed to public view, are really amazing; and the nunneries, though they do not exhibit ſuch riches, exceed them in the elegance and delicacy with which they are adorned. Here is alſo an hoſpital under the care of the order of Our Lady of Bethlehem.

The cathedral chapter conſiſts of the biſhop, whoſe annual revenue amounts to twenty-four thouſand dollars; a dean, who has two thouſand five hundred; an archdeacon, chanter, treaſurer, and a doctoral, who have two thouſand a year each; three canons, who have fifteen hundred each; four prebends, who have ſix hundred each; and two demi-prebends, each of whom has four hundred and twenty. In this cathedral the feſtivals of Corpus Chriſti and the Conception of Our Lady are celebrated with amazing magnificence; but the ſingular pomp in the proceſſion of the hoſt in the former ought not to be omittted. All the houſes of the ſtreets through which it paſſes are adorned with rich hangings, and ſuperb triumphal arches are erected, with altars at ſtated diſtances that riſe higher than the houſes, on which, as on the triumphal arches, are piled up ſuch immenſe quantities of wrought plate and jewels, diſpoſed in ſuch an elegant manner, as render the whole even more pleaſing than the aſtoniſhing quantity of riches. All the perſons in public offices march in magnificent dreſſes, and a number of Indians in rich habits, with bells on their legs and playing on the tabor and pipe, attend the ceremony with their dances.

With reſpect to the courts held at Quito, the principal is that of the royal audience, which conſiſts of the preſi-

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dent, who is governor of the province, with regard to law affairs; four auditors, who are at the ſame time civil and criminal judges; a royal fiſcal, who, beſides the cauſes brought before the audience, takes cognizance of every thing relating to the revenue; and an officer ſtiled the protector of the Indians, who ſolicits for them, and when they are injured pleads in their defence.

The next is the treaſury, the chief officers of which are an accomptant, a treaſurer, and a royal fiſcal.

The tribunal of the Croiſade, which has a commiſſary, who is generally ſome dignitary of the church, and a treaſurer.

Here is alſo a treaſury for the effects of perſons deceaſed; an inſtitution eſtabliſhed all over the Indies, for receiving the goods of thoſe whoſe lawful heirs were in Spain, in order to ſecure them from thoſe accidents to which they might be liable in private hands.

Here is likewiſe a commiſſary of the inquiſition, with an alguazil-major and familiars, appointed by the inquiſition at Lima.

The corporation conſiſts of a corregidor, two ordinary alcaldes, choſen annually, and regidores. Theſe ſuperintend the election of the alcaldes, which is attended with no ſmall diſturbance, the people being divided into two parties, the Creoles and Europeans.

This city is very populous, and has among its inhabitants ſome families of high rank and diſtinction, deſcended either from the original conquerors, or perſons who at different times came from Spain inveſted with ſome lucrative poſt. The number of great families is however but ſmall.

The commonalty may be divided into four claſſes, the Spaniards, Meſtizos, Indians, and Negroes, with their progeny; but the laſt are not near ſo numerous in proportion to the reſt, as in other parts.

The Creoles are well made, of a proper ſtature, and of a ſively and agreeable countenance. The Meſtizos are alſo in general well made, often taller than the ordinary ſize, very robuſt, and have an agreeable air. The Indians, both men and women, are commonly low, though ſtrong and well proportioned; but more natural defects are to be found among them than in any of the reſt. Some are remarkably ſhort, ſome ideots, dumb, or blind. Their hair is generally thick and long, which they wear looſe on their ſhoulders; but the Indian women plait theirs behind with a ribbon, and cut that before a little above the eye-brows, from one ear to the other. The greateſt diſgrace that can be offered to an Indian of either ſex is to cut off their hair; for whatever corporal puniſhment their maſters think proper to inflict on them, they bear with patience; but this affront they never forgive; and accordingly the government has interpoſed and limited this puniſhment to the moſt enormous crimes. Its colour is generally a deep black: but it is lank, harſh, and as coarſe as that of a horſe. On the contrary, the Meſtizos, in order to diſtinguiſh themſelves from the Indians, cut off their hair; but the women do not imitate them.

The country is obſerved to abound more in women than in men, which is the more remarkable as thoſe cauſes which induce men to leave their country, as travelling, commerce, and war, naturally bring over more men from Europe than women. But there are many families in which there are a number of daughters, without one ſon among them. The women enjoy a more vigorous ſtate of health, which may be owing in ſome meaſure to the climate, and more particularly to the early intemperance and voluptuouſneſs of the other ſex.

The whites may be conſidered as one ſixth part of the inhabitants, and the Meſtizos, who are the deſcendants of the Spaniards and Indians, may be reckoned a third. The next claſs is the Indians, who form about another third, and the others who are deſcended from theſe are about one ſixth. Theſe, according to the moſt authentic accounts, amount to between fifty and ſixty thouſand perſons of all ages, ſexes, and ranks. The Spaniards it is natural to think are the moſt eminent for riches, rank, and power; yet it muſt be owned that many of them are, in proportion, the moſt poor, miſerable, and diſtreſſed; for whatever be their circumſtances, they diſdain to apply themſelves to any mechanic buſineſs, conſidering it as a diſgrace to that quality they ſo highly value themſelves upon, which conſiſts in their not being black, brown, or of a copper colour. The Meſtizos readily apply themſelves to arts and trades; but chuſe thoſe of the greateſt repute, as painting, ſculpture, and the like, in which they particularly excel. Some of them have acquired great reputation; and ſome of the works of one of theſe Meſtizos have been carried even to Rome, where they were honoured with the unanimous applauſe of the virtuoſi: and what renders their exquiſite performances ſtill more admirable, is their wanting the tools that might be thought neceſſary to perform them with any tolerable degree of accuracy: but they are exceſſively indolent and ſlothful. The Indians, who are generally ſhoemakers, bricklayers, weavers, and the like, are not more induſtrious. Of theſe the moſt active and tractable are the barbers and phlebotomiſts, who equal the moſt expert hands in Europe. The ſhoemakers, on the other hand, are ſo ſlothful, that you have frequently no other way left to procure the ſhoes you have beſpoke, than to purchaſe the materials, and lock up the Indian till they are finiſhed. This is chiefly owing to the cuſtom of paying for the work before it is done; for when the Indian has got the money, he ſpends it all in chicha, a kind of ale made of maize, and is never ſober while it laſts, and he is afterwards unwilling to work for what he has ſpent.

With reſpect to the dreſs of the inhabitants, the Spaniards, who wear a black cloak, have under it a long coat with a cloſe ſleeve open at the ſide; and along the ſeams of the body, as well as thoſe of the ſleeves, are button holes, and two rows of buttons for ornament. In every other particular, people of fortune affect great magnificence, wearing the fineſt cloths or ſilk ſtuffs, and very often gold and ſilver tiſſues.

The ladies of the firſt rank wear on the upper parts of the body a ſhift, on which is a looſe jacket laced; and over all a piece of baize. Every part of their dreſs is as it were covered with lace; and on days of ceremony, they wear the richeſt ſtuffs, with a profuſion of ornaments. Their hair is generally made up in treſſes, which they form into a kind of croſs on the nape of the neck, tying a rich ribbon twice round their heads, and forming the ends into a roſe at their temples. Thoſe roſes are intermixed with diamonds and flowers, and have a very pleaſing effect. When they go to church they ſometimes wear a full petticoat; but the moſt uſual dreſs on theſe occaſions is the veil.

The Meſtizos in general wear a blue cloth, manufactured in this country; but though the loweſt claſs of Spaniards are very ambitious of diſtinguiſhing themſelves from them, either by the colour or faſhion of the cloaths, there appears but little difference between them.

The Meſtizo women affect to dreſs in the ſame manner as the Spaniſh, though they cannot equal the ladies in the richneſs of their ſtuffs. The meaner ſort wear no ſhoes; but, like the men of the ſame rank, go barefooted.

The dreſs of the Indians conſiſts of white cotton drawers, which hang down to the calf of the leg, where they are looſe, and edged with a lace ſuitable to the ſtuff. The uſe of a ſhirt is ſupplied by a black cotton frock, made in the form of a ſack, with three openings at the bottom, one in the middle for the head, and others at the corners for the arms; and thus covers their naked bodies down to the knees. Over this is a ſerge cloak, with a hole in the middle for putting the head through, and a hat made by the natives. This is their general dreſs, which they never lay aſide, even while they ſleep; and they have no additional cloathing for their legs or feet. The Indians who have acquired ſome fortune, particularly the barbers and phlebotomiſts, diſtinguiſh themſelves from their countrymen by the fineneſs of their drawers, and by wearing a ſhirt, which, though without ſleeves, has a lace four or five fingers in breadth, faſtened round like a kind of ruff or band. They are fond of ſilver or gold buckles to their ſhoes, though they wear no ſtockings; and inſtead of a mean ſerge cloak, wear one of fine cloth, which is often adorned with gold or ſilver lace.

There are two kinds of dreſſes worn by the Indian women, made in the ſame plain manner with thoſe worn by the men in general, the whole conſiſting of a ſhort petticoat and a veil of American baize. But the dreſs of the loweſt

loweſt claſs of Indian women is only a bag of the ſame make and ſtuff as that of the men, which they faſten on their ſhoulders with two large pins: it reaches down to the calf of the leg, and is faſtened round the waiſt with a kind of girdle. Inſtead of a veil, they wear about the neck a piece of the ſame coarſe ſtuff, dyed black; but their arms and legs are naked. The caciqueſſes, or Indian women, who are married to the alcaldes-majors, governors, and others, diſtinguiſh themſelves by wearing a petticoat of baize adorned with ribbons, over which they have a ſort of black mantle, open on one ſide, plaited from top to bottom, and generally faſtened round the waiſt with a girdle. Inſtead of the veil worn by the common Indian women, they have one much fuller plaited and hanging down from the back part of the head almoſt to the bottom of the petticoat. This they faſten before with a large ſilver bodkin. Their head-dreſs is a piece of fine linen, curiouſly plaited, with the end hanging down behind, and they never appear abroad without their ſhoes.

The youth of family are here inſtructed in philoſophy and divinity; and ſome ſtudy the civil law, which they generally follow with reluctance. In theſe ſciences they ſhew a great deal of judgment and vivacity, but are very deficient in hiſtorical and political knowledge, as well as in other ſciences. The only employment of perſons of rank, who are not eccleſiaſtics, is viſiting their eſtates, where they reſide during the time of harveſt; but few of them apply themſelves to commerce, permitting that lucrative branch to be poſſeſſed entirely by the Europeans. However, a few Creoles and Meſtizos keep ſhops in the city.

The women of rank have a graceful carriage, and an amiable temper; qualities which are indeed common to the whole ſex in this part of America. Their children are always educated under their own eyes, though little to their advantage, their extreme fondneſs preventing their ſeeing thoſe vices which ſo often bring youth to ruin and infamy; they frequently endeavour to hide the vices of the ſon from the father; and when he diſcovers them, interpoſe paſſionately in defence of their favourite, in order to prevent his being corrected.

The want of proper employments, and the great neglect of education in the common people, occaſion their balls and entertainments, of which they are extremely fond, to be conducted in the moſt licentious manner; but perſons of rank and character are never ſeen at theſe meetings.

The people have diſhes unknown in Europe; but are particularly fond of cheeſe; and have alſo excellent butter in the neighbourhood of Quito. Sweetmeats are more admired here than in any other country, which neceſſarily occaſions a great conſumption of honey and ſugar. One method of indulging this appetite is to ſqueeze the juice out of the ſugar-canes, let it ſettle, and curdle it; out of this curd they make ſmall cakes, called raſpaduras, which are ſo highly valued by the lower claſs, that with a ſlice of it, and another of bread and cheeſe, they make as hearty a meal as the rich with all their variety of diſhes.

Rum is commonly drank here by perſons of all ranks; but their favourite liquor is brandy. The diſorders ariſing from the exceſſive uſe of ſpirituous liquors are chiefly ſeen among the Meſtizos; and the lower claſs of women, both among the Creoles and Meſtizos, are alſo extremely addicted to the ſame ſpecies of debauchery.

Another liquor much uſed in this country is mate, which is made of an herb, known in all theſe parts of America by the name of paraguay, as being the produce of that country. Some of it is put into a calabaſh tipped with ſilver, called here mate, with ſugar and ſome cold water. After it has continued thus ſome time, the calabaſh is filled with boiling water, and they drink the liquor through a pipe fixed in the calabaſh. In this manner the veſſel is filled ſeveral times with water, and freſh ſupplies of ſugar, till more of the herb is wanting. It is alſo uſual to ſqueeze into the liquor a ſmall quantity of the juice of lemons or Seville oranges, mixed with ſome perfumes from odoriferous flowers. This is their uſual drink in the morning faſting, and many uſe it alſo at their evening regale. The manner of drinking it appears very indelicate, the whole company drinking ſucceſſively through the ſame pipe, it being carried ſeveral times round the company till all are ſatisfied. This among the Creoles is the higheſt enjoyment; ſo that when they travel they never fail to carry with them a ſufficient quantity of it, and till they have taken their doſe of mate they never eat.

The vice of gaming is here carried to an extravagant height, perſons of rank and opulence have led the way, and their inferiors have almoſt univerſally followed their example, to the ruin of many families, ſome loſing their ſtocks in trade, others the very cloaths from their backs, and afterwards thoſe belonging to their wives, which they hazard with the hopes of by that means recovering their own.

The common people, the Indians, and even the domeſtics, are greatly addicted to ſtealing. The Meſtizos, though arrant cowards, do not want audacity in this way; for though they will not venture to attack any one in the ſtreet, it is a common practice to ſnatch off a perſon's hat, and immediately ſeek their ſafety in flight. Trifling as this acquiſition may ſeem, it is ſometimes of conſiderable value; the hats worn by perſons of rank, and even by the wealthy citizens when dreſſed, being of white beaver, worth fifteen or twenty dollars, beſides the hatband of gold or ſilver lace faſtened with a gold buckle, ſet with diamonds or emeralds. However, robberies on the high-way are ſeldom heard of.

In Quito, and in all the towns and villages of its province, different dialects are ſpoken, Spaniſh being no leſs common than the Inga, the language of the country. The Creoles uſe the latter as much as the former, but both are conſiderably adulterated by borrowed words and expreſſions. The firſt language generally ſpoken by children is the Inga; for the nurſes being Indians, many of them do not underſtand a word of Spaniſh, and thus they afterwards learn a jargon compoſed of both languages.

The ſumptuous manner of performing the laſt offices of the dead demonſtrates how far the power of habit is capable of prevailing over reaſon and prudence; for their oſtentation is ſo great in this particular, that many families of credit are ruined by prepoſterouſly endeavouring to excel others; and the people here may be ſaid to toil and ſcheme to lay up wealth to enable their ſucceſſors to laviſh honours upon a body inſenſible of all pageantry.

With reſpect to the commerce of the province of Quito, the perſons who are the chief conductors of it are the Europeans ſettled here, and others coming occaſionally. The latter purchaſe the country goods, and ſell thoſe of Europe. The manufactures of this province are only cottons, ſome white and ſtriped baize and cloths, which meet with a good market at Lima, for ſupplying the inward provinces of Peru. The returns are made partly in ſilver, and partly in fringes made of gold and ſilver thread, with wine, brandy, oil, copper, tin, lead, and quickſilver. On the arrival of the galleons at Carthagena theſe traders reſort thither to purchaſe European goods, which, at their return, they conſign to their correſpondents all over the province. The coaſts of New Spain ſupply this province with indigo, of which there is a very large conſumption at the manufactories, blue being univerſally the colour which this people affect in their apparel. They alſo import, by way of Guayaquil, iron and ſteel both from Europe and the coaſt of Guatemala.

SECT. II.

Of the ſeveral Juriſdictions in the Province of Quito; a Deſcription of the Town of San Miguel de Ibarra, with the Manner of catching wild Aſſes; and a particular Account of the Cochineal Inſect.

THE province of Quito is divided into nine juriſdictions, which, beginning at the north, are San Miguel de Ibarra, Otabalo, the city of Quito, Latacunga, Rio Bamba, Chimbo, or Guaranda, Guayaquil, Cuenca, and Loja, of which we ſhall only deſcribe what appears moſt worthy of notice.

The town of San Miguel de Iberra is ſeated at the extremity of an extenſive plain, at a ſmall diſtance from a chain of mountains, and between two rivers, which give the plain a perpetual verdure. It is of a middling ſize, with ſtraight broad ſtreets, and moſt of the houſes of ſtone or unburnt brick, and all tiled. It is ſurrounded with ſuburbs inhabited by the Indians, whoſe cottages make a mean appearance; but the houſes in the town are neat and uniform, though they have only a ground-floor, except thoſe in the ſquare, which have one ſtory. The pariſh-church is a large and elegant ſtructure well ornamented. The town has convents of Franciſcans, Dominicans, and the fathers of Mercy, with a college of Jeſuits, and a nunnery of the order of the Conception. The inhabitants are computed at ten or twelve thouſand ſouls.

In this juriſdiction ſugar-canes ripen pretty early, and yet may at any time be committed to the mill, there being no neceſſity for cutting them at any preciſe time, they retaining all their goodneſs even when ſuffered to ſtand two or three months after they are ripe; ſo that they are cut every quarter, and the mills kept at work during the whole year.

Within the diſtrict of the village of Mira in this juriſdiction are a great number of wild aſſes, which increaſe very faſt, and are not eaſily caught. The owners of the grounds where they breed allow all perſons, on paying a ſmall acknowledgment, to take as many as they can, in proportion to the number of days they employ in the ſport. The manner in which they are caught is as follows: ſeveral perſons go on horſeback, attended by Indians on foot, and on their arrival at a proper place form a circle in order to drive them into ſome valley, where, riding at full ſpeed, they throw a halter, the end of which is formed into a nooſe, over their heads; for theſe creatures, on finding themſelves encloſed, make furious efforts to eſcape, and if only one forces his way through, they all follow with irreſiſtible impetuoſity: but the hunters having caught them in the nooſe, throw them down, ſecure their legs, and leave them till the hunting is over, when, in order to bring them away, they pair them with tame beaſts; but this is not eaſily performed, they being ſo fierce as often to hurt the perſons who undertake to manage them. They have all the ſwiftneſs of horſes, and neither ſteep aſcents nor declivities retard them in their career; and when attacked they defend themſelves with their mouth and heels with ſuch activity, that without ſlackening their pace they often maim their purſuers: yet after carrying the firſt load their celerity leaves them, their dangerous ferocity is loſt, and they ſoon contract the ſtupid look and dullneſs peculiar to the reſt of their ſpecies. It is alſo obſervable, that they will not permit any horſe to live among them; and if one happens to ſtray into the places where they feed, they all fall upon him and, without giving him the liberty of flying from them, bite and kick him till they leave him dead on the ſpot. They are very troubleſome neighbours, for whenever one or two of them begins to bray, they are anſwered in the ſame vociferous manner by all within the reach of the ſound, which is greatly increaſed and prolonged by the repercuſſions of the valleys and cliffs of the mountains.

In the juriſdiction of Loja is produced that famous ſpecific for intermitting fevers known by the name of quinquina, or the Jeſuits bark. The tree which produces it is about ſeven yards high, and the body and branches of a proportionable thickneſs. The Indians, in order to take off the cortex, cut down the tree, bark it, and dry the quinquina. Though there are here large foreſts of this tree, there is a ſenſible diminution of them, occaſioned by the Indians not ſowing the ſeed, thoſe growing ſpontaneouſly being by no means equal in number to thoſe cut down.

The juriſdiction of Loja has alſo a very great advantage from breeding the cochineal inſect, which is reckoned of equal goodneſs with that of Oaxaca in New Spain: but the inhabitants are ſo far from applying themſelves to this buſineſs ſo effectually as to ſupply the demands of trade, that they breed no more than they imagine will be ſufficient for the dyers in that and the neighbouring juriſdiction of Cuenca. To this elegant and laſting colour it is probably owing, that the carpets of Loja and the baize of Cuenca are preferred to all others.

The cochineal inſect is bred on a plant called by the name of nopal, or the Indian fig tree, in Latin opuntia maxima. The method of planting it is by making rows of holes about half a yard deep, and about two yards diſtant from each other. In each of theſe holes is placed one or two leaves of the nopal in a flat poſition, and then covered with earth. This leaf ſoon ſhoots up into a ſingle ſtem, which, during its growth, divides into ſeveral branches, and theſe ſucceſſively produce freſh leaves, the largeſt being neareſt the ſtem, which is full of knots, as are alſo the branches, and from theſe the leaves have their origin. The plant ſeldom exceeds three yards in height, its bloſſom is ſmall, of a bright red, and in the ſhape of a bud, from the center of which proceeds the fruit. When the fig is ripe the outward ſkin becomes white; but the pulp is ſo fully impregnated with a deep red, that it tinges the urine of thoſe who eat it; yet few fruits are more pleaſant and wholeſome. The cochineal was formerly imagined to be a fruit or ſeed of ſome particular plant; but it is now known to be inſects which breed and are nouriſhed on theſe trees, where they place their eggs among the leaves. The juice of the plant, which is their ſole nouriſhment, is converted into their ſubſtance, which is thus rendered of a beautiful crimſon colour. When the inſects are at their full growth they are gathered, and put into earthen pots; but great care is neceſſary to prevent their getting out, as in that caſe great numbers would be loſt. When they have been confined ſome time in theſe pots, they are killed and put in bags. The Indians have three methods of killing them, one by fire, another by the rays of the ſun, and a third by hot water; and to theſe are owing the ſeveral gradations of the colour. The method of killing them by fire is to put them on ſhovels into an oven moderately heated, the fine quality of the cochineal depending on its not being over dried at the time of killing the inſects. However, the beſt method of deſtroying this valuable creature ſeems to be by the rays of the ſun. It is remarkable that this inſect does not in any viſible manner injure the plant, but extracts its nouriſhment from the moſt ſucculent juice which it ſucks by means of its proboſcis through the fine teguments of the leaves.

SECT. III.

Of the Governments of Quixos, Macas, and Jaen de Bracamoros; their Situation, Climate, Extent, and Produce.

BESIDES the juriſdictions we have mentioned, there are five governments in the province of Quito; one of which is included in part of the province of Popayan, already deſcribed; we ſhall begin with thoſe of Quixos, Macas, and Jaen de Bracamoros.

The two former are ſeated on the eaſt ſide of the cordillera of the Andes. Quixos, which lies on the north, joins to the juriſdiction of Popayan, to the eaſtward it extends to a river named Aguarico, and on the weſtward it reaches to a part of the cordilleras of the Andes. The towns are here very ſmall, and unworthy of a particular deſcription: the principal are the cities of Archidona and Avila, whoſe inhabitants are obliged to be conſtantly on their guard againſt the free Indians, by whom they are ſurrounded, who frequently commit depredations among their houſes and plantations. They compoſe different nations, and are ſo diſperſed all over the country, that every village is under continual apprehenſions from thoſe that live in its neighbourhood.

The air of this country is hot and very moiſt, the rains are almoſt continual, and the country is covered with thick woods, in which are ſome trees of a prodigious magnitude. In the ſouth and weſt part of Quixos is the cinnamon tree, a great quantity of which is cut for uſe in the province of Quito; but the cinnamon is inferior to that of the Eaſt Indies.

The government of Macas is bounded on the eaſt by the government of Maynas, on the ſouthward by that of Bracamoros, and on the weſtward by the eaſt cordillera

of the Andes. The nearneſs of Macas to thoſe mountains cauſes a ſenſible difference in the climate; for tho' it be alſo a woody country, the diverſity between the two moſt diſtant ſeaſons of the year is manifeſt. Thus winter begins here in April, and laſts till September; the atmoſphere is then clear, the ſky ſerene, and the earth cloathed with its various beauties.

The country is very fruitful in corn; but one of the chief employments of the country people is the culture of tobacco, which, being of an excellent kind, is exported in rolls all over Peru. Sugar-canes and cotton alſo thrive well; but the dread of the free Indians, who have often ravaged the country, diſcourages them from planting more than is juſt ſufficient for preſent uſe; they being here in the ſame unhappy ſituation as the people of Quixos, the villages having in their neighbourhood bands of Indians, who, when they imagine them to be fartheſt off, ſuddenly aſſault them.

Among the infinite variety of trees in this country, one of the moſt remarkable is the ſtorax, the gum of which is of a moſt exquiſite fragrance; but is ſcarce, the trees growing in places at ſome diſtance from the villages, and it is dangerous going to them, on account of the hatred of the free Indians to all the Spaniards, and who lie in wait for them. The ſame may be ſaid with reſpect to ſome mines of ultra marine, from which very little is brought, on account of the danger, though a finer colour cannot be imagined. This territory alſo produces cinnamon trees, which ſome, who are allowed to be extremely well verſed in natural hiſtory, maintain to be of a ſuperior quality to that of the iſle of Ceylon. It viſibly differs from that of Quixos; but is ſuppoſed to owe its ſuperior excellence to the trees being more fully expoſed to the rays of the ſun, they not being here intercepted by the foliage of any other trees. Great quantities of copal are brought from Macas, and alſo wild wax; but the latter is of little value.

The government, which on the ſouth limits the juriſdiction of the audience of Quito, and follows next to Macas, is that of Jaen de Bracamoros, whoſe inhabitants amount to about three or four thouſand, who are for the moſt part Meſtizos, with ſome Indians, and but very few Spaniards.

The climate is like that of Quixos, only the rains are neither ſo laſting nor ſo violent. The ſoil is very fruitful in all the grain and products agreeable to the climate, and the country full of wild trees, particularly the cacao, which is produced in the greateſt abundance; but though it is equal to that cultivated in plantations, it is of little uſe, for want of conſumption; and the carriage to any diſtant parts would be attended with ſuch expence as would prejudice the ſale. Thus the fruit rots on the trees, or is eaten by monkeys or other animals. There are here produced vaſt quantities of tobacco, the inhabitants being chiefly employed in its cultivation. It is prepared by ſteeping it in hot mead, or decoctions of fragrant herbs, in order to improve its flavour; and being made into rolls, is ſent all over Peru, and the kingdom of Chili. The country alſo produces a great deal of cotton, and a prodigious number of mules. In the three governments juſt mentioned are a great many wild beaſts, which have been already deſcribed in treating of countries of a like climate; but beſides theſe are baſtard lions, bears, and the danta, an animal of the ſize of a bullock, and very ſwift; its colour is generally white, and its ſkin very much valued for making buff leather. It is remarkable, that in the middle of its head is a horn bending inward. Theſe three kinds of wild beaſts are unknown in the other countries of the torrid zone, and their being known here, is owing to the proximity of this government to the cordilleras of the Andes; for in thoſe mountains they breed in a cold climate adapted to their nature, and from thence ſometimes come down into this country.

Among the reptiles is the maca, a ſnake that has a ſhining ſpotted ſkin, like that of the tiger; but entirely covered with ſcales. It makes a moſt frightful appearance, its head being greatly larger than might be expected from the thickneſs of its body, and has two rows of teeth and fangs, like thoſe of a large dog. The free Indians, to expreſs their intrepidity, and to give them a more terrible appearance, paint on their targets the figure of this ſnake; the bite of which is incurable, and wherever it has ſeized, it never lets go its hold.

SECT. IV.

Of GUAYAQUIL.

Its Situation, Extent, and Climate; the prodigious Number of Muſkettoes, and Rats, and the Diſeaſes it occaſions. Among its Produce are particularly deſcribed its Canes, the Vijahua, and Bejuco; and among the Animals is a large Account of the Alligator. The City of Guayaquil deſcribed, with the Manners and Cuſtoms of the Inhabitants.

WE ſhall now deſcribe the territory of Guayaquil, the laſt we have to mention in the government of Quito. It begins at Cape Paſſado, in the twenty-firſt degree ſouth latitude, about thirty miles to the north of the bay of Manta. From this Cape it extends along the coaſt, including the iſle of Puna, to the town of Machala, on the coaſt of Tumbez, where it is terminated by the juriſdiction of Piura; from whence it runs eaſtward, and is bounded by that of Cuenca; then turning northward, along the weſtern ſkirts of the Andes, it terminates on the juriſdiction of Bamba and Chimbo; extending about ſixty leagues from north to ſouth, and forty or forty-five from eaſt to weſt. The whole country is one continued plain, and in winter is entirely overflowed. It is divided into ſeven lieutenancies, for each of which the corregidor appoints a lieutenant, who muſt be confirmed by the audience of Quito.

The rainy ſeaſon ſets in during the month of December, ſometimes at the beginning, ſometimes in the middle, and in others not till the end of that month, and laſts till April or May. During this ſeaſon the elements, the inſects and vermin, ſeem joined in a league to incommode the human race. The heat is extreme, and the rains continue day and night, accompanied with frequent and dreadful tempeſts of thunder and lightning; the river of Guayaquil, and all thoſe that fall into it, overflow their banks, and people are peſtered with innumerable ſwarms of inſects and vermin.

The ſnakes, vipers, ſcorpions, and ſcolopendra in this ſeaſon, find methods of getting into the houſes, to the deſtruction of many of the inhabitants; though they are not free from them the reſt of the year, yet at this time they are far more numerous and active; ſo that it is neceſſary to examine carefully the beds, for fear they ſhould conceal themſelves in them. To avoid being tortured by the muſkettos, all perſons, even the Indians and negro ſlaves, are obliged to have curtains to their beds: thoſe uſed by the lower claſs of people are made of cotton, and others uſe white linen. Indeed the inhabitants are no where ſo greatly incommoded with volatile inſects, as at the town of Guayaquil, where it is impoſſible to keep a candle burning, except in a lanthern, above three or four minutes, numberleſs inſects flying into the flame, and extinguiſhing it; and any perſon who is obliged to be near any light, is ſoon driven away by the infinite numbers that fill his eyes, ears, and noſtrils. "Theſe inſects, "ſays Don Antonio Ulloa, were almoſt inſupportable to "us during the ſhort clear intervals of ſome nights, "which we ſpent in making obſervations on the heaven-"ly bodies. Their ſtings were attended with great tor-"tures, and more than once obliged us to abandon our "obſervations, being unable either to ſee or to breathe "for their multitudes."

Another very great inconvenience attending the houſes here, is the number of rats, every building being ſo infeſted with them, that in the evening they quit their holes, and make ſuch a noiſe in running along the ceiling, and in clambering up and down the ſides of the rooms and teſters of the beds, as to diſturb thoſe who are are not accuſtomed to them, and they are ſo little afraid of the human ſpecies, that if a candle be ſet down, without being in a lanthern, they inſtantly carry it off; but as this might be attended with dreadful conſequences, they are ſeldom put to the trial, though they take advantage of the leaſt neglect. All theſe inconveniences, which ſeem in-

inſupportable to ſtrangers, and ſufficient to render the country uninhabited, has little effect on the natives, who have been uſed to them from their infancy, and are more affected with cold on the mountains, which is ſcarce felt by the Europeans, than all theſe diſagreeable circumſtances.

The dry ſeaſon is the leaſt troubleſome, as then both the number and activity of theſe vermin are diminiſhed; the heat is then abated by the ſouth-weſt and weſt ſouth-weſt breezes, which conſtantly begin at noon, and continue to refreſh the earth till five or ſix in the morning of the following day. The ſky is then always ſerene and bright, and the gentleſt ſhowers are rarely known; but the capital advantage is the remarkable ſalubrity of the air in that ſeaſon. The natives of the neighbouring mountains, who are inured to a cooler climate, cannot endure the air of Guayaquil, it having a natural tendency to debilitate them, and by an intemperate uſe of its delicious fruits, they throw themſelves into intermitting fevers: theſe are common at Guayaquil during the winter ſeaſon, and are here particularly painful and dangerous. The black vomit is alſo dangerous in this country. The natives are likewiſe very ſubject to cataracts and other diſeaſes of the eye, which often cauſe a total blindneſs.

Among the vegetable productions, we ſhall mention the canes, the vijahua, and the bejuco.

The canes are remarkable both for their length, their thickneſs, and the water contained in their tubes. Their uſual length is between twelve and ſixteen yards, and though there is ſome difference in their ſize, the largeſt do not exceed ſix inches in diameter. The wood or ſide of the tube is about ſix lines in thickneſs, ſo that when the cane is opened, it is made to form a board near a foot and a half in breadth, and hence it is not ſtrange that houſes ſhould be built of them. From the time of their firſt appearance, till they attain their full perfection, many of the tubes contain a quantity of water, and what is very remarkable, at full moon, they are either quite or very nearly full, and with the decreaſe of the moon the water ebbs. During the decreaſe it appears turbid, and at the full is as clear as cryſtal. The water is not found in all the joints, one having water, and others not, alternately. This water is ſaid to be an excellent preſervative againſt the ill conſequence of bruiſes, and is therefore drank by thoſe who come from the mountains, where ſuch accidents are in a manner unavoidable.

The canes being cut, are left to dry, whence they acquire ſuch a degree of ſtrength, as to ſerve either for rafters, beams, flooring, or even maſts for veſſels, called balzas. Ships which load with cacao are alſo ceiled with them, to preſerve the timbers from the great heat of that fruit. They alſo ſerve as poles for litters, and for an infinite number of other uſes.

The vijahua is a leaf generally five feet in length, and two and a half in breadth; growing wild, without any ſtem. The principal rib in the middle is near half an inch broad; but all the other parts are perfectly ſoft and ſmooth. The under-ſide is green, and the upper white, covered with a fine white viſcid down. It is commonly uſed for covering houſes; and ſerves for packing up ſalt, fiſh, and other goods, ſent to the mountains, to ſecure them from the rain.

The bejucos are a kind of woody cordage, of which there are two ſorts; one of which grows from the earth, and twines round the trees; the other ſtrikes its root into certain trees, and from thence derives its nouriſhment. Both kinds, after growing to a great height, incline again to the earth, on which they creep, till they meet with another tree, to the top of which they climb as before, and then again renew their inclination towards the earth, and thus form a labyrinth of ligatures. Some are even ſeen extended, like a cord, from the top of one tree to another. They are ſo extraordinary flexible, that no bending or twiſting can break them. The ſlendereſt of them are between a quarter and half an inch in diameter; but the moſt common ſize is a little above half an inch: indeed there are others much thicker; but thoſe are of little or no uſe, on account of the hardneſs, contracted in their long growth. They are chiefly uſed for laſhing, tying, or faſtening different things together; and by twiſting ſeveral of them in the manner of ropes, they make cables and hawſers for balzas, and ſmall veſſels; and are found by experience to laſt a long time in the water.

Here are thick foreſts of various kinds of large trees differing in foliage, the diſpoſition of their branches, and the ſize of their trunks. In the level part of this woody extent are a great number of quadrupeds and birds, and among the latter are wild peacocks, buſtards, pheaſants, and ſome others, which are here ſo numerous, that did they not always reſt on the tops of the trees, where, from their enormous height, or their being covered with leaves, they are ſecured from danger, a traveller with a good fowling-piece might at any time procure himſelf an elegant repaſt. Theſe foreſts are, however, terribly infeſted with ſnakes. Among the monkeys is one ſpecies ſo very large, that when ſtanding on their hind legs, they are little leſs than ſix feet high. They are black and in every reſpect very ugly, but are eaſily tamed.

The river Guayaquil abounds in fiſh of various kinds; but their increaſe is greatly hindered by the prodigious number of alligators, amphibious animals that live both in the rivers and adjacent plains, though they are ſeldom known to go far from the banks of the river. When tired with fiſhing, they leave the water to baſk themſelves in the ſun, and then appear rather like rotten wood thrown aſhore by the current, than living creatures; but upon perceiving any veſſel near them, they immediately throw themſelves into the water. They are the largeſt animals of the lizard kind; ſome of them here are of ſo monſtrous a ſize, as to exceed fifteen feet in length. The head is long, turning up at the noſe like the ſnout of a hog, and furniſhed with two rows of ſtrong pointed teeth. During the time they lie baſking on the ſhore, they keep their huge mouths wide open, till filled with muſkettos, flies, and other inſects, when, ſuddenly ſhutting their jaws, they ſwallow their prey. They generally avoid a man, and on the approach of any one, plunge into the water. The whole body of the alligator is covered with ſcales, impenetrable to a muſket ball, unleſs it happens to hit him in the belly, which is the only part vulnerable. This is an oviparous animal.

The female makes a large hole in the ſand near the brink of a river, and in it depoſits her eggs, which are almoſt as large as thoſe of an oſtrich, and as white as thoſe of a hen; but much more ſolid. She generally lays about a hundred, continuing in the ſame place till they are all depoſited, which is about a day or two. She not only covers them with ſand, but, the better to conceal them, rolls herſelf over them, even to a conſiderable diſtance, and then returns to the water, till natural inſtinct informs her, that it is time to deliver her young from their confinement. When ſhe comes to the ſpot, ſhe is followed by the male; ſhe then tears up the ſand, and begins breaking the eggs, with ſuch care, that ſcarce a ſingle one is injured, and a whole ſwarm of little alligators are ſeen crawling about. She then takes them on her neck and back, to remove them into the water; but the watchful gallinazos ſeize this opportunity to deprive her of ſome; and even the male alligator, which indeed comes for no other purpoſe, devours what he can, till the female has reached the water with the few remaining; and then all that fall from her back, and do not ſwim, ſhe herſelf eats, whence of this formidable brood happily no more than four or five eſcape.

The gallinazos, which we have deſcribed in treating of Carthagena, contribute greatly to prevent the increaſe of the alligators, they being extremely fond of their eggs, in finding which they make uſe of extraordinary addreſs. Theſe birds often make it their ſole buſineſs to watch the females during the dry ſeaſon, when they lay their eggs, the ſides of the river not being then covered with water. The gallinazo conceals itſelf among the branches of ſome tree, where it ſilently watches the female alligator, till ſhe has laid her eggs and retires; but ſhe is no ſooner under the water, than the gallinazo darts down on the repoſitory, and with its beak, claws, and wings, tears up the ſand, and devours the eggs, leaving only the ſhells. This banquet would richly reward its long patience, did not a multitude of gallinazos from all parts join the fortunate diſcoverer, and ſhare in the ſpoil. Theſe eggs, when

when freſh, are alſo eat by the mulattoes. Thus Providence diminiſhes the number of thoſe deſtructive animals, which would ſoon increaſe ſo faſt, that neither the river nor the neighbouring fields would be ſufficient to contain them; for as it is, their numbers can hardly be imagined.

The alligators are not wanting in addreſs in catching the fiſh, which is their principal food: eight or ten, as it were by agreement, draw up at the mouth of a river or creek, while others go a conſiderable diſtance up the river, and chace the fiſh downwards, by which none of any bigneſs eſcape them. The alligators being unable to eat under water, on ſeizing a fiſh, raiſe their head above the ſurface, and thus devour them; and, after ſatisfying their appetite, retire to reſt on the banks. When they cannot find fiſh, they betake themſelves to the meadows on the banks of the river, and devour colts and calves. This is done in the night, that they may ſurprize them in their ſleep; and it is obſerved, that thoſe alligators that have once taſted fleſh, become ſo fond of it, as never to feed upon fiſh, but in caſes of neceſſity. There are indeed many melancholy inſtances of their devouring the human ſpecies, eſpecially children who are out of doors in the dark; and theſe voracious animals having once ſeized them in their mouths, make ſure of their prey, againſt that aſſiſtance which the cries of the victim conſtantly bring, by haſtening into the water, where they immediately drown it, and then riſing to the ſurface devour it at leiſure. The boatmen, by inconſiderately ſleeping with one of their arms or legs over the ſide of a boat, have been ſeized by theſe animals, and the whole body drawn into the water. Thoſe alligators who have once feaſted on human fleſh, are known to be the moſt dangerous, and entertain an inſatiable deſire of repeating the ſame delicious repaſt.

The inhabitants of the places where they abound, are very induſtrious in deſtroying them. Their uſual method is by a piece of hard wood, ſharpened at both ends, and baited with the lungs of ſome animal; this they faſten to a thong, the end of which is ſecured on the ſhore. The alligator, on ſeeing the lungs floating on the water, ſnaps at the bait, and both points of the wood entering his jaws, he is dragged on ſhore with his mouth wide open: he then endeavours violently to reſcue himſelf, while the Indians bait him, knowing the greateſt damage he could do them is to throw down ſuch as, for want of care or agility, do not keep out of his reach.

We ſhall now deſcribe the city of Guayaquil, which is ſeated on the weſt bank of the river of the ſame name, in the ſecond degree eleven minutes twenty-one ſeconds of ſouth latitude. The old city is built on the ſide of a mountain, and the new at the diſtance of ſeveral hundred yards; and, for preſerving a communication between them, a bridge of timber has been erected of about ſix hundred yards in length. The city is of conſiderable extent, it ſtretching along the bank of the river from the lower part of the old town to the upper part of the new, near a mile and a half; but it is not of a proportionable breadth, every perſon being fond of having a houſe near the river; both on account of the refreſhing winds, which in the rainy ſeaſon are more eagerly coveted, as they are then very rare, and for the amuſements the river affords. The houſes of both towns are built of wood, and many of them covered with tiles, though the greateſt part of thoſe in the old town are only thatched. They are, however, large and handſome, and have one ſtory above the ground-floor. In the front are ſhops of all kinds, and before them are generally ſpacious porticos, which, during the rainy ſeaſons, are the only places where you can walk, the ſtreets being utterly impaſſable. As a precaution againſt fire the kitchens ſtand twelve or fifteen paces from the houſes, to which they are joined by a long open gallery reſembling a bridge; but ſo ſlightly built, that it is inſtantly demoliſhed on the leaſt appearance of fire in the kitchen, by which means the houſe is preſerved. Perſons of rank and fortune live in the upper apartments, and the ground-floor is let to ſtrangers who come to trade, or paſs through the city with their goods.

The ground on which the new city is built, and the ſavannahs in its neighbourhood, are not to be travelled over, either on foot or on horſeback, during the rainy ſeaſon; for it is not only of a ſpongy chalk, but is every where ſo level, that there is no declivity for carrying off the water, whence on the firſt rain it becomes one general ſlough. In that ſeaſon the ſtreets of the city are croſſed by very large planks, but theſe ſoon becoming ſlippery, occaſion frequent falls into the water, which at the return of the dry ſeaſon is ſoon exhaled, and all the country rendered ſufficiently dry for travelling.

The city is defended by three forts, two on the river, and one behind it, all built after the modern method of fortification. Theſe forts are built of large pieces of a very hard wood, which retains its ſolidity either under the water or in the mud. All the churches and convents are likewiſe of wood, except that of St. Domingo in the old town, which is of ſtone; the great ſolidity of the ground in that part being ſufficient to ſupport heavy buildings. Here is a pariſh-church, and alſo a convent belonging to the Auguſtines, and another to the Franciſcans, with a college of Jeſuits; but the monks are not very numerous on account of the ſmallneſs of their revenues. Here is alſo an hoſpital.

The city and its juriſdiction are under a corregidor, who is nominated by the king, and holds his office during five years. Though he is ſubordinate to the preſident and audience of Quito, he appoints the deputies in the ſeveral departments under his juriſdiction; and the police and civil government are under ordinary alcaldes and regidores. The revenue is under the management of a treaſurer and an accomptant, who receive the tributes of the Indians, the duties on imports and exports, and the taxes on the commodities either conſumed in the city or carried through it. The eccleſiaſtical government is lodged in the biſhop of Quito's vicar, who is generally prieſt of the town.

Guayaquil contains as many inhabitants in proportion to its extent as any Spaniſh city in America; the continual reſort of ſtrangers greatly increaſe the number, which is computed at twenty thouſand. The inhabitants capable of bearing arms are divided into companies of militia according to their rank and complexion, and are commanded by officers choſen by themſelves, the corregidor being commander in chief.

Though the heat is here equal to that of Panama or Carthagena, all the natives, except thoſe born from a mixture of blood, are freſh-coloured, and are eſteemed the handſomeſt people not only in the province of Quito, but in all Peru. It is remarkable that the natives, notwithſtanding the heat of the climate, are not tawny, and that though the Spaniards have not naturally ſo fair a complexion as the northern nations, their children born here of Spaniſh women are very fair; a phænomenon which has yet never been fully accounted for. To theſe advantages it muſt be added, that the inhabitants are greatly diſtinguiſhed by their elegance and politeneſs.

In this city neceſſity has introduced ſeveral kinds of bread, to ſupply the want of wheat; and the moſt uſual is unripe plantanes cut into ſlices, roaſted, and ſerved up as bread, to which this is even preferred by the Europeans themſelves, the wheat-bread being here badly made, and this is far from being unpalatable.

In the dry ſeaſon good water is very ſcarce at Guayaquil, there being none at a leſs diſtance than four or five leagues up the river. In dreſſing their food they commonly uſe beef-ſuet inſtead of butter, but it has the ſmell and taſte of tallow, which renders their diſhes extremely nauſeous to ſtangers; and, what is little better, they are all ſeaſoned with Guinea pepper, which they think the fineſt ingredient in the world for giving a reliſh to their food, and uſe it in ſuch quantities as to make the mouth in a flame.

The inhabitants of Guayaquil affect great ſplendor in their entertainments. The firſt courſe conſiſts of different kinds of ſweetmeats, the ſecond of high-ſeaſoned ragouts, and thus they continue to ſerve up alternately a ſucceſſion of ſweet and high ſeaſoned diſhes. The common drink on theſe occaſions is brandy, cordials, and wine, of all which they drink freely during the entertainment; but the Europeans generally prefer wine. The cuſtom of drinking punch obtains greatly among perſons of diſtinction, who generally drink a glaſs of it at eleven, and another in the evening; it not only allaying the

thirſt, but correcting the water, which, beſides the diſagreeable taſte communicated to it by the heat, produces exceſſive perſpiration; and this cuſtom ſo prevails, that even the ladies punctually obſerve it.

With reſpect to the commerce of Guayaquil, it may be divided into two parts, one conſiſting of the products and manufactures of its juriſdiction, and the other tranſitory; its port being the place where the goods from the provinces of Peru and Terra Firma conſigned to the mountains are landed; and, on the other hand, thoſe from the mountains deſigned for theſe provinces are brought hither, and ſhipped for their reſpective ports.

Cacao, one of its principal products, is chiefly exported to Panama, New Spain, and Peru. Timber, which is eſteemed the ſecond article, is chiefly ſent to Callao. Theſe branches of trade are of great advantage to Guayaquil, from the prodigious quantities exported; and the trade of ſalt is not inferior to either, though the principal markets to which it is ſent are only the inland towns in the province of Quito. To theſe may be added cotton, rice, and fiſh, both ſalted and dried, horned cattle, mules and colts, tobacco, wax, Guinea pepper, and Ceibo wool, which is the produce of a very high tufted tree.

The goods imported hither from Peru in return for the above-mentioned commodities, are wine, brandy, oil, and dried fruits. From Quito it receives baize, flour, bacon, hams, cheeſe, and other goods; from Panama European goods purchaſed at the fairs; from Mexico iron found in that country, but much inferior to that of Europe, naptha, tar, and cordage.

SECT. V.

Of the Cuſtoms and Manners of the Indians throughout the Audience of Quito.

THE diſpoſition of the Indians in the province of Quito is extremely remarkable, and they appear to have no reſemblance to the people found there by thoſe who firſt diſcovered the country. They at preſent poſſeſs a tranquillity not to be diſturbed either by fortunate or unfortunate events. In their mean apparel they are as contented as a prince clothed in the moſt ſplendid robes. They ſhew the ſame diſregard to riches, and even the authority and grandeur within their reach is ſo little the object of their ambition, that to all appearance it ſeems to be the ſame to an Indian, whether he be created an alcalde, or obliged to perform the office of a common executioner. Among them a reciprocal eſteem is neither increaſed nor diminiſhed by ſuch circumſtances: the ſame moderation appears in their food, and they enjoy their ſimple diet with the ſame complacency as others do their well furniſhed tables. Nothing can move them to alter their minds, it being common for them to decline a little act of ſervice, though offered a very conſiderable reward. Fear cannot ſtimulate, reſpect induce, or puniſhment compel them. They are indeed proof againſt every attempt to rouſe them from their natural indolence, in which they ſeem to look down with contempt on the wiſeſt of mortals.

They are in general remarkably ſlow. Thus in weaving carpets, curtains, quilts, and other ſtuffs, being unacquainted with any better method, in forming the woof they have the patience every time to count the threads one by one; ſo that two or three years are requiſite to finiſh a ſingle piece. Their ſloth is ſo great, that ſcarcely any thing can induce them to work. Whatever therefore is neceſſary to be done is left to the Indian women, who are much more active; they ſpin and make the half ſhirts and drawers which form the only apparel of their huſbands; they cook the proviſions, grind barley, and brew the beer called chicha; while the huſband ſits ſquatting on his hams, the uſual poſture of the Indians, looking at his buſy wife. The only domeſtic ſervice they do, is to plough their little ſpot of land, which is ſowed by the wife. When they are once ſettled in the above poſture, no reward can induce them to ſtir; ſo that if a traveller has loſt his way, and happens to come to one of their cottages, they charge their wives to ſay that they are not at home. Should the paſſenger alight and enter the cottage, the Indian would ſtill be ſafe; for having no light but what comes through a hole in the door, he could not be diſcovered; and ſhould the ſtranger even ſee the Indian, neither entreaties nor rewards would prevail on him to ſtir a ſtep with him.

In order that they may perform the works appointed by their maſters, and for which they are paid, it is to little purpoſe to ſhew them their taſk; the maſter muſt have his eye continually upon them, for he no ſooner turns his back than they leave off working. They are lively only in parties of pleaſure, rejoicings, entertainments, and eſpecially dancing; but in all theſe the liquor muſt circulate briſkly, and they continue drinking till they are entirely deprived both of ſenſe and motion. Their propenſity to intemperance is ſo great, that the cacique and the alcalde never fail to be of the company at all entertainments, and drink like the reſt till quite overcome by the chicha.

It is remarkable that the Indian women, whether maids or married, and Indian young men before they are of an age to contract matrimony, are never guilty of this vice; it being a maxim among them, that drunkenneſs is the privilege of none but maſters of families, who, when they are unable to take care of themſelves, have others to take care of them.

When they celebrate any ſolemnity, the perſon who gives the entertainment invites all his acquaintance, providing for each a jug of chicha, containing two gallons. In the court of the houſe, if it be a large town, or before the cottage, if in a village, a table is placed, and covered with a carpet only uſed on ſuch feſtivals; and upon it is placed a ſlight repaſt. The women preſent the chicha to their huſbands in calabaſhes, till their ſpirits are raiſed; then one plays on a pipe and tabor, while others dance. Some of the beſt voices among the Indian women ſing ſongs in their own languages, and thoſe who do not dance ſquat down in the uſual poſture till it comes to their turn. When tired with intemperance they all lie down together, without minding whether they be near the wife of another, or their own ſiſter or daughter. Theſe feſtivities ſometimes continue three or four days, till the prieſt coming among them, throws away all the chicha, and diſperſes the Indians, leſt they ſhould procure more.

Their funerals are likewiſe ſolemnized with exceſſive drinking. The houſe is filled with jugs of chicha, for the ſolace of the mourners and other viſitors; the latter even go out into the ſtreets, and invite all of their nation who happen to paſs by, to come in and drink to the honour of the deceaſed. This ceremony laſts four or five days, and ſometimes more, ſtrong liquor being their ſupreme enjoyment.

Though they are ſo addicted to intemperance, they cannot be charged with gaming. They ſeem to have no inclination for play, nor have above one kind, and that is of great antiquity. This game they call paſa, or a hundred, as he who firſt gets that number wins. They play with two inſtruments, one a ſpread eagle of wood, with ten holes on each ſide, and pegs to ſet up the game: the other is a die of bone cut with ſeven faces, one of which has a particular mark, and is called guayro. Five of the others tell according to their number, and the laſt is a blank. In playing they toſs up the die, and the marks on the upper ſurface are ſo many gained; but the guayro goes for ten, and the like number is loſt if the blank ſide appears. This game is peculiar to the Indians; but is little uſed, except at their revels.

The habitations of theſe Indians, like thoſe of others we have deſcribed, conſiſt only of a little cottage, in the middle of which is their fire-place. Here both they and the animals they breed live promiſcuouſly. They have a particular fondneſs for dogs, and are never without three or four, a hog or two, and a few poultry. Theſe, with ſome earthen-ware, as pots and jugs, with the cotton which their wives ſpin, conſtitute the whole inventory of their effects, except two or three ſheep ſkins which ſerve them for beds. Though the Indian women breed fowl and other domeſtic animals in their cottages, they never

never eat them, and even conceive ſuch a fondneſs for them, that they will neither kill them with their own hands nor ſell them: ſo that if a ſtranger, who is obliged to paſs the night in one of their cottages, offers ever ſo much money for a fowl, they refuſe to part with it; and he finds himſelf under the neceſſity of killing the fowl himſelf, at which his landlady ſhrieks, diſſolves in tears, and wrings her hands; till at laſt, ſeeing there is no remedy for what is paſſed, ſhe wipes her eyes, and quietly takes what the traveller offers her.

Many in their journeys take their whole family with them. The cottages are in the mean time ſhut up, and there being no valuable furniture to loſe, a ſtring or thong of leather ſerves for a lock. If their journey is to laſt for ſeveral days, they take their animals to the cottage of ſome neighbour or acquaintance: if otherwiſe their dogs are left guardians of the whole, and diſcharge their truſt with ſuch care, that they will fly at any one, except their maſters, who offers to come to the cottage. It is obſervable that dogs bred by the Spaniards and Meſtizos have ſuch a hatred to the Indians, that if one of them approaches a houſe where he is not very well known, they fall upon him, and, if not called off, tear him to pieces; for they know them at a diſtance by their ſcent: on the other hand, the dogs of Indian breed are animated with the ſame rage againſt the Spaniards and Meſtizos, whom they likewiſe ſmell at a diſtance.

The Indians in the audience of Quito act contrary to all other nations in their marriages; for they never make choice of a woman who has not been firſt known by others, which they conſider as a certain ſign of her having ſomething pleaſing in her. After a young man has aſked the object of his affections of her father, and obtained his conſort, they immediately begin to live together as man and wife, and aſſiſt the father-in-law in cultivating the land. At the end of three or four months, and frequently of a year, he leaves his bride without any ceremony; and perhaps expoſtulates with his father-in-law for endeavouring to deceive him, by impoſing upon him his daughter, whom no body elſe had thought worthy of making his bedfellow. But if nothing of this happens, after paſſing three or four months in this commerce, which they call amanarſe, or to habituate oneſelf, they then marry. This cuſtom is ſtill very common, though the whole body of the clergy have uſed all their endeavours to put a ſtop to it. Accordingly they always abſolve them of that ſin, before they give them the nuptial benediction.

Their intrepidity ſhews itſelf upon many occaſions, particularly in the alacrity and reſolution with which they halter a bull at full ſpeed, and with the ſame dexterity and courage they hunt the bears; for a ſingle Indian, with only a horſe and his nooſe, never fails of getting the better of all the cunning and rage of this furious animal. This nooſe is made of cow-hide, ſo thin as not to be ſeized by the beaſt's paw, and at the ſame time ſtrong enough not to be broke by the ſtruggles of the bear. On their perceiving this animal they directly make towards him, whilſt he rears himſelf up in order to ſeize the horſe. But the Indian, being advanced within a proper diſtance, throws the nooſe about the creature's neck, and twiſting the other end two or three times round the ſaddle, he then with ſurprizing celerity claps ſpurs to his horſe, and the bear, unable to keep pace with the horſe, and ſtruggling to get free, is choaked. This atchievement is looked upon as an admirable piece of courage and dexterity; and is commonly practiſed in the province of Alauſi, near the eaſtern Cordillera, where theſe creatures abound.

A great part of the ruſticity in the minds of the Indians muſt be imputed to a want of culture; for they who in ſome parts have enjoyed that advantage, are found to have as good rational faculties as other men; and if they have not all the politeneſs of civilized nations, they at leaſt think properly. All the Indians brought up to handicraft trades in cities and large towns are far more acute and ſenſible than thoſe who have ſpent their lives in little villages, and many of theſe diſtinguiſh themſelves by their genius and abilities.

SECT. VI.

Of the CORDILLERAS *of the* ANDES.

The moſt remarkable of them with reſpect to their Height and Volcanoes: their Climate: a remarkable Phenomenon: the Animals found upon the Andes; with a particular Deſcription of the Condor: the Bridges over the Rivers in the Andes; and the Roads over the Mountains.

WE now come to the moſt remarkable mountains and deſarts in the Cordilleras of the Andes, near the countries laſt deſcribed. It has been obſerved, that the dependences of the juriſdictions of Quito are ſeated between the two Cordilleras of the Andes, and that the air is more or leſs cold, and the ground barren, according to the height of the mountains. Theſe barren tracts are called deſarts; for, though all the Cordilleras are dry, ſome are much more ſo than others; and the continual ſnows and froſts render ſome parts of them without a ſingle plant, and conſequently uninhabitable by man or beaſt.

Some of theſe mountains, which appear as if founded on others, riſe to a moſt aſtoniſhing height, and reaching far above the clouds, are here in the midſt of the torrid zone covered with perpetual ſnow. From barometrical experiments made on the mountain Cotopaxi, it appears that its ſummit is elevated ſix thouſand two hundred and fifty-two yards above the ſurface of the ſea, ſomething above three geographical miles, which greatly exceeds the height of any other mountain in the known world.

Cotopaxi became a volcano at the time of the Spaniards firſt arrival in this country. A new eruption happened in 1743, which had been for ſome days preceded by a continual rumbling in its bowels: after which an aperture was made in its ſummit, as alſo three others near the middle of its declivity, at that period buried under prodigious maſſes of ſnow. The ignited ſubſtances ejected on that occaſion, mixed with a conſiderable quantity of ſnow and ice, melting amidſt the flames, were carried down with ſuch amazing rapidity, that in an inſtant the plain from Callo to Latacunga was overflowed; and, beſides its bearing down the houſes of the poor inhabitants, great numbers of people loſt their lives. The river of Latacunga was the canal of this dreadful flood, till being too ſmall for receiving the prodigious current, it overflowed the adjacent country, carried away all the buildings within its reach, and rendered the land near the town of the ſame name like a vaſt lake. The inhabitants retired to a ſpot of higher ground behind their town; thoſe parts of which that ſtood within the limits of the current were entirely deſtroyed. During three days the volcano ejected cinders, while torrents of melted ice and ſnow poured down its ſides. The fire laſted ſeveral days longer, and was accompanied with terrible roarings of the wind, ruſhing through the mouths of the volcano. At laſt all was quiet, and neither ſmoke nor fire were to be ſeen. However, in May 1744, the flames forced a paſſage through ſeveral other parts on the ſides of the mountain; ſo that in clear nights the flames, being reflected by the tranſparent ice, formed a very grand and beautiful illumination. But on the thirteenth of November following it ejected ſuch prodigious quantities of fire and ignited ſubſtances, that an inundation equal to the former ſoon enſued, and the inhabitants of the town of Latacunga for ſome time gave themſelves over for loſt.

The moſt ſouthern mountain of the Cordilleras is that of Mecas, or Sangay, which is of a prodigious height, and the far greateſt part of it covered with ſnow; yet from its ſummit iſſues a continual fire, attended with exploſions which are plainly heard at forty leagues diſtance. The country adjacent to this volcano is entirely barren, it being covered with cinders ejected from its mouth. In this mountain riſes the river Sangay, which being joined by the Upano forms the Payra, a large river which diſcharges itſelf into the Maranon.

In order to convey an idea of the climate on the top of theſe mountains, we ſhall give ſome account of that which

prevailed on Pichincha, when Don George Juan and Don Antonio de Ulloa were ſtationed there in order to make their proper obſervations in relation to the figure of the earth, whence a judgment may be formed of the reſt; the inclemency of the weather being in proportion to the height of the mountains.

Pichincha, though famous for its great height, is twelve hundred and ſeventy-eight yards lower than the perpendicular height of Cotopaxi, and was formerly a volcano, but the mouth on one of its ſides is now covered with ſand and calcined matter; ſo that at preſent neither ſmoke or fire iſſues from it. Our learned author found the cold on the top of this mountain extremely intenſe, the wind violent, and they were frequently involved in ſo thick a fog, or, in other words, a cloud, that an object at ſix or eight paces diſtance was ſcarcely diſcernible. The air grew clear by the clouds moving nearer to the ſurface of the earth, and on all ſides ſurrounded the mountain to a vaſt diſtance, repreſenting the ſea with their rock ſtanding like an iſland in the center. When this happened, they heard the dreadful noiſe of the tempeſts that diſcharged themſelves on Quito, and the neighbouring country. They ſaw the lightning iſſue from the clouds, and heard the thunder roll far beneath them. While the lower parts were involved in tempeſts of thunder and rain, they enjoyed a delightful ſerenity; the wind was abated, the ſky clear, and the enlivening rays of the ſun moderated the ſeverity of the cold. But when the clouds roſe their thickneſs rendered reſpiration difficult; ſnow and hail fell continually, and the wind returned with all its violence; ſo that it was impoſſible entirely to overcome the fear of being, together with their hut, blown down the precipice, on whoſe edge it was built, or of being buried in it by the daily accumulations of ice and ſnow. Their fears were likewiſe increaſed by the fall of enormous fragments of rocks. Though the ſmalleſt crevice viſible in their hut was ſtopped, the wind was ſo piercing, that it penetrated through; and though it was ſmall, crowded with inhabitants, and had ſeveral lamps conſtantly burning, the cold was ſo great, that every one of them was obliged to have a chafing-diſh of coals, and ſeveral men were conſtantly employed every morning to remove the ſnow which fell in the night. By the aſperities of ſuch a climate their feet were ſwelled, and ſo tender, that walking was attended with extreme pain, their hands covered with chilblains, and their lips ſo ſwelled and chopt, that every motion in ſpeaking drew blood.

"There is in all this range of mountains, as far as "I have travelled, ſays M. Bouguer, who was engaged "in the ſame expedition as the gentlemen laſt mentioned, a conſtant inferior boundary, beyond which the "ſnow never melts; this boundary, in the midſt of the "torrid zone, I found to be two thouſand four hundred "and thirty-four fathoms above the level of the South "ſea. The ſnow indeed falls much lower, but then it "is ſubject to be melted the very ſame day; whereas "above that it preſerves itſelf,

"The gather'd winter of a thouſand years."

Before we conclude this article, it will be proper to mention a phænomenon of a very extraordinary nature, which, according to the author juſt mentioned, appears almoſt every day on the top of theſe mountains; and though it is doubtleſs as ancient as the world, it was perhaps never mentioned before. The firſt time our authors obſerved it was, when they were on the top of Pambamorca, a mountain leſs high than Pichincha. A cloud, in which they were involved at break of day, diſſipating, they ſaw the riſing-ſun extremely ſplendid, and the cloud paſſed on the other ſide oppoſite to the ſun, where it appeared very thin, and was about twenty yards diſtant from the place where they were ſtanding, when they ſaw in it, as in a looking-glaſs, the image of each of them; and what appeared ſtill more extraordinary, the head was adorned with a glory like what is ſeen round the heads of ſaints in pictures, each head being as it were the center of three concentric iriſes, of very lively colours, and each with the ſame varieties as a rainbow, the red being outward; the laſt or moſt external colours of one touched the firſt of the following; and from ſome diſtance from them all was a fourth arch, entirely white. Theſe were perpendicular to the horizon; and as the perſon moved, the phænomenon moved alſo. But what was moſt remarkable, though there were ſix or ſeven perſons, each could ſee none but his own ſhadow, becauſe the cloud had an uneven ſurface. The diameter of the arches gradually altered with the aſcent of the ſun above the horizon, and the phænomenon itſelf, after continuing a long time, inſenſibly vaniſhed. Don Antonio Ulloa gives a particular deſcription of this phænomenon, and M. Bouguer, after deſcribing it, ſays, "This was a kind of apotheoſis to each "ſpectator; and I cannot forbear mentioning again, "that each enjoyed the ſecret pleaſure of ſeeing himſelf "adorned with all theſe crowns, without perceiving "thoſe of his neighbours. I muſt obſerve, however, "that this phænomenon doth not appear unleſs the "aqueous particles of the cloud are frozen."

In thoſe parts of the mountains that are not ſo high as to expoſe them to an eternal froſt, there grows a kind of ruſh, and ſeveral other plants, with a few trees of one or two ſpecies, which are too barren to admit of cultivation.

Though the ſeverity of the air on theſe deſarts is ſo great, that all animals cannot live upon them, yet they afford many deer, which feed on the ſtraw or ruſhes peculiar to thoſe parts; and ſome of them are to be met with on the higheſt mountains, where the cold is intolerable to the human ſpecies. Among the ruſhes are alſo bred a great number of rabbits, and ſome foxes.

The only birds known in thoſe rigorous places are partridges, which are ſomething different from thoſe of Europe, and nearly reſemble the quail, with condors and hummers.

The condor, which is the largeſt bird in theſe parts, reſembles in its colours and appearance the gallinazo, already deſcribed, and ſometimes ſoars from the higheſt mountains ſo as to be almoſt out of ſight. From its being ſeldom ſeen in low places, a ſubtile air ſeems to agree beſt with it; though ſome that have been tamed when young live in the villages and plantations. They are extremely carnivorous, and are frequently known to ſeize and fly away with lambs that feed on the heaths upon the ſides of the mountains. Our author confirms this by his own obſervation; for ſeeing on a hill, adjoining to one on which he ſtood, a flock of ſheep in great confuſion, he perceived a condor flying upwards from it, with a lamb in its claws. When at ſome height he dropped it; but following it took it up, and let it fall a ſecond time; and then winged its way out of ſight, for fear of the Indians, who, at the cry of the boys and barkings of the dogs, were running towards the place.

In ſome deſarts this bird is more common, and as it preys on the flocks, the Indians are not wanting in their endeavours to catch it. One of theſe ways is killing an old cow, or ſome other beaſt, and rubbing the fleſh with the juice of ſome potent herbs, which they afterwards carry away, otherwiſe the bird would not touch the fleſh; and farther, to take off the ſmell, bury the fleſh till it becomes putrid, and then expoſe it; when the condors, allured by the ſmell of the carcaſe, haſten and feed on it greedily, till the herbs operating, they become ſenſeleſs and incapable of motion; when the Indians, ſeizing this opportunity, deſtroy them. They likewiſe catch them with ſprings laid near ſome fleſh; but ſuch is the ſtrength of this bird, that with a ſtroke of its wing it ſometimes knocks down the man who approaches it. Their wing alſo ſerves them as a ſhield, by which they ward off blows, without receiving any viſible hurt.

From moſt of theſe mountains flow rivers, which when too deep to be forded, bridges are made at the moſt frequented places. Of theſe there are two kinds, beſides thoſe of ſtone, which are very few. The moſt common are of wood, and the reſt of bejucos, the plant we have deſcribed as uſed for all the purpoſes of ropes. With regard to the firſt, they chooſe a place where the river is very narrow, and has on each ſide high rocks. Theſe only conſiſt of four long beams laid over the precipice, forming a path about a yard and a half in breadth, juſt ſufficient for a man to paſs over on horſeback; and cuſtom has

has rendered these so familiar, that the people pass them without any apprehensions.

The bridges of bejucos are only used where the breadth of the river will not admit of beams being laid across. In their construction several bejucos are twisted together, in order to form a large cable of the length required. Six of these are drawn from one side of the river to the other, two of which are considerably higher than the other four, and serve for rails. Across the latter are wattled cross sticks of bejucos, and the whole resembles a fishing-net, or Indian hammock stretched from one side of the river to the other. As the meshes of this net are very large, and the foot would be in danger of slipping through, they take care to strew reeds at the bottom, which serve for a floor. The reader will easily conceive, says our author, that the mere weight of this kind of basket machine, and much more the weight of a man passing over, must cause it to make a prodigious bend; and if it be considered that the passenger, when he is in the midst of his course, especially if there be a wind, is exposed to vast swingings from side to side, a bridge of this sort, sometimes more than ninety feet long, must at first sight be extremely frightful; yet the Indians pass over it running, though loaded with the baggage and pack-saddles of the mules, and laugh to see the Europeans hesitate in venturing. Most of these bridges are only for men and women, the mules swimming over the rivers; for their loading being taken off they are driven into the water near half a league above the bridge, that they may reach the opposite shore near it, they being carried so far by the rapidity of the stream.

Some rivers, instead of a bejuco bridge, are passed by means of a tarabita, a single rope made of bejucos, or thongs cut from the hide of an ox, and consisting of several strands, about six or eight inches in thickness. This rope is extended from one side of the river to the other, and fastened on each bank to strong posts. On one side it is fastened to a wheel, that it may be straightened or slackened to the degree required. From the tarabita hangs a kind of leathern hammock, capable of holding a man, suspended by a clue at each end. A rope is also fastened and extended to the sides of the river, for drawing the hammock to the side intended, which with a push at its first setting off sends it quickly to the other side. This not only serves to carry over persons and loads, but also the beasts themselves, where the rapidity of the stream, and the prodigious stones continually carried along by it, render it impracticable for them to swim over.

For carrying over the mules two tarabitas are necessary, one for each side of the river, and the ropes are much thicker and slacker. On this rope is only one clue, which is of wood, and by this the beast is suspended, he being secured with girts round the belly and neck. When this is performed the creature is shoved off, and immediately landed on the opposite side. Those that are accustomed to be conveyed over in this manner never make the least motion, but even come of themselves to have the girts fastened round them; yet it is with great difficulty they are at first brought to suffer this to be done, and when they find themselves suspended they kick and fling during their short passage.

The roads over some of these mountains are not the least of those extraordinary particulars relating to them. In many places the road is so narrow that the mules have scarce room to set their feet, and in others is a continued series of precipices. Besides, these roads are full of holes near three quarters of a yard deep, in which the mules put their fore and hind feet, so that sometimes they draw their bellies and the rider's legs along the ground. Indeed these holes serve as steps, without which the precipices would be in a great measure impassable; but should he happen to put his foot between two of these holes, or not place it right, the rider falls, and, if on the side of the precipice, inevitably perishes.

But the manner of descending seems still more dangerous. On one side are frequently steep eminences, and on the other frightful abysses; and as they generally follow the direction of the mountain, the road, instead of being on a level, forms steep eminences and declivities. The mules are sensible of the caution requisite in these descents, for coming to the top of an eminence they stop, and having placed their fore-feet close together, place their hinder feet a little forwards, as if going to lie down. Having in this attitude taken a survey of the road, they slide down with the swiftness of a meteor. All the rider has to do is to keep himself fast in the saddle, for the least motion is sufficient to disorder the equilibrium of the mule, in which case they both unavoidably perish. His address here is extremely wonderful; for in this rapid motion, when he seems to have lost all government of himself, he follows exactly the different windings of the road, as if he had accurately settled in his mind the road he was to follow, and taken every precaution for his safety. But the longest practice of travelling these roads cannot entirely free the mules from a kind of dread, on their arriving on the top of a steep declivity; for they not only attentively view the road, but tremble and snort at the danger. If the rider inadvertently endeavours to spur them on, they continue immoveable; and it is really wonderful to consider how, after having overcome the first emotions of their fear, they stretch out their fore-legs, that by preserving a proper equilibrium they may not fall, yet make with their body that gentle inclination necessary to follow the several windings of the road, and afterwards their address in stopping themselves at the end of their impetuous career.

SECT. VII.

Of the Audience of LIMA.

Its Situation, Extent, and Climate, particularly near the Capital, where the Rain, Snow, Hail, Thunder, and Lightning are unknown; but is subject to Earthquakes, some of which are described. Of the Soil and Produce. A particular Description of the City of Lima; with the Dress, Manners, Customs, and Trade of the Inhabitants.

THE next division of Peru is the audience of Lima, which is bounded on the north by Quito, on the east by the Cordillera of the Andes, on the south by the audience of Los Charcas, and on the west by the Pacific ocean, it being about seven hundred and seventy miles in length from north to south, but of an unequal breadth.

Nothing can be imagined more various than the climate and soil of this country, which in some places is exceeding hot, in others insupportably cold, and in the city of Lima, where it never rains, is always temperate. The seasons vary within the compass of a few miles, and in certain parts of the audience all the vicissitudes of weather are experienced in twenty-four hours. What is most singular is, that no rains fall or rivers flow on the sea-coasts, though they are supplied by thick fogs and dark clouds, that never condense into showers. This phænomenon has exercised the thoughts of many naturalists.

Spring begins towards the close of the year, that is towards the end of November or the beginning of December, when the vapours which fill the atmosphere during the winter subside, and the sun to the great joy of the inhabitants again appears, and the country now begins to revive, which during the absence of his rays had continued in a state of languor. This is succeeded by summer, which though hot, from the perpendicular direction of the sun's rays, is far from being insupportable, the heat, which indeed would otherwise be excessive, being moderated by the south winds, which always blow at this season, though with no great force. Winter begins at the latter end of June or the beginning of July, and continues till November or December, when the south winds begin to blow stronger, and bring the cold with them, not indeed equal to that in countries where ice and snow are known; but so keen that the light dresses are laid by, and cloth or other warm stuffs worn. During the winter the earth is covered with so thick a fog, as totally to intercept the rays of the sun, and the winds, by blowing under the shelter of this fog, retain the particles they contracted in the frozen zone. In this season only the vapours dissolve into a very small dew, which every where equally moistens the earth, by which means all the hills, which during the other parts of the year

offer nothing to the ſight but rocks and waſtes, are clothed with verdure and enamelled with flowers of the moſt beautiful colours. Theſe dews never fall in ſuch quantities as to damage the roads, or incommode the traveller; a very thin ſtuff will not ſoon be wet through; but the continuance of the miſts during the whole winter, without being exhaled by the ſun, render the moſt barren ſpots of this part of the country fertile.

Lima is as free from tempeſts as from rain; ſo that thoſe of the inhabitants who have neither viſited the mountains, nor travelled into other parts, are abſolute ſtrangers to thunder and lightning, and are therefore extremely terrified when they firſt hear the former or ſee the latter. But it is very remarkable, that what is here entirely unknown ſhould be ſo common thirty leagues to the eaſt of Lima, it being no farther to the mountains, where violent rains and tempeſts of thunder and lightning are as frequent as at Quito.

But though the capital is freed from the terror of theſe tempeſts, it is ſubject to what is much more dreadful. The earthquakes happen here ſo frequently, that the inhabitants are under continual apprehenſions of being, from their ſuddenneſs and violence, buried in the ruins of their own houſes: yet theſe earthquakes, though ſo ſudden, have their preſages, one of the principal of which is a rumbling noiſe in the bowels of the earth about a minute before the ſhocks are felt, that ſeems to pervade all the adjacent ſubterraneous parts. This is followed by diſmal howlings of the dogs, which ſeem to perceive the approaching danger. The beaſts of burthen paſſing the ſtreets ſtop, and by a natural inſtinct ſpread open their legs, the better to ſecure themſelves from falling. On theſe portents the terrified inhabitants fly from their houſes into the ſtreets with ſuch precipitation, that if it happens in the night, they appear quite naked; fear and the urgency of the danger at once baniſhing all ſenſe of decency. Thus the ſtreets exhibit ſuch odd and ſingular figures, as might afford matter of diverſion, were it poſſible to be diverted in ſo terrible a moment. This ſudden concourſe is accompanied with the cries of children waked out of their ſleep, blended with the lamentations of the women, whoſe agonizing prayers to the ſaints increaſe the common fear and confuſion. The men are alſo too much affected to refrain from giving vent to their terror; ſo that the whole city exhibits a dreadful ſcene of conſternation and horror.

The earthquakes that have happened at the capital are very numerous. The firſt ſince the eſtabliſhment of the Spaniards was in 1582; but the damage was much leſs conſiderable than in ſome of the ſucceeding: for ſix years after Lima was again viſited by another earthquake ſo dreadful, that it is ſtill ſolemnly commemorated every year. In 1609 happened another, which overturned many houſes. On the twenty-ſeventh of November, 1630, ſuch prodigious damage was done in the city by an earthquake, that, in acknowledgement of its not having been entirely demoliſhed, a feſtival on that day is annually celebrated. Twenty-four years after, on the third of November, the moſt ſtately edifices in the city, and a great number of houſes, were deſtroyed by an earthquake; but the inhabitants retiring, few of them periſhed. Another dreadful one happened in 1678; but one of the moſt terrible was on the twenty-eighth of October, 1687. It began at four in the morning, with the deſtruction of many of the fineſt public buildings and houſes, in which a great number of the inhabitants periſhed; but this was little more than a preſage of what followed; for two hours after the ſhock returned with ſuch impetuous concuſſions, that all was laid in ruins, and the inhabitants began to think themſelves happy in being only ſpectators of the general devaſtation, and the loſs of all their property. During this ſecond ſhock the ſea retiring conſiderably, and then returning in mountainous waves, entirely overwhelmed Callao and the adjacent country, together with the miſerable inhabitants. From that time ſix earthquakes happened at Lima before that of 1746. This laſt was on the twenty-eighth of October at half an hour after ten at night, when the concuſſions began with ſuch violence, that in little more than three minutes the greateſt part, if not all the buildings in the whole city were deſtroyed, burying under their ruins thoſe inhabitants who had not made ſufficient haſte into the ſtreets and ſquares, the only places of ſafety. At length the horrible effects of this firſt ſhock ceaſed; but the tranquillity was of ſhort duration, the concuſſions ſwiftly ſucceeding each other. The fort of Callao alſo ſunk into ruins; but what it ſuffered from the earthquake in its buildings was inconſiderable when compared to the dreadful cataſtrophe which followed; for the ſea, as is uſual on ſuch occaſions, receding to a conſiderable diſtance, returned in mountainous waves, foaming with the violence of the agitation, and ſuddenly turned Callao and the neighbouring country into a ſea. This, however, was not perfectly performed by the firſt ſwell of the waves; for the ſea retiring farther, returned ſtill with greater impetuoſity, and covered both the walls and other buildings of the place; ſo that what even had eſcaped the firſt, was now totally overwhelmed by thoſe terrible mountainous waves. Twenty-three ſhips and veſſels, great and ſmall, were then in the harbour, nineteen of which were ſunk, and the other four, among which was a frigate named St. Fermin, carried by the force of the waves to a conſiderable diſtance up the country. This terrible inundation extended to other parts on the coaſt, and ſeveral towns underwent the ſame fate as the city of Lima, where the number of perſons who periſhed in the ruin of that city within two days after the earthquake began amounted, according to the bodies found, to thirteen hundred, beſides the maimed and wounded, many of which lived only a ſhort time in torture.

Though it might naturally be expected that a country where rain is ſeldom or never known muſt be entirely barren, yet the country of Lima enjoys great fertility, it producing all kinds of grain and a prodigious variety of fruit; but here induſtry and art ſupply that moiſture which the clouds withold. The ancient yncas of Peru cauſed ſmall canals to be formed, in order to conduct the waters of the rivers to every part of this country, and render large fields capable of producing grain. The Spaniards finding theſe uſeful works ready executed to their hands, took care to keep them in order, and by theſe are watered ſpacious fields of barley, large meadows, plantations, vineyards, and gardens, all yielding uncommon plenty. Lima differs from Quito, where the fruits of the earth have no determined ſeaſon; for here the harveſt is gathered in, and the trees drop their leaves in the proper ſeaſon. The bloſſoms have alſo their reſpective times of blowing; ſo that this country reſembles thoſe of the temperate zones.

The fields in the neighbourhood of Lima are chiefly ſown with clover, on which feed an inconceivable number of mules and horſes. The other parts of the country are taken up with plantations, among which thoſe of the ſugar-cane yield an excellent kind of ſugar. The olive plantations appear like thick foreſts, for beſides the height, magnitude, and fullneſs of leaves of theſe trees, they are never pruned, by which means their branches become ſo interwoven, that the light cannot penetrate through their foliage. They produce an uncommon plenty of the fineſt olives, which are either committed to the preſs for oil, or pickled, they being particularly adapted to the latter, on account of their beauty, largeneſs, and flavour; and their oil is much preferable to that of Spain. All the fields and plantations are cultivated by negro ſlaves purchaſed for that purpoſe.

The country contiguous to the city of Lima is covered with gardens that produce all the herbs and fruits known in Spain, beſides thoſe common to America, all which flouriſh here in an uncommon degree. The city likewiſe enjoys another ſingular advantage, the whole year being as it were ſummer, with regard to the plenty and freſhneſs of the fruit, from the ſeaſons of the year varying alternately in the diſtrict called Valles and the mountains; for when fruit-time is over in Valles, it begins on the ſkirts of the mountains; and the diſtance from Lima not exceeding twenty-five or thirty leagues, they are brought thither, and by this means the city is conſtantly ſupplied with fruit, except a few, as grapes, melons, and watermelons, which requiring a hot climate do not come to perfection in the mountains. The grapes at Lima are of

various kinds, and among them one ſpecies called the Italian, are very large and delicious. The vines extend themſelves on the ſurface of the earth, which is either ſtony or full of ſand. Theſe vines are pruned and watered at proper times, and without any other care thrive remarkably.

Beſides the orchards, fields, and gardens, with which the country is delightfully variegated, there are other parts where nature ſpontaneouſly furniſhes beautiful proſpects for the inhabitants, and plenty of excellent food for their cattle, particularly the hills of St. Chriſtopher and Amancaes, whoſe perpetual verdure, diverſified in ſpring with elegant flowers, ſeems to invite the neighbouring inhabitants to a nearer enjoyment of the beauties it preſents at a diſtance to their view. The parts in the neighbourhood of the city, to the extent of ſix or eight leagues, offer the like entertainment, and accordingly many families reſort thither for change of air and rural amuſements.

After giving this account of the climate and produce of this country, it ought not to be omitted, that though the ſummer here is pretty warm, yet venomous creatures are unknown, and the ſame may be ſaid of the territory called Valles, though here are ſome ports, as Tumbez and Piura, where the heat is almoſt as great as that of Guayaquil. This ſingularity can therefore proceed from no other cauſe than the natural drought of the climate.

We ſhall now give a deſcription of the city of Lima, alſo called Los Reyes, or the city of the Kings, as it appeared before the dreadful calamity in 1746. It is ſeated in the ſpacious and delightful valley of Rimac, in the twelfth degree two minutes thirty-one ſeconds ſouth latitude, and in the ſeventy-ſixth degree weſt longitude, in one of the moſt advantageous ſituations that can be imagined; for being in the center of that ſpacious valley, it commands the whole without any difficulty. The river Rimac waſhes the walls of the city, and when not increaſed by the torrents from the mountains, is eaſily forded; but as it is at other times deep and rapid, a very elegant and ſpacious ſtone bridge was built over it, having at one end a very fine grate, which formed the entrance into the city, and led to the grand ſquare, which was very large and finely ornamented, having in the center a fountain, in which was a ſtatue of Fame in bronze, ejecting water through her trumpet, and through the mouths of eight lions ſurrounding the ſtatue. The eaſt ſide of the ſquare contains the cathedral and archiepiſcopal palace, fronted with free-ſtone, and adorned with columns and pilaſters. On the north ſide was the viceroy's palace, in which were the ſeveral courts of juſtice, the offices of the revenue, and the ſtate priſon. On the weſt ſide of the ſquare, facing the cathedral, were the council-houſe and the city priſon. The ſouth ſide was filled with private houſes, which, like the others in the city, had only one ſtory; but the fronts being of ſtone, their uniformity, porticos, and elegance, were great embelliſhments to the ſquare.

The city was of a triangular form; the baſe, extending along the banks of the river, was about two miles in length, and its greateſt breadth from north to ſouth, from the bridge to the oppoſite angle, a thouſand and eighty fathoms. It was ſurrounded with a brick wall, flanked with thirty-four baſtions; but without platforms and embraſures, and had ſeven gates and three poſterns.

On the oppoſite ſide of the river was a ſuburb called St Lazaro, all the ſtreets of which were broad, and ran parallel from north to ſouth and from eaſt to weſt, forming ſquares of houſes a hundred and fifty yards in front. The ſtreets were paved, and along them ran ſtreams of water conducted from the river, a little above the city; and, being arched over, contributed to its cleanlineſs. The houſes were commodious, and made a good appearance; but were for the moſt part low, that they might bear the ſhock of earthquakes; the principal parts were of wood mortiſed into the rafters of the roof, and the walls lined both within and without with wild cane or oſiers. Theſe laſt were plaſtered over with clay and white-waſhed; but the fronts were painted in imitation of free-ſtone. They had cornices and porticos alſo painted of a ſtone-colour. The roofs were flat, and covered only ſo far as was neceſſary to keep out the wind and intercept the rays of the ſun, a ſlender covering, but ſufficient in a country where there was no danger of rain. Within the walls were many fruit and kitchen-gardens, and moſt of the principal houſes had pleaſure-gardens behind them.

The city had five pariſh-churches, and two chapels of eaſe, with a pariſh of Indians under the care of Jeſuits. The convents were very numerous, there being four of Dominicans, three of Franciſcans, three of the order of St. Auguſtine, three belonging to the order of Mercy, and the Jeſuits had ſix colleges. There were likewiſe a monaſtery of the order of St. Benedict, a convent called Nueſtra Senora de la Buena Muerte, and a convent of St. Francis de Paula; with fourteen nunneries, twelve hoſpitals, an orphan-houſe, and other public buildings.

All the churches, both conventual and parochial, and alſo the chapels, were large; they were built partly of ſtone, and adorned with paintings and other decorations of great value, particularly the cathedral and the churches of the Jeſuits, the fathers of Mercy, St. Dominic, St. Francis, and that of St. Auguſtine, were ſo ſplendid as to ſurpaſs deſcription. The riches and pomp of the city, eſpecially on ſolemn feſtivals, were aſtoniſhing. The altars, from the very baſes to the borders of the paintings, were covered with maſſy ſilver wrought into various ornaments. The walls of the churches were hung with velvet, or tapeſtry of equal value, adorned with gold and ſilver fringes, all which in this country are remarkably dear, and on theſe were ſuſpended pieces of plate in various figures. If the eye was directed from the pillars, walls, and ceiling to the lower part of the church, it was equally dazzled with glittering objects, among which were candleſticks of maſſy ſilver, ſix or ſeven feet high, placed in two rows along the nave of the church, emboſſed tables of the ſame metal, and in the intervals between them pedeſtals, on which ſtood ſtatues of angels. Such immenſe riches were beſtowed on the body of the church; but thoſe immediately uſed in divine worſhip, as the ſacred veſſels, the chalices, oſtenſoriums, &c. were much more valuable, ſince an emulation between the ſeveral churches ſubſiſted, each endeavouring to procure the moſt valuable. In theſe the gold was covered with diamonds, pearls, rubies, and ſapphires, ſo as to dazzle the eyes of the ſpectators. The gold and ſilver ſtuffs, fringes, laces, &c. for veſtments and other decorations were always the richeſt and moſt valuable of thoſe brought over by the regiſter ſhips, and every thing employed in ornamenting the churches was the richeſt of the kind poſſible to be procured.

The principal convents were very large, with convenient and many apartments. The roofs of many of the churches were arched; the frontiſpieces and principal gates had a majeſtic appearance, and the columns, friezes, ſtatues, and cornices were of wood finely carved, and not to be diſtinguiſhed from ſtone. The churches were decorated with ſmall cupolas; the towers were of ſtone from the foundation to the height of about eight or ten feet, and from thence to the roof of brick; but the remainder of wood, painted of a free-ſtone colour, terminating in a ſtatue of the ſaint to which the church was dedicated, and theſe were hung with very tunable bells.

Thus ſplendid was the city of Lima before the laſt dreadful earthquake, in which every building was levelled with the ground; and how far they have recovered from that dreadful calamity it is impoſſible to determine, ſince the authors who have beſt deſcribed that country wrote at the time of its deſtruction, and no later pen has given us any account how far they have recovered their former ſplendor.

The univerſity made a ſtately appearance, and had a large ſquare, encompaſſed by a handſome piazza. There the genius of the people is cultivated in that ſpecies of divine and human knowledge in repute in Old Spain. The Ariſtotelian and old ſchool philoſophy ſtill maintain their ground; ſo that the inhabitants are much more indebted to the kind gifts of nature for any extraordinary exertions of genius, than to culture and education; and their little progreſs in uſeful learning appears to be owing rather to the want of proper inſtruction than of talents.

The viceroy of Lima uſually reſides in that city; his government is triennial; he enjoys all the pomp and pre-

prerogatives of royalty, and is abſolute in all affairs, whether military, civil, criminal, or relating to the revenue. Under him are officers and tribunals for executing the ſeveral departments of government, and he fills up all vacant poſts. For the ſecurity of his perſon he has a body of guards of a hundred and ſixty horſe, under the command of a captain and lieutenant, all in a blue uniform richly laced with ſilver: a body of fifty halberdiers who do duty in the rooms leading to the royal audience-chamber, who have waiſtcoats of crimſon velvet, with a broad gold lace: beſides theſe, there is another guard within the palace, conſiſting of a detachment from the garriſon at Callao. All theſe are occaſionally employed in executing the viceroy's orders, and enforcing the decrees of the tribunals, after their having received his aſſent. The viceroy, beſides aſſiſting at the courts of juſtice, and the councils relating to the finances and war, gives daily audience to all ranks of people; for which purpoſe the palace is furniſhed with three very grand and ſpacious rooms; in the firſt of which he receives deputations from the Indians and different caſts: in the ſecond he gives audience to the Spaniards; and in the third receives all thoſe ladies who deſire a private audience.

The viceroy has an annual ſalary of ſeven thouſand one hundred and ſixty-ſeven pounds ſterling, beſides his lawful perquiſites, which amount to three times that ſum. It is ſaid that he can raiſe a hundred and twenty thouſand horſe and foot within his juriſdiction; but it is acknowledged that he cannot arm a fifth part of the number. The garriſon of Lima is compoſed of militia, fourteen companies of which entirely conſiſt of Spaniſh infantry, ſeven companies of the corporation of commerce, eight companies of Indians, and ſix companies of mulattoes, with ten troops of Spaniſh horſe, all forming a body of forty thouſand able-bodied but ill-diſciplined troops.

The forms of government are conducted with the greateſt regularity, and while every thing appears to be managed with the moſt ſcrupulous juſtice, it flows entirely from the pleaſure of the court. The affairs relative to the cabinet are diſpatched by a ſecretary of ſtate, with an aſſiſtant; and from this office orders are received for paſſports, which muſt be obtained from every corregidor within his juriſdiction. The ſecretary, with the viceroy's approbation, fills all juridical employments for the term of two years.

Cauſes relating to equity are tried in the court called Audiencia, from the decrees of which there is no appeal to the council of the Indies, except in caſes of the moſt notorious injuſtice. This tribunal, which is the ſupreme court at Lima, is compoſed of eight auditors, and a fiſcal for civil affairs. It is held in the viceroy's palace, in three different ſaloons, the deliberations being held in one, and the cauſes tried either publickly or privately in the two others.

The next is a chamber of accompts, which conſiſts of a commiſſioner, five chief accomptants, and two doctors, with inferior officers belonging to each claſs. Here the corregidors entruſted with the public revenue paſs their accounts, and here alſo the diſtribution and management of the royal revenue are regulated.

Within the palace is alſo the royal treaſury, under the direction of an accomptant and agent, who ſuperintend his majeſty's revenue within the juriſdiction of the audience of Lima.

The magiſtracy conſiſts of regidors, or aldermen, alfarez real, or ſheriffs, two alcaldes, or royal judges; all of whom are noblemen of the firſt diſtinction. Theſe have the direction of the police, and the ordinary adminiſtration of juſtice. The juriſdiction of the corregidor here only extends to the Indians.

One of the moſt uſeful inſtitutions, when juſtly adminiſtered, is the court for the effects of deceaſed perſons, which takes charge of all the goods of people dying inteſtate, and inſpects the conduct of thoſe intruſted with the effects of other perſons. It conſiſts of a judge, a counſellor, and an accomptant.

The next is the board of trade and commerce, compoſed of a preſident and two conſuls, who preſide over every thing relating to trade, decide all commercial diſputes, and are governed by the ſame rules as the conſulados at Cadiz and Bilboa.

The tribunal of the inquiſition is compoſed of two inquiſitors and a fiſcal, who, like the ſubordinate officers, are nominated by the inquiſitor-general, and in caſes of a vacancy filled by the ſupreme council of the inquiſition. This court is only adapted to inſpire horror, and gain univerſal deteſtation.

The inhabitants of Lima are compoſed of Spaniards, negroes, Indians, Meſtizos, and other caſts proceeding from the mixture of all three. The Spaniſh families are very numerous; Lima, according to the loweſt computation, containing ſixteen or eighteen thouſand whites. Among theſe are reckoned a third or fourth part of the moſt diſtinguiſhed nobility of Peru, in which number are included no leſs than forty-five counts and marquiſes. The number of knights belonging to the ſeveral military orders is alſo very conſiderable. Beſides theſe there are twenty-four gentlemen of large eſtates; but without titles, one of whom traces his deſcent from the ancient yncas of Peru, and to this family the kings of Spain have been pleaſed to grant ſeveral diſtinguiſhed honours and privileges.

Thoſe who make the greateſt figure have a multitude of ſlaves and other domeſtics, and keep coaches; while others are content with having a chaiſe, and theſe are ſo common that no family of any ſubſtance is without one. Indeed they are no where more neceſſary, for the numberleſs droves of mules continually paſſing through Lima, cover the ſtreets with their dung, which being ſoon dried by the ſun and wind, turns to a nauſeous duſt ſcarce ſupportable to thoſe who walk on foot. Theſe chaiſes which are drawn by a mule, and guided by a driver, have only two wheels, with two ſeats oppoſite to each other; ſo that on occaſion they will hold four perſons; but tho' they are very ſlight and airy, yet on account of the gildings and other decorations, ſometimes coſt eight hundred or a thouſand crowns. The number of them is ſaid to amount to five or ſix thouſand.

Commerce is ſo far from being conſidered as a diſgrace at Lima, that the greateſt fortunes have been raiſed by it; and thoſe who have not a ſufficient eſtate, are here deſpiſed, if through indolence or neglect they have not recourſe to it for improving their fortunes; for a royal proclamation has removed all the prejudices of the Spaniards againſt trade, by wiſely declaring, that commerce in the Indies ſhould not exclude from nobility or the military orders.

The negroes, mulattoes, and their deſcendants, form the principal part of the inhabitants, and of theſe are moſt of the mechanics; though here the Europeans alſo follow the ſame employments; for gain being here the univerſal paſſion, the inhabitants purſue it by means of any trade, none of which are here deſpiſed as at Quito, on account of their being followed by mulattoes.

The third and laſt claſs of inhabitants are the Indians and Meſtizos, who are few in proportion to the largeneſs of the city, and the multitude of the ſecond claſs. They are chiefly employed in agriculture, in making earthen ware, and bringing all kinds of proviſions to market; the domeſtic ſervices being chiefly performed by negroes and mulattoes.

The dreſs of the men in general differs but little from that worn in Spain; nor is there much diſtinction between the ſeveral claſſes; for here every one is allowed to wear whatever he can purchaſe: ſo that it is not uncommon to ſee a mulatto, or any other mechanic, dreſſed in a rich tiſſue. They are all fond of fine cloaths; and vanity and oſtentation being under no reſtraint, they are extremely laviſh in this article: but the dreſs of the men is greatly exceeded by that of the women, who in the choice of their laces carry their taſte to a prodigious exceſs; nor is this confined to perſons of quality; but has ſpread through all ranks, except the loweſt claſs of negroes. Theſe laces muſt be all made in Flanders, no woman of rank condeſcending to look on any other.

The dreſs of the ladies conſiſts of a pair of ſhoes, ſtockings, a ſhift, a dimity-petticoat, an open petticoat, and a jacket, which in ſummer is of linen, and in winter of a beautiful ſtuff. To this ſome add a mantelet, that the former

former may hang looſe. From the under-petticoat, which reaches no lower than the calf of the leg, hangs a border of very fine lace, through which the ends of the garters are diſcovered, embroidered with gold or ſilver, and ſometimes ſet with pearls. The upper petticoat, which is of velvet, or ſome rich ſtuff, is fringed all round, and adorned all over with fringe, lace, or embroidery. The ſhift ſleeves, which are a yard and a half in length, and two in width, when worn for ornament, are covered with lace in ſuch a manner as to render the whole truly elegant. Over the ſhift is worn the jacket, the ſleeves of which are exceſſively large, of a circular figure, and conſiſt of rows of lace, or ſlips of cambric with lace diſpoſed between each. The body of the jacket is tied on the ſhoulders with ribbons faſtened to the back of the ſtays, and its round ſleeves, being tucked up to the ſhoulders, form, with thoſe of the ſhift, what may be termed four wings. If the jacket be not buttoned or claſped before, it is faſtened on their ſhoulders. In ſummer they have a kind of veil of the fineſt cambric or lawn, richly laced; but in winter the veil worn in their houſes is of baize, which, when they go abroad full dreſſed, is adorned like the ſleeves. Over the petticoat is an apron of the ſame ſtuff as the ſleeves of the jacket, hanging down to the bottom of it. In ſhort, ſo expenſive are they, that the marriage ſhift alone frequently coſts a thouſand crowns, and ſometimes more.

The women value themſelves extremely on the ſize of their feet, a ſmall foot being eſteemed one of their chief beauties; and therefore from their infancy they are accuſtomed to wear ſtraight ſhoes, that their feet may not be ſuffered to grow beyond their proper ſize: ſome of them do not exceed five inches and a half, or ſix inches in length. Their ſhoes have little or no ſole, one piece ſerving both for that and the upper leather, and are of an equal breadth and roundneſs at the toe and heel, ſo as to form a long figure of eight; but the foot not complying with this figure, brings it to a more natural ſhape. Theſe ſhoes are always faſtened with diamond buckles, or ſomething very brilliant in proportion to the ability of the wearer; but theſe are worn leſs for uſe than for ornament; for they are made in ſuch a manner, that they never looſen of themſelves, nor do the buckles prevent their being taken off. They are alſo fond of white ſilk ſtockings, which are made extremely thin, the better to ſhew the ſhape of the leg, the greateſt part of which is expoſed to view.

The reader will conceive a ſtill higher idea of their magnificence, when he is informed of the ornaments with which they are adorned in their viſits, and upon public occaſions. Their hair, which is naturally black, and capable of reaching below the waiſt, they diſpoſe in a very graceful manner. They tie it up behind in ſix braided locks, through which is inſerted a gold bodkin, a little bent, with a cluſter of diamonds at each end, and on this the locks are ſuſpended, ſo as juſt to touch the ſhoulders. On the front and upper-part of the head, they wear diamond egrets, and the hair is formed into little curls hanging from the fore-head to the middle of the ear, with a large black patch of velvet on each temple. Their earrings are of brilliants, intermixed with tufts of black ſilk covered with pearls; and beſides their necklaces, they alſo wear about their neck roſaries, the beads of which are of pearls, either ſeparate or ſet in cluſters, to the ſize of a large filbert.

Beſides their diamond rings, necklaces, girdles, and bracelets, all very curious, both with regard to water and ſize, many ladies wear a round jewel enriched with diamonds ſuſpended from their girdle, and much more ſuperb than their other ornaments. In ſhort, a lady thus covered with lace, inſtead of linen, and glittering from head to foot with jewels, is ſuppoſed to be dreſſed at the expence of no leſs than thirty or forty thouſand crowns; yet the ſmall value they ſeem to ſet upon them, by wearing them in the moſt careleſs manner upon all occaſions, is really ſurpriſing, ſince by this means they bring upon themſelves freſh expences in repairing the old or purchaſing new jewels, eſpecially pearls, which are liable to be damaged.

The women of Lima are generally of a middling ſtature, handſome, genteel, and have a remarkable luſtre and dignity in their eyes. Their perſonal charms are ſaid to be heightened by thoſe of the mind; for they have clear and comprehenſive intellects, an eaſineſs of behaviour ſo well tempered, that while it invites love, it commands reſpect: the charms of their converſation are beyond expreſſion; their ideas juſt, and their manners inimitably graceful. But they are ſo exceſſively fond of perfumes, that they always carry ambergriſe about them; and not content with the natural fragrancy of flowers, of which they are alſo extremely fond, they ſcatter perfumes even on their noſegays. The moſt beautiful flowers they place in their hair, and others which are moſt valuable for their odour, they ſtick in their ſleeves. Hence the effluvia iſſuing from theſe ladies, it may be eaſily imagined, reach to no inconſiderable diſtance.

The lower claſs of women, even to the very negroes, endeavour, according to their abilities, to imitate their ſuperiors, not only in the faſhion of the dreſs, but in its richneſs. Their linen is always ſtarched to a great degree, in order to diſplay the coſtly patterns of their laces, and they give themſelves the pain of pinching up their feet in little ſhoes, in order to imitate the ladies in the ſmallneſs of their feet. Their next care, which is indeed much more commendable, is cleanlineſs, which is ſeen in the uncommon neatneſs of their houſes.

They are naturally gay, ſprightly, and jocoſe, without levity; remarkably fond of muſic; ſo that even among the loweſt you are entertained with agreeable ſongs; for they have in general good voices. They are very fond of balls, where they diſtinguiſh themſelves by the gracefulneſs and agility of their motions.

The manners and diſpoſitions of the nobility correſpond with their rank and fortune; they are extremely courteous to ſtrangers, who are charmed with their probity, their politeneſs, candour and magnificence. Though the natives of an inferior rank have too great a ſhare of pride, they do not want docility; they inſtantly ſhew their reluctance to a command given with haughtineſs; but when delivered with mildneſs and affability, are equally obſequious and ſubmiſſive. They are charmed with gentleneſs of manners, and a few inſtances of kindneſs make a laſting impreſſion on their minds; but the mulattoes, being leſs civilized, are haughty, turbulent, and quarrelſome.

The diſtempers moſt common at Lima, are malignant, intermitting, and catarrhous fevers, pleuriſies, conſtipations, and convulſions. Theſe laſt are divided into two kinds, common or partial, and malignant. They both come when nature is ſtruggling in the criſis of ſome acute diſtemper; but thoſe afflicted with the former often recover, tho' the greater part die on the third or fourth day; while thoſe who have the misfortune of being attacked by the latter, ſink under it in two or three days. Both are attended with inſupportable pains; ſo that the groaning patient cannot be moved without inconceivable tortures, even from one ſide to the other. The throat is ſo contracted, that nothing can be conveyed into the ſtomach. The jaws are alſo ſometimes ſo cloſely ſhut that it is impoſſible to open them. Thus the miſerable patient lies without motion, and tortured in every part of his body. The malignant or arched ſpaſm is even in the firſt ſtage ſo violent as to cauſe a contraction of the nerves of the vertebræ, from the brain downwards, which with all the muſcles become more and more conſtricted all over the body, till it is drawn backward in the form of an arch, and all the joints diſlocated.

The women of Lima are ſubject to a cancer in the matrix, which is extremely painful, very contagious, and almoſt incurable. Slow and hectic fevers alſo greatly prevail here, and the venereal diſeaſe is as common as in any other part of Spaniſh America, few being entirely free from it.

We ſhall now conſider the commerce of Lima, which is the general emporium of trade of every kind, the center of the products and manufactures of other provinces, together with thoſe of Europe imported by the galleons, and the ſtaple of the whole kingdom. All the wealth of the ſouthern provinces pours into this capital, and is diſcharged into the fleet, which ſails with the galleons from Callao to Panama. At the head of this commerce is the tribunal del Conſulado, already deſcribed, which appoints

commiſſaries to reſide in the other cities of its dependence all over Peru. When commodities arrive at Lima, the merchants remit to their correſpondents ſuch goods as have been beſpoke, reſerving the reſt in ware-houſes, to diſpoſe of on their own account to the traders who then reſort to Lima. The produce of the ſales in the interior country is ſent to Lima in bars of ſilver, and a kind of amalgama of mercury and ſilver duſt, which is coined in the mint of this city. The remittances ſent to Lima during the interval between the flotillas, are expended in the manufactures of the country, great quantities of which come from the province of Quito, and the conſumption is very large; they being worn by all the lower claſs of people, who cannot afford to purchaſe European ſtuffs. Lima has alſo its particular trade with the kingdoms both of North and South America. The moſt conſiderable commodity imported from the former is ſnuff, brought from the Havanna to Mexico, from thence tranſported to Lima, and diffuſed by the merchants of this city all over the province of Peru. Thoſe who deal in this merchandize never engage in any other branch of commerce, except in the ſale of perfumes, porcelain, ambergriſe, and muſk. From New Spain, Lima receives tar, naptha, indigo, and iron; from Terra Firma is imported leaf tobacco, which is greatly uſed by putting a ſmall roll in the mouth called a limpian, both by the gentlemen and ladies, as well as by the vulgar; from Terra Firma are alſo imported pearls, and a few other articles. The timber uſed in building houſes, ſhips, and boats, is brought from Guayaquil, together with cacao. The coaſts of Naſca and Piſco ſend to Lima raiſins, olives, wine, brandy, and oil; and the kingdom of Chili flour, wheat, dried fruits, wine, lard, leather, cordage, and ſome gold. Copper and tin are brought from Coquimbo; and from the mountains of Caxamarca and Chacapoyas, are brought a ſort of canvas made of cotton for ſails, &c. From the ſouthern provinces are ſent Vicuna wool for making hats, and ſome ſtuffs of a peculiar fineneſs; and laſtly from Paraguay is ſent the herb called by that name, of which there is an amazing conſumption.

Thus this city is the emporium to which people reſort from all quarters, and trade is in a conſtant circulation. The inhabitants of Lima are even ſaid to have a natural diſpoſition for commerce, and the city may be conſidered as an academy to which great numbers reſort to perfect themſelves in the various arts of trade. They penetrate into the deſigns of the ſeller, and artfully draw the purchaſer into their own views. They have beſides a remarkable talent of perſuaſion, at the ſame time that they are incapable of being perſuaded. They affect to ſlight what they are moſt deſirous of purchaſing, and by that means frequently make very advantageous bargains, which none can obtain from them. However, notwithſtanding theſe mean fineſſes in buying and ſelling, for which they are particularly diſtinguiſhed, none are more punctual in performing their contracts.

SECT. VIII.

Of the other principal Towns in the Audience of Lima, namely, Callao, Truxillo, Guamanga, Cuſco, and Arequipa.

CALLAO is the port of Lima, from which it is five miles diſtance, and extends along the ſea-coaſt on a low flat point of land. The Spaniards have no harbour equal to this in the South-ſea, for beauty, ſecurity, and convenience; for the largeſt veſſels may lie with perfect ſafety in the road, the water being extremely deep, and the port ſheltered from the winds by the iſland of St. Laurence, which alſo breaks the ſurges rolling from the ſouth-weſt. The town from the ſea makes a tolerable figure, it having ſeveral public edifices; and beſides the churches there are five monaſteries, though according to ſome authors the inhabitants do not exceed four or five hundred. The government has expended large ſums of money in giving this important harbour all the advantages of ſtrength that it was thought art could beſtow. Hence that town is conſidered in Spain as almoſt impregnable, though in fact both the garriſon and fortifications are very inconſiderable. The latter conſiſted of an incloſure on the land ſide, flanked by ten baſtions, and ſeveral redans and plain baſtions on the edge of the ſea, with four ſtrong batteries to command the port and road; but theſe being in a manner demoliſhed in the laſt great earthquake, have never ſince been thoroughly repaired, the money appropriated by the government having been expended in other purpoſes, more agreeable to the viceroy of Peru. It is alſo reported, that his Catholic majeſty is annually charged with large ſums for the garriſon, fortifications, and the men of war ſuppoſed to lie in the harbour; yet ſuch is the integrity of the royal offices there, that the ſoldiers are hardly ſufficient to mount guard; the walls are in many places in ruins, and the ſhips could not be fitted for ſea in the ſpace of ſeveral months.

A judgment may be formed of the importance of this harbour from what has been ſaid of the commerce of Lima chiefly carried on by this channel. Two flotas annually ſail from hence, one for Arica, the other from Panama; the former about the cloſe of February, which having received the ſilver ſent from Potoſi, returns in March. In the beginning of May the flota ſails from Panama with all the treaſures of Potoſi, the wealth of Chili brought by the Valparaiſo fleet, and the royal revenues and merchandize brought from the moſt diſtant parts of Peru and Los Charcas. Beſides theſe fleets there annually ſail from hence two ſhips from Acapulco, freighted with gold and ſilver, and the commodities they bring back are lodged in the magazines here, and retailed to all the ſouthern provinces of America.

This town and the city of Lima are the principal places in the archbiſhopric of that name. The audience of Lima is alſo divided into four biſhoprics, Truxillo, Guamanga, Cuſco, and Arequipa.

The dioceſe of Truxillo lies to the north of the archiepiſcopal dioceſe of Lima, and, like all the others, is divided into ſeveral juriſdictions.

The city of Truxillo is ſeated in the eighth degree ſix minutes three ſeconds, ſouth latitude, in a pleaſant ſituation, though in a ſandy ſoil. It is ſurrounded by a brick wall; and its circuit intitles it to be claſſed among the cities of the third order: it is ſituated about half a league from the ſea; and ſix miles to the northward of it is the port of Guanchaco, the channel of its maritime commerce. The houſes, which are moſtly built of brick, make a handſome appearance, they being adorned with ſtately porticos and balconies; but are low on account of the frequent earthquakes, few having ſo much as one ſtory. It is the reſidence of a biſhop, who has a chapter, conſiſting of a dean, an arch-deacon, a chanter, four canons, and two prebendaries. Here is alſo an office of revenue with convents of ſeveral orders, a college of Jeſuits, an hoſpital of the lady of Bethlehem, and two nunneries.

The inhabitants conſiſt of Spaniards, Indians, and all the other caſts. Among the former are ſeveral rich and diſtinguiſhed families, all in general civil, friendly, and regular in their conduct. The women in their dreſs and cuſtoms follow nearly thoſe of Lima. A great number of chaiſes are ſeen here; for as the ſandy ſoil renders walking very troubleſome, there are few families of any credit without one.

The valley in which Truxillo is ſeated is extremely fruitful, abounding with ſugar-canes, maize, fruit, and plants proper for the kitchen, with vine-yards and olive-yards. The parts of the country neareſt the mountains produce wheat, barley, and other grain, whence the inhabitants not only enjoy plenty of all kinds of proviſions, but export conſiderable quantities, eſpecially of wheat and ſugar to Panama. This remarkable fertility has been improved ſo as to embelliſh the country. The city is ſurrounded by ſeveral groves and delightful walks of trees; the gardens are alſo well cultivated, and make a beautiful appearance.

The city of Guamanga, the capital of the ſecond dioceſe, in the audience of Lima, is ſituated on the declivity of ſome mountains not remarkable for their height, which extending ſouthward incloſe a ſpacious plain to the eaſtward of the city, watered by a ſmall ſtream. Guamanga has at leaſt twenty noble families, who live in the center of the town in ſpacious houſes of a conſiderable height, built partly of ſtone, and accommodated with

with extenſive gardens and orchards. The cathedral is very ſplendid, and its chapter conſiſts of a dean, an archdeacon, a chanter, two canons, and a penitentiary. It has a ſeminary for the ſervice of the church, under the title of St. Chriſtopher. Here are two pariſh-churches, one for the Spaniards, and one for the Indians, with four chapels. The city has alſo an univerſity, with profeſſors of philoſophy, divinity, and law; and enjoys equal privileges with that of Lima, they being both royal foundations. Within the walls of the city are the convents of St. Dominic, St. Francis, the fathers of Mercy, St. Auguſtine, St. Juan de Dios, a college of Jeſuits, and an hoſpital of St. Francis de Paula. The nunneries are of the orders of St. Clare, the Carmelites, and a religious ſiſterhood.

The large Indian ſuburbs round the city add greatly to its extent; and the houſes, though low, are chiefly of ſtone.

In this dioceſe is a rich quickſilver mine, from which the inhabitants of a neighbouring town procure their whole ſubſiſtence, the coldneſs of the air in that place checking the growth of all kinds of grain and fruit; ſo that they are obliged to purchaſe them from their neighbours. The quickſilver mines wrought here ſupply all the ſilver mines of Peru with that neceſſary mineral, and, notwithſtanding the prodigious quantities already extracted, no diminution is perceived.

Cuſco is the moſt ancient city in Peru, it being of the ſame date with the empire of the yncas, and was founded by them as the capital of the empire. It ſtands in a very uneven ſituation on the ſides of the mountains, there being no other near it more convenient. On a mountain contiguous to the north part of the city are the ruins of a famous fort built by the yncas, from whence it appears that their deſign was to incloſe the whole mountain with a prodigious wall of ſuch conſtruction, as to render its aſcent abſolutely impracticable to an enemy, in order to prevent all approach to the city. This wall was entirely of free-ſtone and ſtrongly built, ſome of the ſtones being of a prodigious magnitude.

The city of Cuſco is nearly equal to that of Lima. The north and weſt ſides are ſurrounded by the mountain of the Fortreſs, and on the ſouth it borders on a plain in which are ſeveral beautiful walks. Moſt of the houſes are of ſtone, covered with tiles of a lively red, that gives the houſes an elegant appearance. The apartments are very ſpacious, and as the inhabitants are famous for their elegant taſte, they are finely decorated, the mouldings of all the doors being gilt, and the other ornaments and furniture very ſplendid.

The cathedral nearly reſembles that of Lima, though it is much ſmaller; it is built entirely of ſtone, and the architecture is even thought to exceed it. Here are alſo eight other pariſhes, with a convent of Dominicans, the principal walls of which were formerly thoſe of the temple of the Sun, and the high altar ſtands in the very place where was once an image of gold of that imaginary deity. There is alſo a convent of Franciſcans, which is the head of that order in this province. The convents of St. Auguſtine and the fathers of Mercy are likewiſe the principal of their reſpective orders. The Jeſuits have alſo a college here. The convent of St. Juan de Dios, and that of the Bethlehemites, which are both very large, contain hoſpitals for the ſick; the latter is particularly appropriated to the Indians, who are uſed there with great care and tenderneſs.

The government of the city conſiſts of a corregidor placed at the head of the magiſtrates, who are the chief nobility; and out of theſe are annually choſen two ordinary alcaldes.

Here are three colleges: in the firſt, called St. Anthony, is a ſeminary for the ſervice of the cathedral, in which are taught Latin, the ſciences, and divinity: the ſecond is under the direction of the Jeſuits, who inſtruct youths of fortune: the third, called St. Francis de Borja, belongs alſo to the Jeſuits, and is founded for the education of the ſons of Indian princes. The two former confer all degrees below that of doctor, and have been erected into univerſities. Here is alſo a court of inquiſition, and another of the croiſade.

In this biſhopric are ſeveral mines of gold and ſilver, that are extremely rich.

The fourth dioceſe of the audience of Lima is Arequipa, which contains the city of the ſame name, one of the largeſt in all Peru. It is delightfully ſeated in a plain; the houſes are well built of ſtone, and are generally lofty, commodious, finely decorated on the outſide, and neatly furniſhed within. The temperature of the air is extremely agreeable, the cold being never exceſſive, nor the heat troubleſome; ſo that the fields are always cloathed with verdure, and enamelled with flowers as in a perpetual ſpring. The inhabitants enjoy an exemption from many diſeaſes common in this part of America, which is ſuppoſed to be in a great meaſure owing to their care in keeping the ſtreets clean, by means of canals which extend to a river that runs near the city, and by which all its filth is ſwept away. But theſe advantages are allayed by its being frequently expoſed to dreadful earthquakes; for by theſe convulſions of nature it has been four times laid in ruins. The city is, however, very populous, and among its inhabitants are many noble families. A great number of them have ſettled here on account of the goodneſs of the air, the fertility of the ſoil, and the convenience of commerce at the port of Arante, at twenty leagues diſtance. The chapter, beſides the biſhop, conſiſts of a dean, an archdeacon, a chanter, a rector, and treaſurer, three canons, and two prebendaries: beſides the ſacriſty, which is ſerved by two prieſts for the Spaniards, the pariſh of Santa Martha is appropriated to the Indian inhabitants. Here are two Franciſcan convents, one of Dominicans, another of Auguſtines, a monaſtery of the fathers of Mercy, a college of Jeſuits, and a convent and hoſpital of St. Juan de Dios, with three nunneries, and a ſeminary for the ſervice of the cathedral. The civil, political, and military government of the city is executed by a corregidor, who is placed at the head of the regidores, from whom are annually choſen two ordinary alcaldes. Here is likewiſe an office of the revenue under the direction of a treaſurer and accomptant, with commiſſaries of the inquiſition and croiſades.

In this biſhopric are ſeveral gold and ſilver mines, and in ſome parts are large vineyards, from which conſiderable quantities of wine and brandy are made. Among the other productions is Guinea pepper, in which the juriſdiction of Arica in this dioceſe carries on a very advantageous trade, the annual produce of theſe plantations bringing in no leſs than ſixty thouſand dollars per annum. The pods of this pepper are about a quarter of a yard in length, and when gathered are dried in the ſun and packed up in bags of ruſhes, each bag containing an aroba, or a quarter of a hundred weight, and thus they are exported to all parts. Other places of this juriſdiction are famous for vaſt quantities of large and excellent olives, far exceeding the fineſt produced in Europe, they being nearly as big as a hen's egg.

SECT. IX.

Of the Audience of LOS CHARCAS, *or* LA PLATA.

Its Situation, Extent, and Climate. A particular Account of the famous Mountain of Potoſi, and of the Lumps of Silver found in the Province of Carangas: with a Deſcription of the City of Plata.

THE audience of Charcas, the laſt diviſion of Peru, is equal in extent to that of Lima; but many of its parts are not ſo well inhabited, ſome being full of vaſt deſarts and impenetrable foreſts, while others have extenſive plains intercepted by the ſtupendous height of the Cordilleras; ſo that it is inhabited only in thoſe parts that are free from thoſe inconveniencies. It is bounded on the north by the dioceſe of Cuſco, and reaches ſouthward to Buenos Ayres; on the eaſtward it extends to Braſil; and on the weſtward reaches to the South ſea, particularly at Atacama. The remainder of the province borders on the kingdom of Chili.

The climate of this country is various; on the ſhore it is exceſſive hot, and the inland parts of the country are in ſome places extremely cold: the ſoil is, however, generally

nerally fruitful in the cultivated parts, particularly in the valleys between the mountains, where it is watered by ſeveral rivers. With reſpect to its produce, it is chiefly famous for its gold and ſilver.

This audience of Charcas is divided into the archbiſhopric of Plata, and five biſhopricks. We ſhall begin with the former.

The famous mountain of Potoſi is known all over the commercial world for the immenſe quantity of ſilver it has produced. The diſcovery of this amazing treaſure happened in the year 1545, by a fortuitous accident. An Indian, by ſome called Hualpa, and by others Gualca, purſuing ſome wild goats up this mountain, and coming to a very ſteep-part, laid hold of a ſhrub in order to climb it with greater celerity; but the ſhrub being unable to ſupport his weight, came up by the roots, and diſcovered a maſs of fine ſilver; and at the ſame time he found ſome lumps of the ſame metal among the clods that adhered to the roots. This Indian, who lived at Porco, haſted home with theſe firſt-fruits of his diſcovery, waſhed the ſilver, and made uſe of it, repairing when his ſtock was near exhauſted to his perpetual fund. At length an intimate friend of his, named Guanca, obſerving the happy change in his circumſtances, longed to know the cauſe, and repeated his queſtions with ſuch earneſtneſs, that Gualca revealed the ſecret to him. For ſome time they retired in concert to the mountain for freſh ſupplies of ſilver, till Gualca refuſing to diſcover his method of purifying the metal, Guanca revealed the whole ſecret to his maſter Villarroel, a Spaniard, who alſo lived at Porco; and on this information went, in April 1545, to view this fortunate breach in the mountain, and the mine was inſtantly worked with immenſe advantage.

The firſt mine was called the Diſcoverer, from its diſcovering other ſources of riches, incloſed in the bowels of this mountain; for in a few days another was found equally rich, and called the Tin Mine: ſince that another has been diſcovered, and diſtinguiſhed by the name of Rica, or rich, it ſurpaſſing all the reſt. It was afterwards ſucceeded by one named the Mendieta. Theſe are the principal mines of Potoſi; but there are ſeveral ſmaller croſſing the mountain on all ſides.

On a report of theſe important diſcoveries people from all parts repaired to Potoſi, particularly from the city of Plata, which is ſituated about ſeventy-five miles from the mountain; ſo that at preſent the town of Potoſi is near ſix miles in circuit, and inhabited by many noble families, particularly thoſe concerned in the mines. Though the air of the mountain is ſo extremely cold, as to render the adjacent country remarkably barren, it producing neither corn, fruit, nor herbs; yet the town is ſo plentifully ſupplied as to enjoy an abundance of every kind, and the trade for proviſions is greater here than in any other place except Lima. Some provinces ſend the beſt of their corn and fruit, others their cattle, others their manufactures, and thoſe who trade in European goods reſort to Potoſi as to a market, where there is a great demand, and no want of ſilver to give in exchange. A Spaniſh author declares, from very good authority, that before the year 1638 it appeared by the public accounts, that the produce of the ſilver amounted to three hundred ninety-five millions ſix hundred and nineteen thouſand dollars; which, in ninety-three years, the time it had then been diſcovered, amounted to forty-one millions two hundred fifty five thouſand and forty-three dollars per annum. Hence an idea may be formed of the vaſt trade which has for many years been carried on in this town, and is ſtill likely to continue for a long time, its whole trade conſiſting in the ſilver extracted from this mountain; and though ſome diminution has been perceived in its produce, it is ſtill very conſiderable.

At a ſmall diſtance from Potoſi are the hot medicinal baths, called Don Diego, whither ſome reſort for health, and others for diverſion.

In the province of Carangas, which is remarkably cold, is a great number of ſilver mines, conſtantly worked; among which one called Turco is very remarkable for a ſort of ore termed by miners machacado, the fibres of the ſilver forming an admirable intertexture with the ſtones in which they are contained. Mines of this kind are generally the richeſt. Beſides theſe there are others in this juriſdiction; for in the barren ſandy deſarts extending towards the coaſt of the South ſea are found, by digging in the ſand, detached lumps of ſilver unmixed with any ore or ſtone, but what adheres to ſome parts of the metal. The lumps are called papas, from their being taken out of the ground in the ſame manner as that root. Theſe lumps of ſilver are of a different compoſition from thoſe found in the mines, having all the appearance of melted ſilver. In them the ſilver forms a maſs, and the ſurface is covered over with black terrene particles, that have all the marks of calcination; but few or none of them are mixed with the ſilver. The ſize and figure of theſe lumps are very different, ſome weighing about two marks, or ſixteen ounces, and ſome above a hundred marks. Theſe lumps of ſilver are found in different parts of the ſame ground, though not often near one another.

We ſhall now give a deſcription of the city of Plata, which received its name from the ſilver mines in its neighbourhood. It ſtands in a ſmall plain environed by eminences, that defend it from the winds. The temperature of the air in the dry ſeaſon is very mild; nor is there any conſiderable difference throughout the year; but in the winter, or rather the rainy ſeaſon, which begins in September and continues till March, tempeſts of thunder and lightning are very common, and the rains of long continuance; but, during all the other parts of the year, the atmoſphere is bright and ſerene. The houſes both in the great ſquare and thoſe adjoining to it have one ſtory above the ground-floor, and are covered with tiles. They are large and convenient, and have delightful gardens planted with the fruits of Europe; but water is ſo ſcarce, that they have hardly enough to ſupply the neceſſary purpoſes of life, the little they have being fetched from ſeveral public fountains diſperſed in different parts of the city. The inhabitants, who conſiſt of Spaniards and Indians, are ſaid to amount to about four thouſand.

The cathedral is large and divided into three iſles, and is finely adorned with paintings and gildings. Its chapter conſiſts of a dean, an archdeacon, chanter, treaſurer, and rector, five canons, four prebendaries, and four minor prebendaries. The archbiſhop and his chancellor conſtitute the eccleſiaſtical tribunal. The pariſh of the cathedral is ſerved by two prieſts, one for the Spaniards, and the other for the Indians. At the end of the city is St. Sebaſtian's church, which is appropriated ſolely to the Indians living within its precinct, who are thought to be about three thouſand. The convents are thoſe of the Auguſtines, Dominicans, Franciſcans, the fathers of Mercy, and a college of Jeſuits, all ſpacious buildings, with ſplendid churches. Here is alſo a conventual hoſpital of St. Juan de Dios, the expences of which are defrayed by the king; with two nunneries, one of the order of St. Clare, and the other of St. Monica. The city of La Plata has alſo an univerſity dedicated to St. Francis Xavier, the chairs of which are filled indifferently either by the ſecular clergy, or by laymen; but the rector is always a Jeſuit. Here are alſo two other colleges, in which lectures are read: that of St. John is under the direction of the Jeſuits; while the archbiſhop nominates to that of St. Chriſtopher, which is a ſeminary.

The chief tribunal in Plata is that of the audience, whoſe preſident has the titles of governor and captain-general of the province, excluſive of the governments of Santa Cruz de la Sierra, Tucuman, Paraguay, and Buenos Ayres, which are independent, and in military affairs abſolute. It has alſo a fiſcal, a protector-fiſcal of the Indians, and two ſupernumerary auditors. The magiſtracy, or corporation, as in all the other cities of this country, conſiſt of regidores, who are perſons of the firſt diſtinction, with the corregidor at their head; and from them are annually choſen two ordinary alcaldes for maintaining order and the police. Here is alſo a tribunal of croiſade, with a commiſſary, ſubdelegate, and other officers; a court of inquiſition ſubordinate to that of Lima; and an office for taking care of the effects of perſons dying inteſtate.

Two leagues from Plata runs the river Cachimayo, which has on its banks ſeveral pleaſant ſeats of the inhabitants; and about ſix leagues in the road leading to

Potoſi is the river Philcomayo, which is paſſed over by a large ſtone bridge. During ſome months in the year this river furniſhes the city of Plata with great plenty of delicious fiſh: among theſe is one called the dorado, which generally weighs between twenty and twenty-five pounds. The other proviſions, as bread, fleſh, and fruits, are brought from the neighbouring provinces.

SECT. X.

Of the Dioceſe of La Paz in the Audience of Plata. Its Climate and Produce; with a Deſcription of the Lama, the Guanaco, and Vicuna, of the Lake of Titicaca, and the City of La Paz.

WE now come to the five dioceſes in the audience of Plata, and ſhall begin with that of La Paz, which is divided into ſix juriſdictions. Great part of the country is expoſed to a cold air; ſo that hard froſts, ſnow, and hail, are not uncommon; but the city of La Paz is ſecured from them by its happy ſituation. Other parts are alſo ſo well ſheltered from the piercing air of the Andes, that they produce all the vegetables of a hot climate, as ſugar-canes, cacao, and the like. In the mountainous parts are large woods of valuable timber, but infeſted with tygers, leopards, and bears: they have alſo a few deer, and a great number of cattle of the European kinds, which feed on the heaths; as do alſo guanacos, vicunas, and lamas.

It will be proper here to deſcribe the laſt of theſe animals, and we ſhall begin with the lama, which in ſeveral particulars reſembles the camel, as in the ſhape of its head, neck, and ſome other parts; but has no bunch on its back, and is much ſmaller, cloven-footed, and of a different colour; for though moſt of them are brown, ſome are black, others white, and others of different colours. Its pace reſembles that of a camel, and its height is equal to that of an aſs between one and two years old. The Indians and Spaniards uſe them as beaſts of carriage, and they anſwer very well for any load under a hundred weight. Anciently the Indians uſed to eat their fleſh, as they ſtill do when they are paſt their labour, and ſay there is no difference between it and mutton, except its being ſomething ſweeter. It is a very docile animal, eaſily kept; its whole defence is ejecting from its noſtrils a viſcous matter, which is ſaid to give the itch to any one on whom it falls; ſo that the Indians, who firmly believe this, are very cautious in provoking it.

The guanaco and the vicuna are but little different from the lama. The guanaco is larger, and its wool long and harſh; the vicuna, which is ſmaller than the lama, has ſhorter and finer wool, and is brown all over the body, except the belly, which is whitiſh. The laſt are of great ſervice in the mines, carrying metals in ſuch rugged roads, as would be impaſſable for any other beaſts.

In the cordillera near the city is a mountain of remarkable height, called Illimani, which doubtleſs contains immenſe riches; for a crag of it being ſome years ago ſeparated from it by a flaſh of lightning, and falling on a neighbouring mountain, ſuch a quantity of gold was found in the fragments, that for ſome time that metal was ſold at Paz at eight pieces of eight per ounce. But its ſummit being perpetually covered with ice and ſnow, no mine has been opened in the mountain.

In this dioceſe is the lake of Titicaca, which is ſomewhat of an oval figure, and about eighty leagues in circumference, and the water in ſome parts ſeventy or eighty fathoms deep. Ten or twelve large rivers, beſides a great number of ſmaller ſtreams, empty themſelves into it. The water, though neither bitter nor brackiſh, is turbid, and its taſte ſo nauſeous, that it cannot be drank. It contains ſeveral iſlands, among which is one of a conſiderable ſize, on which the yncas erected a magnificent temple to the ſun, the walls of which were covered with plates of gold and ſilver; but this immenſe maſs of riches the Indians, on ſeeing the rapaciouſneſs of the Spaniards on their conquering the country, are thought to have thrown into the lake, to prevent its falling into their hands.

The city of La Paz is of a middling ſize, and from its ſituation among the breaches of the Cordillera, the ground on which it ſtands is not only unequal, but alſo ſurrounded by mountains; without any other proſpect than that of thoſe mountains and the channel of the river. When this river is increaſed either by the rains or the melting of the ſnow on the mountains, its current forces along large maſſes of rocks with ſome grains of gold, which are found after the flood has ſubſided. Hence ſome idea may be formed of the riches incloſed in the bowels of theſe mountains, a remarkable proof of which appeared in the year 1730, when an Indian waſhing his feet in the river diſcovered ſo large a lump of gold, that the marquis de Caſtel Fuerte gave twelve thouſand pieces of eight for it, and ſent it as a preſent to the king of Spain.

The chapter of the cathedral conſiſts of a dean, an archdeacon, a chanter, four canons and prebendaries. Here are alſo four pariſh-churches and monaſteries of Auguſtines, Dominicans, Franciſcans, fathers of Mercy, a college of Jeſuits, and a convent and hoſpital of St. Juan de Dios, with a nunnery of the order of Conception, and another of Santa Tereſa. The city is governed by a corregidor, under whom are regidores and ordinary alcaldes, as in the other towns.

SECT. XI.

Of the Biſhopries of Santa Cruz de la Sierra and Tucuman, in the Province of Los Charcas: their Climate, Soil, Produce, and Inhabitants.

THE biſhopric of Santa Cruz de la Sierra is a government and captain-generalſhip, and though its juriſdiction is of large extent, not many Spaniards are found in it; and its few towns are in general miſſions, comprehended under the name of miſſions of Paraguay.

The winter here is ſevere; it begins in May, and ends in Auguſt, during which the ſouth wind blows for ſeven weeks, and the rains overflow great part of the country; but the ſummer is exceſſive hot.

The ſoil abounds with ſeveral kinds of fruit. Here is a ſpecies of palm tree, from the trunk of which they get a ſort of meal that is very good food. Grapes, figs, and muſk-melons, alſo thrive well here.

The city of Santa Cruz, the capital of this government, ſtands eighty or ninety leagues eaſt of Plata, but is neither large nor well built, nor has any thing anſwerable to the name of a city. The houſes are of ſtone covered with palm leaves: there is one church, which is the cathedral; its chapter conſiſts only of a biſhop, dean, and archdeacon; it having neither canons, prebendaries, nor other dignitaries.

The miſſions belonging to the Jeſuits in the parts dependent on this biſhopric are called Indios Chiquitos, or Little Indians, a name they received from the Spaniards, from the extreme ſmallneſs of the doors of their houſes. Their country lies between Santa Cruz de la Sierra and the lake of Xarayes, from whence the river Paraguay has its riſe, and being increaſed by the conflux of others, forms the famous river of Plata. About the cloſe of the laſt century the Jeſuits began preaching in this nation, and had ſuch ſucceſs, that in 1732 they had formed ſeven towns, each conſiſting of above ſix hundred families, and were then building others for aſſembling under their laws the great number of Indians they brought over to the Romiſh church.

The Indios Chiquitos are active and well made, and their courage has been frequently experienced by the Portugueſe, who uſed to make incurſions into their country, in order to carry off the inhabitants for ſlaves: but their valour has taught them to keep within their own limits. The arms of theſe Indians are poiſoned arrows, muſkets, and ſabres. Though their language is different from that of the other nations of Paraguay, they have nearly the ſame cuſtoms. Near theſe is another nation of Indians, who have always ſtrenuouſly refuſed to liſten to the miſſionaries, who have been able to make very few converts among them.

The biſhopric or government of Tucuman lies in the center of this part of America, beginning ſouth of the

river Plata beyond the towns of Chicas, which furniſh Indians for the mines of Potoſi; on the eaſt it borders on Paraguay and Buenos Ayres, reaching weſtward to the kingdom of Chili, and ſouthward to the plains of Magellan.

The territories of this government are of ſuch extent, that they reach above two hundred leagues from north to ſouth, and in ſome parts little leſs than a hundred from eaſt to weſt; but all the towns are ſmall, and built without either order or ſymmetry. The principal part of the country is not habitable, either from the want of water, or the impenetrable foreſts with which it is covered; and the Spaniards are prevented from extending their ſettlements by the ravages of the free Indians, who take all opportunities to deſtroy them.

Thoſe parts of the country that are watered by rivers are ſo fertile, as to produce corn and fruit ſufficient for the conſumption of the inhabitants. The woods abound in wild honey and wax, while the hot parts produce ſugar and cotton; the laſt of which is manufactured in the country, and, with the woollen ſtuffs alſo wove by the inhabitants, form an advantageous branch of trade. But its great article conſiſts in the mules bred in the luxuriant paſtures of its valleys; inconceivable droves of theſe animals are ſent to all parts of Peru, they being famous for exceeding all others in ſtrength and docility.

SECT. XII.

Of PARAGUAY.

Its Situation, Climate, and Produce; with a particular Account of the Miſſions of the Jeſuits, and the Orders, Regulations, and Government of the Towns and Villages under their Authority.

THE fourth biſhopric of the audience of Charcas is Paraguay, which lies to the eaſt of Tucuman, and is bounded on the north by Santa Cruz de la Sierra, on the ſouth by Buenos Ayres, and on the weſt by Braſil.

The air in general is moiſt and temperate, though in ſome places it is rather cold. The temperate parts abound with all kinds of proviſions. Cotton is produced in great quantities; and the induſtrious, in the miſſions of the Jeſuits, are very ingenious in weaving it into ſtuffs for exportation. It alſo abounds in tobacco, and in the valuable herb called Paraguay; with plenty of a variety of fruits, and rich paſtures, in which are bred vaſt herds of cattle.

The only ſettlements in this government are the city of Aſſumption, Villa Rica, and ſome other towns, whoſe inhabitants are a mixture of Spaniards, Meſtizos, and ſome Indians; but the greateſt part are of the ſeveral caſts. As the city Aſſumption is but ſmall and irregular, it cannot be expected that Villa Rica and the other towns and villages ſhould be better. The houſes of the capital are indeed intermixed with gardens and plantations, but without any ſymmetry. It is, however, the reſidence of the governor of the province, who had formerly under his juriſdiction part of the towns which compoſed the miſſion of Paraguay; but a few years ſince they were ſeparated from it, and annexed to the government of Buenos Ayres. In the city of Aſſumption is a cathedral, whoſe chapter, beſides the biſhop, conſiſts of a dean, an archdeacon, a treaſurer, and two canons. The pariſhes of the city of Villa Rica, and of the other towns depending on this government, are ſerved by the Franciſcans; but in the miſſionary towns they are ſolely under the care of the Jeſuits; and theſe compoſing moſt of the towns in this province, we ſhall treat particularly of them, in which we ſhall follow the account given by the learned and ingenious Antonio de Ulloa, and Muratori.

The miſſions of Paraguay, beſides thoſe in the province of that name, include a great many in Santa Cruz de la Sierra, Tucuman, and Buenos Ayres.

Soon after the city of Aſſumption was founded, a few Jeſuits entering Paraguay, brought over to the Romiſh church about fifty Indian families, who ſoon induced many others to follow their example, on account of the peace and tranquillity they enjoyed under the direction of the fathers. They had long diſdained to ſubmit to the arms of the Spaniards and Portugueſe; but became willing converts to the religious tenets propoſed by the Jeſuits, who, in order to cultivate their minds and gain their affections, learned their language, and conformed to their manners; thus obtaining an entire aſcendant over their affections, they eſtabliſhed the moſt ſolid and real authority, a dominion over the mind.

They began with aſſembling them in towns, and forming them into ſocieties, regulated by a very extraordinary ſyſtem of civil policy. They engaged to protect them againſt the inſolence of the Spaniſh ſoldiers and the tyranny of the governors, and actually kept their word with reſpect to the Portugueſe, againſt whom they obtained leave from the court of Spain to arm the natives. The Portugueſe, then only intent on the improvement of their colonies, in violation of the moſt ſacred laws, did not, even after the converſion of theſe people, ceaſe from making incurſions, in order to carry off the young inhabitants as ſlaves for their plantations; ſo that it became abſolutely neceſſary, in order to preſerve theſe converts, to remove into Paraguay about twelve thouſand of all ages, and a like number were brought from other places. The Jeſuits ſet about diſciplining the Paraguans, taught them the uſe of fire-arms, and ſoon rendered them able to cope with their enemies, and, when they appeared, to drive them out of the country. The mildneſs of the Chriſtian yoke, the exemption from taxes and marks of ſervitude, rendered them extremely attached to the fathers; and at preſent above three hundred and forty thouſand families are ſubject to the Jeſuits, living in obedience and an awe bordering upon adoration, yet procured without any violence or conſtraint.

The Paraguay miſſions are on all ſides terminated by nations of idolaters, ſome of which, however, live in perfect harmony with them, while others make frequent incurſions into the country; and among the latter the fathers chiefly employ their zeal, in order to bring them over to their religion and diſcipline; and having brought over a number of theſe to their principles, they conduct them to the Chriſtian towns, where, after proper inſtructions, they are admitted to baptiſm.

There are about threeſcore pariſhes on the banks of the rivers Paraguay and Panama, at not above the diſtance of thirty miles from each other. In each of theſe is a Jeſuit, who is ſupreme in all cauſes civil, military, and eccleſiaſtic; and may be regarded as a petty prince, who governs not only with the authority of a ſovereign, but with the influence and reputation of an oracle. The important office of governor is, however, always filled by a perſon choſen by the Indians, with the approbation of the prieſt. The alcaldes are annually appointed by the regidores, and the governor jointly with them attends to the maintenance of good order and tranquillity among the inhabitants; but that theſe officers, who are ſeldom perſons of diſtinguiſhed abilities, may not abuſe their authority, and either through intereſt or paſſion carry their revenge too far againſt the other Indians, they are not to proceed to puniſhment without previouſly acquainting the prieſt, that he may compare the offence with the ſentence. The prieſt, on finding the perſon really guilty, delivers him up to be puniſhed, which generally conſiſts in impriſonment for a certain number of days, and ſometimes faſting is added to it; but if the fault be very great, the delinquent is whipped, which is ſaid to be the moſt ſevere puniſhment uſed among them. The execution of the ſentence is preceded by a diſcourſe made by the prieſt before the delinquent, in which he repreſents, with the greateſt mildneſs, the nature and guilt of his crime, by which means he is brought to acknowledge the juſtice of the ſentence, and to receive it rather as a paternal correction, than a rigorous puniſhment; and indeed they are ſaid to have ſo high an opinion of the Jeſuits, that they are more ready to blame themſelves, than to think it poſſible for the prieſt to do wrong.

Every town has a particular armoury, in which are kept all the fire-arms, ſwords, and weapons uſed by the militia when they take the field, whether to repel the inſults of the Portugueſe, or any of the free Indians inhabiting their frontiers; and, that they may be dexterous in the management of them, they are exerciſed on the evening of every holiday in the market-places of the town.

All perſons capable of bearing arms are alſo in every town divided into companies under their proper officers, who owe this diſtinction to their military qualifications. Their uniform is richly laced with gold or ſilver, according to their rank, and embroidered with a device of their towns. In theſe they always appear on holidays at the times of exerciſe. The governor, alcaldes, and regidores, have likewiſe very magnificent habits of ceremony, which they wear on ſolemn occaſions.

Every town has a ſchool for teaching reading, writing, dancing, and muſic; and whatever the natives undertake they generally make a great proficiency in; for the inclination and genius of every one is carefully conſulted, before he is forwarded in any branch of ſcience. In one of the courts of the houſe belonging to the prieſt of each town are work-houſes for painters, ſculptors, gilders, ſilver-ſmiths, lock-ſmiths, carpenters, weavers, watch-makers, and other mechanic arts and trades, where the Indians work for the benefit of the whole town, under the inſpection of the prieſt's coadjutors; and boys are alſo inſtructed in the arts or trades to which they have the greateſt inclination.

In each of the towns is a houſe in which women of ill fame are placed; it alſo ſerves for the retreat of married women who have no families, during the abſence of their huſbands. For the ſupport of this houſe, and alſo of orphans, and thoſe who by age or any other circumſtance are diſabled from earning a livelihood, two days in the week are ſet apart, in which the inhabitants of every village are obliged to ſow and cultivate a piece of ground, called Labor de la Comunidad, the Labour of the Community, and the ſurplus of the produce is applied to procure furniture and decorations for the church, and to clothe the orphans, the aged and diſabled. By this benevolent plan all diſtreſs is precluded, and the inhabitants provided with every neceſſary of life.

That the Indians may never want materials for work, it is one part of the prieſt's care to have always in readineſs a ſtock of different kinds of tools, ſtuffs, and other goods; ſo that all who are in want repair to him, bringing, by way of exchange, wax, of which here are great quantities, and other products. The goods received in exchange are ſent by the prieſt to the ſuperior of the miſſions, and with the produce a freſh ſtock of goods is lain in. The prieſt likewiſe viſits perſonally the Indian plantations, in which he is remarkably ſedulous, in order to prevent the indulgence of that ſlothful diſpoſition natural to the natives. He alſo attends at the ſlaughter-houſes where cattle are daily killed, large herds of which are kept for the public uſe, and their fleſh is diſtributed by the prieſts in lots proportioned to the number of perſons in each family. In ſhort, he viſits the ſick, to ſee that they are duly attended and provided with every thing neceſſary to their recovery.

The civil government of theſe towns ſeems admirably calculated to produce happineſs; and the eccleſiaſtical appears no leſs extraordinary. The prieſt inſtructs the Indians in his diſtrict, and obliges them punctually to frequent Divine ſervice on Sunday. The children repair every morning by break of day to the churches, where they take their places on oppoſite ſides, according to their ſex. There they recite alternately the morning prayer and Chriſtian doctrine, till ſun-riſe, when maſs is celebrated, at which all the inhabitants are obliged to attend, except they can give a ſufficient reaſon for their abſence. After maſs all go to work, and in the evening the children aſſemble to be catechiſed, and the adults to pray. Marriages are, for the greater ſolemnity, celebrated on Sunday; high maſs is then ſung, and an exhortation to the married pair is pronounced from the pulpit; after which a liſt is called over to ſee who is abſent, and penances are impoſed on all treſpaſſes committed in the pariſh. This regularity is ſaid to produce an aſtoniſhing effect on the minds and morals of the Indians, who are punctual in their religious duties, faithful in their dealings, charitable to the diſtreſſed, humble, obedient, and induſtrious, beyond what could be reaſonably expected from a people naturally indolent and ſlothful.

The pariſh-churches in Paraguay are capacious, rich, elegant, and ſplendidly furniſhed; gilding and painting attract the eye, and on every ſide ſtrike the imagination; all the utenſils uſed in religious worſhip are of gold and ſilver, many of them curiouſly emboſſed and ſet with precious ſtones. Magnificent galleries are erected on one ſide the altar for the civil magiſtrates, and on the other for the military officers, and all the vulgar are ſeated with great order on ſeats round the area. Every church has its band of muſic, conſiſting of a great number of performers in vocal and inſtrumental muſic, and Divine ſervice is celebrated in them with all the pomp of cathedrals. The ſame is obſerved in public proceſſions, eſpecially on that of Corpus Chriſti-day, at which the governor, alcaldes, and regidores aſſiſt in their habits of ceremony, and the militia in their uniforms; the reſt of the people carry flambeaux: theſe proceſſions are likewiſe accompanied with dancing, and the performers wear particular dreſſes, extremely rich, and adapted to the characters repreſented. In ſhort, the whole is conducted with the utmoſt pomp and parade, and every thing relating to religion is contrived to ſtrike the ſenſes and captivate the imagination of the weak and ſuperſtitious.

The houſe or rather palace of the prieſt, who may be conſidered as a ſpiritual prince within his juriſdiction, is grand, ſpacious, and conſtructed in the form of a church, in order to ſtrike his ſubjects with religious awe and reverence: it conſiſts of different apartments, ſuited to the various offices of the prieſt, as a civil and eccleſiaſtical magiſtrate. Every morning after prayers is devoted to hearing the complaints and redreſſing the grievances of thoſe who demand an audience. At noon he hears confeſſions and grants abſolutions, in which he is extremely rigid and exact. In the afternoon he walks abroad, inſpects the public and private affairs, and ſuperintends the labour of his pariſhioners; while the evening is devoted to catechiſing and diſcourſing on moral and religious ſubjects.

The houſes of the Indians are built with that ſymmetry and convenience, and ſo compleatly furniſhed, as to excel thoſe of the Spaniards in many towns in this part of America. Moſt of them, however, have only mud walls; but ſome of them are of unburnt brick, and others of ſtone; yet in general are covered with tiles. All private houſes are ſaid to make gun-powder, that a ſufficient quantity may not be wanting, either on any exigency, or for fire-works on holidays and anniverſary rejoicings.

Such at leaſt is the idea conveyed of the behaviour of the Jeſuits here by Muratori and the learned Don Antonio Ulloa, who are undoubtedly the beſt writers on the ſubject. Indeed ſome have treated their characters with great ſeverity, and they may juſtly be accuſed of ambition; but perhaps this paſſion was never directed to more noble and uſeful purpoſes than inſtructing the ignorant, promoting induſtry, and inſpiring a love of order, with temperance, frugality, and every other virtue that can humanize the mind. It is not ſurprizing if the exceſſive reverence paid here to the Jeſuits fills them with pride, ſo natural to an elevated ſtation. However, it is affirmed, but with what juſtice we will not pretend to determine, that they carry their authority to ſuch an exceſs, as to cauſe even the magiſtrates to be corrected before them with ſtripes, and ſuffer perſons of the higheſt diſtinction within their juriſdictions to kiſs the hem of their garments as the greateſt honour. It muſt, however, be added, that the utter abolition of all ideas of property, which is rendered uſeleſs by the general magazines and ſtore-houſes, doubtleſs contributes to the happineſs of the people, ſince they are certain of never wanting, and are deprived of the very inclination of committing the numerous vices that ſpring from ſelfiſhneſs, avarice, and diſcontent. From this and other particulars one would imagine, that they had taken the general ſcheme of their government from Sir Thomas Moor's Utopia; yet the prieſts themſelves poſſeſs large property, all manufactures are theirs, every natural commodity is brought to them, and the treaſures annually remitted to the ſuperior of the order plainly evince that zeal for religion is not the only motive of their forming theſe miſſions.

The miſſionary fathers will not permit any of the inhabitants of Peru, whether Spaniards, Meſtizos, or even Indians, to come within their miſſions in Paraguay. This, their friends ſay, is not with a view of concealing their tranſactions from the world, but to prevent their Indians being

being corrupted by the example of others. They are ſaid to be at preſent ſtrangers to ſedition, pride, malice, envy, and other paſſions ſo fatal to ſociety; but were ſtrangers admitted among them, their bad examples would ſoon teach them what at preſent they are happily ignorant of. The vigilance and jealouſy which the fathers expreſs in this particular has given birth to many unfavourable reports. If a ſtranger, in ſpite of all their precaution, ſhould find his way into the country, he is immediately ſecured by the ſuperior of the pariſh, a houſe aſſigned him, and every ſatisfaction is generouſly allowed him, except his liberty. If the father ſhould permit him to ſee the town, it is always in his own company, and after notice has been given to the inhabitants to keep cloſe in their houſes, where they barricade themſelves as if they dreaded the aſſault of a powerful enemy. As ſoon as an opportunity offers for his embarking at Buenos Ayres, the ſtranger is ſent thither under a guard of Indians, who are entire ſtrangers to every European language; whence it is impoſſible for them to communicate any thing with reſpect to the ſtate of the country.

It ought not to be omitted, that, beſides the provincial governments, there is a ſupreme council, compoſed of an annual meeting of all the fathers, who adjuſt the methods neceſſary to be executed for promoting the common concerns of the miſſion, for framing new laws, correcting or aboliſhing old ones, and adapting every thing to the preſent circumſtances.

It has been already intimated, that the natives are trained up to the exerciſe of arms, and the military of Paraguay is at preſent ſo formidable as to raiſe the jealouſy of Spain and Portugal, and is probably able to foil all the attempts of the Portugueſe and Spaniards to reduce them to obedience. Every pariſh has its body of horſe and foot, who are duly exerciſed every Sunday in the manual exerciſe and evolutions, in the ſame manner as the militia of Swiſſerland. This force is ſaid to be divided into regiments, compoſed of ſix companies of fifty men each. The officers hold their commiſſions of the fathers, and are ſelected out of the body of the people for their valour, activity, and obedience. The cavalry is on much the ſame footing as the infantry, only the regiments are leſs numerous. It is even ſaid, that the Jeſuits can raiſe ſeventy or eighty thouſand well diſciplined troops, amazingly expert in the uſe of the firelock and bayonet, and that with their ſlings they can throw ſtones of four or five pounds weight with aſtoniſhing force, and ſuch dexterity, as to hit the ſmalleſt mark at any propoſed diſtance within the compaſs of their ſtrength.

With reſpect to the trade of Paraguay, it conſiſts of cotton ſtuffs, made in the country; of tobacco, a great deal of which is planted here; and of the herb called Paraguay, which alone would be ſufficient to form a flouriſhing commerce. Theſe goods are carried for ſale to the cities of Santa Fe and Buenos Ayres, where the fathers have factors, who diſpoſe of what is conſigned to them from Paraguay, and lay out the money in ſuch European goods as the towns are then in want of, in ornaments for the churches, and for the prieſts who officiate in them; but the greateſt care is taken in deducting from what each town ſends the amount of the tribute of its Indian inhabitants, which is immediately remitted to the officers of the revenue belonging to the crown of Spain.

SECT. XIII.

Of Buenos Ayres, *including* Patagonia.

Its Situation and Produce; with a particular Account of the Manner of hunting the wild Cattle for their Hides, in order to take them alive; with a Deſcription of the City of Nueſtra Senora de la Buenos Ayres.

BUENOS Ayres, which is included by Ulloa within the juriſdiction of Los Charcas, and termed the fifth biſhopric of that audience, received its name from the extraordinary ſalubrity of the air, and is extended to all that country from the eaſtern and ſouthern coaſt of that part of America as far as Tucuman on the weſtward, on the north to Paraguay, and on the ſouth to Terra Magellanica. This country is watered by the great river La Plata. The diſtinctions between ſummer and winter are here very viſible. In ſummer the exceſſive heats are mitigated by gentle breezes, which conſtantly begin at eight or nine in the morning, and in winter violent tempeſts of wind and rain are very frequent, accompanied with ſuch dreadful thunder and lightning as fill the inhabitants, though uſed to them, with terror and conſternation.

There is no place either in America or Europe where meat is better or cheaper; it is always fat and very palatable, and in ſuch plenty, that it is ſaid the hides of the beaſts, which are moſt valuable, are all that is properly bought, the carcaſe being in a manner given in the bargain. The country to the weſt, north, and ſouth of the city of Buenos Ayres lately abounded ſo greatly in cattle and horſes, that the whole coſt conſiſted in taking of them; and even then a horſe was ſold for a dollar, and the uſual price for a beaſt choſen out of a herd of two or three hundred was only four rials. At preſent there is no ſcarcity; but they keep at a greater diſtance, and are more difficult to be catched, from the prodigious havock made of them by the Spaniards and Portugueſe, merely for the ſake of their hides, the principal branch of the commerce of Buenos Ayres.

Though the Spaniards claim the whole country as far as the ſtreights of Magellan, yet the ſouthermoſt part, uſually diſtinguiſhed by the name of Patagonia, is unpoſſeſſed by the Spaniards. This country is on the eaſt ſide extremely remarkable for a peculiarity not to be paralleled in any other part of the known world; for though the whole territory to the northward of the river Plata is full of wood, and ſtored with immenſe quantities of large timber trees; yet to the ſouthward of the river no trees of any kind are to be met with, except a few peach trees, firſt planted by the Spaniards in the neighbourhood of Buenos Ayres; ſo that on the whole eaſtern coaſt of Patagonia, extending near four hundred leagues in length, and reaching as far back as any diſcoveries have yet been made, no other wood has been found than a few inſignificant ſhrubs.

The country, however, abounds with paſture; for the land appears in general to conſiſt of a light, dry, gravelly ſoil, and produces great quantities of long coarſe graſs, which grows in tufts, interſperſed with large barren ſpots of gravel between them. This graſs feeds immenſe herds of cattle; for the Spaniards at Buenos Ayres having, ſoon after their firſt ſettling there, brought over a few black cattle from Europe, they have thriven prodigiouſly by the plenty of herbage they met with, and are now increaſed to that degree, and are extended ſo far into different parts of Patagonia, that they are not conſidered as private property; but many thouſands have been annually ſlaughtered by the hunters, only for their hides and tallow.

The manner of killing theſe cattle being peculiar to this part of the world, deſerves a particular deſcription. The hunters being all mounted on horſeback, both the Spaniards and Indians being excellent horſemen, arm themſelves with a kind of ſpear, which at its end has its blade fixed a-croſs; with this inſtrument they ride at the beaſt, and the hunter who comes behind him ham-ſtrings him. As the beaſt after this operation ſoon falls, without being able to riſe, they leave him and purſue others, whom they ſerve in the ſame manner. Sometimes a ſecond party attend the hunters, to ſkin the cattle as they fall: but it is ſaid, that at other times the hunters chooſe to let them languiſh in torment till the next day, from the opinion that the anguiſh the animal endures facilitates the ſeparation of the ſkin from the carcaſe: and though their prieſts have loudly condemned this moſt barbarous practice, yet all their efforts to put an entire ſtop to it have hitherto proved ineffectual.

Theſe cattle are ſlaughtered, as hath been already ſaid, only for their hides and tallow, to which ſometimes are added their tongues; but the reſt of their fleſh is left to putrify, or to be devoured by the birds and wild beaſts. The greateſt part of it falls to the wild dogs, of which there are immenſe numbers in that country. Theſe are ſuppoſed to have been originally produced by Spaniſh dogs from the city of Buenos Ayres, who, allured by the great quantity of carrion, and the facility they had by that

means of ſubſiſting, left their maſters, and run wild among the cattle; for they are plainly of the breed of the European dogs, animals not originally found in America: but though theſe dogs are ſaid to be ſome thouſands in a company, they neither diminiſh nor prevent the increaſe of the cattle, not daring to attack the herds on account of the numbers which conſtantly feed together; but contenting themſelves with the carrion left by the hunters.

As it is often neceſſary for the uſes of agriculture, and for other purpoſes, to take the cattle alive, without wounding them, this is performed with admirable dexterity by throwing a thong of ſeveral fathoms in length, with a running nooſe at one end, over the horns of the beaſt, much in the ſame manner as we have already deſcribed in hunting the wild aſs and other animals. Another hunter who follows the game, throws another nooſe about one of its hind legs, and as the other end is faſtened to the ſaddle of the riders, this is no ſooner done, than the horſes, who are trained to the practice, turn different ways, by which means the beaſt is ſoon thrown down; the horſes then ſtopping, keep their thongs upon the ſtretch, and the hunters alighting, ſecure the beaſt in ſuch a manner, that they afterwards eaſily convey him to whatever place they pleaſe. They in like manner nooſe horſes, and it is ſaid even tygers.

The horſes which were firſt brought from Spain, and are likewiſe prodigiouſly increaſed, run wild to a much greater diſtance than the black cattle; and though many of them are excellent, yet their number renders them of very little value, the beſt of them being often ſold in the neighbouring ſettlements, where money is plenty, for not more than a dollar a-piece.

In all parts of this country are a good number of vicunas or Peruvian ſheep; but theſe, from their ſhyneſs and ſwiftneſs, are killed with difficulty. On the eaſtern coaſt are found immenſe quantities of ſeals, and a vaſt variety of ſea-fowl, among which the moſt remarkable are the penguins, which in ſize and ſhape reſemble a gooſe; but inſtead of wings have ſhort ſtumps like fins, which are of no uſe to them except in the water; their bills are narrow, and they ſtand and walk in an erect poſture.

The inhabitants of the eaſtern coaſt appear to be but few, and rarely more than two or three at a time have been ſeen by any ſhips that have touched there. However, towards Buenos Ayres they are ſufficiently numerous, and frequently very troubleſome to the Spaniards. Theſe laſt exceed the ſouthern Indians in activity and ſpirit, and ſeem in their manners to be nearly allied to thoſe gallant Indians of Chili, who have long ſet the whole Spaniſh power at defiance, have often ravaged their country, and ſtill remain independant.

The capital of this government is called Nueſtra Senora de Buenos Ayres. It was founded in 1535, on the ſouth ſide of the river Plata, cloſe by a ſmall river, in the thirty-fourth degree thirty four minutes thirty-eight ſeconds ſouth latitude, and in the ſixtieth degree five minutes weſt longitude from London. This city, which is built on a large plain, gently riſing from the little river, is far from being ſmall, it having at leaſt three thouſand houſes inhabited by Spaniards and different caſts. Like moſt towns ſeated on rivers, it is much longer than it is broad; but the ſtreets are ſtraight, and of a proper breadth. The principal ſquare is very large, and built near the little river; the front anſwering to it being a caſtle, in which the governor conſtantly reſides, and, with the other forts, has a garriſon, with a thouſand regular troops. The houſes, which were formerly of mud thatched with ſtraw, and very low, are now much improved, ſome being of chalk, and others of brick, with one ſtory above the ground-floor, and moſt of them tiled. The cathedral is a ſpacious elegant ſtructure, and is the pariſh-church for the greateſt part of the inhabitants; the other at the farther end of the city being only for the Indians. The chapter conſiſts of the biſhop, dean, and two canons. There are alſo ſeveral convents, and a royal chapel in the caſtle, where the governor reſides.

Within the government of Buenos Ayres are three other cities, named Santa Fe, Las Corientes, and Monte Video. Santa Fe lies about ninety leagues north-weſt of Buenos Ayres, between the rivers Plata and Salado, which, after running through the country of Tucuman, joins the former. The city is but ſmall and meanly built, which is in a great meaſure owing to the frequent inſults the inhabitants have received from the free Indians in its neighbourhood, who have ſometimes pillaged the city and the adjacent villages. It is, however, the channel of the commerce between Paraguay and Buenos Ayres. The city of Las Corientes, which is ſeated on the eaſtern banks of the Plata, between it and the river Parana, is about a hundred leagues north of the city of Santa Fe; but is much inferior to it, and indeed has no marks of a city except the name. Monte Video, which was lately built, ſtands on the border of the bay from whence it derives its name, and, like the former, is of little conſequence. Each of theſe cities has its particular regidor, as lieutenant of the governor, and its inhabitants, together with thoſe of the neighbouring country, are formed into a militia, which on any appearance of an invaſion from the Indians, aſſemble in order to repel their attacks, in which they have been frequently ſucceſsful.

CHAP. XII.

Of CHILI, the Iſlands of TERRA DEL FUEGO, JUAN FERNANDES, &c.

SECT. I.

Of CHILI.

Its Situation, Extent, Climate, and Produce: the Number of its Inhabitants, and the Manners and Cuſtoms of the free Indians.

THE kingdom of Chili is very extenſive, but its limits are not exactly aſcertained; ſome confine it within the Spaniſh juriſdiction, others extend it from the twenty-ſixth to the forty-ſeventh degree of ſouth latitude, and there are even ſome who include within its limits Terra del Fuego and the very extremity of Cape Horn. We ſhall, however, upon the beſt authority confine the name of Chili to that tract of land between the twenty-ſixth and forty-fifth degree of ſouth latitude, and between the forty-ſeventh and fifty-fourth degree of weſt longitude. Agreeable to which limits it is bounded by Peru on the north, by the province of La Plata on the eaſt, by Patagonia or Terra Magellanica on the ſouth, and by the South ſea or Pacific ocean on the weſt; containing a ſpace of between twelve and thirteen hundred miles in length, and about half as much in breadth, if we include the vaſt plains of Chicuito, which lie on the oppoſite ſide of the lofty ridge of the Andes, which are here of a ſtupendous height. The country indeed ſtrictly called Chili lies between this chain of mountains on the South ſea, including only a ſpace of about ninety miles in breadth.

The ſeaſons here are almoſt oppoſite to thoſe in the northern hemiſphere; but the face of the country is beautiful, and the climate wholeſome. Here is felt heat and cold in the different ſeaſons. On the eaſt the country is ſcreened by the Andes; while from the weſt the

air is cooled by the moſt refreſhing ſea-breezes: yet in ſome parts the piercing winds which in winter blow from the mountains are exceeding ſharp. However, this country may in general be eſteemed one of the moſt agreeable climates in South America. In winter a light coat of ſnow falls upon the valleys; but the mountains are covered with ſuch quantities, as in ſummer ſupply the country with innumerable rivulets, which produce the moſt extraordinary fertility; for here Indian and European corn, wine, and fruits, with all the neceſſaries of life, are produced in the utmoſt abundance and perfection.

Among the corn great quantities of excellent wheat are produced; the vines are of ſeveral kinds, and, with regard to the richneſs and flavour of their grapes, are eſteemed beyond any produced in Peru. A ſort of muſcadel is made here, whoſe flavour far exceeds any wine of the kind made in Spain. The fruits which moſtly abound in Chili are of the ſame kind as thoſe known in Europe; its cherries in particular are large and of a fine taſte. The ſtrawberries, like thoſe of Peru, are of two kinds; and in the gardens of the cities near the ſea-coaſts, orange trees are kept covered with bloſſoms and fruit all the year, and in the plains are a prodigious variety of beautiful flowers without cultivation.

Among the remarkable herbs, many of which are medicinal, and others applied to various uſes, is the panque, which is of great ſervice in tanning of leather.

Beſides the rich variety of productions upon the ſurface of the earth, the country abounds with mines of gold and ſilver, copper, tin, and iron; and with quarries of lapis-lazuli and loadſtone.

The chief uſe of the rich lands is the fattening of oxen, goats, and ſheep, which is the principal employment of the greateſt part of the inhabitants in the country. All other proviſions are in equal plenty; turkeys, geeſe, and all kinds of poultry are ſold at a very low price. Wild-fowl are alſo very common, and are of the ſame ſorts as thoſe found in the deſarts of Quito; as are likewiſe wood-pigeons, partridges, woodcocks, and ſnipes. Among the ſinging birds is the goldfinch, which reſembles thoſe of Spain, except a ſmall variation in its plumage. There are beſides others proper to the country, particularly the piche, which is ſomething larger than a ſparrow, of a brown colour, ſpotted with black, except the breaſt, which is of a moſt beautiful red, and ſome feathers of the ſame colours in the wings intermixed with others of a bright yellow. Though ſome ſnakes are found in the fields and woods, their bite is not dangerous, neither are the country peaſants under any apprehenſions from ravenous beaſts; whence if this country was not ſubject to earthquakes, nature might be ſaid to pour her treaſures on this country, without blending them with the uſual inconveniences.

The number of inhabitants in this extenſive country bears no proportion to its extent. All the Spaniards in Chili are ſaid not to exceed twenty thouſand, and theſe are diſperſed in ſuch a manner as hath given the free Indians the greateſt advantages in all their wars with them. This was the great overſight of Valdivia, the firſt invader of Chili, who, upon his diſcovering gold, attempted to make ſo many eſtabliſhments, as furniſhed the Indians whom he had treated very cruelly with an opportunity of recovering their liberty and expelling the Spaniards out of the mountains. The Europeans, Meſtizos, mulattoes, and negroes, are reputed at a hundred and fifty thouſand; but the Indians are much more numerous. The ſubjected Indians belong entirely to the Spaniards, live among them, and ſerve them in the ſame manner as the original natives of Peru and Mexico. For the better eſtabliſhment of good order and a regular police, they are divided according to their habitations into ſmall lordſhips, ſtyled commanderies.

The Chileſians are tall, robuſt, active, and courageous. No other Indian people have coſt the Spaniards ſo much trouble; for they are dexterous in the uſe of the ſword, pikes, bows, and arrows; and their diſcipline more regular and rational. They fight in ſquadrons, retire when broke, rally, fortify themſelves with great addreſs, and chooſe their ground either to engage, attack, or defend themſelves, with admirable judgment.

The Indians in ſeveral parts of Chili are not governed by caciques like thoſe of Peru, the only ſubordination among them being with regard to age; ſo that the oldeſt perſon of the family is reſpected as its governor. Thoſe who inhabit the ſouthern parts of the river Biobio, and thoſe who live near the Cordillera, have hitherto eluded all attempts made for reducing them under the Spaniſh government; for when ſtrongly puſhed they abandon their huts, and retire into the more diſtant parts of the kingdom, where, being joined by other nations, they return in ſuch numbers, that they eaſily take poſſeſſion of their former habitations, the Spaniards being unable to oppoſe them. If at that time a few only call for a war againſt the Spaniards, the flame inſtantly ſpreads, and their meaſures are taken with ſuch ſecrecy, that the firſt declaration of it is by attacking the neighbouring villages. When they are not already aſſembled, the firſt ſtep, when a war is agreed on, is to ſummon the nations, which they term ſhooting the dart, the ſummons being ſent from village to village with the utmoſt ſilence and rapidity, ſpecifying the very night when the irruption is to be made; and though advice of it is ſent to the Indians who reſide among the Spaniards, nothing tranſpires; nor is there a ſingle inſtance among all the Indians that have been taken up on ſuſpicion, that one ever made a diſcovery. Thus their deſigns continue impenetrable, till their execution withdraws the veil.

The Indians of the ſeveral nations being aſſembled, chooſe a general; and when the night fixed upon for executing their deſigns arrives, the Indians who live near the Spaniards attack them by ſurprize; and having cut them off, divide into ſmall parties, and deſtroy the ſeats, farm-houſes, and villages, giving no quarter, and paying not the leaſt regard to youth or age. Theſe parties afterwards unite, and in a body attack the larger ſettlements of the Spaniards, beſiege the forts, and, by the greatneſs of their numbers, frequently carry all before them. If at any time the Spaniards gain the ſuperiority, the Indians retire ſeveral leagues, where concealing themſelves a few days they ſuddenly attack a different part from that where they were encamped, and endeavour to carry the place by a ſudden aſſault, in which they are frequently ſucceſsful, unleſs the commandant's vigilance has provided againſt a ſudden ſurprize; when, by the advantage of the Spaniſh diſcipline, they are generally repulſed with great ſlaughter.

Theſe wars againſt the Spaniards uſually continue ſome years, they being of little detriment to the Indians; for moſt of their occupations conſiſt of cultivating a ſmall ſpot of ground, and weaving a little cotton cloth for their apparel, and theſe are carried on by the women. Their huts are built in a day or two, and their food conſiſts of roots, maize, and other grain.

The firſt advances towards a treaty of peace with theſe Indians are generally made by the Spaniards, and as ſoon as the propoſals are agreed to a congreſs is held, at which the governor, major-general of Chili, and the principal officers, with the biſhop of Conception, and other perſons of eminence aſſiſt. On the part of the Indians, the general and captains of his army, as repreſentatives of the communities, repair to the congreſs. Theſe congreſſes are held with the Indians not only for concluding a peace, but on the arrival of a new preſident, and the ſame ceremonies are obſerved in both; ſo that an account of one will be ſufficient to give a juſt idea of the other.

On holding a congreſs the preſident ſends notice to the frontier Indians of the day and place, whither he repairs with the perſons above-mentioned; and on the part of the Indians the heads of their ſeveral communities: both, for the greater ſplendor of the interview, being accompanied with an eſcort, conſiſting of a certain number previouſly agreed on. The preſident and his company lodge in tents, and the Indians encamp in their huts at a ſmall diſtance. The elders, or chiefs of the Indians, pay the firſt viſit to the preſident, who drinks their healths in wine, and himſelf gives them the glaſs that they may drink his; he then makes them a preſent of knives, ſciſſars, and ſuch toys as they moſt value. The treaty of peace is then brought on the carpet, and the manner of obſerving the ſeveral articles is ſettled: after which they return to their camp, and the preſident makes them a viſit,

carrying with him a quantity of wine ſufficient for a moderate regale.

The chiefs of the communities who are not preſent at the firſt viſit now go in a body to pay their reſpects to the preſident, who at the riſing of the congreſs makes each a ſmall preſent of wine, which they liberally return in horſes, black cattle, calves, and fowls. After which both parties return to their reſpective habitations.

It ought not to be omitted, that the preſident, in order to gain more effectually the hearts of the Indians, invites ſeveral of them to his table, and, during the three or four days of the congreſs, neglects no means of ingratiating himſelf into the good graces of the whole body. On theſe occaſions a kind of fair is held at both camps, great numbers of Spaniards repairing to the Indians with ſuch goods as they know will pleaſe them, and the Indians come with cotton cloth and cattle to the Spaniſh camp. Both parties deal by exchange, and never fail of ſelling their whole ſtock, and of obſerving in their dealings the moſt exact candor and regularity, as a ſpecimen of the manner in which their future commerce is to be conducted.

Amidſt the utmoſt rage of the Indians in their hoſtilities againſt the Spaniards, they generally ſpare the white men, whom they carry to their huts, and uſe as their own; whence many Indians of thoſe nations have the complexion of the Spaniards born in that country. In time of peace a number of them enter the Spaniſh territories, hiring themſelves for a certain time to work at the farm-houſes; and at the expiration of the term return home, after laying out their wages in the purchaſe of ſuch goods as are valued in their country.

During peace the Spaniards ſell the free Indians hardware, as bits, ſpurs, knives, and edge-tools, toys, and ſome wine. This is done by way of barter; for though the countries inhabited by the Indians are not deſtitute of gold, yet knowing the fondneſs of the Spaniards for that metal, and the miſeries it has occaſioned where it has been found, they cannot be prevailed upon to open mines; ſo that the returns conſiſt in horſes, horned cattle, and cotton cloth. The Spaniard begins his negociation with offering the chief of the nation a cup of wine, and then diſplays his wares, that the Indian may chooſe what he likes beſt, mentioning at the ſame time what he expects in return. If they agree, the Spaniard makes him a preſent of a little wine, and the chief informs the community that they are at liberty to trade with that Spaniard as his friend. Relying on his protection, the Spaniard goes from hut to hut, recommending himſelf by giving the head of every family a taſte of his wine, after which they enter upon buſineſs, and the Indian having taken what he wants, the trader goes away without receiving any equivalent, and viſits the other huts, as they lie diſperſed over the country, till he has diſpoſed of all his ſtock. He then returns to the cottage of the chief, calling on his cuſtomers in his way, and acquainting them that he is on his return home. Upon this not one fails of bringing to the chief's hut what had been agreed on. Here they take their leave with all the appearance of a ſincere friendſhip, and the chief even orders ſome Indians to eſcort him to the frontiers, and aſſiſt him in driving the cattle he has received in exchange for his goods. The Spaniards acknowledge that the Indians are remarkable for the fairneſs of their dealings, that they are never known to recede from what has been agreed on, and are very punctual in their payments.

SECT. II.

Of the Diviſions of Chili; with a Deſcription of the principal Cities, as St. Jago, Conception, Copiapo, Coquimbo, Valparaiſo, and Baldivia; with whatever is moſt remarkable in each.

CHILI is divided into four governments, namely, the major-generalſhip of the kingdom of Chili, Valparaiſo, Valdivia, and Chiloe. It is likewiſe ſubdivided into eleven juriſdictions; the limits of which are not exactly aſcertained by any of the Spaniſh authors, and we ſhall content ourſelves with giving our readers a deſcription of the principal cities, and of whatever appears to us moſt worthy of notice.

The city of St. Jago, or Sant Iago, the capital of Chili, was founded by captain Pedro de Valdivia in 1541 in the valley of Mapocho, in the thirty-third degree forty minutes ſouth latitude, and in the ſeventy-ſeventh degree weſt longitude, about twenty leagues from the harbour of Valparaiſo, the neareſt port to it in the Pacific ocean. Its ſituation is one of the moſt convenient and delightful that can be imagined, it ſtanding in a beautiful plain, ſixty miles in extent, flowing in meanders through the middle of it, and called by the name of Mapocho. This river runs ſo near the city, that water is conveyed from it by conduits through the ſtreets; and it alſo ſupplies the gardens, which few houſes are without. The city is two thouſand yards in length from eaſt to weſt, and twelve hundred in breadth from north to ſouth. On the oppoſite ſide of the river, which waſhes the north part of it, is a large ſuburb named Chimba, and on the eaſt ſide is a mountain of a middling height called Santa Lucia. All the ſtreets are of a handſome breadth, ſtraight, and paved, running exactly eaſt and weſt, while they are croſſed by others at right angles, which run exactly north and ſouth. Near the middle of the city is a grand ſquare encompaſſed with piazzas, with a very beautiful fountain in the center. On the north ſide are the palace of the royal audience, where the preſidents have their apartments, the town-houſe, and the public priſon; on the weſt ſide is the cathedral and the biſhop's palace; the ſouth ſide conſiſts of ſhops, each decorated with an arch; and on the eaſt is a row of private houſes.

The houſes are in general built of unburnt brick, and very low, on account of the terrible devaſtation occaſioned by the earthquakes with which this city has been often viſited; particularly on the eighth of July, 1730, when the greateſt part of the city was deſtroyed; and this cataſtrophe was ſucceeded by an epidemical diſtemper, which ſwept away even greater numbers than had before periſhed by the earthquake. But though the houſes are low they make a handſome appearance, and are well contrived to anſwer the purpoſes of convenience and pleaſure. Beſides the cathedral, the chapter of which, beſides the biſhop, conſiſts of a dean, archdeacon, chanter, and four canons, with other ſubordinate eccleſiaſtics; here are the pariſh-churches of Sagrario, St. Anne, and St. Iſadoro; there are alſo three convents of Franciſcans, two of Auguſtines, one of Dominicans, one of the fathers of Mercy, one of St. Juan de Dios, five colleges of Jeſuits, St. Diego, a college for ſtudents, and without the city a convent of Recollects. Here are alſo two nunneries of St. Clare, two of Auguſtines, and one of Carmelites; and a religious ſiſterhood, under the rules of St. Auguſtine; all which have a great number of recluſes, as is common in all the cities of this part of the world. The churches of the convents, beſides being very ſpacious, are built either with brick or ſtone, and thoſe of the Jeſuits are diſtinguiſhed by the beauty of their architecture. The pariſh-churches are in every reſpect greatly inferior to them, both within and without.

In this city is a royal audience, which conſiſts of a preſident, four auditors, a fiſcal, and a patron of the Indians. The determinations of this court are without appeal, except to the ſupreme council of the Indies, and this only in matters of notorious injuſtice or denial of redreſs. Though the preſident is in ſome particulars ſubordinate to the viceroy of Lima, he is governor and captain-general of the whole kingdom of Chili, and as ſuch reſides one half of the year at St. Jago and the other at Conception. During his abſence from St. Jago the corregidor acts as his repreſentative, and his juriſdiction on this occaſion extends to all the other towns of the kingdom of Chili, except the military governments.

The office for the royal revenue is under the direction of a treaſurer and accomptant. Here are paid the tributes of the Indians, and other parts of the revenue; the ſalaries of the officers within its department, and other aſſignments, are likewiſe paid here.

Here are alſo a tribunal of croiſade, the members of which are a ſubdelegate commiſſary, a treaſurer, and accomptant;

comptant: likewiſe a commiſſion of inquiſition, all the officers of which are apponted by the tribunal of inquiſition at Lima.

The magiſtracy of this city, at the head of which is the corregidor, conſiſts of regidores, and two ordinary alcaldes. In theſe are lodged the police and civil government of the city. During the time the preſident reſides here, the juriſdiction of the corregidor is limited to the liberties of St. Jago.

The cuſtoms of the people differ but little from thoſe already mentioned in large cities; but, inſtead of the oſtentation of Lima, dreſs with great decency, without ſplendor; but all the families who can afford it keep a calaſh for driving about the city.

The men are robuſt, of a proper ſtature, well ſhaped, and of a good air. The women have all the charms of thoſe of Peru, and are even more remarkable for the delicacy of their features, and the fineneſs of their complexions; but they diſfigure their natural beauty by painting themſelves in ſuch a prepoſterous manner, as not only ſpoils the delicacy of their ſkins, but even their teeth; ſo that it is very uncommon to ſee a woman with a good ſet.

The city of Conception is ſeated in the thirty-ſixth degree forty-three minutes fifteen ſeconds ſouth latitude. It is built on the ſouth-eaſt ſhore of a beautiful bay, on an uneven ſandy ground, and on a ſmall declivity, having a little river running through it. The deſtruction it ſuffered in the terrible earthquake of 1730, occaſioned all the houſes to be built low. This dreadful event happened on the eighth of July: the firſt motions were felt at one in the morning, and the concuſſions increaſing, the ſea, as uſual, retreated to a conſiderable diſtance; but ſoon returned ſo impetuouſly, and with ſuch a ſwell, that it overflowed the whole city and the neighbouring countries. In this ſudden calamity many of the inhabitants found an aſylum on the adjacent eminencies. This inundation was ſoon ſucceeded by three or four ſhocks, and at about four in the morning, a little before break of day, the concuſſions returned with the moſt tremendous violence, demoliſhing the few buildings that remained.

The houſes have either mud walls, or are built with unburnt brick, but are covered with tiles. The churches are ſmall and mean, as are alſo the Franciſcan, Dominican, and Auguſtine convents, as well as that belonging to the fathers of Mercy; but the college of Jeſuits is well built.

The political government of this city conſiſts of a corregidor nominated by the king, who is at the head of the ordinary alcaldes and regidores. During the vacancy of this poſt the duty is performed by the preſident of Chili, who is governor and captain-general of the whole kingdom, and preſident of the audience of St. Jago, on which Conception is dependent. The preſident is obliged to reſide ſix months in the year at Conception, in order to attend to the military concerns of the frontiers, to ſee that the forts are in a good condition, and the troops well diſciplined. Conception has all the courts and offices uſual in the cities of South America.

As all the inhabitants of the towns, villages, and country within the juriſdiction of Conception form different bodies of militia, ſome of which are in pay, and all muſt be ready on any ſudden alarm; there is, beſides the corregidor, a camp-maſter, who commands in all military affairs without the city.

The inhabitants conſiſt of Spaniards and Meſtizos, which are here hardly to be diſtinguiſhed by their complexion; both being very fair, and ſome have freſh complexions. The goodneſs of the climate, together with the fertility of the country, have drawn hither many Creoles and Europeans, who live together in that harmony and friendſhip which ſhould be an example to the other parts of theſe provinces, where pride and jealouſy occaſion frequent feuds. The men, inſtead of a cloak, wear a poncho, which is made in the form of a quilt, about two yards and a half or three yards in length, and two in breadth, having an opening in the middle juſt ſufficient to put their head through, the reſt hanging down on all ſides. This is their dreſs in all weathers, whether walking or riding; and the peaſants never pull it off but when they go to reſt, tucking it up in ſuch a manner that both their arms and whole body are at full liberty, either for labour or diverſion. This is an univerſal garb among all ranks when they ride on horſeback. Though ſo plain and uniform, it ſerves to diſtinguiſh the quality and rank of the wearer, ſome wearing it only as a covering, and others for ſhow. Accordingly thoſe of the common people coſt only four or five dollars, while others are worth a hundred and fifty or two hundred. This difference ariſes partly from the fineneſs of the ſtuff, and partly from the laces and embroidery with which they are adorned. They are of a double woollen ſtuff manufactured by the Indians, and generally blue.

The people here are excellent horſemen, and the women are particularly famous for their great ſkill in horſemanſhip; they are equally ſkilled in throwing the nooſe with the people of Patagonia, juſt deſcribed, in catching of wild bulls and other animals; but this is uſed here on many other occaſions, particularly on private quarrels, in which they uſe an amazing addreſs in throwing the nooſe, and in avoiding it with a lance. It is the only method they take to ſatisfy their revenge, and in this caſe the only reſource in an open country is for a man to throw himſelf on the ground, keeping his legs and arms as cloſe to it as poſſible. A perſon may alſo ſave himſelf by ſtanding cloſe to a tree, and if in the ſtreet by placing himſelf againſt a wall.

Having deſcribed the two principal cities of Chili, we ſhall proceed with the reſt in the order in which they are ſituated, proceeding from north to ſouth.

Copiapo, the firſt port on this coaſt, ſtands in the twenty-ſeventh degree ſouth latitude. The harbour is indeed properly called Caldera, but it is commonly known by the former name, on account of its contiguity. This, from its natural ſituation, is improperly ſaid to be the richeſt town in the world, it being ſeated on a gold mine; which, however, is not wrought by the inhabitants, becauſe a ſtill richer mine of that metal has been been diſcovered at ſix miles diſtance. The town is very irregularly built, and its inhabitants amount to about ſeven hundred; but there are no leſs than a thouſand labourers employed in the mines. There are twelve mills conſtantly employed, which extract at the rate of a hundred and fifty ounces one day with another. There are here alſo other valuable articles of commerce; ſalt-petre lies on the ground in many places two feet deep, and under any other government than the Spaniſh would attract a conſiderable trade. To the ſouth of the town are the rich lead mines of Copiapo, which lie neglected; yet ſeveral intelligent writers are of opinion they might be turned to more advantage than the gold, on account of the great quantities of lapis lazuli found on the ſurface.

Coquimbo, or La Serena, is ſeated in the twenty-ninth degree fifty-four minutes ſouth latitude, about a mile from the coaſt of the Pacific ocean, in a moſt delightful ſituation, having an extenſive proſpect of the ſea, of a river, and the country, which preſents to the view a pleaſing variety of fields of different kinds of grain, and woods of a very lively verdure. The town is pretty large, but not proportionably peopled; the number of families not amounting to above four or five hundred, conſiſting of Spaniards, Meſtizos, and a few Indians. The ſtreets are ſtraight and of a convenient breadth, interſecting each other at right angles, ſome extending from north to ſouth, and others from eaſt to weſt, forming ſquares of buildings, as at St. Jago and other places of note in this part of America. Though the houſes have mud walls, and are covered with leaves, none are without a large garden planted with fruit-trees, and the eſculent vegetables, both of America and Spain; for the climate is happily adapted to a variety of both kinds, the heat not being exceſſive, nor the cold ſevere; ſo that both in the fertility of the earth, and the chearful appearance of the country, the whole year wears an aſpect of one perpetual ſpring. The ſtreets, though regular and convenient, are not entirely formed by the houſes, a part of the interval between the ſeveral ſquares of buildings being filled up with gardens; and moſt of them have ſo agreeable an appearance, as to atone for the mean aſpect of the houſes. On the north ſide of the town runs the river, after flowing in various meanders through the whole

valley; and thus, by canals cut from it, furniſhes the town with water, one great uſe of which is to preſerve the beauty of their favourite gardens.

Beſides the pariſh-church here is an Auguſtine, a Dominican, and Franciſcan convent, one belonging to the fathers of Mercy, another to the order of St. Juan de Dios, and a college of Jeſuits. The churches of theſe religious fraternities are large and decent. The pariſh-church takes up part of one ſide of the great ſquare, and on the oppoſite ſide is the town-houſe, where the alcaldes and regidores meet, who, with a corregidor, form the corporation.

The whole trade of Coquimbo conſiſts of ſending three or four veſſels annually to Lima, laden with wine, flour, and other proviſions; in exchange for which they receive all kinds of European commodities, and theſe are carried from hence to all the other towns of Chili.

Valparaiſo is ſeated in the thirty-third degree two minutes thirty-ſix ſeconds north latitude, and is at preſent both large and populous, it having the moſt conſiderable haven in thoſe ſeas, conſtantly filled with ſhips from Callao and Panama; whence it would be ſtill larger were it not for its inconvenient ſituation, it ſtanding at the foot of a mountain, and a great part of the houſes being built on its acclivity. The broadeſt and moſt convenient part is that along the coaſt; but this is very diſagreeable in winter, it being ſo expoſed to the north winds, that the waves beat againſt the walls of the houſes, ſome of which are built with unburnt bricks, and ſome of chalk and pebbles. Beſides its pariſh-church, it has a convent of Auguſtines, and another of Franciſcans; but they have few monks, and the churches belonging to them are ſmall and mean. It is inhabited by Spaniards, Mulattoes, and Meſtizoes. In its neighbourhood are ſeveral villages, and the great number of farm-houſes give the country a chearful appearance.

Here is a military governor nominated by the king, who having the command of the garriſons in the ſeveral ports, and of the militia of the town and its dependences, is to take care that they are properly diſciplined.

The proximity of Valparaiſo to St. Jago has drawn hither all the commerce formerly carried on at that city, and to this it owes its foundation, increaſe and proſperity. The cargoes brought hither by the Callao ſhips are indeed but ſmall; but they take from hence wheat, dried fruits, Cordovan leather, tallow, and cordage; and with thoſe return to Callao. A ſhip has been known to make three voyages in one ſummer, that is between November and June; during which the droves of mules and carriages from all the farms in the juriſdiction of St. Jago bring freſh ſupplies to the ware-houſes. Thus the ſummer ſeaſon may be termed the fair of Valparaiſo; but on the approach of winter it becomes as remarkably deſolate, the crowd of traders repairing to St. Jago, and none ſtaying that are able to remove.

The fruits that grow in the neighbourhood of this town are admirable for their ſize and beauty, particularly a ſort of apples called quillota, which greatly exceed the largeſt in Spain; and, beſides their exquiſite flavour, are ſo juicy that they melt in the mouth. Among the ſeveral kinds of game, there are here ſuch numbers of partridges in their ſeaſon, which begins in March, and laſts ſeveral of the following months, that the muleteers knock them down with their ſticks, without going out of the road, and bring great numbers of them to Valparaiſo: but few of theſe, or any other birds, are ſeen very near the town. It is the ſame with regard to fiſh, very little being to be caught either in the harbour or along the coaſt.

Baldivia, or Valdivia, a celebrated port, is ſeated at the bottom of a fine bay, in the thirty-ninth degree ſix minutes ſouth latitude, and in the eightieth degree weſt longitude. It takes its name from Valdivia, the Spaniſh general, who conquered the country. A conſiderable ſum is annually granted to keep the fortifications in repair, which conſiſt of four ſtrong caſtles, mounting above a hundred pieces of fine braſs cannon, for which, however, it is ſaid, there is never a ſufficient number of gunners and carriages; nor ever a proper ſupply of ammunition: and the garriſon is chiefly compoſed of malefactors tranſported from Spain. The governor is indeed always a perſon of quality; but as he is promoted merely to repair his fortune, it is alſo expected that he ſhould improve the opportunity. The inhabitants amount to about two thouſand, who are chiefly Spaniards, Creoles, and Meſtizos. Its trade is leſs conſiderable than formerly, becauſe the gold mines in its neighbourhood are ſhut up; yet ten large ſhips are employed in the trade between this port and Lima, which chiefly conſiſts in corn, ſalt proviſions, gold, and hides, which are exchanged for ſlaves, ſugar, chocolate, and European commodities and manufactures.

The iſland of Chiloe, the laſt of the governments, extends from the forty-ſecond to the forty-fourth degree of ſouth latitude, and is about a hundred and fifty miles in length, and ſeventeen in breadth. The coaſt is very ſubject to ſtorms, eſpecially in March, when winter begins. The iſland has a military governor, who reſides at Chacao, the principal harbour of the iſland, which is well fortified, and capable of making a good defence. Beſides Chacao, which has the title of a city, is a town called Calbuco, which is much larger, and is the reſidence of a corregidor, who is nominated by the preſident of Chili: it has alſo regidores and alcaldes annually choſen. It has a pariſh-church, a college of Jeſuits, a convent of Franciſcans, and another of the fathers of Mercy. The iſland, which is extremely fertile and produces all the neceſſaries of life, is well peopled with Spaniards, Meſtizos, and Chriſtian Indians.

SECT. III.

Of Terra Magellanica, the Iſlands of Terra del Fuego, and Staten Land.

THE country called Terra Magellanica is the laſt we have to deſcribe on the continent of America. It takes its name from Ferdinand Magellan, a Portugueſe, who firſt coaſted the country before he diſcovered and paſſed the ſtreights at its ſouthern extremity. which bear his name. Its northern part borders on Chili, the eaſt and weſt coaſt are waſhed by the Atlantic and Pacific ocean, as it is improperly called, and its ſouthern extremity is waſhed by the ſtreights of Magellan, the continent gradually leſſening till it comes to thoſe ſtreights, where it is very narrow. It extends from the forty-fifth to the fifty-ſeventh degree thirty minutes north latitude, and from the ſeventieth to the eighty-fifth degree of weſt longitude.

Pigafetta, an Italian, the lying author of Magellan's voyage, pretends that in the forty-ninth degree thirty minutes they found people of ſuch a gigantic ſtature, that a middle ſized man could hardly reach their waiſt with his head; that they were clad with the ſkins of beaſts as monſtrous as themſelves, and armed with huge bows and arrows of a ſtrength proportionable to their bulk; and that one of them devoured a whole baſket full of biſkets every day with his fiſh and raw fleſh, and drank a pail full of wine or water at every meal. Later navigators have, however, entirely overthrown this improbable account: but few of the natives have ever been ſeen, and theſe were of the common height; indeed this country appears to be but thinly peopled. We have already given ſome account of it under the name of Patagonia, by which it is alſo diſtinguiſhed, and ſhall therefore now proceed to the iſlands Terra del Fuego and Staten Land.

The iſlands that lie to the ſouth of the ſtreights of Magellan are commonly known by the name of Terra del Fuego, and are thus called from the fires and ſmoke perceived by the firſt diſcoverers of them, occaſioned by a volcano in the largeſt iſland, the flame of which, tho' not ſeen in the day-time, is viſible at a vaſt diſtance in the night, and ſometimes throws up great quantities of ſtones and aſhes. Theſe iſlands, the far largeſt of which is that properly called Terra del Fuego, extend along the Magellanic coaſt from eaſt to weſt about four hundred miles, and were thought contiguous to the continent, till Magellan diſcovered and ſailed through the ſtreights that part them from it. They were likewiſe then thought to be one continued iſland, till ſeveral navigators afterwards

wards discovered them to be divided by several narrow channels.

Terra del Fuego is mostly very mountainous and rough, with the tops of the mountains covered with snow; but it is said to have fertile valleys, plains, and pasture-grounds, watered by a multitude of fine springs that flow from the mountains. Between the several islands are capacious bays and roads, in which large fleets may ride in safety. The lands are said to abound with wood and stone, and to be inhabited by a people as white as the Europeans, who, notwithstanding the extreme severity of the climate, go naked, and paint their bodies of several colours.

The Spaniards, who are best acquainted with the streights of Magellan, say, that they are above a hundred leagues in length from the cape of the Virgins at the eastern entrance, to the cape of Desire at the opposite end. The breadth is very various, it being in some places but a league wide, and in others two or more; there are many safe harbours running into the continent, with narrow entrances, and bays that extend quite out of sight, encompassed with high mountains which shelter them on all sides; so that ships may safely ride in them upon the least anchor in any weather.

On the east side of the islands which form this streight is Staten Land, in about the fifty-fifth degree of south latitude; and between it and Terra del Fuego runs streight Le Maire, which is about seven or eight leagues in length. "I cannot but remark, says the author of Lord Anson's "Voyage, that though Terra del Fuego had an aspect "extremely barren, yet this island of Staten Land far "surpasses it, in the wildness and horror of its appear-"ance; it seeming to be entirely composed of inaccessi-"ble rocks, without the least mixture of earth or mould "between them. These rocks terminate in a vast num-"ber of ragged points, which spire up to a prodigious "height, and are all of them covered with everlasting "snow; the points themselves are on every side sur-"rounded with frightful precipices, and often over-hang "in a most astonishing manner; and the hills which "bear them are generally separated from each other by "narrow clefts, which appear as if the country had been "frequently rent by earthquakes; for these chasms "are nearly perpendicular, and extend through the "substance of the main rocks, almost to their very bot-"toms: so that nothing can be imagined more savage "and gloomy than the whole aspect of this coast." The passage into the South Sea, or Pacific Ocean, is now generally performed by running through streight Le Maire, by these inhospitable islands, and then doubling Cape Horn, the most southern promontory of Terra del Fuego.

There are several other islands about those just mentioned; but as they are of little consequence, and none of them planted by any European nation, we shall leave this inhospitable climate, and proceed to the small but fine island of Juan Fernandes.

SECT. IV.

Of the Island of JUAN FERNANDES.

Its Situation, Extent, Soil, and Produce; the Face of the Country; the Courage of the Goats, and a particular Description of the Sea-Lion: with a concise Account of the Lesser Juan Fernandes, or Masa Fuero. Concluding with some Observations on America in general.

THE delightful island of Juan Fernandes is said to have received its name from a Spaniard who formerly procured a grant of it, and resided there some time with a view of settling it, but afterwards changed his mind. It lies in the thirty-third degree forty minutes south latitude, a hundred and ten leagues to the west of the continent of Chili. The island is of an irregular figure; its greatest extent does not exceed fifteen miles, and its greatest breadth is somewhat less than six. The only safe anchoring is on the north side, where are three bays; but the middlemost, known to the English by the name of Cumberland-bay, is the widest, deepest, and in all respects the best. The north part of the island is composed of high craggy hills, many of them inaccessible, though generally covered with trees. The soil of this part is so loose and shallow, that very large trees on the hills soon perish for want of root, and are then easily overturned. Several of these hills have a peculiar sort of red earth exceeding vermilion in colour, and perhaps on examination might prove useful for many purposes. The trees of the woods on the northern side of the island are most of them aromatics, and of many different sorts: there are none of them so large as to yield any considerable timber, except the myrtle-trees, which are the biggest on the island; but even those will not work to a greater length than forty feet. The top of the myrtle is circular, and appears as uniform and regular as if it had been clipped by art: it bears on its bark an excrescence moss, which in taste and smell resembles the garlic. There is here also the pimento tree, and the cabbage tree, besides a great number of plants of various kinds, and almost all of those which are usually esteemed particularly adapted to the cure of those scorbutic disorders that are contracted by salt diet and long voyages, particularly great quantities of water-cresses and purslain, with excellent wild sorrel, and a vast profusion of turnips and Sicilian radishes. There are likewise many acres of ground covered with oats and clover.

The face of the country, at least of the north part of the island, is extremely singular: the woods that cover most of the steepest hills are free from bushes and underwood, and afford an easy passage through every part of them, and the irregularities of the hills and precipices trace out by their various combinations a great number of romantic valleys; most of which have a stream of the clearest water running through them, that falls in cascades from rock to rock, as the bottom of the valley, by the course of the neighbouring hills, is broken into a sudden sharp descent. In these valleys are some particular spots, where the shade and fragrance of the contiguous woods, the loftiness of the over-hanging rocks, and the transparency and frequent falls of the neighbouring streams, present scenes of such elegance and dignity as would with difficulty be rivalled in any other part of the globe; for here the simple productions of unassisted nature may be said to excel all the fictitious descriptions of the most animated imagination.

We cannot here forbear describing the spot where commodore Anson pitched his tent, which we shall take verbatim from the account of his voyage published under the name of his chaplain. "The piece of ground which "he chose was a small lawn, that lay on a little ascent, "at the distance of about half a mile from the sea. In "the front of his tent there was a large avenue cut thro' "the woods to the sea-side, which sloping to the water "with a gentle descent, opened a prospect of the bay "and the ships at anchor. This lawn was screened be-"hind by a tall wood of myrtle sweeping round it, in "the form of a theatre, the slope on which the wood "stood rising with a much sharper ascent than the lawn "itself, though not so much but that the hills and pre-"cipices within land towered up considerably above the "tops of the trees, and added to the grandeur of the "view. There were besides two streams of crystal "water, which ran on the right and left of the tent, "within an hundred yards distance, and were shaded "by the trees which skirt the lawn on either side, and "completed the symmetry of the whole"

With respect to the animals and provisions to be found on this island, it has been represented as abounding with a vast number of goats, which was doubtless true, it being the usual haunt of the Buccaneers and privateers, who formerly frequented those seas. There are two instances, one of a Musquito Indian, and the other of Alexander Selkirk, a Scotsman, who were left by their respective ships, and lived for some years alone upon the island, and were consequently no strangers to its produce. Selkirk, who was the last, and from whom Daniel de Foe took the hint of writing his Robinson Crusoe living alone in an island, staid there between four and five years, and, during his continuance, frequently catching more goats than he wanted, sometimes marked their ears and let them go. This was about thirty-two years before commodore

modore Anſon's arrival in the iſland; and it is remarkable, that the firſt goat that was killed by his people at their landing, had his ears ſlit; whence they concluded, that he had doubtleſs been formerly under the power of Selkirk. This was an animal of a moſt venerable aſpect, with an exceeding majeſtic beard, and many other ſymptoms of antiquity. During their ſtay in the iſland, they met with others marked in the ſame manner, all the males being diſtinguiſhed by an exuberance of beard, and every other characteriſtic of great age.

The number of goats are now, however, greatly diminiſhed; for the Spaniards being informed of the advantages which the Buccaneers and privateers derived from the goats fleſh, with which they were here furniſhed, endeavoured to deprive their enemies of this relief, by extirpating the breed. For this purpoſe they put on ſhore great numbers of large dogs, who have increaſed ſo faſt, that they have deſtroyed all the goats in the acceſſible part of the country; ſo that there now remain only a few among the crags and precipices, where the dogs cannot follow them. Theſe are divided into ſeparate herds of twenty or thirty each, which inhabit diſtinct faſtneſſes, and never mingle with each other. The author of commodore Anſon's voyage mentions a remarkable diſpute between a herd of theſe animals and a number of dogs, which we cannot forbear repeating. Going in their boat into the eaſtern bay, they perceived ſome dogs running very eagerly upon the foot, and being willing to diſcover what game they were after, they lay upon their oars for ſome time to view them, and at laſt ſaw them take to a hill, where looking a little farther they obſerved upon the ridge of it an herd of goats, which ſeemed drawn up for their reception. There was a very narrow path ſkirted on each ſide by precipices, on which the maſter of the herd poſted himſelf fronting the enemy, the reſt of the goats being all behind, where the ground was more open. As this ſpot was inacceſſible by any other path, except where this champion had placed himſelf, the dogs, though they ran up hill with great alacrity, yet when they came within about twenty yards of him did not dare to encounter him, as he would infallibly have driven them down the precipice; but giving over the chace quietly laid themſelves down, panting at a great rate. As at preſent it is rare for goats to fall in their way, they are ſuppoſed to live principally upon young ſeals. Upon this iſland are found a great number of the laſt mentioned amphibious animals, which mariners uſually eat with pleaſure, and compare their fleſh to lamb. But there is another animal of the ſame amphibious kind, called a ſea-lion, that has ſome reſemblance to a ſeal, but is much larger, and its fleſh has ſome reſemblance to that of beef. They are in ſize, when full grown, from twelve to twenty feet in length, and from eight to fifteen in circumference; and are ſo extremely fat, that having cut through the ſkin, which is about an inch in thickneſs, there is at leaſt a foot of fat before you come at either lean or bones. They are likewiſe very full of blood; for if they are deeply wounded in a dozen places, there will inſtantly guſh out as many fountains of blood, ſpouting to a conſiderable diſtance. Their ſkins are covered with ſhort hair of a light dun colour; but their tails and their fins, which on ſhore ſerve them for feet, are almoſt black: their fins, or feet, are divided at the ends like fingers, the web which joins them not reaching to the extremities, and each of theſe fingers is furniſhed with a nail. The head is ſmall in proportion to the reſt of the body, and terminates in a ſnout. They have a row of large pointed teeth in each jaw, two-thirds of which are in ſockets; but the others, being the moſt hard and ſolid, are without them. He has whiſkers like thoſe of a cat; has ſmall eyes and ears; and the noſtrils, which are alſo very ſmall, are the only parts deſtitute of hair. They have a diſtant reſemblance to an over-grown ſeal, though in ſome particulars there is a manifeſt difference between them, eſpecially in the males: theſe have a large ſnout or trunk hanging down five feet ſix inches below the end of the upper jaw, which the females have not; and this renders the ſexes eaſily to be diſtinguiſhed from each other; and, beſides, the males are of a much larger ſize. Theſe animals divide their time equally between the land and ſea, continuing at ſea all the ſummer, and coming on ſhore at the ſetting in of the winter, where they reſide during that whole ſeaſon. In this interval they engender, and bring forth their young; having generally two at a birth, which they ſuckle with their milk, they being at firſt about the ſize of a full-grown ſeal. While the ſea-lions continue on ſhore they feed on the graſs and verdure that grows near the banks of the freſh-water ſtreams; and when not employed in feeding, ſleep in herds in the moſt miry places they can find. As they ſeem of a very lethargic diſpoſition, and are not eaſily awakened, each herd places ſome of their males at a diſtance, who never fail to alarm them, when any one attempts to moleſt, or even to approach them, which they do by making a very loud noiſe, ſometimes grunting like hogs, and at others ſnorting like horſes in full vigour. The males have often furious battles, when they gore each other with their teeth, and cover one another with blood: the author we have laſt quoted mentions one whom they named the baſhaw, who generally lay ſurrounded with a ſeraglio of females, which no other male dared to approach, and who had not acquired that envied pre-eminence without many bloody conteſts, of which the marks ſtill remained, in the numerous ſcars that were viſible in every part of his body.

There are but few birds, and thoſe chiefly hawks, blackbirds, owls, and humming-birds. But the bay is moſt plentifully ſtored with the greateſt variety of fiſh, particularly cod of a prodigious ſize, which are in no leſs plenty than on the banks of Newfoundland, alſo cavallies, gropers, large breams, ſilver fiſh, maids, congers of a peculiar kind, and above all a black fiſh, much eſteemed, called by ſome a chimney-ſweeper, in ſhape reſembling a carp, beſides excellent cray fiſh that generally weigh eight or nine pounds, and are of an exquiſite taſte. There are likewiſe a great quantity of dog-fiſh, and large ſharks.

The Spaniards have generally mentioned two iſlands under the name of Juan Fernandes, ſtyling them the Greater and the Leſs; the Greater being the iſland juſt deſcribed; and the Leſs being ſtill more diſtant from the continent, has been alſo called Maſa Fuero, and is about twenty-two leagues weſt by ſouth of the Greater Juan Fernandes. It is covered with trees, and has ſeveral fine falls of water pouring down its ſides into the ſea. This place has at preſent one advantage beyond the iſland of Juan Fernandes; for it abounds with goats who are far from being ſhy, and reſide there in great tranquillity, the Spaniards not having thought the iſland conſiderable enough to be frequented by their enemies, and have not therefore been ſolicitous to deſtroy the proviſions upon it. The iſland alſo abounds with ſea-lions and ſeals.

We have now finiſhed our deſcription of America; in the parts ſubject to Great Britain, to France, and to the United Provinces, we have ſeen rich plantations abounding with the neceſſaries and even the luxuries of life, the ſource of an immenſe commerce, furniſhing Europe with their ſuperfluities and valuable productions, and employing not only a prodigious number of ſhips, and thereby promoting navigation and giving employment to many thouſand hands, but producing an immenſe trade in the mother countries, by employing there an infinite number of people in different manufactures, to ſupply America with the goods of Europe. Thus giving life to trade, and ſpirit to induſtry, they produce a circulation that is of infinite advantage to both the mother country and its colonies, while their intereſts being reciprocal, ought to draw cloſely the knot of union which at ſuch a diſtance ſubſiſts between them.

On the other hand, Portugal and Spain, and particularly the latter, with countries immenſely rich, extenſive, and capable of rendering thoſe nations extremely powerful, have been far from anſwering that purpoſe. With reſpect to Spain, whatever may be ſaid to the contrary, the diſcovery of America was the greateſt misfortune that could have happened: it has drained, and continues ſtill to drain Spain of its moſt uſeful inhabitants; while the prepoſterous conduct of that court in preventing the people of other nations freely ſettling in their American dominions, and the multitude of monaſ-

teries

teries and nunneries in every city and every town prevent the increaſe of their own, and muſt render the regions of Spaniſh America thinly peopled. Britiſh America has made the manufactures of Great Britain flouriſh: Spaniſh America, with all its gold and ſilver, has rendered the Spaniards too proud to apply themſelves to manufactures, and conſequently poor.

CHAP. XIII.

Of the New Diſcoveries made in the PACIFIC OCEAN.

SECT. I.

North America found by the Ruſſians to extend weſtward almoſt to the Coaſt of Tartary. A general Account of another Continent to the South.

WE have now, according to the plan we propoſed in the beginning of this work, proceeded from eaſt to weſt, deſcribed the countries of Aſia, Africa, Europe, and America, and have entered the South Sea, or Pacific Ocean, which is of amazing extent, it being upwards of ten thouſand miles in breadth, and waſhes at the ſame time the coaſt of Peru and Chili, and that of Japan, China, and Tartary. It had its name from being ſuppoſed free from ſtorms and tempeſts; but very unjuſtly, for in particular ſeaſons of the year they are perhaps more violent in this ſea than in any other. It is alſo called the South Sea from the Spaniards diſcovering it by croſſing the iſthmus which divides North and South America, by paſſing from north to ſouth.

Though this ſea, after its firſt diſcovery, was imagined to extend from the north to the ſouth pole, yet it has been found that it is in a manner encompaſſed by two continents, which were for a long time not known to have any exiſtence, beſides innumerable iſlands. The continent on the north is ſuppoſed to be that of America, which extends almoſt as far to the weſt as Kamtſchatka. By the diſcoveries made by the Ruſſians, this country has been coaſted from the fifty-ſecond to the ſixtieth degree north latitude, and extends from the ſouth-weſt to the north-eaſt ſide about thirty-ſeven degrees in length; but whether it joins to the weſt ſide of North America, or is ſeparated from it by a channel, or by one croſſing through it into Hudſon's-bay, has not yet been determined.

This part of America enjoys a much better climate than the coaſt of the north-eaſt ſide of Aſia, though equally near the ſea, and every where full of high mountains continually covered with ſnow; for the mountains on the north-eaſt of Aſia are every where rocky and ragged, have no valuable metals, nor ſcarcely any trees or herbs, except in the valleys, where grows only ſome ſmall ſhrubby wood and hardy plants. The American mountains, on the contrary, in the neighbourhood of Siberia are cloſe, and their ſurface not like thoſe covered with moſs, but ſhaded from the bottom to their tops with thick and fine woods. In this new diſcovered part of America are found a ſort of raſberries of a very extraordinary ſize and fine taſte, beſides honey-ſuckles, cranberries, blackberries, and bilberries in great plenty; but as the coaſt has only been viſited, what fruits are to be found in the heart of the country is unknown. Among the birds have been diſcovered ten ſpecies different from the European, beſides ſwans, quails, plovers, Greenland pigeons, cranes, ſea-gulls, and magpyes. The fiſh enter the rivers of America earlier than at Kamtſchatka, and great plenty of them has been ſeen.

The natives who have been diſcovered by the Ruſſians are plump, broad ſhouldered, of a middling ſize, with ſtraight black hair that hangs looſe; their faces are flat and ſwarthy, and they have black eyes and thick lips. They wear ſhirts which hang below the knee, and are girded about the waiſt with leather ſtrings, and they have trowſers made of the ſkins of ſeals. In ſhort, they greatly reſemble the Kamtſchatdales; they uſe bows and arrows, and have boats twelve feet long and two broad, ſharp both at the head and ſtern, and are formed of a frame of wood and ſkins, which ſeem to be thoſe of ſeals, dyed of a cherry colour. They are made much in the ſame manner as thoſe we have deſcribed in the treating of Greenland and Hudſon's-bay; for the ſeat is round, two yards from the ſtern, and ſewed about with guts, which, with the help of leather thongs laced round the edges, can be drawn together, and opened like a purſe. The American ſitting in this place, ſtretches out his legs, and draws the ſkin tight about his body. Theſe boats will live in the moſt ſtormy weather, though they are ſo light that they may be eaſily carried by a ſingle perſon. They receive ſtrangers very kindly, converſe in a friendly manner, with their eyes fixed upon them, treat them with much civility, and make them preſents of whales fat.

Hence it is not improbable, that the northern parts of America were originally peopled from Siberia; for though it ſhould be granted that America and Aſia were never joined, yet theſe two parts of the globe lie ſo near each other that the impoſſibility of the inhabitants of Aſia going over to America, eſpecially as the number of iſlands lying between them made the paſſage more eaſy, cannot be maintained. The curious reader will ſoon ſee ſufficient evidence of a ſouthern continent ſloping away from the Spice Iſlands towards the continent of South America, by which Mexico, Peru, and Chili, might probably be firſt peopled.

It has been obſerved by the judicious compiler of the improved edition of Harris's collection of Voyages, that Antony Van Deman's Land, New Holland, and Carpentaria make one continent, from which New Zealand appears to be ſeparated by a ſtreight, and is part of another continent, anſwering to Africa, as this of which we are now ſpeaking, plainly does to America. This continent reaches from the equinoctial to the forty-fourth degree of ſouth latitude, and ſixty-ſix degrees from eaſt to weſt; whence the longeſt day in the moſt northern part muſt be twelve hours, and in the ſouthern about fifteen hours, or ſomething more; extending from the firſt to the ſeventh climate, which ſhews its ſituation to be extremely happy; and as to the produce and commodities of this country in general, there is the greateſt reaſon in the world to believe that they are extremely rich and valuable, becauſe the fineſt and richeſt countries in the known world all lie within the ſame latitude, and indeed this is more than conjecture; for ſome part of it we are told by the firſt diſcoverers abound with gold, ſilver, pearls, nutmegs, mace, ginger, and ſugar-canes of an extraordinary ſize.

It ought not to be omitted, that there are an infinite number of iſlands near the continent, and others ſcattered at a conſiderable diſtance from it, many of which are placed between that part which has been diſcovered and America.

It will be proper juſt to take notice of the ſeveral parts of this country that have been mentioned, and we ſhall begin with New Holland, a very extenſive tract of land, which, as Dampier obſerves, joins neither to Aſia, Africa, nor America, though it extends from the tenth to the thirty-firſt degree of ſouth latitude, or above twelve thouſand miles, and how much farther it ſtretches to the ſouthward is not certainly known. The Dutch, who

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are much better acquainted with these countries than any other nation in Europe, from their possessing the Spice Islands in its neighbourhood; but have with great care endeavoured to conceal their discoveries, though they have given names to several parts of the country. New Holland has, however, been visited by several other Europeans, and particularly by Dampier, who observes, that part which he saw consists of low even land, with sandy banks next the sea. In one part most of the trees are dragon-trees, which are pretty large, the gum distilling from knots or cracks in the trunk. In another part were various other sorts of trees; but none of them above ten feet high, their bodies about three feet round, and five or six feet before you come to the branches. Some of the trees had a fragrant smell, and were red within the bark; most of them had blossoms or berries, the former of which were of several colours, as red, white, and yellow; but mostly blue, and these had generally a very fragrant smell. There were likewise flowers of several kinds growing on the ground, some of which were very beautiful, and of such kinds as he had never seen before.

The land-animals he saw here were only a sort of racoons, differing from those of the West Indies, and a kind of guanos that were extremely ugly. Of the land-fowls he saw none of the larger birds but eagles, and five or six sorts of small birds, which sung with a great variety of fine shrill notes. The water-fowl were ducks, curlieus, crab-catchers, pelicans, and some which our author never saw before. The natives, according to Dampier, were tall, straight-bodied, with small long limbs, large heads, round foreheads, flat noses, pretty full lips, and wide mouths: their hair black, short and curled like those of the negroes, and the colour of their skins very black: they had no sort of cloaths, but the rhind of a tree tied like a girdle about their waist, and a bundle of long grass, or the bough of a tree full of leaves, fastened under their girdle to hide their nakedness. But the people of distant parts of the country are very differently described.

Van Diemen's land is a very extensive country, discovered by Abel Jansen Tasman, of which we have no other account worthy of notice but the extent of the coast, which he discovered in the forty-second degree twenty-five minutes south latitude, and in the hundred and thirty-third degree fifty minutes east from London; he steered east-south-east along the coast to the height of forty-four degrees south latitude, where the land runs away east and afterwards north-east-by-north. In the forty-third degree ten minutes south latitude, and in the longitude of a hundred and thirty-seven degrees fifty minutes east from London, he anchored in a bay to which he gave the name of Frederick Henry. The trees in this country where he observed them did not grow very close, nor were incumbered with bushes or under-wood. From these trees he gathered some gum and lac.

The land of Australia delle Spiritu Santo lies in about the fifteenth degree of south latitude, and according to Pedro Fernandez de Quiros, by whom it was discovered, extends from the hundred and fiftieth degree of longitude east from London to the hundred and thirtieth degree of west longitude from the same meridian, which is eighty degrees, or about four thousand six hundred miles. But with respect to this extent he seems to speak mostly from conjecture, he having not actually discovered the whole coast he mentions. In several memorials he presented to his Catholic majesty, he particularly describes the plants, trees, beasts, birds, and fishes of the country; mentions its producing a variety of spices, and excellent sugar-canes, with a great deal of gold and silver. He describes several commodious harbours, and extols the salubrity of the air, which he declares to be such, that notwithstanding he had a considerable body of men, who, like himself, were strangers to the climate, yet though they were exposed to continual labour in the open air, and often to the cold dews, while hot, none of them were taken sick. As for the natives, he found them strong, healthy, and many of them of a great age.

New Guinea, the country we shall next describe, extends from Cape Mabo, in about fifty minutes south latitude, and a hundred and six degrees thirty minutes east longitude from London, to King William's Cape, in the sixth degree thirty minutes south latitude, and about a hundred and forty-three degrees of longitude: thus the coast extends from the north-west to the south-east; but how far it reaches to the southward is still unknown.

This country, which was discovered in 1529 by Saavedra, received from him the name of Terra de Papuas; but Van Schouten, the Dutch discoverer, gave it the name of New Guinea. Some distinguish it into three different parts; calling that which lies from the hundred and forty-third to the hundred and thirty-fifth degree of longitude New Guinea: to a narrow slip of land which extends from thence to Cape Mabo, they give the name of Terra de Papos; and that which lies on the south of it, round a large gulf, between the eighth and fifteenth degree of south latitude, they term Carpentaria, or Carpenter's Land, from a Dutch captain by whom it was discovered: but it is not certainly known whether what is here called a gulf is not a streight.

Commodore Roggewein observes, that the continent of New Guinea appeared to him very high land, extremely full of plants and trees; so that in sailing four hundred leagues along the coast he did not observe one barren spot; and from thence thinks it extremely probable, that it abounds with many rich commodities. He adds, that persons worthy of credit assured him, that some of the free burgesses in the Moluccas go annually to New Guinea, where they exchange small pieces of iron for nutmegs. But the best account of New Guinea in general is that published by Dampier, who first discovered it on New-year's-day 1700, in between the third and fourth degrees of south latitude, where it was high even land, well cloathed with tall flourishing trees that appeared very green, and afforded a pleasant prospect. In the woods he found several sorts of fruit, such as he had never seen before; but he describes none of them. One of his men shot a stately fowl, as big as the largest dunghill cock, of a sky colour, with a white spot on the middle of each wing, about which were spots of red: its head was crowned with a bunch of long feathers that appeared very beautiful; it had strong legs with reddish claws, and its crop was filled with small berries. Its nest was in a tree, where was found an egg as large as that of a hen. The yawl, which was sent another way for water, returned at night, and brought a wooden fissgig, very ingeniously made: this they found by a small barbecue, used for drying fish, where they also saw a shattered canoe; but saw none of the inhabitants.

A little to the northward of this place captain Dampier found a stream of good water, where a boat could come up to it, and a ship might anchor close to the shore. The captain going ashore here, found a small cove, where he beheld two barbecues, which appeared not to be above two months standing; and the spars being cut with some sharp instrument, it seemed as if the natives had iron.

Schouten, and other navigators, who visited different parts of this continent, conceived very high ideas of it, and have represented it as one of the richest in the world; but they were not able to penetrate far into it; for they found the country extremely populous, and the inhabitants of a martial disposition, and generally speaking, well armed.

Thus imperfect are the accounts of this continent, though a number of navigators of different nations have fallen in with it. We shall now conclude with mentioning some of the islands in the Pacific Ocean that have been best described.

SECT. II.

Of the moſt remarkable of thoſe Iſlands in the Pacific Ocean that have been diſcovered by the Europeans, particularly Paſch Iſland, Nova Britannia, Gerrat Dennis's Iſle, Anthony Cove's Iſland, Moa, Arimoa, the Thouſand Iſlands, the Iſle of Recreation, Bowman's Iſlands, Miſchievous Iſland, the Brothers, the Siſter, Cocoa, Hope, and Hoorn Iſlands: with ſome Account of their Inhabitants.

PASCHAL, or Eaſter Iſland, is ſituated in the twenty-eighth degree thirty minutes north latitude, and is ſuppoſed to be in about the hundred and ſecond degree of weſt longitude from London; it received its name from commodore Roggewein, who diſcovered it on Eaſter-day 1722. The commodore, who had three ſhips with him, ſent the ſmalleſt to examine the country, which brought word that it ſeemed very fertile and well inhabited, and the next day an Indian came off to them in his canoe. They made ſigns to him to come on board, which he readily did, and was well received; for as he was naked, they gave him a piece of cloth, pieces of coral, beads, and other toys, all which he hung about his neck. His body was painted all over with a variety of figures; his natural complexion appeared to be a dark brown, and his ears were exceſſively large and long. He was tall, robuſt, and had an agreeable countenance: he was briſk, active, and lively. They gave him a glaſs of wine to drink, which he threw away in a manner that ſurprized them. They next clothed him from head to foot, with which he was diſpleaſed, and appeared aukward and uneaſy. They gave him victuals, but he could not be prevailed on to uſe either a knife or fork. As they found it impoſſible to come to an anchor that day, they reſolved to ſend him aſhore, allowing him to keep what he had got, in order to encourage others; but what is really ſurprizing, the poor creature had no mind to go, and they had much ado to get him into his canoe.

The next morning by break of day they entered a gulph, and many thouſand of the inhabitants came down to receive them, bringing with them vaſt quantities of fowls and roots, with which many came on board, while the reſt ran about on the ſhore. The next morning the Dutch prepared to land, when the friendly Indian who had been with them before came on board a ſecond time, bringing with him many of his countrymen, who, to make themſelves welcome, had loaded their canoes with plenty of live fowls, and roots dreſſed after their manner. Among them was a man perfectly white, in whoſe ears hung round white pendants as big as one's fiſt. He had an air extremely devout, and ſeemed to be one of their prieſts. An hundred and fifty Dutch ſeamen now landing, theſe innocent and inoffenſive people, probably filled with curioſity, crowded thick upon them, and ſome of them took hold of their arms; on which the Dutch thinking themſelves obliged to make way by force, had the raſhneſs and cruelty to fire upon them, by which means many of them were killed, and among them the friendly Indian who had been twice on board. This diſperſed the Indians, and frighted them almoſt out of their wits; yet in a few minutes they recovered from their aſtoniſhment and terror, and aſſembling again, did not approach nearer than ten yards, where they probably imagined they might be ſafe from the effects of that thunder and lightning they had ſeen diſcharged from the muſkets; yet howled and made diſmal lamentations. They now brought vaſt plenty of proviſions, and that they might leave no means untried to pacify their invaders, we are told, that both the men, women, and children ſoon came before them holding branches of palm in ſign of peace, and by the moſt humble poſtures expreſſed their deſire of mollifying theſe ſtrangers. They even ſhewed them their women, and made them underſtand that they were at their diſpoſal. The Dutch, ſoftened by theſe tokens of humility and deep ſubmiſſion, repented their raſhneſs, and, inſtead of doing them any farther harm, made them a preſent of a piece of painted cloth ſixty yards long; and of many beads, and ſmall looking-glaſſes, with which they were extremely pleaſed. As the Indians ſaw that the Dutch were now diſpoſed to treat them like friends, they brought them five hundred live fowl at once, like the barn-door fowls of Europe, with a great quantity of red and white roots, and potatoes, which theſe people uſe inſtead of bread. They alſo gave them ſome hundreds of ſugar-canes, and abundance of Indian figs, the pulp of which was as ſweet as honey. The Dutch ſaw in this iſland no other animals than birds of all ſorts; but thought it probable that in the heart of the country were cattle and beaſts of various kinds; becauſe when they ſhewed the Indians ſome hogs on board their ſhips, they let them know by ſigns that they had ſeen ſuch animals before.

Every tribe or family ſeemed to have a ſeparate village, compoſed of huts that were from forty to about ſixty feet long, in which they had few moveables, and thoſe of no great value, except ſome red and white coverlets that ſerved them when walking for cloaths, and when ſleeping for quilts: the ſtuff was as ſoft to the touch as ſilk, and to all appearance was of their own manufacture. They make uſe of earthen pots to dreſs their meat in, and have round their villages little plantations ſtaked out, and very neatly divided.

Nova Britannia, or New Britain, was for ſome time thought to be contiguous to New Guinea, till captain Dampier found it to be an iſland. It lies forty miles to the eaſtward of the eaſtermoſt part of New Guinea. The northermoſt point is in the ſecond degree thirty minutes north latitude, and the ſouthermoſt in the ſixth degree thirty minutes ſouth latitude, and it extends about five degrees ſixteen minutes in length; appearing to be for the moſt part high land mixed with valleys, and every where abounding with large and ſtately trees. The mountains and low lands are pleaſantly mixed with woodlands and ſavannas, and on the ſides of the hills are many large plantations of cleared lands. The country is well inhabited by a ſtrong well-limbed people, of a very dark complexion.

Round Nova Britannia are ſeveral ſmaller iſlands, ſome of them full of cocoa-nut trees, particularly on the north-eaſt ſide; among theſe are Gerret Dennis's iſle, which is about fourteen or fifteen leagues round, high, mountainous, and very woody; but the ſides of the hills are thick ſet with plantations, and the bays by the ſea-ſide well ſtored with cocoa-nut trees, intermixed with a few houſes.

This iſland is very populous, the natives are like the former, black, ſtrong, well-limbed, with large heads, and their hair, which curls naturally, is ſhaved into ſeveral forms, and dyed of various colours. They diſfigure themſelves by painting, and are repreſented as deforming their faces by thruſting ſomething through the noſe, which comes out on each ſide by the cheek bone. They have alſo great holes in their ears, ſtretched open by the ſame prepoſterous kind of fancied ornament as that in their noſes. Their weapons are chiefly lances, ſwords, ſlings, and ſome bows and arrows. They uſe proas, ſomewhat reſembling thoſe we have deſcribed in treating of the iſland of Tinian; but the ends, which ſerve for the head and ſtern, are higher than the reſt, and carved into many devices, as a fowl, a fiſh, or the head of a man; theſe they manage very dexterouſly with neat paddles.

Antony Cove's iſland, as it is called in the Dutch draughts, lies in the third degree twenty-five minutes ſouth latitude, and is a high land about four or five leagues round, very woody; it is full of plantations upon the ſides of the hills, and near the bays are abundance of cocoa-nut trees. On the ſouth-eaſt part of it are three or four ſmall woody iſlands, one riſing high, and others low and flat, all covered with cocoa-nut trees, and other wood. Theſe are all well inhabited. On the north is another iſland of an indifferent height, and a little larger than Anthony Cove's iſland. Some canoes from this laſt iſland came aboard captain Dampier's ſhip; they had proas made of one tree, the hollow part cut out, and had out-layers on each ſide; the ſhore was covered with men, who went along as he ſteered by the coaſt. To three of the natives who came aboard he gave each a knife,

a knife, a ſmall looking-glaſs, and a ſtring of beads. He ſhewed them pompions and cocoa-nut ſhells, making ſigns to them to bring ſome on board, and they gave him three cocoa nuts out of one of the canoes. He ſhewed them nutmegs, and by their ſigns he gueſſed they had ſome on the iſland. He alſo ſhewed them ſome gold duſt, which they ſeemed to be acquainted with, calling out, Maneel, maneel, and pointing toward the land.

The iſlands of Moa and Arimoa lie in the third degree of latitude. The latter is the biggeſt of the two, but they are both very well peopled, and abound with cocoa-nuts, Indian figs, and various kinds of roots. The inhabitants have a prodigious number of canoes, and go well armed with bows and arrows; and this is ſaid to be the caſe even of the women and children. Moa is not ſo populous as Arimoa, though both iſlands are equally pleaſant and fertile.

To the weſtward of the iſlands laſt deſcribed, the ſea is ſo very full of iſlands, that commodore Roggewein and his people finding it difficult, if not impoſſible, to count them, gave them the name of the Thouſand iſlands. The inhabitants are negroes, of a ſhort ſquat make, and their heads covered with thick curled hair. They all go naked, except having a kind of belt, adorned with what they eſteem ornaments, faſtened round their waiſt; only ſome of them have bracelets, and others wear on their heads a kind of light ſtraw-hats adorned with the feathers of the birds of Paradiſe. They are repreſented by commodore Roggewein as bold, miſchievous, and untractable. They are ſaid to have a bit of ſtick of the ſize of a tobacco-pipe, and of the length of one's finger, which they run through the griſtle of the noſe, and this they are ſaid to look upon as a means of making them appear fierce and terrible to their enemies.

The iſle of Recreation is in the ſixteenth degree of ſouth latitude, and about the hundred and forty-ſeventh degree of weſt longitude. It is about twelve leagues in extent, and extremely fertile, it producing great quantities of trees, but more eſpecially palms, cocoas, and iron-wood. The Dutch thought they had reaſon to believe, that in the heart of the country were rich mines. The inhabitants are of a middle ſize, robuſt, and active; they are warlike, and have the character of being very treacherous, eſpecially the women; for ſeizing an opportunity, they killed ſeveral Dutchmen. Their hair is black, long, and ſhining, which is chiefly owing to their anointing it with the oil of cocoas. They paint their bodies, like the natives of Paſch iſland, and the men faſten round the waiſt a kind of net-work, which they draw between their legs, and tuck up behind. But the women are covered with a kind of mantle of their own manufacture, which nearly reſembles ſilk, and on their necks and wriſts they wear ſtrings of pearls.

Bowman's iſlands are ſituated in the twelfth degree ſouth latitude, and in the hundred and fifty-ſecond degree weſt longitude from London. They appear very beautiful at a diſtance, are well planted with fruit-trees of all ſorts, and produce herbs, corn, and roots in great plenty; the land towards the coaſt being laid out in large and regular plantations. When commodore Roggewein approached theſe iſlands, the Indians, on ſeeing the ſhips, came in their boats, and brought them fiſh, cocoa-nuts, Indian figs, and other refreſhments; in return for which the Dutch gave them, as uſual, ſmall looking-glaſſes, ſtrings of beads, and other toys. They ſoon found that theſe iſlands were very populous; for many thouſand men and women, the former generally armed with bows and arrows, came down to the ſhore to look at them. Among the reſt they ſaw a majeſtic perſonage, who, from the dreſs he wore, and the honours that were paid him, they eaſily diſcovered to be the ſovereign of the nation. He ſtepped into a canoe, accompanied by a young woman who ſat cloſe by his ſide. His canoe was inſtantly ſurrounded by a vaſt number of other veſſels, that crowded about it, and ſeemed intended for a guard. All the inhabitants of theſe iſlands are whites, and of the ſame complexion as the Europeans, except their appearing ſun-burnt. They ſeem to be a very innocent and harmleſs people; they are briſk and lively, and treat each other with viſible marks of civility, diſcovering nothing wild or ſavage in their behaviour. Inſtead of ſhewing the marks of terror at the arrival of the Dutch, they expreſſed the utmoſt joy and ſatisfaction, treating them with a kindneſs and reſpect not to be deſcribed; they even ſhewed a deep concern, when they perceived that in ſpight of all their care to oblige and ſerve thoſe ſtrangers, they could not prevail on them to ſtay among them. Their bodies were not painted like thoſe of the other people the Dutch had ſeen before; but were handſomely cloathed from the girdle downwards, with a ſort of ſilk fringes, neatly folded. On their heads they wore hats of a handſome ſort of ſtuff, which were very large, in order to keep off the heat of the ſun, and about their necks they had ſtrings of beautiful odoriferous flowers. The land appeared exquiſitely charming, every one of the iſlands being agreeably diverſified with hills and valleys, and ſeemed as beautiful as imagination can paint. Some of theſe iſlands were ten, ſome fifteen, and others twenty miles in compaſs. Each family, or tribe, ſeemed to have its particular diſtrict, and to form a ſeparate government. The land in each was laid out in neat and regular plantations.

Between the fifteenth and ſixteenth degrees of ſouth latitude are four iſlands, each of them four or five leagues in compaſs, with a continued chain of ſteep rocks between them. Theſe iſlands are ſo cloſe together, that there is hardly room for a ſhip to paſs between them; and there one of commodore Roggewein's ſhips was loſt; whence the iſland on which it was wrecked was called Miſchievous iſland; the two next to it were named the Brothers, and the fourth the Siſter. All four were covered with a verdure inexpreſſibly charming, and abound with fine tall trees, eſpecially cocoas. The herbs were ſo refreſhing and ſalutary, that the ſhip's crew, many of whom were ill of the ſcurvy, were ſurpriſingly recovered by them. They likewiſe found there a prodigious plenty of cockles, muſcles, mother of pearl, and pearl oyſters. Theſe iſlands are extremely low, ſo that ſome parts of them muſt be frequently overflowed; but the inhabitants are well provided againſt ſuch accidents, ſince they have not only good canoes, but ſtout barks, with cables and ſails. The natives are ſaid to be of an extraordinary ſize; their bodies are painted of various colours, and they are armed with long pikes or lances.

Cocoa iſland lies in the ſixteenth degree ten minutes ſouth latitude, and had its name from its abounding extremely in cocoa trees. It is properly a high mountain; and two leagues to the ſouth of it is another long, but low iſland, to which Schouten, from the treachery of the inhabitants, gave the name of Traitors iſland. Each of them ſeems to be under the government of a particular chief, or king. Hope iſland is ſeated about fifty leagues to the weſt of theſe, and was thus called by the Dutch from their hoping to get freſh water there: but it being encompaſſed with rocks, againſt which the ſea beats with great fury, they could not land there. It produces cocoa and other trees. The iſland is covered with hills, and there were ſeen a large village, with ſeveral houſes on the coaſt.

Hoorn iſlands lie to the north-weſt in about the fourteenth degree of ſouth latitude. The inhabitants, who are of a yelloviſh brown complexion, are tall, luſty, ſtrong, well proportioned, ſwift of foot, and very expert at ſwimming and diving. They are very ingenious, and take a pride in adorning their hair. The women are, however, very homely, ill-ſhaped, and very ſhort: their breaſts are extremely diſagreeable, and hang, like leathern bags, down to their bellies; yet they are very laſcivious. Theſe people are governed by a king, or chief, to whom they ſeem to pay very great reſpect. They have no notion of trade, and though they gave the Dutch many hogs, and other proviſions, it proceeded merely from their humanity and good-nature; however, the Dutch proportioned the preſents they made them to the proviſions they received. Theſe people are ſaid neither to till, ſow, nor perform any other labour; but gather only what the earth ſpontaneouſly produces, as cocoa-nuts, and ſome other fruits.

Beſides the iſlands we have here mentioned, many others have been diſcovered, and a great number of them are ſcattered over the Pacific Ocean. To conclude, this great continent thus imperfectly diſcovered, and whoſe limits are unknown, with the numerous iſlands in this remote part of the globe, will, perhaps, in future ages become the ſettlements of ſome European or American power; and probably may in part become ſubject to Spaniſh America, if ever that ſhould be ſeparated from the dominions of Spain. Whenever that event, or any other of a like nature, takes place, may the lives, the liberties, the poſſeſſions, and the happineſs of the poor inhabitants be ſecured; and theſe now almoſt unknown parts of the earth unacquainted with the ravages, the murders, and deſolation that great part of America has ſuffered! Mean while this continent, and the numerous iſlands in the Pacific Ocean, remain a fund of geographical knowledge and of natural hiſtory, concealed from the view of Europe; but which new and more perfect diſcoveries will at length reveal.

The END of the SECOND VOLUME.

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SECOND VOLUME.

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